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THE ADMINISTRATION OF

The Modern Secondary School



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THE ADMINISTRATION OF

The Modern Secondary School

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Third Edition

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New York

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PREFACE

In 1941 a revision of *Secondary School Administration*, entitled *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, was published. The reception given it has been most generous and it has had wide use in higher institutions for the education of teachers. The book has also been added to the libraries of many school administrators, where it has served as a reference book on many practical problems. Since 1941 the literature on secondary education has increased abundantly and many new problems in secondary education have been identified. In order to include some of this literature in the suggested readings and to present new viewpoints on certain problems, this edition of our book has been prepared. The changes made in this edition include some new illustrations and revised questions and problems, as well as minor modifications in the treatment of certain topics. A new chapter has been added relating to the junior college, because of the growing interest in this field of education.

The scope of the book is indicated by its six major divisions: (1) The Changing American Secondary School, (2) Organization and Management of Secondary Schools, (3) Administration and Guidance of Pupil Personnel, (4) Providing for the Improvement of Instruction, (5) Problems of School Relationships, and (6) Practices in Small and Large Secondary Schools, and Trends in Secondary Education.

In this volume the secondary school is interpreted comprehensively to include all the units of secondary education. The treatment recognizes the extension of secondary education from the traditional four-year high school toward the junior high school on the one hand and the junior college on the other, and articulatory procedures are therefore stressed. The important differences in schools of varying sizes are discussed, and desirable adaptations to those differences are indicated. An intimate and long-standing acquaintance with the small high

school has made the authors appreciative of its significance in American secondary education, and of its many perplexing difficulties. Separate chapters deal with the problems peculiar to the large and to the small high school.

In an attempt to produce a teachable book and a helpful reference, the authors have presented brief but pointed accounts of numerous major problems with emphasis on practical applications and constructive suggestions. Each chapter has a series of questions and problems intended to stimulate discussion of significant facts and issues. The references at the end of each chapter have been selected especially to encourage extensive reading on particular topics and to meet the needs of advanced students.

The Administration of the Modern Secondary School has been prepared to serve both as a guide and reference for school administrators and as a textbook for classes in colleges and universities. In the latter field, it is designed primarily for courses in the organization and administration of secondary schools, including courses for prospective high school teachers who need an understanding of the issues and the practices discussed.

The authors are indebted to the users of the book for constructive criticisms, account of which has been taken in this revision. Indebtedness is also acknowledged to various authors, organizations, and publishers, for permission to use quoted material and illustrations.

J. B. EDMONSON
JOSEPH ROEMER
FRANCIS L. BACON

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DIVISION ONE

The Changing American Secondary School

Chapter I. TRACING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL

The Struggle for Universal Secondary Education

The basic principle of free secondary education for all youth at public expense has gained substantial recognition in the United States, after a long period of struggle. Outspoken criticisms of this basic principle are now very rare. At present, the free public high school is taken for granted by the most of our citizens, who do not know the history of its development. In fact, relatively few citizens remember or have reviewed the pros and cons of the issue of high school education for all youth. It should be realized, however, that the free high school for all youth was not a part of our natural inheritance, like the soil, the forests, or the mines, but an ideal that was realized only after many hard-fought struggles.

One of the finest tributes to those who laid the early foundations of American education is given in a report of the Educational Policies Commission:

> Distinguished founders of the Republic deemed education indispensable to the perpetuity of the nation, to the realization of its ideals, and to the smooth functioning of American society. Under the impetus of this deep conviction, they explored the nature of education, made plans, and urged the establishment of institutions of learning appropriate to the American setting. . . . In so doing they displayed profound insight into the forces requisite to the creation and operation of a great society. They did more. They set an impressive example to all those of succeeding generations who are called upon to make constructive efforts in education on a large scale and under grand conceptions of public policy. They demonstrated for all time that education is an enterprise worthy of the highest talents, inviting the boldest thought, and forever linked with the cultural destiny of the nation.[1]

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Functions of Education in American Democracy*, p. 67. Washington, National Education Association, 1937.

Three Historical Periods of the Secondary School

The three-hundredth anniversary of the high school. In 1935, the three-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the first secondary school on American soil was observed. This first permanent school, a Latin grammar school founded in Boston in 1635, still flourishes in a modern building on a new site.

The fact that secondary education in America was three hundred years old came as a surprise to many citizens, and the observance of the anniversary served to strengthen the conviction that the American high school has been, and will doubtless continue to be, our nation's most important social institution for youth. Special programs in commemoration of the anniversary were provided in the schools of hundreds of towns and cities, and state and national organizations of teachers sponsored appropriate programs. The tercentenary celebration was planned by a committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, with Calvin O. Davis of the University of Michigan as chairman. In commenting on the tercentenary of the high school, Davis said:

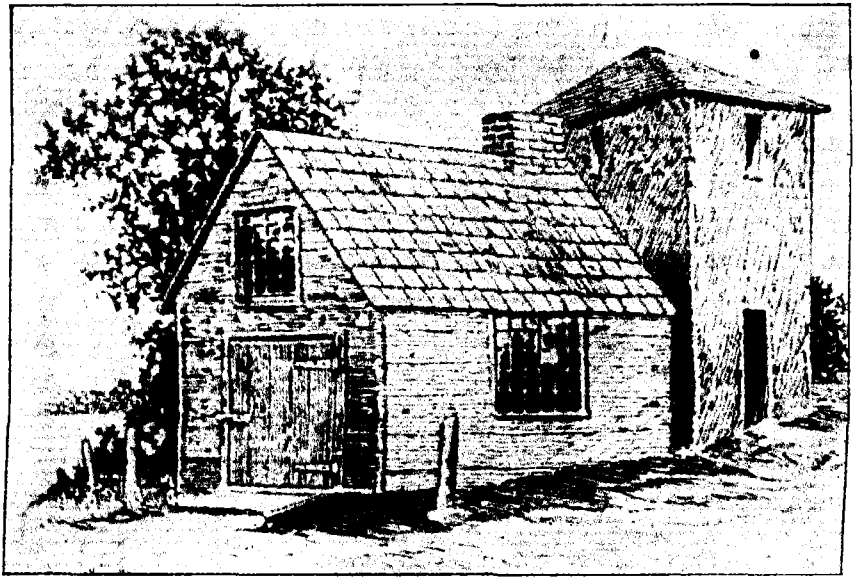
> There was some confusion caused by the slogan, 300 Years of American High School, and by references to the High School Tercentenary. The reason, of course, was that the first school for those of adolescent age which bore the name High School, was not founded until 1821. This was English High School, a companion to Boston Latin School. Nevertheless, the term High School has the common meaning today of a school for students between the ages of twelve and twenty, a school beyond the elementary grade, meant to prepare for adult pursuits; in other words, a type like the Boston Latin School. Educators have agreed to call such a school a secondary school. Unfortunately, the public has little notion of the meaning of this term. They are familiar with high schools, but secondary schools sound foreign to them. Naturally, it was necessary to consider the public, even at the cost of a technical inaccuracy.[1]

The establishment of the Boston Latin School in 1635 marked the first period in the history of American secondary education. This period of the Latin grammar school extends to about 1750.

[1] Calvin O. Davis, "Celebrating the Tercentenary," *Scholastic*, XXVI (February, 1935), 10, 12.

The second historical period, known as the period of the academy, extended from 1750 to the end of the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The third period is known as the period of the public high school. The first high school, called "The English Classical School," was established in Boston in 1821.

Of course, the periods of these three types of secondary schools overlap to a considerable degree. Some Latin grammar



A famous pioneer school, established in 1649 at Dedham, Mass. It is said to be the first school supported by public taxation. (From Edmonson and Dondineau, *Civics through Problems*, The Macmillan Company, 1935, courtesy National Education Association.)

schools persisted long after the academies had become very common, and many academies continued long after the public high school had become the prevailing type. In fact, there are in operation today some academies that can trace their history to dates prior to the establishment of the first public high school.

The Latin grammar school. The Latin grammar school established in Boston was modeled on the Latin grammar schools of England. Schools of this type soon became the dominant institutions for secondary education in the colonies.

Their aim was preparation for college, and their curriculums were restricted largely to the study of Latin and Greek. Since the colleges of the colonial period were primarily concerned with educating men for the ministry and the law, the Latin grammar school was not designed to provide education for any considerable number of boys. Girls were excluded from Latin grammar schools as well as from the colleges.

The Latin grammar schools may be considered public institutions, since they were usually established and directed by the towns and were designed for the education of local boys. It cannot be claimed that the schools were popular institutions; their highly restricted objective prevented that. But they did serve to keep alive the zeal for higher education among a people who were busy with the arduous task of establishing new homes in a new country. The main characteristics of the Latin grammar schools may be summarized as follows:

1. They were established by the towns under colonial law and theoretically they were free, although fees were usually paid by all except the pupils from the poorest families.
2. Most of the pupils expected to go to college.
3. The curriculum was composed for the most part of Latin and Greek.
4. They were dominated by the spirit of the colleges rather than by the desires and needs of the people at large.
5. Since the schools were established to prepare young men for service in the church and the commonwealth, the religious spirit in them was very strong.
6. They were usually small schools, with a staff of one or two teachers.
7. The chief local support came from those citizens who intended to send their sons to college in England or in the colonies.

The academy. The academy, like the Latin grammar school, had its roots in England, where it was the product of religious nonconformity. Under the leadership of Benjamin Franklin, the first academy in America was established in Philadelphia in 1749. Franklin's Academy, which represented

a departure from the classical program of the Latin grammar school, later evolved into the University of Pennsylvania. One of its distinguishing characteristics was its emphasis on practical courses, especially those desired by boys interested in other professions than law and the ministry.

The academy movement grew very rapidly and acquired a firm hold in the states of the Atlantic seaboard. Academies for girls also developed. In general, the academies were private schools, supported by tuition fees and grants of money from the locality. Many were established by religious denominations. The academies were not secondary schools for all pupils, as they drew their students from those families who could pay tuition charges.

The academy had a profound influence on the development of educational opportunities for women and may rightly be credited with starting the movement for higher education for women in the United States. From the academy developed our present normal schools and teachers colleges, as well as many of our liberal arts colleges.

The public high school.[1] The third type of secondary school to develop in America was the public high school, which came into existence to meet certain needs not adequately filled by the academies or the Latin grammar schools. The dominating influence in the beginning seems to have been a desire to furnish children, at public expense, with increased educational advantages above the level of the existing elementary schools.

In May, 1821, the first of these new schools was opened (in Boston) under the name of the English Classical School. The name "high school," which has since identified itself with public secondary education, first appeared three years later when this school was renamed the English High School.

The important characteristics of the high school were:

1. Decreased attention to the classics and a new emphasis on the study of English.

[1] George L. Jackson, "The Story of the High School," *Scholastic*, XXVI (February 23, 1935), 17–27.

2. The objective, as in the academy, of preparing youth to enter some form of vocation.

3. A three-year course of study.

4. The exclusion of girls, as in the Latin grammar school.

5. The admission of boys at the age of twelve, instead of at nine as practiced in the Latin grammar school.

6. Articulation with the common schools of the city, instead of overlapping with them as in the case of the Latin grammar school.

The free public high school seemed to meet the needs of a democratic society, and the institution therefore grew, slowly at first, but with amazing rapidity after its usefulness was demonstrated. The period of greatest expansion of the high school enrollment has been in the past quarter of a century.

Establishing the legal status of the high school. Massachusetts was the first state to take action to legalize the high school. In 1827, that state passed the famous Massachusetts Law, which required communities of a certain size to provide the equivalent of high school instruction. This legislation led several other states to legalize the support of the high school. However, for many years after high schools were generally established many citizens doubted the constitutional right of a community to levy taxes for the support of education beyond the elementary school. This legal issue was finally settled by the Supreme Court of Michigan in the famous Kalamazoo case. In that case some citizens of Kalamazoo, Michigan, claimed that there was no legal authority in the state to maintain a free high school supported by taxes levied on the people at large. The Supreme Court of Michigan, however, denied the validity of the views of the objectors and declared:

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

The far-reaching influence of the decision, which was made

July 21, 1874, is demonstrated by the fact that it has been cited in numerous later Michigan decisions as well as in the supreme courts of Wisconsin, Maine, South Dakota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Louisiana, and Florida.

In commenting on this case, Cubberley says that it had a main influence in determining the status of the public high school in all of the central and western states. He further expresses the opinion that the decision was an important mile-stone in the establishment of the American public high school.[1]

Selected Reports of Historical Significance

National reports on the high school. While education in the United States is a state function, its objectives, organization, and procedures have been largely influenced by reports of certain national committees, especially those concerned with the high school. These committees have usually represented national organizations within the teaching profession, and while their recommendations have lacked the authority of a governmental pronouncement, it is apparent that several of the committees have exerted a profound influence on the development of the high school. Among the more important earlier committees were the Committee of Ten (1892), the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), the Committee on Economy of Time (1905–1913), the Committee on the Articulation of High School and College (1911–1912), and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1912–1922). In the past decade, more than a score of significant committees and commissions have made reports relating to the secondary school.

The report of the Committee of Ten. In 1892, the National Education Association appointed the Committee of Ten to study the program of the high school, with special reference to the problem of college and high school relationships. In its report, the committee declared that the high

[1] Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (revised), pp. 263–64. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

school was not and should not be a college preparatory institution exclusively, since the majority of students were not planning to enter college. The committee declared, however, that adequate training should be provided for those interested in preparing for the first year of college; and to further this objective they proposed a grouping of studies with a marked degree of emphasis on instruction in mathematics and the foreign languages. The committee did not advocate that all subjects be given on the basis of five periods per week, but suggested variations, with classes meeting three, four, or five periods per week. The report defended the older doctrine of transfer of training and urged that a course of instruction in the classics and mathematics furnished good training for all students, regardless of their interest in further work in a higher institution. The report had a very wide influence on the development of the high school.

The report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements. In 1899, a second national committee created by the National Education Association made its report. The chief function of this committee, sometimes called the "Committee of Thirteen," was to make more effective the recommendations of the Committee of Ten. The report represented an effort to do three things:

1. To indicate what subjects may rightly be regarded as constituting satisfactory preparatory work for entrance to college.
2. To indicate what subjects and how much of each should be required of all candidates for admission to college, leaving a certain number of electives.
3. To indicate in terms of "units" what part, and how much, of each accepted subject might be regarded as constituting a first, second, third, and fourth year of high school work.

The committee recommended strongly that there be a certain number of constants in all secondary schools and in all requirements for admission to college. However, there was no attempt to prescribe fully either the high school program or the entrance requirements of the college.

The report of the committee tended to promote uniformity

in instruction in all high schools and to increase the emphasis on college preparation as the major objective of the high school.

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. In 1912, the National Education Association authorized "The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," which was to undertake the task its name suggests.

The commission was the direct outgrowth of the work of a Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, which had submitted its report to the National Education Association in 1911. That committee had set forth briefly its conception of the function of secondary education and had urged the modification of college entrance requirements in order that the secondary school might adapt its work to the varying needs of its students without closing to them the possibility of continued education in higher institutions. It took the position that the satisfactory completion of any well-planned high school curriculum should be accepted as a preparation for college. This recommendation accentuated the responsibility of the secondary school for planning its work so that young people could meet the needs of democracy.

The National Education Association created the Commission on Reorganization to further this recommendation. The work of the commission exerted a profound influence on the high school through its numerous reports, one of which was called the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* This report, published in 1918, presented the Commission's view on the objectives of education, and gave a summary of principles for the reorganization of school systems. It has been one of the most widely used educational reports ever published by the United States Office of Education.

The views of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education were expressed in 1918 as follows:

> We, therefore, recommend a reorganization of the school system whereby the first six years shall be devoted to elementary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 6 to 12 years

of age; and the second six years to secondary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 12 to 18 years of age.

We recommend that secondary schools admit, and provide suitable instruction for, all pupils who are in any respect so mature that they would derive more benefit from the secondary school than from the elementary school.

This commission holds that education should be so reorganized that every normal boy and girl will be encouraged to remain in school to the age of 18, on full time if possible, otherwise on part time.[1]

Ever since the publication of *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, the efforts of leaders have been concentrated on carrying out the recommendations it set forth, and many of the present reform movements in secondary education may be traced to the influence of this remarkable bulletin.

Changing the Traditional Pattern of School Organization

The relation of the high school to the elementary school. The division of the system of education in the United States into administrative units is largely a matter of chance. The prevailing pattern is an eight-year elementary school, a four-year high school, and a four-year college. The fact that this common pattern has not always obtained in this country, and the fact that educational systems in other lands differ radically, suggests that a sharp cleavage between the units cannot be justified. It also suggests that changes may occur in the number of years assigned to a unit, as, indeed, they have already. Among the existing departures from the traditional 8–4 plan for elementary and secondary education are the 6–6 plan, the 6–3–3 plan, the 6–2–4 plan, and the 7–5 plan. These plans have been further modified in some communities by the addition of one or two years of college work to make a total of thirteen or fourteen years of schooling. It may be said that the high school was added to the elementary school. The elementary school had gradually become an eight-year school and the high school developed as a four-year school. This gave us the 8–4 system which for a long period has been the common type

[1] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 18, 19, and 30. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Washington, Government Printing Office.

of organization of schools. In some localities, especially New England, the elementary school comprised nine grades. In some parts of the South, the elementary school provided seven grades. In general, however, it may be said that the eight-year elementary school has been the prevailing type in America.

The nature of, and reasons for, the junior high school movement. Since the first decade of the present century, the traditional plan of eight elementary and four secondary grades has been giving way to a new plan of six elementary and six secondary school grades. The six-year secondary school has in many school systems been subdivided into a junior high school of two or three years and a senior high school of three or four years. The junior high school may be defined as a unit of our public school system commonly consisting of grades seven, eight, and nine, organized and administered as a separate unit of the school system, having its own administrative head and corps of teachers, and characterized by flexible promotion, provisions for exploration, provisions for individual differences of pupils, and limited choice of elective subjects during the later semesters of the course.

The junior high school is of recent origin. It is one of the outcomes of a reorganization movement that began as a protest against the long period of elementary schooling followed by a four-year period of secondary school work. This movement was set in motion in the year 1888 by President Charles Eliot of Harvard University in an address before the National Education Association. President Eliot pointed out that: (1) for the past 60 years the average age of college admission had steadily risen, (2) the period beyond college graduation required for professional training had lengthened to three or four years, and (3) it would be desirable to condense school courses to gain time and to increase the efficiency of instruction.

President Eliot stated that it would be possible to gain time and increase instructional efficiency by: (1) improving the teaching force of the schools through a better tenure of office, (2) raising the proportion of male teachers in the schools, (3) making school programs substantial and interesting,

(4) diminishing the number of reviews, (5) developing means that will ensure a normal rate of promotion from grade to grade, and (6) securing a longer school day and school term.

President Eliot's address revealed some of the deficiencies in public education as organized in 1888. The resulting reorganization movement was designed to correct them.

About 1913, a committee of the faculty of the University of Michigan drew up a set of resolutions that were adopted at the University and later approved by the Board of Regents of that institution, the first two resolutions being:

1. That school authorities be encouraged to incorporate the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school as an integral part of the high school system, forming a six-year system.
2. That school authorities be recommended to organize the six-year high school system into a Junior High School of three years and a Senior High School of three years as soon as local conditions will admit.[1]

It would appear, from a study of the literature relating to the junior high school, that the new unit was expected to offer a solution for numerous ills recognized in the upper grades of the old elementary school.

A contributing cause for the spread of the junior high school plan was to be found in the growing feeling among educational leaders and the public alike that there was nothing sacred about the eight-year elementary school. It had been shown by authorities that the eight-year school developed more or less by chance. It had been pointed out that its growth was influenced by the desire to follow the pattern of the Prussian system of common schools. It had also been demonstrated in the school system in Kansas City, Missouri, in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools, and in certain of the systems in the southern states, that a seven-year elementary school could furnish adequate preparation for the high school. Faith in the 8–4 plan had been shaken and, as a result, interest in the junior high school idea increased.

Among the more important reasons for the general accept-

[1] *Proceedings of the Board of Regents, University of Michigan*, 1910–1914, p. 1021.

ance of the junior high school plan were: (1) the desire of educational authorities to make available a more varied program of instruction for the students of the seventh and eighth grades, and (2) the growing opinion that the gulf between elementary school and the secondary school could be bridged by the junior high school. Other contributing factors in certain localities were: (1) the demand for the erection of a new type of school building to relieve the congestion due to large enrollments in both the high school and the elementary school, and (2) the desire to reduce the number of students in the high school building in order to make a place for a junior college. However, these contributing factors, being local in character, had not the fundamental significance of the main causes.

The period of reorganization of secondary education. Since about 1910, the reorganization of secondary education has been going forward very rapidly and we are now in the midst of changes that may have far-reaching significance. The reorganization movement really started before 1910. Its initiation may be traced to influences that were felt as early as the last decade of the nineteenth century, and the movement may represent the beginning of a new period in the history of secondary education in America. The name of this fourth period cannot be said to have been definitely settled. For the purpose of our discussion, it may be called the period of Reorganization of Secondary Education.

The period has been characterized by such movements as are presented in the following statements:

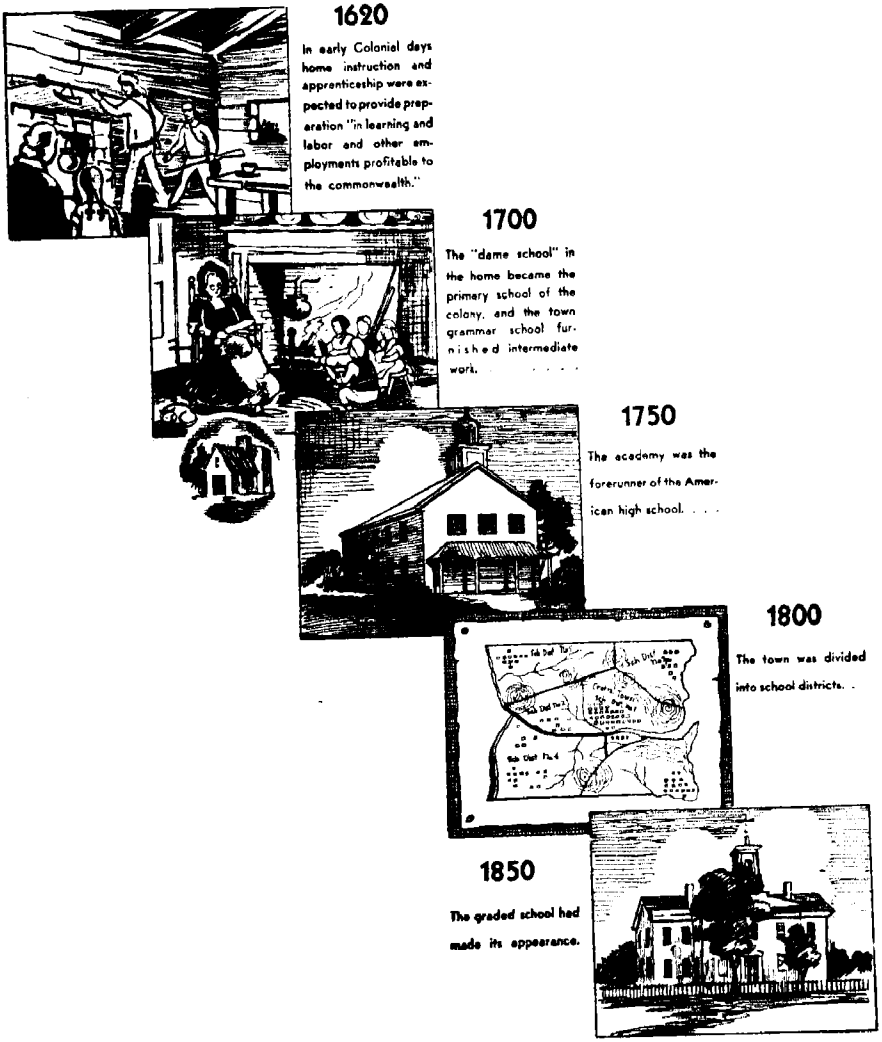
1. There has been a trend toward diversity in secondary education with the resulting development of many new types of secondary schools.

2. The broadening of the curriculum has gone forward at an amazing rate, and broader objectives have been defined for the secondary school.

3. New relations have developed between the traditional high school and the elementary school, and efforts have been made to promote more effective articulation between these units.

ORGANIZED EDUCATION

Its Evolution from Colonial Days



From *To Promote the Cause of Education*, p. 8, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1938, No. 2.

4. New teaching procedures have been introduced, and many experiments and techniques have been tried.

5. Increased concern for meeting the needs of the community that supports the secondary school has developed, leading to many departures from ordinary practice.

The first national study of the secondary school. The first nation-wide study of the secondary schools of the United States was undertaken in 1929, more than a hundred years after the founding of the first public high school. It was made possible by an act of Congress in February, 1929, which authorized a three-year Survey of Secondary Education in the United States to be conducted by the United States Office of Education. Under the provisions of the appropriation measure, the survey was to be "of the organization, administration, financing, and work of secondary schools and of their articulation with elementary and higher education." Its total cost, as authorized, was not to exceed $225,000.

The administrative organization of the survey was set up with the Commissioner of Education, William John Cooper, as director, but immediate direction of the Survey was assigned to Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, who was designated as associate director. Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education in the Office of Education, was assigned to the position of coordinator.

The plans outlined for the survey included an advisory committee of nine, known as the Board of Consultants.[1] Other committees of the profession assisted in the survey, and a

[1] The membership, with their official positions in 1929, was as follows:

H. V. Church, superintendent, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois,
Ellwood P. Cubberley, dean, School of Education, Leland Stanford University,
James B. Edmonson, dean, School of Education, University of Michigan,
Charles H. Judd, dean, School of Education, University of Chicago,
Charles R. Mann, director, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.,
A. B. Meredith, professor of education, School of Education, New York University,
John K. Norton, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University,
Joseph Roemer, director of instruction, Junior College Demonstration School, George Peabody College for Teachers,
William F. Russell, dean, Teachers College, Columbia University.

complete list of the members of these committees may be found in the published reports of the survey.

The survey was a thoroughly cooperative enterprise, whose scope extended to four main divisions: (1) the organization of schools and districts; (2) the secondary school population; (3) administrative and supervisory problems, personnel, and activities; and (4) the curriculum and related problems.

The various projects were reported in a series of 28 monographs published by the government, the whole report of the survey being designated as U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. The titles of several of these monographs are: *The Smaller Secondary School; The Reorganization of Secondary Education; Provision for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion; The Secondary-School Library; The Program of Studies;* and *Nonathletic Extra-Curriculum Activities.* In the chapters in this book, frequent reference will be made to the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

National planning for secondary schools. The upsweep in secondary school enrollment and the emergency demands of the depression period combined to emphasize, as never before, the need for a national design in secondary education. This need was recognized by the Educational Policies Commission and following several years of study and preparation the Commission issued in 1944 the report, *Education for All American Youth.* The leading secondary school organizations and a large number of distinguished educators participated in the making of the report. It was a remarkable demonstration of cooperative thinking and working on a national scale under the general purpose of setting forth some guiding principles for universal education.

The document indicated clearly enough the directions in which secondary education should go, but these directions were gathered into a dramatically designed whole from significant happenings and points of promise selected from various parts of the country. The Commission presented, not a Utopia, but rather a synthesis of the most forward-looking of the current practices, and for the first time the best of theory and of practice

was worked into a design geared to the needs and capacities of all of the nation's youth.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Educational Policies Commission jointly published a companion volume to *Education for All American Youth* entitled *Planning for American Youth.* The latter publication presented the main theses of *Education for All American Youth* in graphic charts and tables with semi-popular descriptions and explanations. These two publications have received the largest distribution of professional educational material in secondary school history.

Other evidences of the increased interest in the place and development of secondary education came in the form of a number of distinctive reports by college faculties. Of these the Harvard Report on General Education received the most attention by reason of its significant treatment of secondary education.

Diversity in high school organization. The great extension of secondary education during the past few decades has been one of the most amazing developments in American history. Before 1900, all high schools were much alike; their curriculums were practically identical. During the last 40 years, there has developed an increasing diversity in curriculum offerings and in types of organization. The reorganization movement accounts for much of this diversity.

The diversity in high school organization has resulted in several fairly distinct types of secondary schools. The original secondary school contained within its organization all that constituted the secondary education of its day. In time, there came into being certain schools that emphasized particularly some one phase of secondary education. Schools thus operating have been designated as the specialized type. The classical or college preparatory school, the high school of commerce, the technical high school, the high school of practical arts, the manual training high school are all examples of the specialized type. Obviously, these schools present peculiar problems in organization and methods of administration. In proportion to

the usual comprehensive type, the number of specialized schools is exceedingly small.

Comprehensive high schools. The modern interpretation of the comprehensive high school is that it should contain all of the various phases of secondary education which might be suggested as possibilities for the specialized types. Its advocates take the position that there should be thorough democratization of the school in all of its aspects, and that this function can be truly performed only through the solidarity presented by the comprehensive type.

The adherents of the specialized type insist that the present age of specialization calls for an efficiency in specialized training that cannot be properly obtained except through the emphasis created by isolation. The most apparent weakness of the specialized schools lies in the tendency to become less specialized and more general. Over a period of a few years, most specialized schools tend to become increasingly comprehensive in response to the needs manifested by the students.

Trade schools. One type of the specialized school has become somewhat fixed as the industrial or trade school, for which there seems to be a real need. There is in every large community a considerable number of boys who can profit best by an education that simulates, to the largest possible degree, the actual conditions of industry. Some experience would seem to indicate that the specialized trade school can best perform its functions as a separate school since its day is preferably of 8 hours, its periods often 3 or more hours in length, and its class methods largely different from those commonly used in the comprehensive school.

The segregated school. In a few large cities, there has been developed the segregated high school with the division of the sexes as the distinctive feature. The reasons presented are those generally offered against coeducation. The organization of the segregated school differs in no important respect from that of the comprehensive type. The increased expense and the difficulties of transportation are sufficient obstacles to prevent any marked extension of the segregated type.

The continuation school. Through the desire to extend the benefits of secondary education to as many youths of high school age as possible, a type known as the continuation school has been developed. For the most part, it consists of an organization which is an adjunct of the regular high school. It serves pupils who are working at regular jobs on a part-time basis. Ideally, these pupils are organized in separate classes to do work that is especially adjusted to their particular needs. So far as time and opportunity will allow, they can well be treated as a definite unit within the comprehensive school.

A variation of the continuation type is the part-time or cooperative school, in which students spend equal periods of time in school and at work. In some schools, students are paired. One student is in school for a definite period, say two weeks, while the other is at work outside of school for the same period. In other schools, a modification of this plan is followed.

The junior college. Another development of reorganization is the junior college as a type of secondary school. Junior colleges are sometimes found as entirely separated institutions, but many of them, especially the public junior colleges, are closely affiliated units of the existing high schools. Generally they are organized as two-year colleges attached to the high school organizations through the medium of common use of the physical facilities. The junior college may eventually be organized and administered as an integral part of a comprehensive unit of the five or six highest grades of the secondary school. The last three grades, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen, are being treated in some instances as a unit within the larger organization. In some school systems, a six-year elementary school is followed by a four-year intermediate school and an upper four-year unit including grades ten to fourteen.

Some of the results of the reorganization. It would require a long chapter to set forth the major results of the reorganization movement in American secondary education. Some account of these results will be presented in succeeding chapters of this book. The fact that these changes have been many and of major importance is suggested in the following

statement, which might be entitled "Then and Now in American Secondary Schools."

1. *Then* the controlling objective of the high school was the preparation of pupils for the liberal arts college.
   Now the high school recognizes the necessity of providing for the needs of all youth of a community — the noncollege as well as the college preparatory, the slow learners as well as the bright.
2. *Then* high school students were drawn largely from the homes of the more prosperous and more cultured social and economic groups of a community.
   Now all social and economic groups are represented by students in the typical high school, and all classes of homes are represented in graduating classes.
3. *Then* the holding power of the high school was so low that only a small percentage of the entering students remained until graduation.
   Now a large percentage remain in school until graduation.
4. *Then* the program of studies consisted largely of a limited number of units in the older academic fields.
   Now the program of studies consists of units in a variety of academic, vocational, and avocational fields.
5. *Then* the participation of students in athletics, school journalism, school clubs, dramatics, and social life was grudgingly tolerated.
   Now such participation is strongly encouraged for all students.
6. *Then* the discipline was usually characterized by teacher domination, with emphasis on repression of student interests, strict observance of rules, and severe penalties for misconduct.
   Now the discipline is characterized by student-teacher cooperation, with emphasis on school citizenship, good sportsmanship, and the rewards of good conduct.
7. *Then* only a few of the students of low scholastic ability continued in high school beyond the first year.
   Now it is estimated that about one fourth of the stu-

dents beyond the first year should be classified as slow learners.

8. *Then* the guidance of students was not recognized as a major responsibility of the high school.
   Now the guidance of students is recognized as a task of major importance, and many schools have very complete guidance programs.
9. *Then* the gulf between the eighth grade and the ninth grade was very wide.
   Now the unity of the school system is emphasized through the newer types of school organization and by certain administrative policies.
10. *Then* the typical high school building consisted of one or more study halls, several classrooms of uniform size, and a small laboratory.
    Now the typical building has an auditorium, a gymnasium, a library, a shop, several laboratories, many special rooms, and a variety of classrooms.
11. *Then* the prevailing type of local school organization was the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school.
    Now a six-year secondary school, a three-year junior high school, and a three-year senior high school is a favored pattern of local school organization.
12. *Then* the demands on the high school were relatively few and easily satisfied.
    Now the demands on the high school are so varied and extensive, and are multiplying so rapidly, that it is extremely difficult to satisfy them.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Why would the Latin grammar school and the academy be unsatisfactory educational agencies for the present period?
2. To what extent is it an error to declare that secondary education is now free to all youth?
3. From the statements in the chapter relative to the work of national committees, what would you consider to be the major problems facing secondary education?

4. In what respects has secondary education made significant progress during the last 30 years?

5. What evidence can you submit that democracy needs a generous program of education for all youth?

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Chapter II. AIMS AND FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The Importance of Considering Aims and Functions of Secondary Education

Administrators in charge of modern secondary schools must be guided by a clear perception of the aims and functions that are sound from the point of view of the student and of society. The duty of the secondary school is to provide experiences and sources of information that will lead to the fullest development of students as individuals, both in their adolescent years and in adult life. Before this can be accomplished, those in charge of the institution must determine as accurately as possible the present and probable future needs of students. These needs should be translated into the significant general aims and the more specific functions of the school, whose program should be directed toward performance of these functions and attainment of these aims. By encouraging the maximum development of its students, the school contributes to the welfare and progress of society through improving the quality of participation in social situations.

The Secondary School and the Changing Social Scene

Industrial and economic influences. The industrial revolution has had its largest and most significant effect in America. It has had profound effect on the public school system, particularly at the secondary school level.

The tendency to urbanize the population, the higher standards of living, the change from hand to machine labor, the development of mass production, the centralization of capital and corporate power, the perfecting of transportation facilities, and the application of specialized business techniques have all

THE UNIQUE FUNCTION OF EDUCATION

The American Society which education aids in maintaining and improving is by declaration, profession, and institutional organization a democratic society.

The Future of democracy is challenged in quarters by no means obscure or negligible in the United States. For educational leadership to ignore that fact is to cast off the mandate of eternal vigilance and accept the facile optimism that paralyzes preventive measures.

Education nourishes the underlying values upon which State and Society depend for existence - values which outlast transformations in the working rules of government and economy, and offer promise of humane reconstruction in time of crisis and threatened dissolution.

The fundamental laws of each state and of the United States guarantee the freedom of inquiry which education is under obligation to cherish. American society is not one in which the problems of government, economy, and social living have been solved for all time, leaving to education the simple function of disseminating fixed doctrines and the knowledge of the practical arts. It is a society which confronts basic issues at home and in foreign relations, even the fundamental issue of preserving the democratic processes themselves.

Any conception of education that ignores this critical situation is false to its trust. And the effort of the schools to deal with it constructively lifts educational leadership out of the routine of pedagogy into the realm of bold and creative thinking.

ADAPTED FROM
THE UNIQUE FUNCTION OF EDUCATION IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY
by the EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

This poster is Number One of a series presenting basic policies for American education.
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vitally affected American life. Society is far from static in any of its phases. Large demands for adjustment have been made on the school. With a civilization constantly in transition, the school will be required to make continued readjustment to changing social and economic life.

Home and family life. The home has always been, and is still, the institution to which school systems must give first consideration. In fact, the home was the first school. It was there that academic, as well as moral and ethical, education was secured.

As the duties of the home increased with the growing complexity of living conditions, the school came into being as a separate organization, taking over those duties not belonging especially to the church and gradually relieving the home almost entirely of the burden of educating the youth. The school now finds itself with ever-increasing responsibility as it continues to lower the age of admission and is charged with the task of turning out the better trained, more efficient citizen demanded in this age of changing ideals. These demands are steadily growing and doubtless will continue to do so.

Community life. The character of education is distinctly affected by community life, whose influence is exerted in the following ways:

1. Population has been shifting to the cities so that our population is now more than 50 per cent urban. The moral and civic responsibilities of life are less evident to the rural individual after he becomes a city dweller. He then tends to think of himself as being independent of the social unit. Schools are trying to adjust their curriculums to meet this challenge.

2. The personnel of the community is constantly changing with improved facilities in transportation and changes in the labor market. This shifting of people from one community to another has an important influence on the educational needs of youth.

Recent changes. Recent social changes make it imperative that the programs of secondary schools be adapted to the

needs and interests of youth in present-day society. The home and the church are no longer as effective as they once were in serving the educational development of young people. Such agencies as the radio and the movies, and an increase in the reading of current periodicals, have forced secondary schools to assume many new obligations.

Accompanying these changes has been an amazing increase of enrollments in secondary schools. During the past 50 years, secondary school enrollments have increased more than thirty-fold — a record that has never been equaled by any other country at any time in the history of the world. Almost all of the 203,000 pupils enrolled in secondary schools in 1890 planned to attend college, and they constituted a rather homogeneous group. But now a wide range of individual abilities, needs, and interests is presented by those attending high schools in the United States. In this group, which totals more than 6,000,000 boys and girls in grades nine to twelve, probably six of every seven will never attend college.

Economic developments of recent years foreshadow a situation in which the secondary schools will be forced to extend their programs still further. The abolition of child labor, the raising of the minimum age at which boys and girls may be gainfully employed, and technological advances call for new adjustments on the part of secondary schools. The unemployment of youth bids fair to become a permanent characteristic of our society. For most of the boys and girls who cannot find employment, the most profitable course is to continue their education. A few states have already enacted laws extending to eighteen years the age of compulsory attendance at school.

The great part that secondary education has come to play in American life, the large number of boys and girls served by the secondary schools, and the large sums of money spent each year for secondary education have all emphasized the importance of setting up aims and functions for the schools that will serve as the basis for a sound program of education. Therefore, summaries of several statements will be presented.

Aims of Secondary Education

As long as the tradition of individualism dominated American society, the aims of secondary education reflected the individualistic philosophy. Individualism was a characteristic of frontier society in which group consciousness and cooperative endeavor played little part. The aims were focused on the welfare and success of the individual. They were to be attained by individual effort rather than through group cooperation. They assumed that what was good for the individual was also in the best interest of society as a whole.

The "Cardinal Principles" report. The first outstanding statement of the aims of secondary education was the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* [1] published in 1918. This statement was much ahead of the educational philosophy of its time and provided the groundwork for much pioneer work in secondary education. The seven aims of secondary education which it listed are: (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.

The goal of education in a democracy was described in the report as follows:

> Education in the United States should be guided by a clear conception of the meaning of democracy. It is the ideal of democracy that the individual and society may find fulfillment each in the other. Democracy sanctions neither the exploitation of the individual by society, nor the disregard of the interests of society by the individual. More explicitly —
>
> *The purpose of democracy is so to organize society that each member may develop his personality primarily through activities designed for the well-being of his fellow members and of society as a whole.*
>
> This ideal demands that human activities be placed upon a high level of efficiency; that to this efficiency be added an appreciation of the significance of these activities and loyalty to the best ideals involved; and that the individual choose that vocation and those forms of social service in which his personality may develop and become

[1] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Washington, Government Printing Office.

most effective. For the achievement of these ends, democracy must place chief reliance upon education.

Consequently, education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends.[1]

The "Social-Economic Goals" report. Although the "Cardinal Principles" report in 1918 stressed the welfare of both the individual and society, greater emphasis on group goals and cooperative activities was contained in the 1933 report of the Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America,[2] which endeavored to formulate a program of education out of an intelligent understanding of the goals that American society should set for itself. An individual cannot attain such goals through his own efforts alone. They are group goals, to be reached only through united effort. The ten goals and brief comments on each, based on the report, are given below.

I. Hereditary strength. Society, in order to remain progressive, demands high standards of physical and mental efficiency in as large a part of the population as possible. In relation to hereditary strength, there are two definite obligations placed upon the schools: (1) to maintain the biological welfare of the individual, and (2) to assure the sound biological basis of the nation.

II. Physical security. The health program of the schools may become an effective instrument of society for attaining a higher national vitality. . . . Secondary schools must not merely guard against health hazards, but must use their facilities to guard against harmful tendencies resulting from heredity and home environment, and prepare boys and girls to become healthy and sturdy members of society. The school also has a responsibility in developing higher standards of health in the community.

III. Participation in an evolving culture through skills, technics, and knowledges. Culture . . . [includes] the whole of man's material civilization and . . . all of the non-material or spiritual civilization. . . . Every individual must have command of those skills, technics, and knowledges that will enable him, to the limit of his capacities, to use and to enjoy the culture of the group. The individual should have

[1] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 9. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Washington, Government Printing Office.

[2] *Social-Economic Goals of America.* Washington, National Education Association, 1933.

an understanding of institutional life, a working acquaintance with the problems of the day, and a grasp of the history of the race.

IV. Participation in an evolving culture through values, standards, and outlooks. The school should emphasize and secure allegiance to the relatively permanent social values . . . such as justice and fair dealing, truthfulness, recognition of regularly constituted authority, and due regard for the rights and feelings of others.

V. An active, flexible personality. [Schools should foster] personal initiative, flexibility of thought and conduct, discriminating judgment and choice, individual differences, and cooperativeness.

VI. Suitable occupation. A happy life work is one of the first requisites for an ideal personality. Society should provide guidance to help boys and girls adjust themselves to a suitable occupation. . . . With appropriate regard to what guidance efforts reveal, society should make available to all young persons the chief skills and technics which underlie current reputable modes of obtaining a living. Society also has an obligation in connecting youth with suitable employment and in seeing to it that progress results normally from efficient work.

VII. Economic security. The achievement of some degree of economic security is essential to the realization of each of the social and economic goals. Economic insecurity is devastating to personality and health. The current methods employed by society in its endeavor to realize economic security are . . . inadequate. The schools should give attention to the characteristic features of the economic order and their relation to economic security. Schools must not be hasty in passing judgment on either the good or the bad features of the system. The school is not in a position to write a prescription for our economic ills, but it can clarify the issues and provide the background for intelligent judgment and purposeful action.

VIII. Mental security. The question of mental security cannot be considered apart from the other social-economic goals to be sought through education. It may, in a large sense, be said to be controlling over all the others. In modern society, the individual is confronted with clashes of opinion and contradictory information on every hand. Bewilderment is probably the outstanding characteristic of modern society. Young people are continually confronted with serious perplexities which threaten mental security. Early childhood and adolescence are the two crucial periods for the individual's mental security. In the early years, education must rely heavily on the home to make its contribution to mental security. For the adolescent boy or girl, the school must assume a much larger responsibility. This is the time when the most difficult problems of life adjustment are faced and when the boy or girl is in most need of help.

IX. Freedom. The yearning for freedom and self-expression is universal. Freedom of thought and expression is necessary for the health and progress of the individual and of society. Freedom of choice of mate, occupation, movement, place of residence, manner of life, and of industrial, political, religious, and cultural affiliations should be assured all citizens. The greatest stress, however, should be laid on freedom of speech, press, assembly, screen, broadcasting, demonstrating, and organizing. Particularly important are freedom of research, of experimentation, and of teaching. [The secondary school has much of the responsibility] for the formation of the correct attitudes toward freedom.

X. Fair play. Two methods of securing fair play are in vogue in our society, namely, the compulsory and the voluntary. The compulsory method is chiefly represented by government. Voluntary fair play is secured through self-discipline by organized groups. In order to realize the goal of fair play, the majority of citizens must shift their loyalties from individualistic ideals to social ideals. There must develop a loyalty to the public interest and social justice. The schools have the responsibility of developing this greater loyalty in specific and practical ways. Education for fair play . . . must be made to function in real lifelike situations.

The recommendations of the Educational Policies Commission. One of the most significant recent reports on the purposes of education is presented in a volume of the Educational Policies Commission entitled, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.*[1] The report emphasizes four groups of objectives for education in a democracy: (1) the objectives of self-realization, (2) the objectives of human relationships, (3) the objectives of economic efficiency, and (4) the objectives of civic responsibility.

The reception given the report, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, has been so generous that it is believed that this report will have a profound influence on the trend of education during the next two decades. It should, therefore, be read by every teacher and school administrator.

The following statement from the *Foreword*[2] indicates the general nature of the report:

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, National Education Association, 1937.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. vii.

THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY[1]

Outlined by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and accepted by the St. Louis Public Schools as Ideals Worthy of the Best Teaching Efforts.

PART I. SELF-REALIZATION

THE EDUCATED PERSON:

- Has an Inquiring Mind
- Speaks Clearly
- Reads Efficiently
- Calculates Accurately
- Is Skilled in Listening and Observing
- Is Informed about Health
- Is Interested in Public Health
- Participates in Sports
- Has Intellectual Interests
- Appreciates Beauty
- Shows Character

PART II. HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

THE EDUCATED PERSON:

- Puts Human Relations First
- Enjoys Friendships
- Works and Plays with Others
- Is Courteous
- Appreciates the Home
- Conserves Family Ideals
- Is Skilled in Home-Making
- Maintains Democratic Family Relations

PART III. ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

THE EDUCATED PRODUCER:

- Appreciates Good Workmanship
- Has Occupational Information
- Selects His Occupation Wisely
- Succeeds in His Vocation
- Improves His Efficiency
- Knows the Social Value of Work

THE EDUCATED CONSUMER:

- Plans His Personal Economics
- Has a Sound Standard of Living
- Is a Skillful Buyer
- Safeguards His Own Interests

PART IV. CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

THE EDUCATED CITIZEN:

- Is Sensitive to Human Inequalities
- Corrects Unsatisfactory Conditions
- Understands Social Structures
- Has Defenses against Propaganda
- Is Tolerant
- Conserves Natural Resources
- Measures Science by Social Values
- Is a World Citizen
- Is Economically Literate
- Respects Law
- Accepts Civic Duties
- Is Loyal to Democratic Principles

[1] From Supplement to Annual Report of Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Missouri, 1940.

In this book, your Educational Policies Commission has tried to do just two things. First, we have stated what we think the schools of the United States ought to try to accomplish. Second, we have described some of the things which we think need to be done if these purposes are to be realized. We venture one more discussion on educational objectives because we hope to carry our analysis forward to the point where its meaning for the classroom and the administrative office will be clear.

The introductory chapters, dealing with the relation between education and democracy, provide a necessary basis for the rest of the statement. The kind of society in which we are to live is important for education. The democratic way of life establishes the purpose of American education. And the democratic way is being sharply and sometimes successfully challenged at home and abroad. These hard facts make the achievement of democracy through education the most urgent and the most intensely practical problem facing our profession.

Interdependence of welfare of youth and society. Throughout this discussion, it has been emphasized that the aims of modern secondary education are largely social in nature and cannot be realized by individual effort alone. They must be achieved through cooperative effort. Students as well as those in charge of instruction must assume certain responsibilities and have clear goals in mind if secondary education is to fulfill its obligations to society. The 1938 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators [1] emphasizes this fact by showing the interdependence of the welfare of youth and the welfare of society. The commission which prepared the yearbook suggests a "compact" between youth and society in the interest of the general welfare of the people of the United States. This compact, called a "Declaration of Interdependence," is an admirable statement of what secondary education should attempt to do for youth, and of the responsibility which youth should assume in working toward the aims of secondary education. When it is interpreted in terms of the implied aims for education, the statement is unique in emphasis on the responsibility of youth. The suggested compact is presented on the following page.

[1] American Association of School Administrators, Sixteenth Yearbook, *Youth Education Today*, pp. 12–13. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

DECLARATION OF INTERDEPENDENCE

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*

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.

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.

III. Competent leadership during the years of growth; assurance of contacts with leaders of thought and action; training in techniques and obligations of leadership.

IV. Self-expression through recreation and companionships; acquaintance with nature, science, philosophical and religious thought.

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.

VI. Participation in the affairs of a democratic state; active promotion of individual and social justice; . . .

YOUTH *is to assume responsibility for*

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. 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. Acceptance of the services of those competent to lead; increasing exercise of initiative and acceptance of responsibility in accordance with capacities.

IV. Development of individual talents; the pursuit of worthwhile leisure activities; and appreciation of the racial inheritance.

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.

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.

Functions of Secondary Schools

Changes in social and economic life and changes in the number and variety of students have affected greatly the major purposes or aims of secondary education. Secondary schools have many responsibilities if they are to do their full share in helping pupils to grow in the directions indicated by the purposes or aims of education mentioned above. These responsibilities pertain both to their choice of functions or services and to the ways in which those functions are carried out.

Principles of the Progressive Education movement. In 1919, educators who were trying to bring about reform in the schools through experimental work met in Washington and organized the Progressive Education Association, one of whose first tasks was to formulate a set of statements of educational beliefs which would serve as a working basis for the Association. After much discussion, seven statements were agreed upon. These have become a credo for the movement represented by the Progressive Education Association, and have motivated and guided changes in practices in a number of American secondary schools. These seven principles are given below.

I. Freedom to develop naturally. The conduct of the pupil should be governed by himself according to the social needs of his community, rather than by laws. Full opportunity for initiative and self-expression should be provided, together with an environment rich in interesting material that is available for the free use of every pupil.

II. Interest, the motive of all work. Interest should be satisfied and developed through: (1) direct and indirect contact with the world and its activities, and use of the experience thus gained; (2) application of knowledge gained, and correlation between different subjects; (3) the consciousness of achievement.

III. The teacher a guide, not a taskmaster. It is essential that teachers . . . should have latitude for the development of initiative and originality. Progressive teachers will encourage the use of all the senses, training the pupils in both observation and judgment, and, instead of hearing recitations only, will spend most of the time teaching how to use various sources of information, including life activities as well as books, how to reason about the information thus acquired, and how to express forcefully and logically the conclusions reached.

IV. Scientific study of pupil development. School records should not be confined to the marks given by the teachers to show the advancement of the pupils in their study of a subject, but should also include both objective and subjective reports on those physical, mental, moral, and social characteristics which affect both school and adult life, and which can be influenced by the school and the home. Such records should be used as a guide for the treatment of each pupil, and should also serve to focus the attention of the teacher on the all important work of development rather than on simply teaching the subject matter.

V. Greater attention to all that affects the child's physical development. One of the first considerations of progressive education is the health of the pupils. Much more room in which to move about, better light and air, clean and well-ventilated buildings, easier access to the out-of-doors and greater use of it, are all necessary. There should be frequent use of adequate playgrounds. The teachers should observe closely the physical conditions of each pupil and, in cooperation with the home, make abounding health the first objective of childhood.

VI. Cooperation between school and home to meet the needs of child life. The school should provide, with the home, as much as is possible of all that the natural interests and activities of the child demand. . . . These conditions can come about only through intelligent cooperation between parents and teachers.

VII. The progressive school a leader in educational movements. The Progressive School should be a leader in educational movements. It should be a laboratory where new ideas, if worthy, meet encouragement; where tradition alone does not rule, but the best of the past is leavened with the discoveries of today, and the result is freely added to the sum of educational knowledge.

A comprehensive report on functions. A comprehensive report on the functions of secondary education [1] was issued in 1937 by a committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. Ten functions were agreed upon by the committee as the specific responsibilities of secondary schools. The performance of these functions is a means of attaining the major aims of secondary education previously stated. A thorough interpretation of each function was given, with specific instructions as to how the ten functions could be made a part of every school, as well as a

[1] Committee on Orientation, *Functions of Secondary Education.* Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 64. Washington, National Education Association, 1937.

basis for a nation-wide program for the improvement of education.

Before starting work on the functions, this same committee had drawn up a statement of the issues of secondary education.[1] In arriving at the conclusions presented in these two reports, the committee had the help of more than 80 groups of administrators as well as many individuals.

Following the publication of the two reports, thousands of administrators in different parts of this country organized themselves into discussion groups to study the problems of secondary education.[2] The reports are used by administrators and teachers in working on the problems of their schools and in developing programs for the improvement of secondary education.

The ten functions of secondary education, with brief comments on each, are presented below.

I. Integration. To continue by a definite program, though in a diminishing degree, the integration of pupils. This should be on an increasingly intellectual level until the desired common knowledge, appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and practices are firmly fixed. Schools have the function of integrating pupils with each other and with society for the reason that no other agency can do the task completely or well. . . . In a democratic society young people should become social-minded, should acquire a common background of ideals and experiences, and should know how to cooperate effectively toward the realization of the ideals and purposes of their society.

II. Satisfaction of needs. To satisfy the important immediate and probable future needs of pupils insofar as the maturity of the learner permits. . . . Every boy or girl who comes to the secondary school has certain needs as an individual. The maintenance of health, skill in the use of machines, the development of social efficiency, etc are urgent and fundamental needs. . . . Some of the needs which the secondary school should satisfy are immediate and some are remote. The needs of young people should . . . form the basis of the school curriculum.

[1] Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education.* Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

[2] Committee on Planning, *Talking It Through: A Manual for Discussion Groups.* Department of Secondary-School Principals. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

III. Revelation of the racial heritage. . . . So completely is man dependent on the past that the loss of his cultural heritage would mean the collapse of civilization. It is the proper function of the secondary school to acquaint young people with the materials of living, to represent to them an accepted way of life, and to reveal to them opportunities . . . in the major fields of their heritage of experience and culture. Pupils should be shown how they may make use of the heritage which is theirs. . . . They should be led to engage in activities which appeal to their interests and which likewise serve the best interests of society.

IV. Exploration of interests, aptitudes, and capacities. To explore increasingly specialized interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils, looking toward the direction of them into avenues of study and of work for which they have manifested peculiar fitness. Interests are the dynamics of education. They determine the kinds and quality of the things which an individual does. Many boys and girls come to school with numerous interests already formed. It is the task of the school, in conjunction with the pupil, to discover these interests, and to develop other desirable ones. . . . The secondary school should be able to tell a pupil and his parents the essential facts about his interests, aptitudes, and capacities. The teacher should find out what pupils are most interested in and what they can do best. The pupils should be led into studies and activities which will spur them on along the lines for which they are best prepared through natural gift or acquired interests.

V. Systematization and application of knowledge, especially laws and principles. . . . If a general body of knowledge is systematized, fact being built upon fact, until general principles or conclusions stand out in sharp relief, the learner will acquire the habit of organizing knowledge and looking for relationships. Fundamental to the organization of knowledge are laws and principles which give details their greatest meanings. Systematized knowledge [should be applied to a wide range of situations].

VI. Establishment and direction of interests. To establish and to develop interests in the major fields of human activity as a means to happiness, to social progress, and to continued growth. Interests make the world meaningful to the pupil and lead him on to the acquisition of more knowledge. A function of the secondary schools is to set up and develop interests in many fields of the pupil's racial heritage. . . . If a pupil is to be happy and to grow, he must have a variety of interests. Social progress is also dependent [on the acquisition of] diversified interests. . . . Previous schooling, home, and community have awakened the interest of pupils in the most important fields of human activity. It is the work of the secondary school to extend, develop,

and redirect these interests in such a way that pupils grow continuously and harmoniously in their power to live fully and well. Every resource of the school should be directed to that end.

VII. Guidance. To guide pupils, on the basis of exploratory and revealing courses and of other information gathered from personnel studies, as wisely as possible into wholesome and worthwhile social relationships, maximum personality adjustment, and advanced study or vocations in which they are most likely to be successful and happy. Guidance is to help the pupil respond happily and well to his environment. Secondary schools are now committed to the principle of education for all normal individuals. These individuals differ in physical health, in native intelligence and capacity, in aptitudes, and in interests. Fortunately, the work of the world demands individuals who are unlike in many ways and can be happy at different tasks. To help each individual find the thing he is best fitted to do is a difficult task. It requires more than just offering a diversified program of studies. Testing, grading, discipline, organization, and administration are required to make guidance serve the needs of all pupils. Those in charge of the guidance program must have a sympathetic understanding of the pupil's interests, aptitudes, needs, abilities, and opportunities, together with a conscious effort to help each pupil make the most of these and direct them toward worthy objectives. The right kind of guidance strives to help pupils help themselves.

VIII. Methods of teaching and learning. To use in all courses methods that demand independent thought, involve the elementary principles of research, and provide intelligent [individual and cooperative] practice in desirable activities. . . . The high school brings to a close the formal schooling of the majority of citizens. It should, therefore, train young people so that they will continue their education and engage in independent thought. . . . This means that the chief work of the teacher becomes guidance. Independent thinking and self-direction are indispensable characteristics of the citizens of a democracy.

IX. Differentiation. To begin gradually to increase differentiated education on the evidence of capacities, aptitudes, and interests demonstrated in earlier years. Care must be taken to provide previous to, and along with, differentiation as balanced and extended a general education as is possible and profitable. There are certain educational needs common to all boys and girls. In order to meet these needs, much of the training which secondary schools offer is in the nature of general education. On the other hand, each boy or girl has a number of individual needs. The program of the secondary school should be diversified so as to meet the needs of the variety of young people which it serves.

X. Retention and direction of pupils. . . . It is the duty of the second-

ary schools to give all young persons the opportunity to profit from their training. It is also the duty of secondary schools to hold these young persons until their work is done; that is, until they are either ready for higher education or employment, or until they cannot or will not profit more from continued attendance. . . . All efforts should be made to give a pupil a type of instruction which will be helpful to him and at which he can succeed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Approximately what percentage of high school graduates attend college? How does this influence the character of training that secondary schools should provide?

2. List the chief factors which resulted in the extension of secondary education. Which of these influences do you consider transitory?

3. What is the chief distinction in the use of the terms *aims* and *functions?*

4. Show the interrelationships of the ten functions of secondary education. Of the ten social-economic goals.

5. What are the chief means of determining the needs of secondary school pupils? What are some of the most obvious of these needs?

6. What are the chief educational agencies of the community aside from the schools?

7. What are the fundamental differences between the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" and the "Social-Economic Goals of America"?

8. Do the statements of the aims and functions of secondary education give any indication of why much more emphasis is placed on social studies by the modern secondary school than by the school of the past?

9. Are the interests of secondary school students a valid basis for the aims and functions of secondary education? State reasons for your answer.

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Chapter III. THE CHANGING SECONDARY SCHOOL POPULATION

The Significance of Changes in Enrollments

Many of the greatest achievements of secondary education, and most of its perplexing problems, have had a common origin in a rapidly increasing school enrollment. More liberal provision is made here than in any other country for the education of all youth, bright and dull, rich and poor. Schooling is now provided for a larger percentage of the population than ever before in our history. It is estimated that one fourth of our total population is now enrolled in educational institutions. The general acceptance of the high school as democracy's agency for bringing secondary school education to all the children of all the people, regardless of racial, political, or economic differences among parents, has been most encouraging. The United States has been proud to stand first among nations in the proportion of youth enrolled in high schools. Because of their great faith in the values of education, the people in this nation have been willing to make sacrifices in order to provide schooling for an increasing number of young people.

Increases in the Secondary School Population

Percentage increases since 1890. The increase in the population fourteen through seventeen years of age, and the increase since 1890 in the enrollments in the last four years of the high school are shown graphically in Figure 1. Although the population fourteen through seventeen years of age in 1936 was approximately twice that of 1890, enrollment in the last four years of high school had increased to almost seventeen times that of 1890.

During the period since 1910, the expansion of enrollments has been spectacular, and it is generally believed that we have not yet reached the peak of the enrollments in our secondary schools. Some slowing down of the increases in high school enrollments may occur because of the decreased national birth rate, which is already affecting the elementary school enroll-

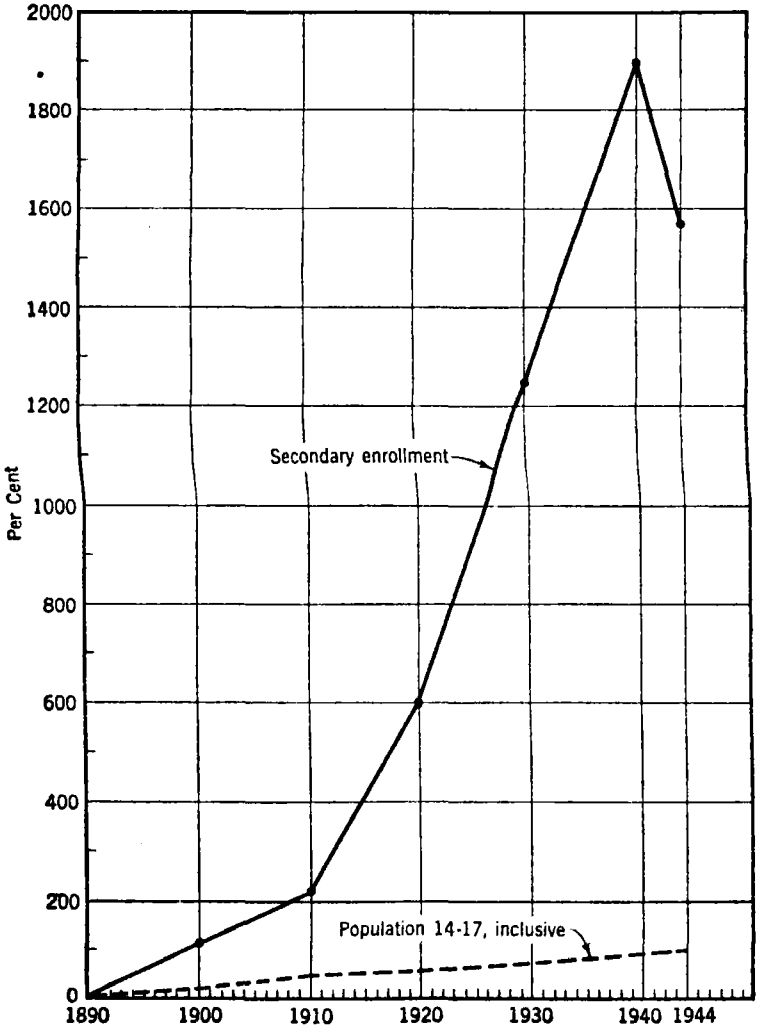


Figure 1. Increase in secondary school enrollment, 1890–1944, in relation to the increase in the total population of ages 14 to 17.

ment. These losses, however, may not be heavy if the high school broadens its program to provide for groups of youth it does not now reach.

The rapid growth of secondary school enrollment has created many very perplexing problems, some of which will be discussed in this book. Attention will also be directed toward various factors that have led to the popularization of the secondary school.

Changes in enrollments since 1870. The rapid rise in the total enrollment in public high schools from 1870 to 1944 is shown in Table I. It gives the increase in numbers and the percentage increase by decades, as well as the percentage of adolescents fourteen through seventeen years of age enrolled in public high schools.

The last two decades have witnessed the greatest increase in high school enrollments. Foster has shown this development in more detail by giving the increase by two-year intervals since 1920 (Table II). He points out that the biennial in-

TABLE I

INCREASE IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY DECADES FROM 1870 TO 1944[1]

School Year Ending in June	*Enrollment in Public High School Last 4 Years*	*Increase from Previous Data*		*Per Cent of Census Enrolled in Public High Schools, Ages 14–17, in U.S.*
		Number	*Per Cent*	
1870	80,227			
1880	110,227	30,000	37.4	2.8
1890	202,963	92,736	84.13	6.7
1900	519,251	316,288	155.84	11.4
1910	915,061	395,810	72.23	16.6
1920	2,200,289	1,285,328	140.46	37.9
1930	4,399,422	2,199,133	99.94	51.1
1940	6,601,444	2,202,022	50.05	91.6
1944	5,553,520	— 1,047,924	— 15.87	77.1

[1] Adapted from Emery M. Foster, "High School Enrollments Increase," *School Life*, XXIII (November, 1937), 77. Also "Statistics of State School Systems, 1943–44," *Statistical Circular*, September, 1946, SRS–11.0–86.

creases from 1920 to 1944 show the slowing up of the increase during the prosperous period prior to 1929. It is instructive to note the acceleration of the increases as the depression closed the doors of industry to secondary school age groups,

TABLE II

INCREASE IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AT TWO-YEAR INTERVALS FROM 1920 TO 1944[1]

School Year Ending in June	*Enrollment in Public High School Last 4 Years*	*Increase from Previous Data*	
		Number	*Per Cent*
1920	2,200,289		
1922	2,873,009	672,720	20.57
1924	3,389,878	516,869	17.99
1926	3,757,466	367,588	10.84
1928	3,911,279	153,813	4.09
1930	4,399,422	488,143	12.48
1932	5,140,021	740,599	16.83
1934	5,669,156	529,135	10.29
1936	5,974,537	305,381	5.39
1938	6,226,934	252,397	4.22
1940	6,601,444	374,510	6.01
1942	6,387,805	− 213,639	− 3.22
1944	5,553,520	− 834,285	− 13.06

and the gradual slowing up again as a higher proportion of the persons of secondary school age are enrolled.

Enrollment in grades seven through twelve. The figures presented above indicate that the secondary school enrollment in grades nine through twelve was over 6,000,000 in 1940. To this, however, should be added the enrollment in grades seven and eight, representing junior high school ages, to give a truer index of the magnitude of the undertaking in secondary education. The enrollment in these two grades was reported as 3,921,956 for 1936, and was certainly more than 4,000,000 in 1940. Combining the figures for grades seven through twelve, the total for 1940 substantially exceeded 10,000,000.[2]

[1] "Statistics of State School Systems, 1943–44," *Statistical Circular*, September, 1946, SRS–11.0–86.

[2] The enrollments in both Tables I and II reflect the influence of World War II on secondary school enrollment.

Factors in the Popularization of American Secondary Education

Multiplicity of the factors. In discussing high school popularization, the National Survey of Secondary Education states:

> This increase in the popularization of secondary education has been in part the result of conscious and concerted efforts by leaders in the field. It has in part been the result of improved standards of living and increased income, especially in the middle classes. It has in part been the result of the American interpretation of democracy as an equal opportunity for all. It has been partly a result of the increased complexity of our civilization and the increased demands placed upon the individual by society. The modification of the educational program has doubtless been a factor. An unquestionably important factor in recent years has been the lack of opportunity for employment of the population of high-school age. Denied opportunities for employment, youth have turned, in larger proportions, to the schools. Other causes could be mentioned, but these are probably the most important. The extent of the influence of each factor can not be determined, but the combination of factors favorable to increased education is obvious to one who examines the data concerning school enrollments. Increases in popularization occurred in other countries during this period but the amount of increase has not been so large as in this country and the proportion of pupils of high-school age in school is much smaller than for the United States.[1]

Analysis of the principal factors. The above quotation reveals the difficulty in analyzing a great educational movement like this, which stretches over many years and is fundamentally sociological in its nature. However, it should be helpful to consider briefly a few of the underlying factors of this great movement.

1. *American traditions have demanded education for all.* It has been a fundamental principle in American life that education is a right and a privilege of every citizen. From the very beginning of the nation, universal education has been a goal toward which the country has striven. It is true that the kinds and types of education desired have not always been clearly

[1] Grayson N. Kefauver, Victor H. Noll, and C. Elwood Drake, *The Secondary-School Population*, pp. 4–5. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 4.

analyzed or consciously pursued. However, the general idea of an education for every citizen has been a fundamental element in our democracy.

2. *The invention of laborsaving machinery and increased per-capita wealth have made possible more and better schools.* As the American people have advanced in the field of discovery and invention, making it possible for machines to do the work of man, there have resulted greater returns on capital and labor, greater per-capita wealth, and more leisure time for education or other worth-while activities.

3. *The increase of leisure time has encouraged parents to send their children to school.* Rising standards of living, shorter working hours, improved transportation facilities, better and more extensive means of communication, and the widening services of libraries have accentuated the need for more and more education. On the secondary level, shorter working hours in urban centers where high schools and colleges are available have put at the disposal of youth many facilities for further education.

4. *The decrease in child labor has placed many students of school age in school.* As an editorial writer has pointed out, "In 1900, 26 per cent of all boys aged ten to fifteen were gainfully employed. By 1920, this number had dropped to 11.3 per cent. In 1930, only 6.4 per cent were working. In 1900, 10.2 per cent of all girls aged ten to fifteen were gainfully employed. Only 5.6 per cent worked in 1920, and only 2.9 per cent in 1930." [1] Child labor is rapidly disappearing. It is becoming largely a rural problem. If those who are in trade and vocational schools and those who attend part-time and evening schools are included, approximately 90 per cent of the young people of high school age in urban centers are attending some kind of secondary school.

5. *The compulsory school attendance laws of the various states have increased the secondary school attendance.* For many years, the compulsory school attendance laws of the various states have slowly but gradually been tightening. More stringent laws,

[1] *Scholastic*, XXVI (February, 1935), 43.

more rigid enforcement of existing laws by attendance officers, the growing effectiveness of visiting teachers, and the provision of part-time and evening schools have all contributed toward bringing a larger population into the secondary school.

6. *Large-scale industry, complex machinery, and business efficiency have called for large numbers of trained and educated workers.* Machines have become more complex. Industry, in general, has become more highly specialized. Therefore, the personnel involved in production, distribution, and managerial work must be increasingly competent for the task. Rigid competition and a growing demand for constantly improved products necessitate a more intelligent, a more skilled, and a more highly efficient personnel throughout the commercial and industrial fields.

7. *New modes of transportation and the growth of cities have resulted in easier access to schools and, consequently, have increased secondary school enrollments.* Indications are that the great bulk of adolescents out of school are in the rural areas. All the surveys and studies in this field show that with the coming of good roads, the appearance of the school bus, and the improvement of all the various means of transportation, the percentage of adolescents taking advantage of public school opportunities has gradually increased. Even so, the first table in this chapter shows that approximately 30 per cent of all adolescents aged fourteen to seventeen were not in our secondary schools in 1938. It is safe to say that about three fourths of those not in school are in rural areas where problems of transportation are greatest. Provision for the educational needs of this 30 per cent of adolescents not in school constitutes one of the most important challenges to secondary education. The difficulty of the undertaking is increased by the fact that the problem is widespread, since it involves almost every county in each state in the nation.

8. *Enriched curricular offerings with their corresponding wider appeal to all types of adolescents have attracted increased numbers of students.* As long as the high school curriculum was traditional in content and largely college preparatory in purpose, it

appealed especially to that small part of the adolescent population which planned to enter the professions. Later, when the enriched curriculum began including courses in such subject fields as homemaking and commercial and industrial work, a great number of pupils who did not plan to go to college were attracted to the secondary schools. These courses in fine arts, industrial arts, homemaking, commercial work, agriculture, and the like appealed to a much wider range of interests among adolescents and provided better for their individual differences in interests, abilities, and future plans. Numerous pupils who did not care for foreign languages, formal mathematics, and similar courses in the college preparatory curriculum found much pleasure, great worth, and genuine interest in these new subjects.

9. *The development of the extracurricular activities program has attracted more adolescents to the secondary school.* Perhaps no innovation in the program of the modern high school has had more far-reaching results, in terms of increased enrollments, than the movement to bring more joy, play, sports, and recreation into the program of the secondary school. These activities have served as mediums of student expression and have helped to break up the grind and tedium of the traditional high school. By degrees, adolescents have come to think of the modern high school as a place for active life, competitive sports, self-expression, participation in orchestras and bands, acting in a play, and the like, as well as a place to study books. Obviously, such an appeal attracts youth.

10. *The fostering of part-time and evening schools, trade and vocational schools, CCC camps, and other types of schools has encouraged many adolescents to continue their secondary school education, and has made it possible for them to do so.* Only within the last few years have we made any attempt to help the student who is so unfortunate financially or mentally as not to be able to attend the sessions of the regular day schools. The part-time and evening schools now are enabling large numbers of adolescents who have to work during the day, to continue their secondary school education at hours more favorable to

them. The vocational and trade schools are serving many more who are not interested in taking a college preparatory curriculum. The CCC camps are ministering to another large group of youths who for one cause or another are not enrolled in the regular high school. Thus, by accommodating their schedules to the working demands of some and by offering technical training to others, these special types of secondary schools have attracted many adolescents who would otherwise never have secured a secondary school education.

11. *The depression, which threw large numbers of adolescents out of gainful employment, served to increase the number of students in the secondary school.* Perhaps at no other time in the history of the American people have so many youths found themselves without gainful employment. Great numbers of them, restless and unsettled in their purposes, turned to the public high school in an effort to use at least a part of the time that was hanging so heavily on their hands. Obviously, the presence of these youths, bringing increased enrollment and new problems of adjustment, added to the responsibilities of high schools. The CCC camps and the emergency schools, operated in many places by the government, helped care for the situation. These conditions were not fully removed until the Japanese struck at Pearl Harbor. After that event preparations for war were so intense and inclusive that in a few short weeks the unemployment of youth ceased to be a problem.

12. *Postwar influence of World War II.* Probably three noticeable effects of the war will be registered in secondary school attendance. The first is a phase of the total picture of increased attendance in both high school and college. In a sense this is due largely to the recognition on the part of the American soldier that training, with emphasis on the technical phases, was of tremendous importance in the combat and managerial phases of the war. A second influence resulting in increased attendance in secondary schools is the fact that two, three, and in some cases four years of secondary school training were held up due to the draft or voluntary enlistment. This delayed attendance will doubtless be felt for several years on both the high school

and college level. Finally, the veterans' Education Bill, providing both secondary and collegiate training to returned veterans, will register a marked increase in high school attendance.

Characteristics of the Present Secondary School Population

Recent changes. Naturally, great changes in the character of the high school population have occurred during the last 40 or 50 years as a result of its democratization. Jessen has remarked:

> The sustained rise in the enrollments in secondary schools is important, not only because of the growth in numbers and the greater popularization of secondary education in the United States, but also because of the increased range of pupil abilities, needs, and interests which has accompanied the expansion in numbers. To what extent the sons and daughters of all groups in the population are present in the high schools has not been determined so unmistakably as the enrollments, but the data which are available tend to show a growing, although by no means a uniform, representation in the schools of pupils from homes at all levels in the socio-economic scale. Similarly, results of so-called intelligence tests show that many of the pupils now coming to the high schools are very different in academic ability from those of an earlier day.
>
> The 203,000 pupils who were enrolled in public high schools in 1890 were a rather homogeneous group. Occasionally a pupil who was not by ability or interest suited for college work found his way into the public high school; but he was soon made to see his error. The colleges and normal schools of that day enrolled almost half as many pupils as did the secondary schools, public and private combined. The great similarity in interests, capacities, and destinations of pupils made it possible for the high school to offer a prescribed curriculum taught in a rather uniform way.
>
> The . . . millions registered in public high schools in 1934 were of a different order. Among them is included the same type of academically minded pupil that made up the enrollment in 1890; but . . . numerous types of pupils not represented in that earlier day now find their way into the high schools. Six of every seven will in all probability never go to college. The present high-school population displays an almost complete spectrum of abilities of normal human beings and sounds nearly the entire gamut of interests of young people. The varied interests and abilities of these millions will not be served

by a few leaves taken from the book of knowledge and presented in a stereotyped way.[1]

Knowing that profound changes have occurred in the high school population as a result of this great increase in numbers, it is important for the high school principal in planning his program to consider a few of the larger phases of the problem.

Socio-economic democratization of secondary education. In discussing this change, the National Survey of Secondary Education says:

> Democratization refers to the extent to which children of different socio-economic and intellectual levels attend the secondary school. . . . Complete democratization will have been achieved when the proportions are the same for all groups.[2]

> The results of a repetition for two cities, namely, Seattle and Bridgeport, of a study of the social composition of the high-school population made by Counts, disclosed striking increases from 1920 to 1930 in the proportionate representation in the high school of all occupational levels in the total population. This finding is in harmony with the conclusion . . . reported concerning the rapidly increasing popularization of high school education. To the extent that the lower occupational levels share in the increases, it may be assumed that there has been considerable progress toward socio-economic democratization of the secondary schools.[3]

The above quotations are sufficient to show that the public high school is drawing more and more from the lower socio-economic levels. Although the battle is not yet won, its prosecution constitutes one of the greatest challenges the high school administrator faces today.

Intellectual democratization of secondary education. The National Survey of Secondary Education states:

> The evidence presented seems to indicate progress toward intellectual democratization, that is, toward increased representation in secondary schools of intellectually less competent youth. It is not that intellectual selection is no longer operative, but that it is less

[1] Carl A. Jessen, *Trends in Secondary Education*, p. 2. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 2.

[2] Noll and Drake, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 25.

operative than formerly. There is evidence that in many communities the secondary-school population as a whole is not far from being a representative cross-section of at least the total literate population. The data at hand are not sufficient to yield a statement of the exact degree of progress toward intellectual democratization of education at the secondary level.[1]

On the whole, then, it seems that the persons of secondary age who are in school may be said not to differ markedly from the general population with respect to intelligence as measured by our present group tests.

Moreover, reverting to the differences found for different types of schools, it may be said that this high degree of intellectual democratization is being achieved by the extension of the offering to provide curriculums suited to pupils of lower levels of intellectual ability. By the same token it may be assumed that by and large the schools that have done most in extending the offering to include vocationalized and other noncollege-preparatory curriculums have made most progress toward democratization. This is a highly significant inference for determination of the means by which the American secondary school is to be fully democratized.[2]

Obviously, then, the intellectual democratization of the public high school is in process. If educators should accept the responsibility for providing a secondary education for all young people, they would be acting in harmony with the democratic aspirations of the American people. To provide an education that will be of maximum value to all adolescents of secondary school age, however, constitutes a most important and difficult challenge to all who are concerned with their educational development.

A summary of changes resulting from increased popularization. The secondary school population has increased tremendously since colonial days. This great influx of pupils has brought a heterogeneous personnel of the widest range. Instead of the small, homogeneous body of socially, economically, and intellectually select students, the secondary schools now have great numbers of pupils running the whole gamut of the mental, social, and economic scale of human existence. It appears that the time is rapidly approaching when the high

[1] Noll and Drake, *op. cit.*, p. 26. [2] *Ibid.*, p. 24.

school population will in many respects be a representative cross section of at least the total literate population of the nation.

Naturally, this new high school population has brought many new social, moral, and ethical, as well as educational, problems into the field of educational administration. Inasmuch as high school principals should be cognizant of this situation and sensitive to as many elements in it as possible, some of the basic changes which have occurred are summarized below.

1. There is a more heterogeneous, social-minded, and democratic student body as a result of increased numbers.
2. There is a greater diversification of interests, both for the individual and the group, resulting from a heterogeneous student body.
3. There is a lower average age of the students, owing to earlier entrance, more rapid promotion, more regular attendance, longer school terms, and generally improved school facilities.
4. There is a greater interest in physical education and sports because of the increased emphasis placed on these activities by both school and society.
5. There is a greater desire for a more enriched curriculum resulting from more complex social and economic conditions.
6. There are more pronounced avocational interests as a result of more leisure and greater diversity of interests.
7. There is a tendency for the students to be more critical as a result of being encouraged to think for themselves and to draw their own conclusions.
8. There is a tendency for students to be more tolerant as a result of wider social representation and broader perspective.
9. There are greater group interests as an outgrowth of a more heterogeneous personnel, increased group activity, and greater emphasis on social and democratic ideals.
10. There is a tendency for students to show more self-confidence, frankness, candor, and initiative as a result of greater student responsibility in the modern high school.

11. There is a greater regard for personal appearance among the students as a result of a growing appreciation of social values, good manners, and proper customs.

12. There is a tendency toward a better school morale owing to a happier social atmosphere, a more democratic student body, a wider diversity of interests among associates, and a franker and more open-minded attitude toward the problems of life.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What are the differences between the type of student in the vocational high school today and in the Latin grammar school of colonial days?
2. How does a full, rich, extracurricular program hold certain types of students in high school?
3. Why is a good guidance program needed in a cosmopolitan high school?
4. Why is the comprehensive, cosmopolitan high school considered the type best suited to our democratic nation?
5. What types of persons go to the CCC camps?
6. What arguments can you offer pro and con on establishing trade schools in all larger centers?
7. How are individual differences of students provided for in some high school with which you are familiar?
8. Indicate changes in the curriculum which have attracted increasing numbers of students to the public high school.

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DIVISION TWO

Organization and Management of Secondary Schools

Chapter IV. GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN ADMINISTRATION

The Importance of a Basic Philosophy

Much friction and inefficiency in administration may arise if the high school principal does not possess a broad, well-conceived philosophy of secondary education. This lack results in instability of organization, inconsistency in policies and practices, friction among members of the staff, misunderstanding between faculty and students, and criticisms from parents. Not only does it produce unhappiness throughout the organization, but it results in an inefficiency that lowers the whole level of achievement of the school. No staff member can do his best work unless he feels certain that his efforts are in accord with the underlying philosophy that pervades the school. Such a feeling will give a peace of mind, an urge to effort, and a stimulation to productivity that are essential to the development of a genuine, democratic school program.

Fifteen Principles of School Administration

Health, efficiency, and character development. *Principle I. Good health, social efficiency, and character development are the basal determinants of all secondary school administration.* One can scarcely think of any secondary school program which is not based fundamentally upon good health. In the end, all issues must be determined by health. Physical vigor is a splendid background for a trained mind. It will be recalled that, under the impetus of World War I, the bulletin on *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*[1] placed "health" at the head of the list of major objectives. Succeeding years have served only to accentuate its importance in the educational program.

[1] U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, Washington, Government Printing Office.

Two other objectives of outstanding importance in a program for adolescents are social efficiency and character development. One cannot think of secondary education apart from these outcomes. For this reason, they are placed as Principle I in this treatise. This means that in laying down a set of guiding principles to serve as controls in a comprehensive program of secondary education, every proposal enunciated, every undertaking outlined, and every project envisioned must meet satisfactorily these three requirements before receiving serious consideration.

The curriculum as a means of pupil growth. *Principle II. In educating adolescents the curriculum is a means to pupil growth, not an end in itself.* Since education is provided for the purpose of developing the student individually and as a member of society, it is evident that the curriculum ought to be made to fit the student's needs instead of the student's being forced to conform to some ill-adapted curriculum. It is the school's task to develop a curriculum that will direct students into wholesome activities. Curriculum, schedule, records, and reports are necessary, but they exist only in order that the student may grow in terms of his own interests and aptitudes and in terms of the welfare of society. In a sense, there should be as many curriculums as there are students in each school. It becomes the responsibility of the school to diagnose the needs of the students and to provide the appropriate curriculum for each student.

Conserve individuality. *Principle III. In all phases of secondary education the individuality of students and faculty shall be conserved.* It is not the purpose of the school to educate students as standardized units by mass-production methods, but to develop their individualities in desirable ways. The secondary school should strive always to recognize differences in interests, abilities, and needs. It should strive to conserve and foster such differences unless they are socially undesirable. It should be remembered that adaptation to social environment must always be a controlling factor.

Neither is it desirable that teachers be made to conform to

rigid and detailed specifications of what the principal thinks the ideal teacher ought to be. Too much conformity leads to a mechanization of the teaching staff, with a resulting loss of the initiative, enthusiasm, and experimentation that are essential to a progressive or developing program of secondary education. The crushing of the individuality of the teachers by the principal indicates that he considers his ideas and methods above any criticism or beyond any change. The inevitable result of such a procedure is that the school becomes lifeless.

Effective use of time, energy, and equipment. *Principle IV. The secondary school organization should be so perfected as to utilize maximally the time and energy of every member of the organization as well as the material equipment of the plant.* It would be poor administration to use for only two or three periods a day an industrial arts shop, leaving rooms and expensive equipment idle the remainder of the time. The same rule would hold true in the case of typewriting rooms, home economics units, and so on. Auditoriums, swimming pools, and gymnasiums which represent a large outlay of funds often are used only a few minutes a day or even a week.

In like manner, the efficient principal would carefully avoid wasting the time and energy of a capable teacher with an unnecessarily small class of students, nor would he overburden him with too large a group. Efficiency would direct that extremes be avoided in administering the program. With the ever-mounting enrollments in the secondary school, and the scarcity of funds with which to carry forward the program, it behooves the administration to eliminate any seeming evidence of waste and to use to capacity the entire staff and plant.

Coordination of efforts. *Principle V. The secondary school organization shall be so planned as to allow all members of the staff to function as coordinated parts rather than as individuals.* This is the principle of teamwork in an institution. It assumes that the administration is so coordinated in its functions and so integrated in its program and procedures that one common aim or purpose dominates every phase of the school. Every staff member will be constantly on the alert to find effective

ways to cooperate with his associates and to coordinate his work with the larger program of the school. Extreme individualism, dominating personalities, and difficult eccentricities give way to the success of the larger and more important program of the entire school. This will engender on the part of every teacher a feeling of proprietorship in the school. Instead of a certain course, it will be the whole department or the curriculum of the entire school about which he is thinking and for which he is working. Instead of trying to achieve some notoriety for the club of which he is sponsor, or for the assembly program which his home room produced, he will become absorbed in the work of a committee trying to enrich and refine the extracurricular program of the entire school.

Wide participation in determining policies and programs. *Principle VI. Democracy of procedure demands that both faculty and pupils have a large part in the determination of all policies and programs.* Instead of being an autocrat, the principal should deliberately share with his teachers the duties and responsibilities of the management of the entire school program. The whole staff has a right to expect to participate in formulating as well as executing all important school policies. The principal who secures the maximum teacher participation in the administration of the school will get much useful help and wholehearted cooperation and support from his staff. Suffice it to say that the success of an administrative procedure frequently depends in great measure on the teachers who carry it through. If they have had some part in formulating this procedure, they are better prepared to put it into practice.

Naturally, there is always a problem as to just how far this teacher participation should go. Myers argues that, since the schools are for the purpose of fitting the pupil into our democratic society, they should be very democratic in their organization and administration. He goes so far as to say, "All professional appointments, promotions, and dismissals should be made upon recommendation of a personnel committee

made up of staff members elected by the teaching staff." [1] Lund says, on the other hand, that such a suggestion violates the principle of local control of the school by the board of education. He also brings out the point that such a plan would lead to distrust, suspicion, and internal politics among the teachers.[2]

The middle ground between the extremes on the question of teacher participation in administration is expressed in the following words:

> Administrators are growing in their appreciation of the true functions of leadership. They are operating more and more as cooperators and coordinators. The kind of administration we are talking about puts a premium upon initiative, independent thinking and the will to experiment on the part of teachers. Such an administration develops a staff organization that functions as a clearing house for study, recommendation, or advice with respect to all major problems of policy, program, procedure, and personnel.[3]

Student participation in school control is fully as important as teacher participation. The whole problem of democratizing education has its roots in these two issues. It is becoming more and more evident that the schools have been attempting to educate the students for life in a democracy by an organization and by methods that are often definitely autocratic. Manifestly, this situation should be changed. So far as it is practicable, the students should be allowed to participate in their own control. Student participation provides an opportunity to develop leadership and initiative, to teach cooperation in self-governing procedures, and to improve school discipline and school spirit. If a disciplinary program is to be successfully handled, it must have the support of a majority of the students. This support can best be secured by letting the students have a share, under guidance, in formulating the

[1] Alonzo F. Myers, "Will Education Go Democratic," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, XI (January, 1937), 266.

[2] John Lund, "The Administration Looks at the Schools and Democracy," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, XI (April, 1937), 479–82.

[3] John Lund, "The Schools and Democracy," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, XI (April, 1937), 471.

program. The most effective curb on a recalcitrant student is the disapproval of a majority of his own group. The best plan of student participation involves the organization of representative students elected to assist, through cooperative effort, in working out helpful social relationships in school activities and civic problems.

This democratization of the secondary school influences not only the managerial or administrative side of the school, but the instructional program as well. Myers strikes the keynote of the situation when he says:

> Our schools must be changed from authoritarian schools to truth-seeking schools, from teacher-dominated schools to child-centered schools. Our textbook-dominated schools, once so necessary because of the ignorance of our teachers, can and must now be superseded by schools in which a library method predominates. The pupil must be encouraged to question statements, to compare conflicting viewpoints, and to arrive at independent judgments, utilizing a variety of sources, including current literature, and first-hand observation and experience.[1]

Authority commensurate with responsibility. *Principle VII. The delegation of authority shall be commensurate with the assignment of responsibility.* If the principal is to be successful, he must delegate many duties and responsibilities to others. It is humanly impossible for one person to carry out all the administrative details connected with the operation of a secondary school. Responsibilities may be delegated to the assistant principal, department heads, dean of boys, dean of girls, director of guidance, director of extracurricular activities, or to individual teachers, as the condition may justify. However, all the authority that is necessary to carry out an assignment must accompany the request, if the program is to be a success.

Ultimately this principle means that, in the distribution of duties, subordinates shall be expected to carry the amount of authority consistent with the accomplishment of the undertaking. It is foolish for a principal to expect a teacher to meet a given responsibility unless that teacher has all the necessary authority. The failure of the government under the Articles of

[1] Myers, *loc. cit.*

Confederation was caused by its lack of power to carry out the duties entrusted to it. Such a condition in any part of a school system will cause a similar failure.

This principle is closely related to Principles V and VI, which are concerned with coordination of efforts and wide participation in determining policies and programs. It must be understood that Principle VII refers only to the performance of duties in the particular sphere to which the person is assigned and for which he is held responsible. Manifestly, very definite limits or goals must be set for each large unit of the administration in order to avoid overlapping or duplicating of functions. A thoroughly coordinated organization, with definite lines of authority fixed and specific functions for each part outlined, is necessary to an effective and smooth-running school program.

Consider special aptitudes and limitations. *Principle VIII. Efficiency in procedures necessitates that the special capacities and limitations of all workers be considered in cooperative undertakings.* As indicated elsewhere in this volume, every teacher must "double." He must carry his regular assignment of teaching. He must carry, also, his share of those extracurricular and noninstructional duties that affect the program of the whole school. In arranging teaching schedules, the principal should see that each teacher works in those spheres of learning where his special training may function best. It is in the other phase of the teacher's work, however, that the greatest care must be exercised if educational efficiency, professional growth, and personal happiness are to be conserved. Every member of a school organization possesses special talents that must be called into action if the faculty and the school make the greatest progress. Some members are good in dramatics, some in music, and some in plays and games. Others are strong in sponsoring publications, tournaments, student councils, or assembly programs. It is the first duty of the principal, or his assistant, to inform himself of these talents and abilities and to see that they form the basis of each teacher's administrative assignments. All members of the staff should be studied in terms of their special abilities and desires.

All new or incoming members should be placed in the program on a temporary assignment after an analysis of their personnel records has been made and personal interviews held, subject to adjustments later. Such a program implies a complete set of personnel records in the administrative offices and an employment policy in the system which seeks staff members with special abilities and specific training for certain definite jobs.

Prevent overlapping of functions. *Principle IX. In a cooperative educational program it is essential to define the functions of each unit to prevent overlapping.* Perhaps no one thing causes more grief or unhappiness than misunderstanding. Hazy regulations, indefinite assignments, and careless instructions lead to misunderstanding, confusion, unhappiness, and discontent among staff members. Consequently, it is desirable to have a set of agreements defining the limitations, activities, and relationships of each division of the organization.

When two persons are assigned the same task and each is held individually responsible for results, the inevitable outcome is friction and discontent. Teamwork is based on mutual understanding and cooperative effort, not on distrust, suspicion, envy, and lack of confidence. When friction develops between the high school principal and the superintendent of city schools, usually the argument is over the overlapping of the powers, duties, and prerogatives of each person's office. This friction is likely to result if the work and responsibilities of the two offices have not been definitely agreed upon. Some school systems are now defining more explicitly the exact powers and duties of each school official, thus removing the causes of discontent.

Major decisions based on relative values. *Principle X. In all major administrative decisions in the secondary school, the matter of relative values enters as a determinant.* In trying to set up the program, the high school principal is faced with a multitude of important issues. For example, in the field of instruction, shall the staff attempt some directed study at school or let the bulk of the study continue to be done at home? Shall recitations be 45 or 60 minutes in length? Shall the faculty

stress oral or written English? In the curriculum, shall one or two foreign languages be offered? Shall solid geometry and trigonometry be dropped from the mathematics offerings? Shall physics be offered for only a few students? In physical education, shall the major sports be dropped and all the time and attention be devoted to an intramural sports program? Thus, the day is filled with making decisions which at heart are administrative judgments as to relative values. There is no rule or set of rules a principal can use in this situation. The danger he has to guard against is violation of the best interests of his faculty and students. He must keep his decisions in harmony with a good, sound, basic, educational philosophy.

Welfare of entire school paramount. *Principle XI. Consideration of the school as a whole shall be the guiding principle in the determination of relative values.* Obviously, this principle is closely related to the immediately preceding one. The entire problem is sufficiently important, it appears, to justify an approach from two slightly different angles. Experienced administrators will affirm that adequate understanding and proper implementation of Principles IX and X are especially significant in successful administration. These principles pertain to preventing overlapping of functions and to considering relative values when making major decisions.

Perhaps the main job of the high school principal is to see that desirable balances are maintained. No doubt the importance of this particular responsibility accounts for the common criticism of the administrator as a "fence-rider." This criticism is certain to come from the extremists or those who see but a part of the picture or problem. The school principal must see all of the design. He must know fairly both sides. This knowledge will often lead him to make decisions that will maintain a balance between extremes of philosophy, of practice, and of ambitions of staff members.

If the administrator believes that the school's chief responsibility is that of reform, he will lead his staff as far as possible in a dominant interpretation of reform. He will view the whole job of the school in such light. Even so, respect and con-

sideration must be given to any staff members who disagree with this philosophy. Certain relative values are inevitable in view of the right of teachers and patrons to act reasonably in accordance with training and beliefs.

Likewise, if the administrator personally believes in a traditional conception of education, he is obligated to extend respect and privilege to those of the staff and community who are interested in the development of modern education.

If the staff and principal agree that the real job of the school is to provide the education that is best for the students, a sincere endeavor should be made to offer as many different kinds of educational activity as all of the factors would seem to justify. The chief concern of the administrator will be to see that the various factors are given balanced consideration and that relative values are maintained.

For example, an enthusiastic teacher or department chairman may easily create prejudiced choices of elections. There are schools that have unusually large enrollments in subjects that in those particular localities have little justification. For many years, the strong personality and special enthusiasm of an able teacher maintained an amazing enrollment in Greek in a certain school, although the school constituency was dominantly industrial in character and needs.

Similarly, a teacher of extraordinary ability and ambition may be unusually successful in the development of a new subject or a new method of teaching. Acclaim, publicity, additional compensation, and social and educational prestige may follow. A new pattern of success is created within this particular school. The principal is faced with many and diverse suggestions from various teachers. Some of these are obviously imitators of the new pattern with poorly conceived ideas and inadequate plans. As a result, the time and energies of the students may be wasted unduly. A balance in experimentation is desirable.

The weighing of relative values will often involve augmenting or curtailing the activities of individual members of the staff. The football coach may seize every opportunity to place his

teams in the most favorable situation. Sometimes he will do so at the expense of other sports.

The choir director may be similarly interested in making his organization the outstanding one in the school. To do so, he will demand and take an inordinate amount of rehearsal time. He will impose qualifications for choir membership that will prevent members from participating in any other extracurricular activities.

Recently, an educational periodical gave acclaim to a school of middle size that had developed an especially distinguished band. Perusal of the article disclosed that the unusual place of the band had been achieved at the cost of a well-balanced program of activities. The band had become the only organization of real merit within the school.

The faculty director of a student publication may be so interested in winning the top rating in a national contest that he spares no pains to obtain the best students for his enterprise. Under his enthusiasm the competition for participation becomes so keen that his students are denied other worthy experiences.

An overambitious sponsor of a subject club may arouse an enthusiasm that will develop parties, dances, sales campaigns, and programs costing much in time and money.

Similar examples of distorted values or lack of balance may be found anywhere in the school program. Administratively balanced consideration and treatment is needed for such phases of the school program as: (1) college preparation in relation to the school as a social agency; (2) general education as affected by the demands for specific vocational training; (3) interscholastic debate in relation to the speech needs of all students; (4) music as performance or as appreciation; (5) duplicated activities by school and community or a coordinated program.

Whatever the problem is, its relation to the school as a whole is of primary consideration. It is by such consideration, adequately given, that relative values may be determined and desirable balance maintained.

Policies and programs consistent with school's philosophy. *Principle XII. All administrative policies and programs shall be consistent with the underlying philosophy of the school.* Consistency is a prime element in the behavior of a secondary school principal. If he expects the organization to run smoothly and efficiently, he must have an underlying philosophy of secondary education that serves as a basis of all his work. In the first place, his educational program must be consistent with the underlying purpose of the school. If he is at the head of a trade school, his problems will differ from those he would face in a comprehensive high school. If he is in a junior high school, his responsibilities will differ from those in a senior high school. But, in any case, his program of education must be in agreement with the larger fundamental purposes of the school. This would hold true even if his own personal philosophy of secondary education did not agree in every instance with that of the school in which he found himself. The consistency of the school's program with its declared philosophy of education should take precedence in every instance.

Likewise, the administration of the school should be consistent with its underlying philosophy. For example, the principal could not justify interscholastic football among adolescent boys in a junior high school, or interscholastic basketball for growing girls in any school situation. Likewise, he would not be consistent in enforcing a rigid, militaristic type of discipline in a high school whose stated purpose is to educate students through participation in actual experience for living in a modern democracy.

Professional growth of the staff. *Principle XIII. The spirit and work of the organization shall be such as to encourage and provide for the professional growth of the staff.* The principal's leadership finds a crucial test in his influence on the professional attitudes of his staff. His tone of voice, his incidental comments, and even his facial expressions are important factors in the professional life of the faculty. If the administration encourages the staff to study phases of the life of the

school, encourages summer-school study, assists in selecting appropriate professional books and journals to read, and holds professional faculty meetings, his attitude and influence will permeate the whole organization. The staff will feel encouraged to forge ahead professionally with an enthusiasm that will have telling effects. In such an atmosphere, the administrative personnel will act as guides or sponsors for the entire staff in seeking out professional activities of real merit, planning ways and means of pursuing them, and bringing the results of their research and investigation back to the school to enrich its entire program.

Promote desirable public relations. *Principle XIV. The principal and his staff should keep the superintendent, the board of education, and the general public informed of the policies, programs, and achievements of the school.* One of the most common faults of school officials is their failure to keep the general public informed about their program and accomplishments. Apparently, they become so deeply engrossed in their tasks that they neglect to supply the detailed information needed to keep the public properly informed. Discretion must always be used to avoid overpublicity which builds up in the minds of the citizens of the community the idea that the school administration is too publicity minded and, consequently, that its materials must be taken with a grain of salt. Yet, the other extreme of having no definite program of informing the public is negligent and dangerous. The ideal toward which to strive is an effective program for giving the public in a systematic, orderly way the substantial facts of the program. The public relations program should disseminate worth-while information concerning the entire system, give credit where credit is due, feature the outstanding accomplishments of the various departments of the school, and call attention to forthcoming events of significance. At the same time, the public relations program should acknowledge certain shortcomings and failures and point out revisions and improvements that are needed if the system is to keep abreast of the times and to give the children the type of education they deserve.

Optimistic outlook and constructive policies and procedures. *Principle XV. The whole spirit and morale of the administration should be fundamentally optimistic in its outlook and constructive in its policies and procedures.* In these days of great uncertainty and floundering, almost every educational principle and practice is being questioned. Therefore, it is imperative that educational leaders and workers seek solid moorings and anchor themselves to a progressively safe and sane, forward-looking program of education that will develop the best in each student in terms of his own personality, and at the same time safeguard those strong fundamentals on which our American democracy is founded. Such a philosophy of secondary education would avoid the cry of the alarmist who feels that everything is on the way to perdition because we've broken loose from our ancient educational moorings. It would avoid also the urge of the ultra-radical who sees in any change a break with tradition and consequently a move in the right direction. Either attitude is wrong and forebodes eventual trouble.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Cite an illustration where a teacher was assigned a responsibility but not given adequate authority to discharge it.
2. How much authority can a principal delegate to his faculty on discipline? on assigning marks? on accepting excuses for absences? on selecting textbooks?
3. Should a student be graduated if he cannot learn algebra?
4. Under Principle III, what subjects can a principal conscientiously prescribe for graduation from senior high school?
5. Suppose a high school of 500 students uses the industrial arts shop only three periods per day. Can this idleness of expensive equipment be justified?
6. Criticize this situation: Mr. A has specialized in Latin. He has only a few students to teach in each of three Latin classes. Principal B pieces out his teaching load with two English composition classes.
7. If the head of the English department and one of his teachers cannot agree on a matter in their department, how should the problem be solved?
8. Criticize this situation: The principal decides the school annual

is not worth what it costs, and announces none will be issued this year.

9. Mary, who is a social misfit but outstanding in her classes, wants to go to the library to study during the club period. What type of interview should the home-room teacher have with her?

10. Henry, who is rather frail, wants to study for an examination during the physical education period. What decision probably should be made in his case?

11. Principal B is rather individual in his ways. One day he will do one thing and the next day do something quite inconsistent with it. How could this situation be improved?

12. Miss X has not been to summer school since she got her bachelor's degree eleven years ago. She rarely reads an educational book or a professional magazine. What kind of school policy would be needed?

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Chapter V. THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND TEACHING STAFF

Good Personnel Essential

The staff of a high school of fair size is likely to have a personnel representing many fields of specialization, and the proper working of the school demands that this personnel be well trained, highly efficient, and very cooperative. No responsibility in the field of school administration is more difficult to discharge competently than that of selecting and assigning the personnel required for the different services of the school. It is commonly recognized that the success of a school depends on the caliber of its teaching and administrative personnel. It is therefore imperative that every effort be made to select well-qualified persons for the different tasks to be performed. This chapter describes some of the major positions in a high school and gives suggestions regarding the organization of personnel for effective work.

The Principal

The importance of the principalship. If a secondary school is to be genuinely successful, the principal must be a dynamic leader who, in cooperation with the faculty, sets the standards and establishes the ideals of the school. He is directly responsible for the school's activities and, likewise, for its spirit and morale. The program is to a large degree influenced by his suggestions, and his interests and efforts may modify or extend the offerings to meet the needs and interests of the students. If the principal is an individual of definite ideas and has been in his position long enough to win support for them, his ideals will be reflected in the life of the school and the community. Today, when secondary schools all over the country are endeavoring to adapt their programs to modern

conditions, the principal is in a particularly strategic position.

To be truly successful, he must possess the qualities of vision and leadership resulting from natural ability and training. One of the major obligations of a real principal is to improve the quality of instruction through constructive leadership. He also has an unusual opportunity to influence and guide the students in matters of health, character, and mental development. The principal has opportunity for constructive leadership in his relationships with the community, as well as with the teachers, students, and others connected with the school system. His various duties and relationships require careful attention, tact, and organizing ability if the school is to achieve its purposes.

Evolution of the principalship. The principalship has had an interesting development. Its evolution may be divided into five stages. First, the principal of the one-room secondary school had influence mainly with the pupils in his own classes. Second, when two or more teachers were required in the school, one was designated as head teacher or principal. His chief duty, aside from teaching a full schedule of classes, was that of maintaining discipline. Third, as the school continued to grow, several teachers were employed, and the responsibilities and influence of the principal expanded. His leadership broadened, and he began to exert a more vital influence over the pupils of the school, the program offered, and relationships in the community. Fourth, the point was finally reached, as the school continued to grow, where the principal was increasingly freed from teaching duties. He was now in a better position to devote his attention to the school as a whole. Such matters as supervision, discipline, organization, public relations, and personnel work were given more attention. Fifth, as the school enrollment increased still further and many high schools became large and complex organizations, vice-principals, deans, heads of departments, and clerical help became part of the school organization. The principal became more and more a professional leader as details of administration and

problems of students were centered in these individuals. His function became that of coordinating the efforts of all individuals under him, integrating the school as a whole, keeping in touch with outside agencies, and devoting attention to professional improvement and progressive programs.

Qualities of administrators. A frequently recurring problem in the selection of administrative officers is comparison of the abilities of men who are candidates for the same administrative position. To make such comparisons is usually a difficult undertaking, especially when all of the men are qualified and possess good records in previous positions. However, it has been found helpful to compare men on the basis of the eight requirements given herewith.

Culture. A school administrator should be able to make a favorable impression by his appearance, manner, use of English, and general culture, all of which affect his ability to win confidence and respect. It will be at once recognized that physique, bearing, physical fitness, alertness, tact, and courteous manner are included under this requirement.

Resourcefulness and vision. A school administrator should outrank the typical teacher in sensitiveness to problems in the field of schoolwork as well as in resourcefulness and originality in solving these problems. This sensitivity is of great importance as it determines ability to discover a variety of ways of solving problems. An administrator who possesses this quality in a marked degree is certain to be progressive in trying to improve the general efficiency of the school and to be very helpful to his associates.

Administrative ability. A school administrator should possess organizing ability, especially the ability to use the services of associates and clerks. By this is meant the administrative ability to plan work intelligently, to delegate authority wisely, and to make certain that results are obtained. The administrator who has this particular type of ability will anticipate most of his problems. He will succeed not only in solving problems but also in creating such conditions that many perplexing problems will be entirely eliminated.

Ability to stimulate others. A school administrator should possess the ability to develop potential powers of others. To rank high in terms of this requirement, one should have the ability to arouse the ambitions of associates and to create a desire to do a very effective type of work. The self-centered administrator cannot meet this requirement.

Interest in people. A school administrator should have a genuine interest in the members of his staff and a sympathetic understanding of people in different walks of life. A person seeking a career as an administrator should possess a very real affection for people and should find genuine pleasure in helping others to solve their problems. Unless an administrator meets this requirement, his work is likely to be cold, heartless, and relatively ineffective. Even an adverse decision by an administrator possessing these qualities is usually accepted gracefully, whereas such a decision by the opposite type of administrator is certain to cause much friction and needless trouble.

Scholarship. A school administrator should have obtained an amount and quality of general college training that will compare favorably with that of his associates in school work, and that represents real scholarly achievement in some academic field. It is unnecessary to defend this requirement. It is desirable, however, to call attention to the self-evident fact that an administrator must have the respect of his staff. The administrator lacking a broad and generous scholarly interest can hardly expect to have the genuine respect of the teacher who has had superior training.

Professional knowledge. A school administrator should be well acquainted with the best things in educational literature and should be particularly well informed concerning valid principles and effective practices in matters of organization and administration at the level of his position. It is very clear that an individual may fulfill many of the requirements of a good administrator and still lack the knowledge required for success in a given situation. It does not necessarily follow that because one has executive ability he may be transferred from the management of a department store, a factory, or a large office

to a public school situation. A public school administrator must possess a certain type of information and skill. He must have: (1) a well-conceived definition of the values of education at different levels, (2) a knowledge of standards of attainment at different levels together with an understanding of the way to use measures of attainment, (3) a knowledge of the laws of learning with special reference to application in certain types of work, (4) an understanding of the legal enactments that affect the public schools, and (5) an acquaintance with effective policies of organization and administration.

Ideals and professional spirit. A school administrator should maintain loyalty to high ideals of life and a genuine devotion to professional ideals. This requirement must be met by every administrator.

Importance of native qualities. Certain of these eight requirements may be called personal qualities or native characteristics, but to a degree they may be cultivated and developed through training and experience. Scholarship and professional knowledge, of course, may be improved through the right kind of training.

The successful assignment of members of our profession to those duties for which each is best prepared is one of the most important means of ensuring the most efficient use of the time, money, and ability devoted to the cause of education. The selection of men and women for administrative positions is peculiarly important because of the beneficial or harmful effects of their decisions and actions. Many teachers find that their most serious burdens in life are connected with the task of adjusting themselves to the policies, decisions, and whims of incompetent administrators. If one could devise a set of standards that would keep out of administrative positions both the incompetent and the relatively inefficient, one would make a very real contribution to the happiness of teachers, students, and parents.

Too many who fall short of most of the native requirements for administrative work are trying to prepare themselves for principalships through professional courses. It should be em-

phasized that the mere acquisition of professional information does not guarantee success in the field of school administration. Both the personal qualities and the professional training are needed. It cannot be said that one is necessarily more important than the other, but it can be asserted that an individual must possess both the personal and the professional qualities in at least a fair degree if he is to meet with success in an administrative position.

Professionalization of the principal. The need of specific training for the position of high school principal is now definitely established. To a greater and greater degree, school officials are selecting administrators on the basis of preparation and experience. During the past decade, the completion of a full four-year college course has become a minimum educational requirement for a high school principalship almost anywhere in the United States.

In addition to an undergraduate course similar to that required for high school teachers in many of our states, many authorities consider two years of successful teaching experience a necessary requirement for high school principals. The technique of secondary school administration is changing so rapidly, with new problems being presented from day to day, that a principal without adequate experience in the classroom would scarcely be able to furnish proper leadership. As a teacher, he should be able to respond to supervision, to adjust himself to situations that arise within the classroom, and to participate in the activities of the school.

As greater demands are placed on the principal, the need for professional training at the graduate level becomes more obvious. Graduate work in education is found among the requirements set up by many superintendents and boards of education. Its necessity is evidenced by the increasing number of principals who are making this preparation in vacation periods.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools recommends specifically the master's degree as a professional requirement for principals. The general trend is

decidedly favorable to such a requirement. In fact, a number of high school principals now hold the doctor's degree, and a much larger number of principals already holding executive positions are now in pursuit of this highest degree. Hitherto, the doctor's degree has not been considered particularly desirable for principals. However, opinion on this matter seems to be changing gradually. It seems reasonable to assume that increasing numbers of principals will seek the doctorate. There also seems to be a trend toward the strictly professional degree of Doctor of Education, rather than the Doctor of Philosophy degree.

There is a strong trend toward professional improvement, either in service or by attendance at summer schools. Educational institutions are developing more and more special conferences in both winter and summer terms in order that professional improvement may be more specifically realized.

Professional experience of high school principals. About one half of the secondary school principals have been elementary school teachers at some time in their career. Approximately 5 per cent of them have entered the high school principalship directly from the principalship of the elementary school, 20 per cent from positions as senior high school teachers, and 10 per cent from positions as heads of departments in high schools. The assistant high school principalship has furnished about 8 per cent of the principals, and about 2 per cent have entered from the position of superintendent. Two thirds of all the principals have entered the profession from schools other than the ones in which they became principals.

The median percentage of time allotted to some of the major types of activities by principals of city high schools, as reported in the National Survey of Secondary Education,[1] was: administrative work, 40 per cent; supervisory duties, 27 per cent; guidance, 10 per cent; clerical work, 9 per cent; and public relations, 8 per cent. While this analysis may not represent the

[1] Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., and Roy O. Billett, *Administration and Supervision*, p. 117. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 11.

time which should be given to the various activities by the principal, it gives some insight into how the principal's day is apportioned.

Duties of the principal. The duties of the principal have been analyzed and studied by many writers. The variation in duties between large and small schools is largely in the amount of time devoted to teaching and to routine clerical duties. As the school increases in size, the time spent in teaching decreases and much of the office detail is taken over by clerks.

The duties of secondary school principals fall into three major classes: administration, the direction of the social life of the school, and the improvement of instruction. The third class is most important from the principal's standpoint. He should delegate the direction of social life to competent teachers and the routine administration to the assistant principal and to clerks. In common practice, the principal spends too much of his time with routine clerical work, neglecting his supervisory duties. It is apparent that in many instances the principal is wasting valuable time with duties that should be delegated and is spending too little time with the real duties of the principalship.

Studies of administrative practices indicate the duties in which the principal has final authority. In most schools, the superintendent has the final authority in the functions of rating teachers, selecting textbooks, revising the curriculum, making courses of study, and selecting school equipment, although he should act on the recommendations of the principal. The board of education has final authority in selecting, promoting, demoting, and discharging teachers, but the board should act on the recommendations of the principal transmitted through the superintendent. The principalship will not assume its rightful place among the professions until the principal is given greater responsibility and larger opportunity to work out especially significant problems with members of the staff.

The principal's activities. To compile an exhaustive list of the activities which the principal may be called upon to perform would be virtually impossible. If the executive head of

the school is a good organizer and plans his work carefully, he can delegate many of the smaller tasks to capable teachers, administrative assistants, and students. The size of the school will determine to a large extent the number and kind of activities that should be delegated to subordinates. The following list gives some insight into the great variety of tasks for which principals are responsible, whether or not they themselves perform all these activities:

1. Select, rate, and promote the teaching staff.
2. Make daily schedule of classes after gathering all information necessary for use as a basis for the schedule.
3. Help determine and execute the policy of the school.
4. Make plans for the opening and closing of the school year.
5. Plan public relations activities.
6. Supervise the making of students' programs.
7. Interview and hold conferences with superintendent, board members, and other school officials in regard to business matters.
8. Confer with local, county, and state supervisors in regard to changes and improvements in instruction.
9. Participate in curriculum studies and supervise curriculum planning activities.
10. Supervise classroom work of teachers.
11. Supervise athletics, contests, home-room programs, assemblies, and other school activities.
12. Receive parents and other visitors to discuss problems of the school.
13. Confer with teachers and students.
14. Direct innovations, experiments, and research.
15. Plan and supervise testing programs, summarize results, and adjust the program of the school in accordance with the facts brought to light by tests.
16. Help coordinate social, health, recreational, and other services of the community.
17. Attend court and confer with officials when pupils get into trouble.

18. Find ways and means of helping handicapped children.
19. Write recommendations for students who are going to college or applying for employment.
20. Study causes of failure and help students overcome their obstacles.
21. Keep check on absences and tardiness.
22. Answer questionnaires and handle correspondence.
23. Cooperate with and participate in civic organizations.
24. Fill out or check inventories.
25. Make reports to local, county, and state school officials.
26. Requisition equipment and supplies.
27. Confer with agents, visitors, and inspectors.
28. Make budget for the school and keep or check records of all financial accounts of school activities.
29. Sign checks, pay bills, and prepare payroll of school, or see that such functions are performed.
30. Help with administration of cafeteria.
31. See that economical and efficient use is made of equipment, light, heat, and water.
32. Attend professional meetings, conventions, and discussion groups.
33. Keep in touch with recent educational literature and new movements in secondary education.
34. Arrange and attend faculty meetings.
35. Help select textbooks, library books, auditory aids, maps, pictures, and other visual aids.
36. Enforce school laws.
37. Speak before school assemblies, clubs, home rooms, and community groups.
38. Hire and supervise janitors, bus drivers, and engineers.
39. Represent the school before accrediting associations.
40. Help student council, senior class, and other groups with special problems.
41. Plan for special events such as American Education Week, Book Week, Health Day, World Goodwill Day, and Commencement.
42. Direct counseling and guidance work.

43. Supervise fire drills and safety activities.
44. Serve as chief disciplinary officer of the school.

Women as principals. Women find fewer opportunities to become principals in secondary schools than in elementary schools, where the type of administration needed seems much better adapted to their interests and abilities. There seems to be a tendency toward employing fewer women as principals of secondary schools and in positions of general school administration. For example, a study in Ohio [1] showed that the number of women employed as school superintendents and high school principals dropped from 101 in 1924 to 43 in 1936.

The Selection of the Teaching Staff

Importance of selecting teachers carefully. The professionalization of education, which has gone forward at a most surprising rate in the past twenty years, has effected many changes in the methods of selecting and appointing teachers. Although it is still possible in the small towns and cities to find members of boards of education hiring and firing teachers, and to discover cases of marked political favoritism in the schools of large cities, such situations are constantly becoming less frequent. Today, more members of boards of education understand the importance of scholastic standards and professional ideals, and more citizens are awake to the need for well-trained and able teachers.

Educational associations and state departments of education have accomplished much by supporting state legislation that has made obligatory certain standards for teachers. Unprogressive school systems have been pulled up to higher levels when their administrators have not had the initiative to improve them. Education courses in teachers colleges and universities have furnished administrators with a new appreciation of the importance of the careful selection of teachers.

Selection by the superintendent. It is generally assumed that the superintendent of schools, as highest executive of the

[1] Earl W. Anderson, "The Woman School Executive," *School Executive*, LVII (March, 1938), 332.

system, is the officer most expert in the selection of teachers. This may or may not be true. In most of the smaller school systems, the superintendent is the only agent who may be assumed to be capable in the difficult art of selecting teachers.

The superintendent of the small school cannot wait for applications to come in. He must search if he is ambitious to obtain the best his school system can afford. Teachers colleges, university departments of education, and commercial agencies will furnish most of his prospects. Adequate information as to the personal qualities, education, scholastic record, professional training, character traits, and professional interests must be considered. If possible, perusal of a candidate's papers should be supplemented by a personal interview. To a surprising extent, teachers are selected on the meager basis of papers and photographs. Photographs are especially unreliable, and the first personal contact between the executive and the teacher hired "sight unseen" often produces a mutual or one-party shock from which there is little chance of recovery.

The more experienced an executive becomes in the selection of teachers, the less credence he accords to recommendations. Outside of certain fundamental data concerning age, positions held, subjects studied, and salaries received, agency papers are for the most part of doubtful value unless the persons writing the recommendations are known. The interview, followed if possible by a visit to the teacher's classroom or to the college campus, is probably the best single criterion of a candidate's suitability for a certain job. If his classroom can be visited, the teacher may be observed at the work which he will be expected to do, and helpful conversation may be held with his associates and supervisors. If the campus is visited, the college instructors may be afforded opportunity to give important information not otherwise obtainable, and the candidate may be seen in relation to his environment. It is certain that most school executives do not give enough thought and energy to the selection of teachers.

Balance in the selection of types of teachers. The executive who employs teachers should, first of all, be thoroughly

cognizant of the needs and possibilities of his school organization. Candidates should be classified and considered in terms of their suitability and promise as affecting the forward development of the school. The teaching staff is too often unbalanced in its make-up. Executives often choose teachers because of their personal predilection for certain types of physique. Athletically minded administrators have a disproportion of college athletes, while the Phi Beta Kappa employer may rest his choice too largely upon recipients of the coveted key. Some school superintendents or principals, wishing to play safe, employ a type of conservative teacher, slow but earnest, hesitant in response but always dependable, plain in appearance but spotless in deportment, old-fashioned in method but amenable to suggestion. Some schools have a group of teachers who are surprisingly accurate replicas of the person who has employed them. The school executive cannot go far astray in the development of a well-balanced and reasonably creative school if he deliberately sets out to build up a staff of teachers which will be representative of the best of many different types of personality.

Selection by other officers. So far in this discussion, it has been assumed that a single executive could be responsible for the selection of teachers. What has been said about method, of course, applies equally well to any officer who carries the responsibility of employment. It is open to serious question, however, whether the judgment of a single person can be adequate for thoroughly satisfactory selection of teachers. In the small system, the practice of selection by one individual may not easily be changed or improved. The principal is too often an uncertain and fleeting member of the system, and he is usually overburdened with inescapable duties. In spite of the difficulties and restrictions of the situation, the principal should be a party to the selection of teachers whenever such an arrangement is at all feasible. Where the size of the school gives the principal a distinct responsibility as head of his unit, there is reason to believe that he can well assume some of the responsibility involved in the selection of the high school staff.

The principal should have a well-defined plan for the organization of his staff, whether it contains several teachers or many. Obviously, this plan should have been worked over and approved by the superintendent, but it is the principal who is expected to put the plan into operation and to maintain it effectively. He is more closely in touch with the teachers and so he should know how best to capitalize their abilities and minimize their weaknesses. Hence, the principal should have a voice in the nomination of teachers. Furthermore, the pooled judgment of both superintendent and principal should be better than that of either one alone. Executives who have achieved marked success in selecting teachers obtain many different judgments concerning the person being considered for employment.

In the large secondary school where there are department heads, it is good practice to obtain the expert aid of the department head before making the choice. If the system is large enough, there may be an assistant superintendent (or vice-principal or director of personnel) who assumes the special duty of doing the initial searching out of the desirable candidates and who reduces the list to a few possibilities. Department leaders and other assistants may pass on these selected cases, the principal or superintendent after due consideration giving final approval to a single candidate. In well-ordered systems, the board of education formally votes appointment of the candidate nominated, the qualifications and reasons for recommendation having been adequately presented.

Factors in the selection of teachers. There are numerous factors that administrators should consider in selecting teachers. The chief factors are scholastic and professional preparation, experience, training for the direction of extracurricular activities, certification, health, and personality. Every state has standards for secondary school teachers that have been set up by acts of the legislature or rulings of the state board of education. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and other accrediting organizations have set up minimum standards for teachers.

Administrative responsibilities of teachers. One of the characteristics of a democratic administration in a secondary school is that responsibility is widely shared. All members of the staff should have a part in determining and carrying into execution the policies of the school. The faculty meeting is one medium for giving teachers an opportunity to express their opinions on different phases of the work and to cooperate in solving common problems. In many schools, the principal arranges numerous administrative committees to look after different tasks. Students as well as teachers are often assigned administrative duties.

The staff shares in common the task of carrying out the aims and functions of the school. If a teacher is given an opportunity to participate in shaping the policies, developing the program, and putting both policies and program into execution, he feels a greater responsibility for the successful operation of the school. The principal has the task of coordinating and directing all the efforts of the different individuals or groups of individuals. The principal of a democratic school fosters and encourages initiative and cooperation instead of the docile and subservient attitude found in some schools.

The Organization of the Administrative and Teaching Staff

Planning the organization. The method or plan by which the principal hopes to effect the best organization of his group of teachers is determined largely by the size of the staff. In a three- or four-teacher school, the principal usually assumes direct charge of practically all details of administration. Observation seems to indicate that this is not always the best arrangement. Often, the principal of the small school is by reason of his brief tenure most unfamiliar with local conditions. There is usually at least one teacher who has been connected with the school for some time and whose familiarity with what has been done could be used to good advantage in carrying over some virtues of the former administration. The principal who properly capitalizes such possibilities will have begun his organization wisely, however simple it is to be.

Even in the smallest group of teachers, the principal will need to consider individual interests and abilities. The assignment of the subjects is the first test of the principal's wisdom. The special activities that are likely to be most successful will be those organized around the interests and abilities of the teachers.

The larger the school becomes, the more the principal should realize that it is difficult for him to see and to know and to do everything in the school. While this is a most obvious statement, the number of principals who apparently have never learned its truth is indeed surprising. One may find schools with 2,000 or more students where the principal earnestly endeavors himself to direct all the workings of the school. Such instances are common in systems where the same administrator has accompanied the school in its growth over a period of years from a small beginning to a system of considerable size. This same inability to adjust to changing conditions has been somewhat characteristic of other kinds of executives. The recognition of this fact in the fields of business and industry is strongly indicated by the current tendency to select younger executives. Obviously, there is a loss in not making executives of men who should have profited greatly in wisdom and leadership through the maturity of experience. This loss is quite unnecessary once the beginning executive in any field of endeavor realizes that much of his success is dependent on his ability constantly to adjust his thinking and his practice to the changing scene. The school executive must be especially alert in order that his own growth may keep pace with his job and that his own position may be properly coordinated in the organization of his staff.

The assistant principal. It is poor organization, indeed, that offers no insurance against the possible incapacity or loss of the chief executive. Even in a comparatively small school with no more than half a dozen teachers someone should be designated as first assistant to the principal. The title is not particularly important, though common usage suggests that of assistant principal. The fact that there is someone who feels

the immediate responsibility for carrying on lends needed security. A serious period of uncertainty, often accompanied by political manipulation and opportunities for the display of rivalry, is avoided by having a qualified assistant who assumes responsibility the moment the principal leaves the scene, either temporarily or permanently.

Selection of the assistant principal. In general, the appointment of the assistant principal should be made through the joint recommendation of the superintendent and the principal. The assistant should be distinctly responsible to the principal in much the same way as the principal is responsible to the superintendent. In schools with fewer than 500 students, the assistant may well be appointed each year by the principal, much as principals appoint department heads and chairmen of important standing committees in the large schools.

Should the assistant principal be selected with the thought of his qualification for the principalship in case of vacancy? This is a much-debated question. Usually, the wise solution is one that takes account of the personalities involved. Often, the best assistant principal is one who is particularly strong in certain fields of work. This is especially true if the assistant, by assuming certain responsibilities, may compensate for certain weaknesses of the principal. In many schools the principal and his assistant complement each other, gaining thereby a cooperative power not easily found in a single individual. A number of administrative duties require a nicety of management, an accuracy of detail, and a mechanical skill that are natural to the specialist but are rarely found in the type of personality that lends itself best to the diversity of demands incumbent on the principal. Men having the qualities needed for the specialized duties are often found among teachers of mathematics and science. These men are often the strongest personalities in the school, and many of them like to do the mechanical engineering type of administrative work. Hence, they are very desirable prospective assistants.

Duties of the assistant principal. Attention has been given to the selection of the assistant principal, not only because the

position is important but also because its importance has not been generally recognized. His duties vary greatly, and depend chiefly on the size of the school and on his own and the principal's interests and capabilities. In schools of less than 1,000 enrollment, the assistant principal usually teaches one or more classes. Experience in the field indicates that the assistant principalship can well be a full-time administrative position in schools of more than 500 students. In many schools having fewer than 300 students, it will be necessary for the assistant principal to teach approximately a full program unless he also does coaching or has other time-taking extraclass activities.

Among duties commonly found in the assignments of assistant principals are the following: (1) general disciplinary control, (2) locker management, (3) daily schedule, (4) pupil program adjustments, (5) office management and records, (6) traffic and assembly management, (7) acting as boys' adviser, (8) management of athletics, (9) direction of student activities, (10) business management, (11) administering general matters otherwise unassigned, and (12) acting as principal when the principal is away. In the smaller schools, the assistant principal usually receives a salary slightly higher than that paid to any of the other teachers. In the larger schools, he usually receives from $200 to $1,000 more than the maximum for department heads.

Administrative assistants. For the most part, officers listed as administrative assistants are found only in the larger schools. In practice, however, there is use for such assistants in schools having only a few teachers. In such schools, the purely routine duties may be divided between two or three teachers, thus making them in a sense administrative assistants and enabling the principal to give his time and efforts to more important phases of the administration. The larger school, with its more abundant opportunities in many special activities, should make extensive use of the services of administrative assistants. In a school of 600 or 700 students, the principal and his assistant principal are not equal to the task of performing all of the activities that are necessary and advisable for the

most effective administration. It is almost impossible to find a school oversupplied with administrative assistants. Except in the rarest instances, the reverse is true.

Duties of administrative assistants. In schools of moderate or large size, administrative assistants perform such duties as:

1. Manage athletics, if this is not done by the physical education department.
2. Manage finances of student activities.
3. Direct the general program of student activities.
4. Assume leadership in a program of curriculum development.
5. Solve local research problems.
6. Administer the measurement and testing program.
7. Plan home-room programs.
8. Direct the assembly program.
9. Supervise the program of educational and vocational guidance.
10. Act as dean of girls or of boys.
11. Visit homes.
12. Check attendance and punctuality.
13. Supervise collection of records for the registrar's office.
14. Administer the public relations program.
15. Provide for professional improvement of the staff.
16. Take care of maladjusted and problem cases, special classes, and the psychological service.
17. Supervise health education and activities.
18. Supervise charitable services, such as Junior Red Cross, tuberculosis seals, and Thanksgiving and Christmas funds.
19. Manage interscholastic and local prize contests.
20. Make and adjust the daily schedule.
21. Supervise lockers or cloakrooms.
22. Handle traffic problems, safety education, corridors, streets, and assemblies.
23. Manage the cafeteria.
24. Inspect building and grounds.
25. Manage free textbooks, school store, or school bank.

The above list is suggestive; it is by no means exhaustive. None of these obligations may be easily dispensed with, and each of them is discharged to some degree in almost every school. In keeping with the size and character of the school, these activities may be organized: (1) as the extra duties of regular teachers, (2) under the headship of teachers who have each been relieved of one or two classes, or (3) as distinct departments with full-time directors and supervisors. In any case, the alert principal will provide for the effective organization and administration of these important activities, using whatever methods seem most suitable in his situation.

Women as administrative assistants. Some women have the interest and ability already indicated as desirable for certain types of administrative work. Such women are usually highly successful as administrative assistants.

The dean of girls. In addition to meeting the peculiar needs of girls, the dean of girls is usually concerned with the direction and supervision of the social life of the school. Beyond these duties, there is the widest diversity of practice. The dean of girls is usually found only in schools having more than 1,000 students, although there has been a marked increase during the past decade in the number of deans in schools of 500 to 1,000 students. In the smallest schools, it is helpful to designate one of the women teachers as the special adviser of girls. In the larger schools, the girls' adviser gives less time to teaching and more to her advisory work. Except in the largest schools, the dean will carry some teaching assignment. The dean usually receives more salary than the other teachers, although her position may be in reality merely that of a magnified adviser of girls. When the position has been elevated to a real deanship, the salary is often on a par with that of department heads. When it is comparable to an assistant principalship, the salary is adjusted accordingly.

Qualifications and duties of the dean of girls. A dean of girls should have such qualifications as physical strength and attractiveness, emotional poise, intellectual achievement, creative and receptive imagination, aesthetic and spiritual appre-

ciation, ability to inspire confidence, interest in people, sense of humor, able leadership, and good judgment.

In some states, deans of girls are required to possess teaching certificates of the first rank, while in others a certificate in administration is demanded. In a few states, there is a movement toward the provision of a special certificate for high school deans. Most deans have had previous teaching experience as well as experience as counselor and as sponsor of school activities.

The dean of girls should have broad training and experience in order to perform efficiently her wide variety of duties. These duties usually are of the following types: administrative, teaching, student guidance, leadership in the social life of the school, and supervision of extracurricular activities.

The dean of girls in the large school. In schools having 2,000 or more students, there is some question as to the efficiency of a single dean. Her duties have such broad scope that she finds grave difficulty in working as much as she would like to with the personal problems of girls. Often, her work becomes that of directing social activities, with little or no opportunity to know more than a few girls intimately. In the larger schools, where there is a more or less definitely organized guidance system, many of the girls' personal problems are considered by an adviser who has been assigned a small group of girls. Only the exceptional cases go from the advisers to the dean. In the largest schools, the dean may give all of her time to such problem cases.

The large school may find it advantageous to have several deans, rather than one. Some schools have found it helpful to have a dean or counselor for each grade. In such cases, the deanship operates more definitely in accordance with its original purpose of dealing with personal and social problems. In the largest schools, there is a need for a head dean acting as a supervisor and coordinator of the entire field of work with girls and as a specialist in the solution of the problem cases.

The dean of boys. Some of the larger schools have deans of boys. There usually is not much emphasis on work that is

peculiar to boys, but rather the capitalization of a popular term in order to establish a disciplinary or conduct office. Unquestionably, there is need in large schools for an administrative assistant who is adept in the control and supervision of the behavior of boys, and, to the degree that such an office is made constructive in its general operation and highly specialized in the solution of the exceptionally difficult cases, it may be thoroughly justified as a deanship of boys.

Use of committees. No matter how small the school, there will be some need for use of the committee idea. The larger the school the more essential becomes the committee system. When there are fully organized departments and an adequate number of administrative assistants, there is often less use for committees, since the formal organization of the school apparently meets the needs. There is danger of mechanization and arbitrary practice in such schools. The classroom teachers are not likely to grow into the life and work of the school as they should.

The use of committees can be overdone, as in some schools where every teacher must be on some kind of committee. Obviously, committees should not be created unless the cooperative and representative effort of several teachers is clearly the best means of accomplishing important and necessary work. However, the advantage of the committee as a psychological approach to some problems should not be disregarded.

Every school will find it advantageous to have certain standing committees. Some of those most commonly found deal with: (1) curriculum changes or construction, (2) student activities, (3) the library, (4) professional improvement, (5) publications, (6) commencement activities, (7) faculty welfare, (8) public relations, (9) social affairs, and (10) scholarship. In some schools, several of these phases of school life are grouped, and the number of committees thus is smaller.

There is always abundant opportunity for special committees to deal with temporary questions and to carry on formal projects arising out of discussion in faculty meetings or out of some

pertinent condition in the school. Examples from successful practices are investigations relative to the marking system, health, failures, salaries, how to study, special methods, and professional ethics. Out of a committee study, it is often possible to develop a general faculty project of large significance to the effectiveness of the school. Several schools have in the past found it helpful to appoint a committee for each of the famous seven "cardinal principles" of education. Recently, some schools have had committees on "The Issues," "The Functions," "Social and Economic Goals," and other reports by national committees.

Departmental Organization

Values in departmental organization. The chief value of departmental organization should lie in its contribution to the improvement of classroom instruction. When there is more than one teacher of any given subject, it is desirable to have some coordination of content and of method. Someone should take the lead in developing the course of study and in arranging for the proper correlation of efforts. Many principals have attempted to act in this capacity for all subjects, even in comparatively large schools. Casual inspection offers abundant evidence of their failure in all but the most exceptional cases. Except in small schools, it is obviously impracticable for the principal to attempt to look after the details of departmental work.

Duties of department heads. If there is any broad attempt to segregate students according to ability, to adjust content to individual ability, or to experiment with new materials or new approaches to problems of instruction, a departmental or subject leader becomes essential. The department head becomes, also, an important executive officer in relation to such matters of routine as: (1) the distribution and care of free textbooks, (2) the allocation of supplementary books, (3) inventories of equipment and supplies peculiar to the department, and (4) departmental uses of the library and other special rooms and facilities, such as visual aids and motion pictures.

Some of the more significant duties and responsibilities of department heads are those concerning: (1) the departmental courses of study; (2) relations to the subjects of other departments; (3) the investigation and recommendation of new textbooks; (4) recommendation as to the assignment of teachers; (5) introduction of new teachers; (6) student, parent, and teacher relations with respect to departmental problems and questions; (7) organization and conduct of departmental meetings; (8) determination of standards and measurement of results within the department; and (9) detailed supervision of instruction in the department.

Department heads usually receive from $200 to $500 more in salary than regular teachers.

The department head as leader and supervisor. Ideally, the department head should be superior in the art and technique of teaching, and he should have considerable administrative and creative skill. It is especially important that he be well trained professionally and of broad understanding and generous outlook in relation to the school as a whole. It is most unfortunate that many department heads consider themselves specialists within a narrow field and thus develop a distorted view of the relation of their subjects to themselves and to the school.

In general, department heads are merely somewhat glorified teachers. The only observable distinction is often a slightly larger salary than that of the regular teacher. Principals would be able greatly to improve supervision if they set up real opportunities for the departmental leaders to do the work. If the department has more than three teachers, there should be some opportunity for the head to function as a classroom supervisor. When there are more teachers in the department, a proportionate increase should be made in the time allowed for supervision.

It is doubtful that department organization should be formally recognized if there are only one or two teachers in the departmental group. Informal organization more often designates the leader as chairman who operates for the most part as presiding officer of group meetings. Some large schools use

the title of chairman even for broadly developed headships. There is some support of a theory that the chairmanship of a department should rotate through the membership of the group. Educatively, this scheme has possibilities for the individual, but in practice there are many low spots in accomplishment. The sum total of results usually is less than when a person with adequate power and responsibility carries out a constructive program over a period of years.

Administrative responsibilities of the department head. Principals often find that the department heads form a desirable group for organization and practical use as the members of a principal's cabinet or administrative council. Many questions of coordination between departments can be worked out most conveniently through such organizations. There are also many problems that need more intimate and detailed discussion than can be carried forward well in the large faculty group. This administrative council can be an effective clearinghouse for many questions of policy and should be especially helpful in obtaining intelligently cooperative action from those who hold the key positions in the school organization.

Directors and coordinators. The current movement in the reorganization of the curriculum has emphasized the need for correlation or unification of some subject fields and for changes in content and teaching procedures. Therefore, directors or coordinators are needed for programs of curriculum development. The increasing emphasis on guidance, placement, and personnel development has brought directors and special officers of various titles into these fields. The increased development of school and community relations and the closer affiliation of the school with industry call for coordinative leadership and direction.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. List the chief influences which are tending to make the principal more of a professional leader.

2. What academic and professional qualifications should a principal possess? Contrast these qualifications with those required 50 years ago.

3. Which of the usual activities of principals could be delegated to clerical workers? to members of the faculty?

4. "The most important function of the administrator is the selection of teachers." Is this statement true? Justify your answer.

5. Should the applicant's age be a determining factor in teacher appointments? Explain fully.

6. What are the chief responsibilities of department heads in high schools?

7. Discuss teacher characteristics that contribute to successful teaching; characteristics that are handicaps.

8. Prepare a set of principles or standards you would use in selecting high school teachers.

9. What are the duties of the dean of girls? the dean of boys?

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Chapter VI. MAKING THE DAILY SCHEDULE, AND OPENING AND CLOSING THE SCHOOL YEAR

The Significance of the Daily Schedule

Three closely related problems in the administration of a secondary school are: (1) the construction of the daily schedule, (2) the opening of school at the beginning of the year, and (3) the closing of school at the end of the session. These problems test the leadership and vision of the high school principal. Haphazard planning of the daily schedule will result in much waste of time and effort by students and teachers, loss of morale throughout the school, and lack of confidence in the principal by the school patrons. In fact, many schools accomplish very little during the opening and closing weeks of the school year because of confusion and disorganization that result from lack of previous careful planning and schedule making.

A carefully planned schedule is an outline of the day's work which indicates: (1) time of beginning and ending of school day; (2) time of beginning and ending of each class period, activities period, and home-room period; (3) subjects and activities offered; (4) days on which each class and each activity meets; (5) name of the teacher in charge of each class or activity; (6) room in which each class or activity meets; and (7) time, length, and number of intermissions.

The daily schedule is to the school what a timetable is to a railroad. It is the business of a school to offer instruction. The first essential of such instruction is a program that will avoid conflicts between classes and will properly serve the interests and needs of the students. No two schools present exactly the same situation. Each situation must be analyzed and dealt with individually. However, there are certain procedures which

are common to the solution of most schedule-making problems.

Factors Involved in Making the Daily Schedule

Two kinds of factors influence schedule building: (1) factors that are relatively fixed and not subject to much variation by the schedule maker, and (2) those that apply particularly to the local school and should be adjusted in accordance with the local conditions.

The relatively fixed factors include: (1) the limitations of the physical plant, (2) legal requirements by the state, (3) regulations by the school district, (4) standards of accrediting associations and the requirements of the colleges most pupils expect to attend, and (5) custom and public opinion of the community.

The other factors which influence schedule building include: (1) teaching combinations required by accepted standards or preferred by teachers; (2) length of school day and class period; (3) special training and interests of teachers; (4) the activity and lunch periods; (5) allotments of time for home-room, guidance, and administrative activities; (6) length of time allowed students to change classes; (7) distribution of extra-curricular responsibilities among teachers; and (8) organization of the curriculum.

Preliminaries to Schedule Making

Promotion reports. Preliminary to making the schedule, it is necessary to know the total number of students who are to enter high school from the local elementary schools, the students already enrolled, and the students who will be in the system for the first time. In general, the survey of incoming students is made early in May. In the high schools of several cities, this work is completed at the end of the sixteenth week of the semester. In obtaining data from the elementary schools, blanks are usually sent to the various schools, the principals of these schools being responsible for sending in their enrollment reports. If an eighth-grade student signs a registration

blank in the spring, he may be expected as a registrant in the fall.

Registration estimates. Registration may be satisfactorily calculated on the basis of past performances. The last year's program, together with the teachers' class lists, will determine the number of returning students and the size of the individual grades. In some systems, teachers send in lists of probable failures at the end of the fourth bimonthly marking period. In other systems, this list is disregarded until the end of the twentieth week. Others hold that the first week in May or even the first week in April is not too early for a reasonable estimate of the number of pupil failures. Not a few schools disregard the failure list entirely, taking the position that this number does not have any direct bearing on enrollments in general.

Organization of the curriculum. Before beginning to arrange the schedule of classes, the administrator must have at hand a list of the courses to be offered by the school for the semester or year. A number of schools make it a practice to offer a particular semester course the first half of the year, followed by a related course the second semester. For example, sociology is offered the first semester of the senior year and is followed by economics the second semester. To reverse the procedure and offer economics the first half of the year and sociology the second might result in many conflicts in students' schedules. In many small schools, it is necessary to give certain courses in alternate years and to adjust the schedule accordingly.

The administrator must know when each subject is to be included in the curriculum. He must also know which of the subjects in each curriculum are constants and which are variables. Core courses and broad field courses may involve two or more consecutive class periods and thus affect the schedule making.

Building facilities. The possibilities for success of a program do not depend entirely on the efficiency of the faculty. The building itself must furnish facilities for study and for physical and social development. Every student must be pro-

vided with a seat, yet there must be an economical use of the plant. Hence, information must be gathered regarding the number and capacity of the classrooms, which rooms may be used for home rooms, the number of study halls, and size and equipment of the shops, laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, and auditorium. Seating capacity and the equipment of the cafeteria or lunchroom determine in a large measure the length of the noon recess. It is well to investigate the adaptability of room and subject, as well as the relative placement of the various subjects. Much inconvenience may be avoided by seeing that an orchestra rehearsal is not under way while the adjoining rooms are scheduled for classes whose success depends on hearing.

The number and length of class periods. Many schools have increased the class period to 50 minutes or more. The use of longer periods crowds more classes into each period and requires that a larger number of classrooms be available each period. It also makes it desirable to reduce the teaching load from six to five classes per teacher. The longer classes have the advantage of permitting more emphasis on supervised study.

Length of the school day. In most junior and senior high schools, the school day has increased to 6 hours. By starting the first period at 8 : 40, four 45-minute periods or three 60-minute periods and a home room session for 15 or 20 minutes are made possible in the forenoon. However, the time of the opening of school in the forenoon is a matter that must be adapted to local conditions and custom. In most communities, if the school opens before 8 : 30, parents are likely to find the arrangement unsatisfactory and students may be forced to hasten through breakfast and morning tasks to keep from being tardy. The closing time is usually determined by the opening time, the average school having a working day of 360 minutes. In schools where only 30 minutes is allowed for the lunch period, the closing time may be 3 : 30 with opening time 9 : 00.

Sessions in the school day. The large majority of secondary schools have abandoned the half-day session, sometimes

called the single session. Where it still is in use, students who are dismissed at noon usually spend the second half of the day in activities other than study. The half-day session does not meet the needs of students under modern conditions. The many outside activities that may attract them are often of doubtful educational value.

Small communities often find the double session, with students going home for lunch, a desirable arrangement. In schools where overlapping sessions are necessary, the arrangement should be regarded as only temporary.

The enrollments of secondary schools have grown with such rapidity that often a community finds it difficult to provide the needed additions to buildings and equipment. This has forced the schools in such communities to double up on their buildings and equipment in order to accommodate all the pupils. By starting sessions as early as 8 : 15 and permitting the pupils in these sessions to leave at 1 : 15 or 2 : 15, and having other students report at 10 : 15 or 11 : 15, it is possible to serve a much larger group. During the past few years, many schools have taken care of more than twice the number of students their buildings were originally designed to accommodate. This required a shorter school day for each student. It is an undesirable situation and should be remedied as soon as possible.

Estimating the number of class sections. From the registration estimates, the probable enrollment in each section can be calculated. It is now necessary to determine the number of class sections which will be required. Before this task is begun, the desired minimum, maximum, and average size of the classes should be decided. Eight or ten is ordinarily the minimum number of pupils for which a class will be conducted in small schools, while twelve or fifteen tends to be the minimum for large schools. The standard section size in most schools would probably not exceed 28 or 30 students. The size and number of classrooms in the building often determine, to a large extent, the number of students assigned to each section. Classes in such subjects as physical education and

music may be much larger than classes in ordinary academic subjects, while practical arts or laboratory sections may be smaller.

Forming class sections. How shall the personnel of the class sections be determined? There are three methods in common use. The nonselective method is used in many schools, but is becoming less common each year. This plan is to assign students to sections by alphabetical order or permit them to enroll in whatever section they desire. Another method is to select the students for each section on the basis of curriculums. College preparatory students are placed in one or more sections, commercial students in others, etc. An advantage of this method is that it permits the teachers to adapt courses to the needs of students in different curriculums. The third type of procedure is the homogeneous-grouping method. This method grew rapidly in popularity until recently. It consists of placing pupils of approximately homogeneous ability in the different sections. In this procedure, data from intelligence and achievement tests, records, and recommendations from advisers are tabulated and used. The new urge for more democratic procedure has cast doubt on the desirability of segregation of pupils according to ability. It is true that some schools carried segregation too far. Some schools use segregation mainly for the slowest pupils with some similar special attention to the brightest group.

The three methods of grouping pupils for class-section assignment defined above are also used in assigning pupils to home-room sections. In all types of sectioning, years in school and credits gained are determining factors. For home rooms, some schools segregate by grades; others cross-section two or more grades.

The activity period. The practice of providing a special period devoted to home-room meetings, club activities, assemblies, and the like has added to the complexity of schedule making. A common procedure is to set aside a period of from 30 to 40 minutes to be devoted to the activities and projects of these various groups. In many schools, this time is

scheduled between two regular class periods in the morning or afternoon. In the smaller schools, the period just before the noon recess has been found generally satisfactory. The last period offers the advantage that when necessary meetings may continue after school hours, but there are a number of objections to having the activity period come at the end of the day. Perhaps the greatest objection is that it then conflicts with the athletic program of the school and keeps certain students from participating in athletics or other activities. It also interferes with outside jobs.

In any case, there should be some attempt to organize a schedule for the student activities. The single period within school hours is rather common in junior high schools, but much less prevalent in senior high schools.

Some schools have found quite effective a general calendar type of schedule, making definite provisions for activities before, during, and after school hours for a long period of time. In such cases, all of the student activities are divided according to their similarities or to nonconflicting character, and are given dates and hours. An office date book and a supervisory officer are necessary parts of this plan.

The lunch period. The policies governing the schedule arrangement for the lunch period are determined largely by the equipment of the cafeteria, the character and size of the community, and the needs of the students. In many communities, almost all the students go home for lunch. Many consolidated schools and large city schools must be equipped to serve lunches to large numbers of students. In a great many high schools, more than one period is provided for lunch. This arrangement complicates the making of the schedule. If the schedule provides for more than one lunch period, special plans should be made for accommodating the students released for lunch in order that there will be no interruption of classes then in session. When most students go home for lunch, the period should not be shorter than 1 hour. Where practically all students eat lunch at the school, often the period allowed is only 30 minutes. Another practice is to schedule a 30-minute

home-room period and a 30-minute lunch period for each half of the noon hour. Usually, in this kind of arrangement, the students are divided into two groups. Other schools use periods of regular class length for lunch, some large schools requiring as many as three full periods. The early beginning of the first and the late ending of the third lunch period cause some difficulties. Long lunch periods call for various schemes of recreation and entertainment, so that student interest and energy may be provided for after students finish eating their lunches.

Special classes. In placing the classes in the schedule, provision should first be made for the double-period classes. A number of schools find the alternating period a rather satisfactory way of providing for all classes that meet fewer than five times per week. One group of sections or classes may be assigned to the alternating "B-day" schedule and another nonconflicting set of classes to the alternating "A-day" schedule.

Distributing the teaching load. One of the most important duties which the principal must discharge in connection with schedule building is to distribute the teaching load, that is, the assignment of work to individual teachers with respect to hours of instruction given, kinds of subjects, school grades or classes, size of classes, and noninstructional duties. He should distribute the duties so as to ensure maximum efficiency; this calls for full utilization of all the special abilities of the entire teaching staff. In large city schools, the principal has a corps of teachers trained in special fields and can assign them to their own fields of work. In smaller high schools, it is often necessary for some teachers to teach two or more subjects.

Standards for teaching load. The federal Office of Education defined teaching load as "the total number of pupils divided by the total number of teachers." The ordinary method of determining the teacher's load is to multiply the number of pupils assigned to him by the number of hours the pupils are taught, thus providing a pupil-hour index. The number of

pupil-hours is often the only consideration and the only basis for the assignment of work. Probably the greatest reason for using pupil-hours as a basis is that of the rules laid down by the different accrediting agencies.

With respect to teaching load, the North Central Association evaluates secondary schools in terms of the following criterion:

> The teaching load is not excessive. An average enrollment in the school in excess of thirty pupils per teacher is considered as a violation of this criterion. For the purpose of interpreting this criterion, the principal, vice-principals, study hall teachers, vocational advisers, librarians, and other supervisory officers may be counted as teachers for such portion of their time as they devote to the management of the high school. In addition, such clerks as aid in the administration of the high school may be counted on the basis of two full-time clerks for one full-time teacher.[1]

There are many things to be considered in making an equitable distribution of the school work. Some of these considerations are: (1) the size of classes, (2) number of daily preparations necessary, (3) the nature of the subject taught, (4) the personality of classes, (5) clerical and administrative duties, (6) home life, (7) intelligence, (8) training, (9) experience, and (10) extracurricular duties.

Adaptation to individuals. The intelligence, training, and experience of teachers should receive careful consideration. Young teachers with little or no experience are often ambitious and anxious to "make good" and, because of overenthusiasm and a desire to make a good impression, are willing to attempt almost any extracurricular or clerical duty, even though they may be entirely unfitted for it. Thus, it is not uncommon to find the younger and less experienced teachers carrying a greater share of this work than are the older and more experienced teachers. The principal should keep in mind and guard against this situation.

It is a rather commonly accepted principle that the less experienced teachers should be assigned the smaller share of the teaching load, in order that they may have a greater amount

[1] "Proceedings of the Commission on Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (July, 1940), 75.

of time for study and activities that contribute to professional growth. All teachers should be allowed some time for professional study and meetings, as a part of their work.

Special assignments. Extracurricular activities make a tremendous demand on the school teacher of today. If such work is creditably done, it requires no little effort from teachers through committees or through direct management. Debating and public speaking are recognized activities of the better schools, and these involve expenditure of a great deal of time in selecting and organizing material, guiding the reading, revising speeches, correcting addresses, and training for the contests. In many schools, there are one or more school parties under the management of the faculty, and often these dances and other social events call for thought, wisdom, and foresight on the part of the faculty. In this connection, athletics must be recognized. There must be the "pep" meeting and the consideration of school morale through different activities. Some social recognition is due the returning players. The community is loyal to the boys, and this interest must, for the best results in the school, have some counterpart in the faculty. In the smaller schools, the coach does some classroom teaching, and his load of classroom work should be regulated in keeping with the amount of time given to athletics. In many schools, financial problems arising from athletics, annuals, and school papers call for management and time of teachers. In some schools, there are committees of the teachers and students to manage the social work of the school. Surveys are often made for different organizations. Red Cross and other local drives are made under the management of the schools. All of these activities make demands on teachers and, unless faculty members are added to provide amply for these functions, many teachers carry a load of extracurricular activities in addition to their load of classroom work.

Adaptation for type of subject. Evidently, not all hours of teaching represent equal effort, and not all subjects require the same amount of outside preparation. However, it would be rather difficult in the light of present investigations to state

just what emphasis should be placed on the difference in the amount of preparation necessary for the teaching of various subjects.

Building the Schedule

Methods for construction of schedules. With information regarding the preceding topics, the administrator is equipped with the necessary data and knowledge for use as the basis in outlining the daily plan of work for his school. There are, in general, three methods of working out a schedule which will provide for the different factors involved. These are the mosaic, the block, and the combination methods.

The mosaic method. The commonest method is a sort of trial and error procedure in which teachers, rooms, and class sections are fitted together in the schedule in the manner that seems most satisfactory and efficient. The method cannot be used satisfactorily in large schools where so many complex factors enter into the construction of the schedule. It is best adapted to schools of from 100 to 800 enrollment. In making the schedule for a school with an enrollment of less than 800, the administrator generally knows from first-hand experience the different matters that must be taken into consideration and adjusted. Since most secondary schools fall into this enrollment class, the mosaic method ranks first in frequency of use.

The three steps in procedure generally followed are: (1) to assign sections to class periods and to teachers, (2) to fill in room assignments, and (3) to check for conflicts. The third step is the most difficult, and administrators have been known to spend weeks trying to iron out difficulties and avoid conflicts. A variety of devices have been used in trying to speed up assignments and avoid conflicts. Administrators have tried pins, colored pegs, blocks, cards, and various other movable objects in putting together their "jig-saw schedule puzzles."

The block method. A second method gets its name from the procedure used, which consists of arranging all sections in nonconflicting groups or blocks. Each period in the school

day, exclusive of the activity period, is generally regarded as a block or unit. Students in each year or semester class are distributed to class divisions which are assigned as units to class sections. In making these assignments, the administrator should have at hand: (1) a list showing the enrollment in each class, (2) information on rooms, and (3) data on teachers to be assigned to the various sections. Conflicts may be more easily avoided when dividing the classes into groups if the class is first divided into curriculum groups such as college preparatory, general, commercial, etc., and then subdivided. This system cannot be used to eliminate all conflicts, especially in a school where the curriculum is not uniform or where there is much flexibility between various curriculums. Where several curriculums and many electives in each curriculum are offered, it is obvious that individual choices of students will lead to many conflicts. These will come to light when the student's individual program card is being made out. Approximately the same number of class sections must be assigned to each block in order to balance the schedule from the point of view of students, teachers, and plant limitations. Many schools attempt to assign students to sections on the basis of ability. Then, it is usually desirable to assign at least two sections of the same course to the same period of the daily schedule. The larger the school, the more possibilities of this kind exist.

Variations in the block method. The block type of schedule may be either horizontal or staggered. In the horizontal arrangement, the first block or period, for example, runs throughout the week at the same time each day. In the staggered variation, the block is set at the first period of the day on Monday and Tuesday, the fourth period on Wednesday and Thursday and the eighth period on Friday, or any other combinations that may seem desirable. The same scheme applies to the other periods of the day.

Another variation is called the rotating block. In this, the first or "A" block is set at the first period of the day on Monday; the second period, Tuesday; the third period, Wednesday; the fourth period, Thursday; and the fifth period, Friday. The

second or "B" block may start either the first period of the day on Tuesday or the second period on Monday, and in either case rotates throughout the week as did the "A" block.

The rotation may jump one or more periods or days depending on the times per week a given block is scheduled. In a schedule which provides five hour periods per day, a sixth period may be gained by making all solids appear four times per week rather than five. In the rotating schedule, the fifth block rotates with the rest or it may rotate alone through an otherwise horizontal schedule. The rotating six blocks within a five-period day offers opportunity to arrange easily one isolated or completely free period which can be used for assemblies and activities. One of the authors and the faculty of the Newton, Massachusetts, high school worked out this schedule a number of years ago. That it has a number of advantages is attested by its successful continuance. Following careful inspection, other schools have adopted it.

The combination method. A procedure consisting of a combination of the mosaic and block methods is carried out in constructing the schedules of many schools. The procedure is to place as many as possible of the nonconflicting groups of courses by the block method. In completing the schedule and adjusting parts where conflicts exist, the mosaic method is used.

Modifications for small schools. In making schedules for the small high school, the procedure should be modified for adaptation to the limited number of teachers, to the greater number of one-section subjects, and to the more limited facilities of the high school plant. The irregular student programs must be listed. Block the list of conflicting one-section classes. Beginning with senior subjects, block the rest of the schedule, putting nonconflicting subjects of the same year in the same block. If three or four sections of the same subject are required, it is well to put two in the same block. Arrange the blocks after checking against curriculums and for conflicts. In making up the blocks and arranging them in the schedule, constant checking must be made against teacher assignment

possibilities, the use of rooms, the distribution of study-room load, and laboratory periods. Next, rooms may be assigned and the whole schedule then rechecked.

Studying the procedure in a school. When a principal takes charge of a new school, he must give attention to the procedure in schedule building. Among the questions to be studied are the following:

1. Does the principal secure at an early date adequate information for constructing the daily program?
2. What determines the subjects and number of sections offered in the schedule?
3. How do students in your school select studies?
4. What provision is made for the lunch period of the students and teachers?
5. How are vacant periods provided in the students' programs?
6. What is the method of avoiding conflicts?
7. How are subjects placed with reference to teacher assignment?
8. How are classes equalized?
9. How is the room assignment provided?
10. How are individual differences of students taken into account?
11. Is the time of recitation changed from an early hour one day to a later hour another, or vice versa?
12. How can students be advised to the best advantage?

To these questions may be added a large number of others, including those which concern the actual mechanics of enrolling, and constructing the class schedule and putting it into operation.

Specific suggestions for small schools. Much of the above procedure may be applied to the small school, but a few unique problems arise. One of the authors assisted in the preparation of the following set of directions for program making in a high school having less than six teachers:

1. Keep elective subjects out of conflict with the required subjects.

2. Make allowance for the inexperience of beginning teachers in assignment of subjects, study-room charges, and extracurricular work.

3. Elective subjects should be selected to serve the majority, and the needs of the community should be considered.

4. The principal should keep the first period in the morning and the first period in the afternoon free for office work.

5. Alternate the recitations and study periods for students so far as this is possible.

6. If conflicts are inevitable, serve the majority rather than any minority or select few.

7. The schedule of classes should be balanced; *e.g.*, not all of the more difficult subjects should be given in the morning. This balance should apply to both teachers and students.

8. The assignment for teachers should include conference periods before and after school. Teachers should be expected to be present in their respective rooms during such periods.

9. Whenever double periods are given to laboratory and vocational subjects, such periods should be consecutive.

10. Before the opening of the school year, an assignment card should be made for each student showing the schedule of classes, study periods, room assignments, etc., for each period of the day.

11. As far as possible, teachers should be given room assignments so that they will not have to move from one room to another. This is especially important in those subjects where considerable equipment, apparatus, or maps are necessary. It is important that such assignments be made before school opens in the fall.

12. The daily program of studies should be planned so that the superintendent or the principal will have adequate time for the supervision of instruction.

The Beginning of the School Year

Work preliminary to opening day. It is usually necessary for the principal and some of the staff, depending on the size of the school, to be on the job two weeks or more before the

opening day of the school term. The number of duties which will require attention during this time depends largely on the efficiency of the school organization and whether plans have been made during the closing weeks of the previous school term for the opening of school the following year.

It is not uncommon for many matters to be overlooked or neglected in the rush of events near the end of the school session. New principals sometimes find that their predecessors have left many tasks undone and are forced to develop their plans from such information as is to be had from the records left behind, instructions from the board of education, and interviews with teachers and students.

The principal should plan to keep one or two administrative assistants or capable teachers as free as possible from regular assignments during the first few days to look after emergencies and "fill in" wherever needed. The plans should permit the principal to devote most of his time during the first few days to matters of supervision and direction, adjustment of schedules, and the larger problems of administration. The larger the school, the more necessary it will be to assign specific duties to special officers. Experienced teachers and administrative assistants can help with the conferences with parents and other visitors. If the plans are well laid, many of the details of the first few days can be handled by student assistants. In many schools, the various student leaders have almost as great a variety of tasks during the opening days of the school as do teachers and administrative officers.

The opening of school. To secure the smooth working of the schedule and the consequent stabilizing effect on the morale of the school, it is advisable to have a faculty meeting preliminary to the first day of school. The teachers should be acquainted with their programs at this meeting. It is assumed that factors entering into each teacher's assignment have been previously discussed with each teacher individually. All the necessary blanks should be distributed. Detailed instructions should be given for the first day's procedure and for the participation of the teacher in the general conduct of the school. It

is highly desirable that these instructions be put into clear, concise form and that a mimeographed copy be placed in the hands of each teacher.

The outline of instructions should specify the time teachers are expected to report for duty, all special duty assignments, the plan of operation for putting the schedule into effect, the explanation of the blank forms to be used (particularly those concerning the enrollment of pupils), and the directions for students in making out their programs. Detailed instructions may also be given regarding routine records and reports on attendance of students, handling of textbooks and reference books, temperature and ventilation, scholarship, and other matters pertaining to the school. At this time, the principal should state briefly the general policies of the school. Time should be taken for introducing new teachers and for helping them to learn their initial duties.

The first day of school. The first day of school is a crucial day and tests severely the principal's qualities of leadership. In assembling students for organization, much confusion will be avoided if the students from the elementary or junior high schools have previously visited the school to become acquainted with its general arrangement and the plan of organization in matters that affect them. Placards in the corridors, and student guides who understand what is desired of them, will greatly facilitate the moving of students quickly and without unnecessary confusion to their organization rooms.

The organization rooms may be set up for organization purposes only, or they may be the home rooms or the first-hour rooms, depending on the plan of organization in the school. In the organization rooms, the students should fill out registration cards giving, in full, the information desired for the permanent record of the student. Teachers should make alphabetically arranged duplicate or triplicate lists of all students enrolling. All enrollment cards should be checked against the preliminary rolls furnished from the office, and a report of those not enrolling should be made. This is particularly important in the case of students who are affected by compulsory

attendance laws. The individual program cards should be distributed. The teacher should make a record of any discrepancies discovered by the student, and rectify any mistake so far as this does not conflict with the general plan of placement. The teacher should make all announcements concerning the general conduct and duties of the students and should explain the day's program, giving clear directions for enrolling in classes.

The enrollment periods should be of sufficient length for teachers to secure and check all enrollment cards, to list alphabetically in duplicate or triplicate all students enrolling, and to check those enrolling against the preliminary lists. All new students should be registered and assigned under the direction of the principal or his administrative representative.

At the afternoon teachers' meeting, or by forms for the purpose, reports from the teachers may be obtained, oversize and undersize classes may be equalized, and necessary changes in the schedule may be made. The reports might even be worked out previously in the principal's office so that all changes could be announced at the meeting or distributed by special notice.

Registration practices. Cox and Langfitt [1] divide the registration practices of high schools at the beginning of the school year into two classes as follows:

1. All the steps in the making of the daily schedule have been completed and schedule cards for individual pupils have been prepared and are handed to pupils when they present themselves for registration. New pupils to the school system and certain irregular cases alone require special attention. This plan provides a smooth procedure for the first day and usually enables the school to start with the minimum of friction and loss of time. The individual pupil schedule cards may have been prepared by the clerical or administrative assistants during the summer months or they may have been prepared in partial or finished form by the adviser or committee of teachers before the end of the preceding school term.

2. The daily schedule is completed for the opening of the school term, but the individual pupil schedule card which necessitates the choice of hours and sections — and in some cases, subjects — are

[1] Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, *High School Administration and Supervision*, p. 133. New York, American Book Company, 1934.

prepared at the time of registration. Individual teachers, department heads, advisers, administrative or clerical assistants, approve the registration cards, and the class rolls for all sections are compiled. In some large high schools and in many smaller high schools, this procedure is followed with a minimum loss of time; on the second day of school a full session is held according to the daily schedule. Unfortunately, however, this type of belated practice in many schools leads to a large loss of time which may even extend to continued confusion throughout the first week.

The same authors suggest in detail a plan which may be used when the student schedule cards must be prepared on the first day of school.[1]

Tasks during the first days of the session. Countless matters must be adjusted and given attention during the first few days of the school year. In some schools, especially the smaller ones, the principal will find it helpful to hold a number of short faculty meetings in order to keep the different phases of the work coordinated. A brief meeting at the end of the opening day is often advantageous. However, the principal should be considerate of teachers and make allowance for the fact that they also are under great strain. Meetings should be brief, cheerful, and inspirational. Meetings that are long and trying to the staff may result in much loss of confidence and lack of respect for the principal.

During the first few days there are usually reports to make to the superintendent or the board of education, announcements to prepare for newspapers, adjustments to make in regard to athletics, bookstore, cafeteria, equipment, and library, and numerous other duties. If the principal is a good organizer and has made all the necessary preliminary arrangements, this period should pass with little confusion and loss of time. If the opposite is true, much confusion and loss of time will result, and the morale of the school will be weakened at the very beginning of the year.

Semester organization. Many large schools are organized on the semester plan. A number of the courses are of semester

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 134.

length and credit value. The majority of the courses are of year length and unit value. Depending on the number of half-year courses, the second semester may present problems of organization comparable with those of the first semester. About the same set of factors are involved and the procedure is similar.

The matching of two semester courses so that a given student takes both simplifies schedule making and assignment of students. The more completely the school attempts to fulfill student interests and meet individual needs, the more complicated the semester organization will be.

The one marked difficulty with semester organization is the restriction of time available for schedule making. Ordinarily, the new schedule must be made while school is in session. If the first semester ends on Friday and the second semester begins on the following Monday, the administration must be especially alert and efficient or the new semester starts in blundering fashion. Some schools use a week's interval between semesters so that all may be in readiness, but this loss of time is undesirable and unnecessary.

The End of the School Year

The closing of school. It has already been pointed out that many of the necessary duties in preparing for the opening of school in the autumn can be most efficiently performed during the closing days of the previous year. Some of these tasks, readily taken care of when all teachers and students are on hand and all matters are fresh in their minds, become most troublesome after the summer vacation. It is customary in most schools for the principals to instruct teachers in regard to the duties they must complete before leaving the community at the end of the term. A bulletin listing these various duties is issued by many principals, and salary checks for the last month's service are retained until all tasks have been finished and approved. Some of the tasks that teachers must perform at the end of the year in most schools are:

1. Report on marks of students in all courses, and on

activity points, attendance, and other information required for the student's record to be filed in the central administrative office.

2. Submit reports on textbooks.

3. Make inventories of equipment and supplies.

4. Render financial statements of school activities under teacher's direction.

5. Offer recommendations in regard to changes in school organization, changes in program, new equipment, and development of new activities.

6. Make out report cards of all students under the teacher's direction.

7. Report special honors of students.

8. Check records of seniors, make out lists of credits of seniors for colleges, and recommend students for employment.

9. Turn in plan book and courses of study.

10. Check and return to the office all keys, including locker keys of students.

11. Make suggestions in regard to repairs and improvements needed in the school building.

12. File requests for supplies, books, laboratory equipment, maps, and visual aids.

13. Leave mailing address for the summer.

Summer school organization. If there is a summer school, it, like the regular school year, must be planned in advance. The same factors are usually present, although in diminished degree. Again, the administration must be alert and able, as all of the summer school plans must be drawn and the full schedule ready to operate shortly after the end of the regular year. Many summer schools begin the week following the end of the regular term; others have an interval of a week, or at most, two weeks.

For the sake of efficiency and the welfare of the regular administrative staff, someone in particular should be designated to have direction of the summer school. The core of the staff should probably be made up of the teachers of the regular term, but strictly on a voluntary basis. Many of the regular

teachers would do well to avoid the strain of summer school teaching.

Final duties of the principal. After the principal has received the needed information from teachers, he is ready to prepare his final report to the superintendent or the board of education, to classify the information for use in planning for the next school year, and to make arrangements for the summer months. Among the things he must do, unless he has previously done them, are the following: (1) arrange for janitorial work during the summer, (2) make recommendations in regard to new teachers, (3) requisition supplies, (4) suggest improvements in the school building, and (5) prepare a financial statement for the past school year. Many of the above items will require approval of the superintendent or the board of education.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. List the matters on which the principal should secure data before beginning the construction of the daily schedule of classes.
2. Explain the three methods of determining the personnel of the class sections. Which is most commonly used? Which is most efficient for the large school?
3. Why is the first day of school such a critical day? How can the principal anticipate and guard against the most difficult problems that may cause confusion on the opening day of school?
4. What arguments are there in favor of requiring the principal, or some designated assistant, to be on the job 11 months of the year when the school is in session only 9 or 10 months?
5. Make a list of the tasks that the principal should perform in the fall preliminary to the opening of the school year.
6. Make a detailed outline of how a principal would go about conducting pre-registration.
7. How is schedule making complicated by the home-room, activity, and lunch periods?
8. What length of recitation period is considered desirable? What size of class?

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Chapter VII. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

The Present Need for Improving Physical Facilities

The problem of providing more appropriate buildings and other physical facilities for secondary schools was particularly acute prior to World War II. The secondary schools, for a number of years immediately preceding World War II, had provided somehow for several million more students than the facilities were designed to accommodate. There had been little new building or expenditure for physical facilities during the great depression of the 1930's, other than that which had been made possible by the Public Works Administration. In general, expenditures for building purposes had been drastically curtailed from 1930 through 1939.

By 1945 the lowered birth rate of the depression years had caught up with high school enrollment and some margin of building space had developed particularly in the large cities. The war, too, affected somewhat the holding power of the high schools especially in the non-college preparatory curricula.

Meanwhile all improvement of existing buildings and physical equipment was at a standstill during the war. Thus physical provisions became generally more antiquated and with shortages, high costs, and housing priorities which followed the war the outlook for the solution of building problems was none too bright. In spite of all the difficulties, enterprising school districts were making plans and in some cases new building was getting under way by late 1946.

Improvement in the physical facilities of secondary schools during the next few years is imperative for these reasons:

1. Buildings that have become unsafe or unfitted for educational purposes must be replaced by safe and modern structures.

2. New social and educational demands placed upon secondary schools by modern society have made the modernization of space and equipment prerequisites of present-day education. Old buildings and ancient equipment cannot do the job.

3. Many localities have so changed in character and size of school population that building needs are radically different.

4. Buildings and equipment must now be adapted to a more heterogeneous population than the schools have ever attempted to educate before.

5. The people in the United States are committed to the ideal of universal secondary education. This means that enrollment in secondary schools will increase in the future more rapidly than the growth of the population.

6. There is a tendency to raise the compulsory attendance age to 18 years. This results not only in larger enrollments but in demands for provisions to meet increased needs and interests.

7. By 1955 a new wave of greatly increased enrollment, the result of World War II birth rates, will reach the high school.

Site, Grounds, and Size of Building

The building site and grounds. Where should the building be erected? What size and nature of grounds will the program of the school require? All other factors being equal, the building should be erected in that part of the community where it is most accessible to the group of pupils it is designed to accommodate. The site should be large enough to permit expansion of the building to meet future needs, and to provide adequate playground, athletic, and parking facilities. It should be well drained and graded suitably for adequate landscaping. Play space is especially important, and to a large extent adequate acreage should dictate the location. The building should be removed as far as possible from traffic, noise, and unsanitary conditions. It should be free from any and all obstructions to the admission of sunlight. The building line should be at least 150 feet from the street to assure such conditions.

Often, the high school is located at a certain place because some citizen has donated a plot of land to the board of educa-

tion. Such public spirit, however commendable, should not determine the location of the school if the site is not suitable.

Many sites are chosen without adequate consideration of all the factors. Real estate opportunities and the selfish desires of small groups too often control the decision. A factor of utmost importance is the future growth of population and probable changes in the character of the surrounding property.

There are too many cities of between 60,000 and 100,000 population, for example, which have but one senior or four-year high school (often poorly located), where there should be at least two in different parts of the city. In some of these cities, the school has been located on a new site within the past twenty years. In others, so many additions have been made on an old site that the result is an ineffective hodgepodge. All these are examples of poor planning. It can hardly be emphasized too strongly that all decisions on school sites should be preceded by the most careful surveys made under the guidance of educators trained in such matters.

The building should be planned and constructed to meet the needs of the educational program and to safeguard the health, happiness, and safety of the pupils. The task of the administrator is to make the plant serve the educational program in the most efficient way. The selection of the most desirable site will be no small factor in achieving this objective, and, incidentally, in the cost of upkeep of the school plant.

Size of building. The building should be large enough to meet the needs of the community. For a high school being newly established, a survey should be made to determine the size of building that will be required to meet the needs of the community. An estimate can be made of the number of pupils the new building must serve and the probable increase in this number over a period of years.

In communities where the building is to be replaced because it is no longer fitted for school use, or where an addition is to be made, the task of determining the number of pupils to be cared for is easier. Usually, fairly accurate estimates can be based on records of enrollment for the past few years. Some-

times there are special factors to be considered, such as the beginning of a new industry in the community.

The size of the building will be determined to a large extent by the special facilities which are provided. Many such facilities, however, are essentials for a modern high school and cannot be eliminated without greatly hampering the school's activities. In estimating the facilities of a high school of more than 500 or 600 pupils, the room formula given below may be used. Adjusted to a weekly basis, the formula is:

$$\frac{\text{Number of students registered in subject} \times \text{number of class periods of subject per week}}{\text{Average size of section} \times \text{number of periods in school day} \times 5} = \text{Number of rooms required.}$$

Of course, it will be necessary to calculate the required number of rooms of different types. These calculations should be made separately. For example, such classes as those in home economics, manual training, and chemistry require special rooms. A previous chapter included discussion of the task of planning the daily schedule and making such adaptations to the physical facilities as would permit maximum efficiency. This task is much simpler when the building has been planned to meet the needs of the community than when educational opportunities must be determined after the building has been provided.

The size and shape of the site, efficiency in heating, lighting, and ventilation, and the possibility of future additions should determine whether the H, E, T, L, I, or V type is best adapted to meet the needs of the educational program of the community and to safeguard the health and safety of the pupils. The trend is to construct school buildings which are not tall, except in a few very congested areas of large cities where space limitations are such that buildings of two, three, or four stories would yield too little floor area.

Ensuring maximum effectiveness in the use of the space within the building is a problem that demands great foresight on the part of the administrator. If the building is planned to meet the needs of the school program, the administrator will

have little difficulty in making the program fit the building facilities. On the other hand, changes in the school program that should be made are often forbidden because of inadequate building facilities. For convenience of discussion, the various phases of the building will be classified under three headings:

1. *The space devoted to instructional activities* — classrooms, library, study halls, auditorium, gymnasium, laboratories, shops, visual education room, and rooms devoted to music, dramatics, or other school activities.

2. *Space devoted to activities which may be classed as noninstructional* — administrative, student aid, P. T. A., and other offices; teachers', janitors', storage, and boys' and girls' rooms; cafeteria; and corridors and stairways.

3. *Space for miscellaneous services and equipment of the building* — lockers, seating, heating and ventilation, lighting, water supply, and the like.

Space Devoted to Instruction

Classrooms. The ordinary classroom should be large enough to accommodate 30 to 40 students, but about a fourth or a fifth of the rooms should be large enough to accommodate from 40 to 50 students. This will vary, of course, with the size of the school. With an enrollment of less than 300 the classrooms might be smaller, or at least some of them should be smaller. The larger high school may be better able to plan its program so that a few very large rooms can be used to advantage.

The door to the classroom should swing outward and should contain transparent glass in the upper half. If costs permit, there is an advantage in using the new one-way glass with vision only from without. Sockets for projection machines should be placed in the walls where they will be most convenient. About half of the rooms should be equipped with blackboard on one or two sides, depending on the nature of the instruction to be given in the room. Bulletin boards and exhibit space may be placed on the remaining walls in the space corresponding to the blackboard. The newer schools are adopting various innovations in their blackboard facilities.

The reversible type of blackboard combines the blackboard and bulletin and exhibit boards. Another type can be transformed into a screen for daylight motion picture projection.

Variation in character as well as size is being increasingly sought in classrooms. Some schools have gone far in utilizing special features, such as those appropriate to English, social studies, and languages. It is obviously more readily possible to meet such ideas in furnishings and equipment than in the construction of the room itself. Easily removable walls have been used to advantage to facilitate changing the size of rooms.

The school library. The administration of the library will be influenced to a large extent by the standards and regulations of the accrediting association which affects the school, and by the requirements in the particular state. The principal can delegate to the school librarian much of the responsibility in matters concerning the library. However, he should be familiar at all times with the efficiency of the service the library is rendering. He may secure valuable aid in evaluating and improving the facilities and administration of the library from available score cards for the high school library.

The facilities, plan of organization, and general arrangements for the library represent such diverse practices in different high schools that it is difficult to point out the important phases of library administration in a short discussion. In some schools, the library is combined with the study hall. Other schools use the classroom library system which makes the central school library merely a central clearinghouse. If home rooms or classrooms are to be supplementary libraries, the main library may be smaller. Auxiliary libraries raise some difficult questions of duplicate cost, supervision, and management. However, the books in study hall or classroom libraries are more readily accessible to the students.

The location of the library should be determined by ease and rapidity of access. Generally, it should be placed in the center of the building, on the second floor, if there are three floors. If the library is also to serve the adult community, particularly in the evenings, it is advantageous to have the space on the first

floor, and so arranged that its use does not affect the remainder of the building.

Conference rooms for students and a workroom for the librarian are essential. In addition to these and the reading room, many school libraries have a visual instruction room. This is a list of the more essential equipment for libraries: open shelves, reading tables, card-catalogue case, charging desk, magazine display rack, bulletin boards, files for pamphlets, files for clippings, files for pictures, newspaper rack, display case, inclosed shelves, dictionary stand, atlas case, movable blackboard, museum case, and return box for books.

Study halls. The use of the library-study hall has already been mentioned. This is the arrangement most frequently found in the smaller high schools. In the larger high schools, there are usually a number of study halls where students who are not in classes are segregated from the rest of the school. Often classrooms are used for this purpose, if the building does not provide rooms especially planned as study halls.

Some schools use a combination cafeteria or lunchroom study hall. This is a commendable use of lunchroom space, which often lies idle during most of the day, but if the school is hard pressed for study halls, the problem will be especially acute when the space is being used for lunch. If all the school can go to lunch at one time, the conflict is removed. There remains, in any case, the difficulty of protecting the cafeteria-study hall from the noise and odors of the near-by kitchen. Insulation and acoustical construction are most important if the cafeteria is used also as a study hall.

How large should a study hall be? Many are too large for effectiveness. The best experience indicates that a room housing 50 is not too small for the typical teacher. Crowding in study rooms is very bad practice. If a room is designed for 100 pupils, two teachers should be assigned, but it is still too large.

Where the combination library-study hall is used, the equipment problem is simplified. In addition to library facilities, supplementary books and dictionaries should be available in the combination library-study hall. Careful planning and

adjustment of physical facilities of the study hall will often save the principal much worry and avoid the loss of suitable school morale. The fact that many teachers prefer to conduct an additional class rather than supervise a study hall for one period each day indicates that the situation in regard to study halls in most high schools is not as desirable as it should be.

Auditorium. The auditorium serves an essential function in the modern high school. As the social center of the school and of the coordinated group activities — assemblies, entertainments, lecture courses, school plays, operettas, public speaking, orchestras, glee clubs, dramatics, exhibits, and demonstrations of the home economics, music, and other departments — the auditorium is most important, and its physical facilities require careful planning.

The auditorium of the high school is often designed to serve the community, as well as the school. Although its use by the community sometimes becomes so great as to interfere with its use by the school, this practice is ordinarily desirable. A well-designed auditorium program offers excellent opportunity for desirable school and community relationships which the alert high school administrator will encourage. However, the auditorium should be entirely under school management.

The auditorium should be equipped with a suitable stage, not less than 20 by 30 feet in size. Stages are rarely too large. The stage should be equipped with ample lighting equipment, drops, flies, and other furnishings. Auxiliary space for dressing, scene shop, costume and property room, and furniture storage space should be provided.

Formerly, it was often the practice to place auditoriums on the top floor, because the use was slight. Now that there is much use of auditoriums by both school and community, they are almost always located on the first floor. A current practice is to place the auditorium in a separate wing of the main structure, so that it may be isolated easily during the day or at night. Thus, economy and convenience are secured.

Some schools secure a similar isolation by the use of folding metal gates in corridors. If the auditorium is located in the

center of the building, control is much more difficult, although some passing time is saved in daily use.

The smaller schools often have a combination auditorium and gymnasium. With a stage at one end of the room, folding chairs which can be stored under the stage, movable gymnasium equipment, and a combination of various devices, this plan can be made to serve the needs of smaller schools very economically, if not altogether efficiently. In some schools, this combination auditorium and gymnasium may have to be used for the study hall if the school is overcrowded. This proves to be a very poor arrangement. Large schools which have tried this combination apparently disapprove of it heartily. Both gymnasium and auditorium are so constantly in use that any combination results in conflicts. An interesting variation found more effective in large schools is to combine two gymnasiums in T-shape with a small stage-gymnasium as the crossbar and a very large auditorium-gymnasium as the stem.

The most desirable size of the auditorium is a much debated question and difficult to answer. Ordinarily, local conditions will decide the matter. Some argue that an auditorium should be large enough to seat all of the enrollment, even if there are 5,000 students. No doubt, there are a few events during the year when it is especially desirable to have all of the student body present. Commencement is often pointed to as such an occasion, but with a graduating class of 1,500 students, four tickets per graduate require 6,000 seats, and many friends and relatives will besiege the principal's office to no avail.

The cost to build, to maintain, and to operate an auditorium with a seating capacity of over 2,000 is excessive, especially when the large auditorium can be used effectively for very few occasions. Practically all community affairs and most of the high school use, even in a large city, will call for a seating capacity of from 1,000 to 2,000. Plays, lectures, concerts, P. T. A. gatherings, and various types of entertainment are not truly effective if given before audiences of more than 2,000. Results are, in fact, much better if the audience capacity is no greater than 1,000 to 1,500. To see clearly, to hear well, to

catch the real personalities of the singers, the speakers, or the actors are values especially important for educational purposes, and they cannot be assured if the space is too large.

With increased attempts to extend both pupil and adult participation, and with auditorium and dramatic activities rapidly developing, it may well be argued that a small theater to seat 300 to 500, an assembly hall with full stage to seat 1,000 to 1,500, and a double gymnasium of the type previously indicated would afford ideal facilities for schools enrolling between 1,000 and 4,000 students. The double or T-plan gymnasiums, not only meeting the regular gymnasium use but affording an unusually large seating capacity for the few occasions when it is needed, is especially commended.

The total investment in the auditorium, including properties and furnishings, is usually a considerable sum. The care of the auditorium and furnishings is a large responsibility. Definite rules and regulations governing the use of the auditorium and furnishings, care of the piano, and the like, should be developed by the school authorities. In order that the auditorium may be most useful to the school, a periodical schedule or calendar of auditorium activities should be prepared. If there is extensive community use and the school is also large, it may be advisable for the school to have an auditorium manager or director. There will be much for him to do. He may be either a part-time teacher or a clerk of high capability, depending on the demands of the situation. A permanent stage crew of older students may also prove very helpful.

Gymnasium. The physical and health education program of the modern high school make ample use of the gymnasium in the daily schedule of activities. A gymnasium makes possible a program of recreation, intramural sports, demonstrations, and other activities that have acknowledged values.

Most of these suggestions in regard to utilization of the auditorium may be applied to the use of the gymnasium. Careful planning and schedule making will assure its maximum use by the whole school. In the gymnasium, it is necessary to have an efficient system for changing and checking clothing,

for use of lockers and showers, for proper use of equipment, and for solving the various problems that may arise. The principal, together with the physical and health education teachers and supervisors, should see that appropriate regulations and procedures are put into effect.

If the gymnasium is a separate wing of the main building, the administration of its use by the community is simplified. It is helpful to plan locker and dressing rooms so that conflicts due to use by students and by adults will be reduced as much as possible.

Basement locker and shower rooms are open to question. Suitable sanitation, air, sunlight, and dryness are difficult to obtain in basements. If the main gymnasium is built as a separate wing, a good arrangement is to have a seating gallery on all four sides of the playing floor. Under this gallery, showers, lockers, dressing, storage, and team rooms may be located. The first-floor location will give the air and sunlight that are so desirable. This plan also affords possibly the least costly method of seating a large audience. It also lends itself rather easily to the special large-auditorium need.

Schools of more than 500 pupils should have two or more gymnasiums. An economical scheme is to have one gymnasium only half as large as the other. Boys' and girls' classes can be interchanged on different days to allow for variety in activities. If the two spaces can be thrown together for certain occasions, so much the better. T-plan gymnasiums may be designed to meet the need by folding doors or steel curtains. This proves to be economical, but does bring conflicts in use and a considerable amount of maintenance difficulty.

There is also need for another gymnasium space, a relatively small room of approximately classroom size, to serve as a room for corrective or other special work. A large school will need several such rooms. There is a real need for better provision in physical education for the individual differences of the students.

In the main, size of gymnasiums may be fairly determined by the number of classes in physical education plus the space

demands for basketball, indoor baseball, indoor tennis, and badminton. Small high schools of 300 to 500 enrollment often have a gymnasium that will seat several thousand people. The community demands the space, and if the facilities are also available for other community affairs, as is generally true, there is obviously increased justification for such large space.

A well-designed playing space for league basketball should offer two or three cross-court practice spaces, thus affording opportunity for two or three sections in physical education to meet simultaneously.

The field house is a recent development in the high school world. Impetus has come, in this respect, from the many universities and colleges which now have field houses. Requirements for seating large crowds at basketball games influence the design. Some field houses also have sufficient space for an indoor track and for football and baseball practice.

Sometimes the field house is combined with a large grandstand for the football field. In other instances, it serves as an auditorium for great occasions. In large schools, it is probable that there will be an increasing development of the field house for high school purposes.

Science laboratories. Courses in chemistry, physics, general science, biology, and the like require laboratories with sufficient room space, proper equipment, and apparatus for demonstrations and student experimentation.

Equipment refers to the more or less stationary and permanent materials, such as furniture and fixtures, while *apparatus* refers to the supplies that are moved or replaced from time to time. Standards and requirements with respect to equipment and apparatus in high school science laboratories may be secured from state boards of education and from regional accrediting associations. It is usually required that every science room be equipped with a demonstration table which is provided with a sink, running water, gas, and electricity. Many rooms are planned so that laboratory demonstrations, class recitations, and reference reading are carried out in the same room. The size of the room will be determined by the maxi-

mum size of classes and the number and kinds of sciences taught. A room approximately 24 by 42 feet makes possible a satisfactory arrangement of equipment and apparatus.

Laboratories should be exceptionally well lighted and ventilated. Devices to protect the safety and health of pupils should be used. Basement rooms are generally not satisfactory for laboratory use. Chairs are preferable to stools in a laboratory room. In addition to the development of regulations for the use of science laboratories, the principal must see that an inventory is taken before the close of each school year, that new equipment and apparatus are purchased, and that waste is eliminated.

The former general practice of having separate rooms for recitation and laboratory in each unit of science may be still advanced as ideal, but it is difficult to justify economically. The all-purpose laboratory space is now the common plan, and equipment has been designed accordingly. Increasingly the design is such that the space is suitable for home-room purposes or for any science.

A school will do well to have some large general classrooms which also may be used for laboratories as enrollment shifts in science, art, and other subjects requiring the large laboratory-type space.

The lecture room with raised seats and large demonstration table has almost disappeared from the modern high school; yet this type of room can serve admirably in large schools. Such a room proves especially helpful as a small assembly hall, particularly for visual education purposes.

The greenhouse is a desirable adjunct of an up-to-date science department. It may be attached to the wall of the biology or other science space. The tendency to place science laboratories on floors other than the first often necessitates placing the greenhouse some distance away. A southern exposure is highly desirable. If there is a garden space, a suitable location for the greenhouse would be as a part of the garden design. An ideal greenhouse may well include ample work space which could serve as a class laboratory.

Shops, arts, crafts, and art laboratories. The size of the high school and the interests of students usually determine the variety and nature of the courses offered in the industrial arts which require school shops. Policies concerning organization and administration of physical facilities are important to the successful operation of the industrial arts program. As the instruction in industrial arts is largely individual, the classes should invariably be limited to a maximum of 30 students per class; 24 is a better maximum.

The location of shops in the building should be such that the noise will not disturb students at work in other courses. Separate buildings are ideal, although it is advantageous to have a connecting lobby or corridor. It is especially helpful if both the character and the location of shops are such as to permit changes and expansion, particularly if the school is located in a large city where industrial conditions may shift rapidly.

Shop equipment always presents problems as to expense, care, and efficiency of use. In the past, some schools have purchased shop equipment rather lavishly, with resulting waste in capital outlay and obsolescence. Many small schools have given effective evidence of the possibilities in simple and inexpensive general shop equipment.

Art rooms may be similar to laboratories in general design. They will need special tables, water and sink provisions, ample wall cabinets, and an adjoining supply and storage room. Crafts may be housed also in general laboratories with similar provisions, but including certain items of special equipment.

The safety factor should be given first consideration in all shop planning. A minimum of 30 square feet of floor space per student is usually considered standard. This space does not include storage space, toolroom, finishing room, darkroom, or planning room.

Storage and supplies for the shop or shops may well be concentrated in a single centralized storage room for ease of administration and control. Every piece of equipment should have an assigned place. As in the case of the laboratory, definite regulations and specifications should be drawn up for

the care and use of shop equipment and for the protection of the health and safety of the student.

Home economics rooms. Equipment for home economics has changed markedly since the days when home economics courses included only cooking and sewing. The unit-kitchen system with space provisions designed for two or four girls has become a common arrangement. Modern laboratories also have chairs for class work. Thus, the laboratory is a combination kitchen-laboratory-classroom. Laboratories for other phases of home economics are now usually equipped with tables and chairs. Wall cabinets for supplies and working materials are necessary. The housekeeping suite is a moot problem. The exhibit type, too small for use, is decidedly a waste. There is justification for such facilities if the suite is planned so that the rooms adequately serve for projects in real living. For example, the living room may be used frequently to serve meals to groups of students or adults, and the bedroom may be used as a clinic room for child care and home nursing.

Visual education service, storage, and equipment. Visual aids have a large place in the instructional program of the modern secondary school. They include many kinds of instructional materials, such as models, globes, specimens, museum collections, diagrams, graphs, science apparatus, maps, charts, and various types of pictures. At present, high schools are emphasizing the use of more projected picture material. There are various kinds of projection devices and machines. The *microprojector* makes it possible for the entire class to observe, by means of an image on a screen, the behavior and appearance of microscopic organisms. The *stereoscope* is perhaps the oldest device used in the schools to improve the mental image of objects. *Opaque projectors* are used to project enlarged images of post cards, typed materials, etc. *Glass-slide projectors* are inexpensive and are frequently used in science teaching. The *filmstrip projector* is a device for projecting pictures which are printed on a regular motion picture film. The *motion picture projector* is a valuable visual aid, and high schools all over the country are making more use of it each year. The 16-mm.

machine is suitable for classroom use, and the 35-mm. machine is best for large auditoriums. *Sound picture projectors* have been adapted to school use and picture film libraries made available, so that widespread use of sound projectors in the high school is now practically assured.

The visual aids room should be the clearinghouse for the distribution and administration of all visual aids. It is usually located close to the library and is sometimes considered an integral part of the library. It should be equipped with storage space for the various visual aid devices, and with records and office equipment that will make it possible for the school to get maximum value from the use of visual aids. A clerk or director or part-time teacher should be placed in charge of equipment and service if the most efficient operation is desired.

Motion picture projection booths and screens should be a part of the auditorium, the large auditorium-gymnasium, or the gymnasium if it alone serves as an audience room.

Portable machines and screens may be used for most of the strictly educational film service, although some desirable films are inflammable and may not be used except in booths.

The adequate darkening of classrooms presents a problem. Heavy dark cloth portable curtains are the most economical and may be serviced from the visual education room. Window frames should be equipped with hooks so that the curtains may be easily attached.

Rooms for music, dramatics, and other activities. A well-equipped music room is essential to the modern secondary school. This room should be soundproof, or located in a part of the building where singing or playing of instruments will not disturb classes. Valuable information concerning the planning and selecting of music facilities and the organization of the music program may be secured from the Music Educators National Conference, 64 E. Jackson Boulevard, Chicago. A bulletin, entitled *Music Rooms and Equipment*, prepared by the research division of the Conference would be particularly helpful to the principal.

Much of the music, particularly the large groups in music, may be provided for in the auditoriums. However, at least one other space large enough for band, orchestra, or chorus is highly desirable. Small ensemble work is steadily increasing. Small rooms are needed for this work. The tendency to increase instrumental and vocal class work for small groups of six to ten students also emphasizes the need for studio rooms.

A music room separated from the stage by a folding curtain, or by doors so that the stage may be thus increased to allow for large music groups, is found in a few schools. Music rooms should receive adequate acoustical treatment, the cost of which is not prohibitive if the work is done during the course of constructing the building.

Accounting and supervision in connection with the expensive music equipment are particularly important. Many music teachers tend to be inefficient in these respects, and often a special arrangement is necessary if equipment is to receive proper care.

As it is the plan of many high schools to set aside one period in the day for extracurricular activities, the daily program is usually so planned that the auditorium and classrooms are utilized during this period. By careful planning, the room facilities of the classes plus the auditorium are usually adequate for the extracurricular activities. Generally, the auditorium is used for dramatic and other activities in which large numbers of students participate.

The attention now being given to dramatics requires, however, more facilities than a single auditorium can afford. Schools other than the smallest need the services of a little theater. The larger the school, the greater the need for rehearsal space which, to some extent, approximates stage characteristics.

Large study halls and cafeterias sometimes have a stage or platform at one end. Many schools could well justify having at least one English or social studies room large enough to seat 100 people, and with a small stage at one end. Some schools utilize a portable stage which can be set up in any open space to good effect, particularly for rehearsals.

A few schools have special rooms designed and equipped for such groups as the staff of the school newspaper or the student council. Either of these activities may be housed in rooms used regularly for class purposes, as it would be difficult to justify such provision otherwise. A specially equipped journalism room, for example, may have equipment typical of a city-newspaper staff room, but yet serve for regular English classes. Often a general conference room will serve for student committees and councils as well as for the P. T. A., the faculty, and the board of education.

Space for Noninstructional Activities

Teachers' rooms. Limitations of building space often seem to forbid the assignment of a special room providing office space, desk, and filing equipment for each member of the teaching staff. However, educators believe that such an arrangement would, in many instances, be justifiable in terms of increased efficiency of the teaching staff. As a substitute for a private office, the better schools are attempting to provide room where teachers may work effectively and have access to filing and drawer space. In planning new buildings, provision should be made for a number of small offices for the use of teachers. These offices should be kept free for teachers' work which demands concentration.

Janitor's room. Every high school building should have a room for the use of the head janitor and his assistants. It should be equipped with a locker, a telephone, and materials for keeping records of matters pertaining to janitorial work. The room should provide a lavatory, a small workshop, a receiving room, and a place for changing from street clothes to work clothes. The janitor's room is most commonly located in the basement of the building. Its size, of course, is determined by the size of the school plant and the number of persons on the janitorial staff. The janitor will need also small cupboards or closets or storage spaces for cleaning materials. In larger buildings, these spaces should be located on each floor, and perhaps duplicated in various wings.

Storage and supply rooms. The necessary storage or supply rooms can usually be provided in the basement. There are always tools, unused furniture, laboratory, shop, and office equipment, athletic supplies, and the like that must be stored at different times during the year. Care should be taken not to store material in a place where it will become damaged. The janitor should know where the different materials are stored, and a record of all materials not in use should be on file in the central administrative office.

Boys' and girls' rooms. On each floor of the school building should be located separate toilet rooms for boys and girls All building materials used in these lavatories and toilet rooms should be nonabsorbent and easily cleaned. The ventilation should be carefully planned and should not be a part of the ventilation of the remainder of the building. The doors to the rooms should be so screened that the interior of the rooms will not be exposed to view when the outer door is opened. The janitor should be required to see that these rooms are kept sanitary, clean, and healthful. The rooms should receive a daily inspection.

Cafeteria. The size of the cafeteria and the equipment needed will vary, of course, with the size of the high school and the number of students who patronize it. In addition to standard kitchen equipment, most cafeterias have counters, cash registers, chairs, and tables equal to those of the best commercial establishments.

The location of the cafeteria is important. Too many cafeterias are housed in disagreeable basements. In a three-story building, the top floor is well suited to cafeteria purposes, the only disadvantage being that of accessibility for supplies and for community use. Elevators can easily take care of the supplies, but adults do not like to climb flights of stairs to the third floor. The best location for the cafeteria, if space allows, is probably as a separate wing of the main building.

It is especially desirable for a cafeteria to be adequately treated with acoustical materials. Hard concrete floors, for example, produce much noise and create conduct problems

during the lunch periods. Linoleum or cork composition has been found effective as floor material and as a covering for table tops. Draperies also help to deaden sound.

The purchasing, handling, storing, and serving of food present a number of administrative problems. The principal will often be required to pass on the efficiency of certain devices or to help in the formulation of policies. A well-trained manager or director is essential for the large cafeteria. This person should be an expert dietitian.

The smaller high schools generally have a limited amount of specialized equipment. However, with careful planning the cafeteria can render an invaluable service to the school and operate with a modest equipment. In the smaller schools, the home economics teacher is usually in charge of the cafeteria. The danger is that this work may be allowed to interfere with the efficiency of her teaching. Many problems in the administration and equipment of the school cafeteria have received considerable study in recent years.

Corridors and stairways. Ample room should be provided in the corridors and stairways for traffic in both directions. The schedule of the school can be planned to minimize congestion in traffic. However, if the building has not been planned with enough corridor and stairway space, no amount of care in room assignments will guard against all the confusion which will result.

Corridors should not all be of the same width. The main corridor thoroughfares should be from 10 to 16 feet wide, depending on the size of the school building. The corridors in remote wings of the building and on the upper floors may be from 8 to 12 feet wide. Provision should be made for natural lighting at both ends of the corridors. Drinking fountains should be located where they will be most convenient and will result in a minimum of traffic congestion. Wall recesses, or the inside corners of lobbies, are particularly good locations for drinking fountains. It is usually considered that there should be one fountain for every 75 to 100 pupils and that, irrespective of how small the enrollment of the school may be,

there should be at least one fountain on every floor of the building.

Safety demands that stairways be in two runs, with the width at least 5 feet — enough to accommodate two rows of students. It is better to locate stairways near exits in order to relieve hall traffic. Corridor ends are considered desirable locations. In large buildings, there will also need to be stairways near the centers or intersections of corridors. Corridors and stairways, in all but very small buildings, should take up approximately 20 per cent of the floor space.

Lobbies. Most of the old school buildings had no lobbies. Some of the newer buildings have lobbies. Spacious entrance lobbies are particularly helpful in relieving congestion and making the traffic problem less difficult. A first-floor lobby near the main office, equipped with attractive and substantial furniture, will prove exceedingly valuable. If the building is to house more than 1,000 pupils, lobby spaces at all corridor intersections or T-sections are desirable. If the school has a parking area in the rear of the building and a considerable number of pupils use the rear entrance, a rear-entrance lobby will also be a distinct advantage.

Spaces for Miscellaneous Services and Equipment

Lockers. In some of the very small high schools, cloakrooms are still used for the storage of wraps, hats, caps, books, and supplies of pupils. However, the locker plan is in use in most schools. This plan, which has been found most satisfactory, usually provides, for each student, a locker 12 by 12 by 72 inches, with a shelf for books and hat. In a locker of this size, the pupil may store all such belongings as wraps, hats, books, and supplies when not in use. An oversize locker is of considerable advantage, if cost will permit. Lockers should be built into the walls of the hallways rather than set in rows in a special locker room.

It is best to purchase combination locks whose combinations can be changed, rather than standard locks. If locks are used, they should be furnished by the school. Only one student

should possess a key or combination to each lock. The principal should have one or more master keys to all lockers, or a list of all combinations where combination locks are used. Inspection should be made of all lockers from time to time throughout the year.

Wardrobe cabinets in the rear of classrooms are sometimes used in senior high schools, but more often in elementary or junior high schools. Obviously, they are more inconvenient than lockers, but better supervision and control are afforded.

Seating. The most desirable type of seating for a classroom depends on the methods of teaching. For classes that are conducted in an informal manner, for laboratory courses, and for courses that use the project method, tables and chairs, or other easily movable seating, are most suitable. If the traditional method of recitation is used, the fixed desks and seats may have some advantages. Perhaps it is best to provide two or more types of seating facilities in a school of medium or larger size. This requires careful assignment of rooms by the principal in order that each class will secure the seating arrangement best adapted to the method of instruction being used.

Tables and chairs arranged in various combinations are now popular equipment for the social studies, science, and English. Tables are either round or rectangular. Drawers or open shelves are a part of the table design.

There is much disagreement over what kind of seating is best for the high school library. Use of tables, usually 3 by 5 feet, is widely recommended. In combination study halls and libraries, the fixed single seat may prove most satisfactory.

For auditoriums, chairs set in rows similar to the arrangements found in motion picture houses are satisfactory. A type of folding chair may be used in schools where the auditorium and gymnasium are combined. If the auditorium must serve also as a study hall, the seating arrangements should be adjusted accordingly.

Heating and ventilation. The school building should be equipped with a heating plant which will heat the building evenly and adequately during the coldest days. Large schools

sometimes have a separate heating plant apart from the main building. This eliminates the problem of storage of coal in the main building, and the uncleanliness resulting from furnaces and smoke, and is particularly desirable as a safety feature. The use of automatic stokers and other modern devices reduces the cost and increases the efficiency of the heating plant.

The air within the building should be clean, moist, and moving. Ventilation by mechanical means is preferable. In warm climates, a combination heating and ventilation system is usually most satisfactory. A careful study of the ventilating problem should be made when planning a new school building.

Lighting. The semidirect and indirect types of lighting are usually considered best for high schools. Artificial lighting for use on dark days and in the evening should approximate natural lighting as nearly as possible. The shades for the windows should permit satisfactory adjustment to outside conditions. Lighting facilities for the laboratories, library room, and special classrooms should be adapted to the requirements of the work carried on in these rooms.

A report calling for better lighting of classrooms was issued recently by the American Standards Association. This report, *American Recommended Practice of School Lighting*, was based on a study sponsored by the Illuminating Engineering Society and American Institute of Architects. It declared many school children had so little light for their work that they suffered from eyestrain, irritability, and headaches. Even on a bright day, children in the darkest part of the classroom may get only 5 foot-candles, one twentieth as much light as those near the windows. On a dark day, illumination of the desks may drop as low as 1 foot-candle. The investigators claimed tests showed children did 28 per cent better in reading when they had a minimum of 20 foot-candles. The report recommended a minimum of 15 foot-candles for classrooms and offices, and a photoelectric control to turn on lights when illumination falls below the minimum. Because glare is as harmful as dimness, it also advised that glossy finish on furniture and glass tops on

tables be eliminated, that pictures be varnished instead of glassed, that desks be shaded from the sun, and that indirect lighting be used.

Regulations for parking and storage of vehicles. The constantly increasing use of automobiles by students makes it necessary in many districts to have a parking space near the school building. This space and the regulations governing parking should be supervised by a teacher or special officer. The person in charge of parking arrangements should have the cooperation of the student council or traffic squad (1) in drawing up the regulations concerning parking and (2) in seeing that the regulations are obeyed. These regulations are an important part of the safety program of the school. Parking of automobiles during athletic and other school events that attract large groups of visitors requires special attention. In order to guard against congestion, careful planning and supervision are necessary. Some schools utilize the services of students to control traffic during school events.

A problem which has become serious during the past few years is the storage of bicycles. In many schools, the bicycles can be parked in the basement. In order to avoid congestion and protect the students from accidents, it is necessary to have careful regulations concerning the parking of bicycles. There is need for an officer, possibly a student, who is responsible for the storage of bicycles and who enlists student cooperation and help in working out regulations and putting them into force. In regard to the parking of cars and the control of motor traffic, liability for accident costs has recently served to reduce the use of student officers and patrols.

The parking and garaging of buses has become a necessity with the creation of large districts and school-managed transportation. Ample grounds should include proper driveways, landing platforms, and garages at some distance from the main building.

Playgrounds. Small high schools should have outdoor playgrounds with a minimum of 3, and preferably 10, acres of play space. Larger high schools should have a minimum of 10,

and preferably 20 or more acres of play space. The high school playground presents many problems in administration. Its use during school hours, after the close of the school day, and on Saturdays and Sundays requires the adoption of definite regulations. These should be developed by the principal and his assistants, and passed upon by the board of education. In some communities where the high school is used as a social center, the playground facilities are used extensively by community groups. When these groups are permitted the use of such facilities as showers and dressing rooms, the adoption of definite rules and regulations becomes of greater importance. For schools that can afford it, a full-time director of playgrounds should be employed. In the majority of schools, the physical education teacher and coach are assigned part time to the supervision of playgrounds.

Personnel Needed for the Administration of Physical Facilities

Personnel. The maintenance and administration of a large school plant require the work of persons with considerable executive ability and specialized training. The personnel of such a staff may be designated as: (1) the director of buildings and grounds, (2) the school purchasing agent, (3) the chief engineer, (4) the business agent or manager, and (5) the head janitor or custodian. There are combinations of all of these in different schools. In the small schools, one person may perform the duties of all these persons as well as other tasks.

The director of buildings and grounds may be in charge of only one plant, or he may be employed for an entire city or district system. If in charge of only one building, he is responsible to the principal, who is in turn responsible to the superintendent of schools and the board of education. If he is employed to look after the school plants in the entire city or district system, he is responsible to the superintendent, and frequently has the rank of assistant superintendent.

The task of the chief engineer is to supervise the workers in charge of boilers, motors, etc. The number of persons who will be required as engineers and firemen depends, of course,

on the size of the school and the laborsaving devices which are in use.

If there are two or more persons engaged as janitors, one is often designated as the head janitor. In small schools, the janitor is often superintendent of buildings and plant, chief engineer, electrician, carpenter, painter, mechanic, plumber, gardener, and handy man, while in large districts there may be a different person working in each of these capacities. The large school plants employ a number of service and maintenance men to do the various kinds of work connected with the repair and upkeep of the buildings.

As the janitor is a necessary person in all buildings and a rather important individual in the majority of schools, there seems ample justification for a fairly complete treatment of his work and relationships.

The school janitor. The janitor is charged with the responsibility of maintaining physical conditions under which teachers and students may work to best advantage. His influence is felt in many ways. He is charged with heating the plant, controlling ventilation, cleaning the building, and keeping toilets clean and in proper working order. His influence is so wide and vital that he should be chosen only after careful deliberation.

What are the factors involved in choosing the proper janitor? Complicated heating plants demand a working knowledge of combustion and thermodynamics. The ventilating plant requires a skill that a few years ago was found only in the engineering profession. Vacuum equipment, motors, and air-washing machines in use in some school plants require that the janitor be a technician. He must be responsible for sanitary conditions both within the classroom and without. It is the janitor who is expected to locate trouble in the lighting system. He must know the technique of storing auditorium materials. He performs innumerable services for the teachers, who call upon him to bring supplies, to hang pictures, to open windows, to oil rusting hinges, to adjust seats, and to fill inkwells. He must work in the dirt and dust of the furnace room, and

yet, if summoned to a teacher's room, he is expected to present a reasonably good appearance. He is expected to be courteous at all times.

The principal's relation to the janitor. Since it is the principal who is ultimately responsible for the physical condition of the school, and the janitor to whom the duties are delegated, the relationship existing between them is important.

It is one of the duties of the principal to furnish leadership to the janitor. However, this duty is greatly complicated in some schools by the fact that janitors are appointed without regard to personal qualifications and without the recommendation of the principal. In other words, the principal takes what he gets and makes the best of it.

Often, a new principal finds a janitor who has served in the same capacity under former administrations and who in all probability will outlive the principal in the school. Such a janitor usually knows more about the students and teachers than any one else in the system. This knowledge may be used to great advantage by the principal if he is able to establish a proper relationship with the janitor. This condition is facilitated by keeping in mind the following points:

1. Be open to suggestions from the janitor. Make him feel that you will welcome any suggestions on procedure that he may offer.

2. See that he is provided with adequate quarters and that his supplies are as good as possible.

3. Remember that his hours are long, and see that he is able to get into classrooms by at most 20 minutes after school.

4. Protect him from fussy teachers. Some teachers are never fully satisfied with anything a janitor does.

5. Treat him as an equal. It is just as easy to say "Mr. Brown" as it is to say "Janitor." Often, when showing strangers around the building, it is convenient to let the janitor explain certain things even if you are able to do so just as well or better.

6. Cultivate a "my" spirit. Loyalty to an institution is of inestimable value.

7. Cultivate a professional spirit and help him to find better and more economical ways of doing his work.

8. Train students and teachers to help him in his work by keeping loose papers off the floor, turning up the seats, and other aspects of neatness and consideration.

9. Remember the janitor is human and has his rights. If he has a grievance, let him tell it to you.

10. Often joint courtesies on the part of principal and teachers, such as a little remembrance at Christmas, pay well in service.

Daily inspection of the building. The work of a janitor should be checked. An industrial manager will tell you that regular inspection is one of the surest means of eliminating slighting of duty. It tends to keep the janitor "on his toes," if he knows that his work is regularly inspected and appraised.

In general, this inspection may be made in a very short time when the principal first arrives. The floors of the corridor may be checked while walking from room to room. Only a moment is required to determine the general orderliness of arrangement in a room, the condition of the floor, blackboards, chalk troughs, and desks. In the toilets, cleanliness and supplies of soap and towels should be inspected.

If things are not satisfactory, the principal must first decide whether conditions and the amount of work to be done are such as to make better work possible. If he feels that the work is not as well done as should be expected, he should ask the janitor to give the reason. If the excuse is unsatisfactory, he may require that the janitor attend to it immediately. In general, this latter course is undesirable because it borders too much on the exercise of authority, but there are situations in which a failure to do so would indeed be a mistake. The treatment of irregularities in the janitor's work must be based upon general principles, must be discriminating, must itself induce regularity, and must be simple, expeditious, and dependable.

Certain standards of attainment are necessary. In general, an essential factor in standardizing the cleaning and care of

buildings and grounds is the adoption of a regular schedule of work. It is the constant duty of the principal to see that the whole program of caring for the building is dispatched with regularity. The task is one that will necessitate his obtaining the interest and intelligent cooperation of the individuals working with him.

Some Special Problems in School Plant Administration

Rentals. Increasingly, community organizations make use of school facilities. Supervision and control of these facilities are necessary. Depreciation, damage, heat, light, and insurance are increased by community use of the school plant. Costs are thus extended. If the school budget is ample, there seems little argument. Often, however, such extra costs must come from a budget already too meager. Some of the community use of the school plant may be demanded by minority groups, somewhat selfish in character. Free facilities tend to magnify unnecessary or doubtful uses. Proper respect and care of equipment, as well as good standards of behavior, seem to be less frequently observed when there is no individual or group responsibility for costs.

Following experience with no rentals, boards of education usually adopt a code of rentals and regulations for use of school properties. Fees are made reasonably low, and are waived if the request falls within certain well-defined educational purposes. As custodians of property committed to their care legally, and as accountable for the expenditures of school money, boards of education find ample justification for rentals and service charges.

Loaning property. The problem of loaning property often proves to be most irritating. Neither individuals nor organizations will hesitate to ask the loan of any kind of school equipment. If a single request is granted, the administration is faced with no end of trouble. Requests are largely eliminated by restrictions to legitimate organizations, but difficulty still remains. Many schools find a flat rule against all loans the only effective solution. Other schools limit all property loans

to those directly associated with the participation of regular teachers in the outside organizations in question.

The school store. Increasingly, large high schools and small consolidated schools are offering the services of a school store. There are many advantages. Student and teacher convenience are well served. Prices can be lower than elsewhere. Manufacturers and wholesalers give the school store the same consideration as they do other retailers. Overhead and labor costs are minimum. Uniformity and the right article for the purpose intended are other advantages.

One of the best features of the school store is the opportunity to correlate it with student activities and certain types of training. It may easily be a laboratory for the business education department. Students can serve as managers, buyers, salesclerks, cashiers, bookkeepers, stenographers, typists, file clerks, auditors, stock clerks, and directors of the governing board of the student store enterprise.

The store may serve as the center for all student activity purchasing, ticket sales and accounting, and student activity business generally. Instructional materials of supplementary nature which do not seem to fit the library or book room may be kept in the school store, from which they are checked out or purchased. The store may also provide jobs to students who need financial assistance to keep them in school. The store demands a special place and certain equipment. Location within or near the cafeteria is convenient.

Local merchants, obviously, are not favorably inclined to school store operation. Chambers of commerce have been known to interfere. In general, however, opposition of such a character has largely disappeared. The advantages of the store are greatly appreciated by both pupils and parents.

Beautification. For many years public school buildings have given a practical demonstration of the influence and the philosophy of those who believed education should be severe, rigorous, difficult, and plain. Building and equipment design reflected the hard and cold lines of the traditional schoolmaster. Fortunately, school design is fast escaping from cold

ugliness and oversevere simplicity. Warmth, color, artistry, and beauty are being interwoven in welcome invitation to the youth of the land.

School construction is now embracing the latest contributions of architects, engineers, and manufacturers. Many excellent examples are available. Certainly the school administrator and his staff should be alert to the possibilities of creating beauty and of extending the appreciation of the good uses of art throughout the school plant and its grounds.

Care of school plant. Most boards of education find it advisable to adopt definite rules and regulations governing the care of buildings and other physical facilities. Such sets of rules and regulations are of great help to the principal and to the persons in charge of carrying out the details of work under his direction.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. How should the aims of education affect the design of the school plant?
2. What are the different factors that should determine the location of the school building in the community?
3. How can the size of the building which a community should erect be determined?
4. Make a list of some new instructional trends that call for recognition in the school plant.
5. In planning a building program, how would you determine the extent and kind of special features to include, such as auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, and special rooms for laboratories and shops?
6. Give some methods by which the auditorium can be utilized more effectively than it is in most high schools.
7. What are the chief handicaps of having janitors who are political appointees?
8. State the chief sources of financial waste in connection with the administration of the physical facilities of the school plant.
9. What rules and regulations would you recommend to the board of education concerning the use of playground facilities?
10. Devise a plan for the parking of cars and the storage of bicycles which would meet the needs of a typical high school with which you are familiar.
11. Make a list of different school activities of much educational

value that could be carried out in connection with the management of auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, study halls, and corridors.

12. How would you determine the extent to which a school plant is utilized efficiently?

13. Compile a list of the advantages and disadvantages of the central library versus the classroom library.

14. List desirable building standards relating to health and safety.

15. What policies or practices will best assure the right kind of custodial services?

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Chapter VIII. THE HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE

The Need for Efficient Organization

Much of the success of a school is closely related to the spirit and efficiency that characterize the school office. To achieve success, all component parts must move in unison, harmony, and rhythm. In a winning crew or football team, each man must do his job on the second, in perfect rhythm with his fellows. So it is in an efficient school office. Each department depends on the other, and each unit in the whole organization should be under the direction of the principal of the school.

The administration of the principal's office is too seldom considered an important problem. Superintendents have been slow to accord the principal his place as a vital force in the smaller or medium-sized schools. The principal has been hesitant, too, in demanding recognition in the administrative affairs of the school. Today, however, the principal is recognized as the chief administrator in charge of his school, and as such he is responsible for the efficiency of all its activities.

The functions usually discharged by the principal of the high school include the supervision of instruction and other activities, carrying out adopted policies, appraising and reporting various conditions in the school, furnishing leadership, and so organizing relationships with the public that the school may develop and serve the community.

Increasing Office Efficiency

Budgeting the principal's time. Obviously, the principal's work includes many duties which consume much time and energy. Hence, if he would do his work efficiently, he must budget his time. For each day and each week for at least a

month in advance, he should have a list of his anticipated duties.

The principal must carefully organize the details of his office if he is to have time properly to inspect the care given to the physical plant and to check accurately on the regularity and promptness of attendance of students. He needs to provide for the promotion and transfer of classes, classification of new students, checking of permanent records, reports to the superintendent, commencement exercises, and schedules. In addition, he must provide for inspection of the grounds and buildings and of the janitorial service, and for the care of the students before school opens in the morning. He must provide for the maintenance of discipline, supervision of the lunchroom, and keeping intruders from the school premises. He must provide for fire drills, school enterprises, activities, and exhibits. Then, too, he must see that supplies are delivered in good order and are properly stored, and that they are neither wasted nor destroyed.

The foregoing are only a part of the duties of a high school principal. The list is, however, sufficiently extended and varied to make obvious the necessity that a principal budget his time and give careful consideration to timesaving procedures in administration.

Obviously, the principal cannot do personally all the things for which he is held officially responsible; he must delegate much of this work to persons with whom he is in close cooperation. Teachers, students, and janitors will be inspired to cooperate if they are imbued with a sense of partial ownership in the building and with pride in the success of the school administration.

Some principles of business efficiency. An important contribution to effective school management can doubtless be made by applying lessons from the business world. A class in school administration taught by one of the authors collected helpful suggestions in seeking an answer to the question, What recommendations of business efficiency experts may be applied to problems in school management? These students

were directed to examine the textbooks, special reports, and magazine articles in the field of business efficiency. The reports returned by the students included 150 different suggestions. This long list would indicate that school executives can learn much from the recommendations of the expert in the business world. The most important of the suggestions are given below.

1. Be human. If the company merely wanted to disseminate information, it would use a catalogue, not you.

2. Be dependable. If you tell someone you are going to do a thing, do it.

3. Eliminate fear. If someone makes mistakes, don't criticize him for it, for the best of us make mistakes. However, he should have an unpleasant time of it if he makes the same mistake twice.

4. While it is true that most people will lose interest when they are scolded or found fault with, it is equally true that they will go at their work with renewed vigor if they are commended for something they have done well.

5. Rewards should be in exact proportion to effort and accomplishment, both as to quantity and quality of the work.

6. One of the secrets of the efficiency of tact lies in the fact that it is the expression of sympathy.

7. Develop an *esprit de corps* — the "American conception of teamwork, plus pride of organization."

8. Be sure that your appearance is neat and businesslike. Your compensation will be proportionate.

9. Too much detail with too many rules and regulations should be avoided. They serve only to impede the smooth operation of any plan.

10. Irregularity is the most potent cause of waste.

11. Be a firm believer in the effectiveness of the "square deal" and of a sympathetic interest in the individual as forces that hold the staff together.

12. An executive should always be open to suggestion and advice.

13. Use a card index for the memory — a desk-drawer box

having cards for every day in the month upon which to write things to be attended to in the future.

14. The efficiency of discipline depends upon developing in a body of people such confidence on the part of each individual that every other person will play his part.

The foregoing list may be used to advantage in making comparisons between the administrative policies of the school and the recommendations of the efficiency experts. The list may also be used by the principal in evaluating his own practices and procedures in office management.

Suggestions for increasing office efficiency. The following seven suggestions are given for increasing the efficiency of a high school principal in office management:

1. Have a definite schedule of work.
2. When possible, assign routine work to clerks.
3. A mailbox should be placed in a convenient place for the teachers.
4. A supply of carefully prepared blank forms and records should be on hand.
5. Classify and attend to all work in the order of its importance.
6. Have an adequate signal system (bell, gong, or buzzer).
7. A bulletin board should be placed so that teachers and janitors have access to it.

No mail to which the principal's signature is attached should be sent out without passing over his desk. Letters should be answered with the degree of promptness that is expected from a business institution.

The principal should use short cuts, a filing system, and timesaving devices. A principal should be systematic, conserve his time, organize his work, and eliminate the nonessentials.

Modern Offices and Equipment

The desirable utilization of office space. The offices are very important parts of the school plant. Since they serve as the headquarters for the planning and administrative work,

this layout and physical facilities have received much attention in planning the more modern school buildings. The office layout for the administration should have at least four sections: (1) space in the outer office which may serve as a waiting room, (2) space in the outer office for clerical help which may be separated from the waiting room by a counter, (3) a private office for the principal, and (4) an office or desk space for the assistant principal or administrative assistant.

The outer office plays an important part in the layout. It should contain bulletin boards and mail or exchange boxes for the convenience of teachers. Teachers, students, and visitors should find here a competent clerical assistant who can answer general questions about school affairs and procedures and arrange appointments with the principal or his assistants. Many of the details of school routine can be transacted over the counter which separates the outer office from the clerical office.

For a time, there was a tendency to place the general offices on the second floor for purposes of student and teacher convenience. Recently, however, the high school has developed so many outside relationships that in new buildings the offices are almost always located on the first floor and near the main entrance. A spacious reception lobby has also become a part of the modern building.

The principal's office. The private office of the principal should be equipped with the most convenient devices and furniture. These should include a desk, a suitable desk chair, visitors' chairs, bookcases, private files, and attractive wall decorations. Timesaving devices such as electric buzzer signals between office secretary or private secretary and principal should be used whenever possible. It is helpful for the principal's desk to carry a two-way telephone switch. If the school is large enough, the principal should have his own special secretary who has a station in the general office immediately outside his door. A conference room may be located advantageously in the principal's suite. The principal's desk should be supplied with a memorandum pad, desk calendar,

baskets for incoming and outgoing mail, and other devices designed for time saving and efficiency.

Other main office space provisions. Even small schools of 300 or fewer students may well provide special desk space for an assistant principal or for other part-time administrative assistants. There is also a need for space for the deans of girls and of boys. The larger schools may provide separate offices for each of these officers, usually as part of the general suite since appointments can be made and clerical help secured more readily if offices are grouped. The parent-teacher association office may also be located in the main suite. A few schools have an alumni room. The P. T. A. and alumni offices might well be combined. Usually both of these will be joined with other office space.

Special offices. An auxiliary office which has come to serve an important function is that of student aid. In a large high school, the student aid office is usually a very busy place, and if it is equipped with the proper facilities and in charge of competent personnel, it can be of great service to the student body. This office may be combined with the placement or guidance office.

The guidance and placement office preferably should be a part of the general suite, but space requirements may locate it elsewhere. In a large school, this office will need a full-time clerk. The director or teacher in charge should have a desk or, better still, a private office. If there are special teacher advisers, visiting teachers, career experts, attendance officers, or part-time officials who work in this main guidance office, they should be provided with desk and file space. The guidance room should have two or three small booths which may be used for private conferences.

The student activity office, also, is best located in the main suite, although location elsewhere may be necessary. A large room with separate desks for the various student officials is the most common plan and probably the best arrangement for supervision and control. The faculty director may have a separate office next door, or a booth in this main office.

Other faculty sponsors of especially important activities may also have desk space here.

Health office. Provisions for the health office vary from none at all to elaborate layouts. In unit systems, the health office may be housed in the superintendent's office. In consolidated high schools or large high schools, this office may be a specific part of the principal's suite or of the physical education department. In any case, there should be office space for the doctor and the nurse. If the size warrants, a small examining room and waiting-room space are also desirable.

Department and teacher offices. In most schools, the department heads use their own classrooms during free periods for office work. Maximum demands on classrooms will prevent such use and make other provisions necessary. Some schools allocate one big room to all department heads and other auxiliary staff officials. Each has a desk, and there may be a conference booth or two available in this general office room. Other schools, of necessity, locate departmental offices hither and yon, wherever space may be available. Some schools have a small office adjoining each teacher's room.

Office facilities and equipment. The general files, and all records except those kept in the fireproof vault or storage shelves, should be kept in the central clerical office. The telephone exchange for the building and the general telephone for outside contacts are usually located in either the clerical or outer offices. The nature and amount of the equipment needed in the administrative office vary with the size of the school, the degree of centralization of organization, and the number of clerical and administrative assistants provided.

Information to the staff. Much information can and should be furnished to the teachers in order to stimulate them to grow professionally and to work with enthusiasm for the best interests of education. In the smaller system, this may be done through talks in faculty meetings and by reports on special projects worked out by the teachers themselves. The principal should always prepare a definite program, the greater

part of which should be worked out before school begins in the fall. In this program, all the available agents and agencies should be used. As the system grows, increasing effort must be made to keep the staff informed of school policies. In the large systems, the executive uses the house organ to keep in close contact with the members of his staff. Even in small systems, features of the house organ may be used.

The house organ. The house organ is a professional publication. When used in the school system, it is published under the direction of the executive with the objective of informing the various members of his staff about the policies of the school, as well as of stimulating professional growth. It is used, of course, for official notices from the executive to teachers and for other announcements of professional interest. It also has the function of building cooperation between the staff and the executive.

The material in the house organ should be planned to interest the teachers. Accounts of research problems worked out by members of the school force are good material. To get the best results, an attempt should be made to keep the teachers feeling that they have a special interest in the project. This can be done by giving recognition to each contribution made by the various members of the staff.

The daily bulletin. A common means of carrying information to the staff is the daily bulletin. The simplest form is prepared with the aid of a duplicator. In large schools the mimeograph may be used. In any school having several staff members, it is helpful to publish notices of events, announcements of meetings, and certain instructions to students and teachers. Such practice tends to eliminate conflicts, misunderstanding, and errors. Moreover, the duplicated material can be filed for reference and be used in future planning.

The larger the school, the more important become the manifolded materials. If there are a number of home-room teachers, a daily notice sheet becomes almost a necessity. Certain definite practices become desirable in respect to character of material to be duplicated, points of emphasis,

and the time for completing the work. The principal, a teacher, or a clerk appointed by the principal must in some measure act in an editorial capacity.

Special bulletins to teachers. In the larger schools, the principal will find it advisable to manifold from time to time certain special bulletins to the staff. Skillfully done, such practice will not only save the teachers' time but will avoid the ever-present tendency to load faculty meetings with routine details. These special bulletins need to be specific, clear, and available for reference.

Bulletins may also carry professional material designed to present problems for staff consideration and to record staff action and agreements. In the largest schools, a number of special bulletins will be needed for information and instructions on such matters as the following: fire drill, corridor traffic, assembly organization, calendar of events, special counselors, rooms and hours, lists of committees for both teachers and students, and committee reports.

Manifolding. The high school office should always be equipped with some manifolding device. Manifolded material is especially significant in making supplementary copies of outlines and references available for individual and class use and for the development of more adequate means of testing. Like all devices, its use can be overdone, and the principal or someone appointed by him must check the copy that comes to the office to be duplicated. Some of it will prove unworthy of duplication. Often the copy, before manifolding and later when actually in use, will suggest methods of helpful supervision to the principal or to the special supervisor or department head.

There are now a number of devices and machines suitable for simple or for highly complex work. No school is obliged to be completely without such equipment. The student activities or the parent-teacher association need some kind of duplicating device for their work. Thus, these agencies afford means of obtaining equipment which can be regularly used for any school purpose.

In large schools, there is special space or a room allocated for manifolding. Efficiency in its use will necessitate a clerk who is expert in the handling of both material and equipment. Ability to do some editorial work is a desirable qualification for the chief operator, and skill in spelling, grammar, and vocabulary are essential.

The equipment for a manifolding room may well consist of an electrically driven, automatic-feed type of mimeograph, an electrically operated typewriter, files to store stencils, shelves for paper, table space for drying and assembling, a machine for stylus use, a simple gelatin pad or roller-type device for making a few copies, and a complete multigraph outfit with several fonts of type. Some schools find an addressograph machine desirable.

Office devices. In large schools, there is much variety in the character and use of office devices. In the small schools, there is less variety. A device common to most schools is the date book, which is ordinarily kept by a secretary or clerk. An efficient date book notes all the events, general meetings, committee meetings, games, and assemblies that happen within the school. Successful practice requires administrative approval before a date may be officially placed in the book.

Another helpful office device, which may be combined with the date book or kept separately, is usually known as the office tickler. The tickler carries suggestions and arrangements for certain routine activities. For example: December 1, the annual Christmas programs should be planned; December 15, Christmas program rehearsal; January 6, schedule for second semester outlined; February 10, failure reports due for first semester; March 1, all curriculum suggestions for next year due; April 10, first instructions ready for elections of subjects for next year.

The principal or the assistant in charge of the office and the chief secretary or the chief clerks of the various divisions may to advantage check the office tickler each Monday and thus lay out the work for the week.

A large wall chart of the school activities designed according

to the calendar and conveniently displayed is advantageously used by a number of schools. Colors and symbols distinguish major events from minor and emphasize certain other differences.

Other office machines and devices. Additional machines and devices which many high school offices have found desirable are: adding machine, comptometer, cash register, Dictaphone or Ediphone, stenotype, ditto machine, staplers, numbering machine, various hand stamps, work organizer, bookkeeping machine, card-sorting machine, scrapbooks of publicity items and alumni news, visitors' journal, and files of varying types.

The System of Records and Reports

Characteristics of records. Efficient records and reports aid in administrative control, furnish data for statistical analysis, systematize routine, and show progress and development within the school system.

An acceptable system of records and reports makes for uniformity and comparability of data from different sources within one school system and of data collected in many school systems. There must be agreement on the meaning of items on which information is collected, and on procedure used in recording the data. Record forms should always provide for the collection of certain minimal facts, such as those required by the state and federal governments, and for such additional information as is desired locally for the whole school system.

An acceptable system of records and reports includes only such facts as are needed and will be used. School procedure, to be efficient, must be based upon exact information. Professionally trained teachers, principals, and executive officers readily recognize the importance of adequate records. Such records facilitate wise administrative control, make it possible to measure the efficiency of school procedure and to predict future needs, and furnish a basis for planning improvements. On the other hand, the recording of information is not an end

in itself. Unless the recorded information functions in pertinent school research and better school practice, its collection is wasted effort. The clerical burden on teachers, principals, and their assistants should be kept at a minimum. No item should be recorded more than once unless such double recording is essential.

Records and reports should be coordinated and unified. Not only should the financial records of a school system be unified in themselves, but also they should be coordinated with those having to do with child accounting and other essential matters. The information collected in one set of records should be coordinated with that given in others.

The permanent record. Methods of keeping records vary widely. The permanent record card may contain all the marks of all the years of the student's record. There may be a separate card for each year, or the card may carry only semester averages or only final averages.

Again, the record may be a permanently or loosely bound sheet enclosed in a book-binding. Cards or sheets may have only scholastic records or they may carry personnel and student activity records. Some schools use the visual-file system of cards, and here again size and coverage vary considerably.

The folder system seems to be gaining popularity. In this arrangement, all the forms or reports or records concerning each student are put into a manila folder. If the school is relatively small, each student's folder acts as his current and eventually as his permanent record. In the larger schools having home-room teachers or guidance specialists, the current material for each student is kept in the folder, which may be filed in his home room or with his counselor, while his permanent record is kept as a separate record in the main office. When the student graduates, usually the less important items in the folder are deleted, the scholastic record card or sheet is added, and the folder is stored in the active file of recent graduates in the main office. At the end of a varying number of years, usually from five to ten, the folders are again reduced and then removed to an inactive storage file.

Some other records. Many forms and records are used in junior and senior high schools. Some records that have been found desirable in many high schools include those pertaining to attendance, enrollment data, physical condition and health, guidance, personnel, tests, student activities, alumni, inventories, finances, assignments and schedules, accidents, and tuition.

Statistical records. Increasingly, the high school office is called upon for statistical information. These calls come from many sources, and in many instances it will be to the advantage of the school to meet the request quickly and adequately. It is even more important, however, for the principal and his staff to have available the information about the school that they need in determining policies and developing practices.

Accurate and complete financial data and personnel records should be kept in such form as to be conveniently used and safely preserved. The personnel record for each pupil should contain such essential facts as courses taken and the quality of work done in each course. Data secured from standardized tests, anecdotal records, parent or pupil interviews, and personnel questionnaires may be added to the individual record to the degree that the facilities of the school permit. It may also include other information that the school considers valuable.

An official transcript of the college preparation of each teacher should be kept on file in the office of the administrative head of the high school. All information submitted in the annual report which pertains to the preparation of the teachers should be secured from such official records.

State and regional accrediting agencies and county superintendents of schools set up comprehensive forms for statistical returns. The capably operated office maintains duplicates of these returns in its files and can thus supply the most necessary statistical materials.

Additional statistics that should be available to as large an extent as feasible are: age-grade table; enrollment trends;

failure records, by curriculum, subject, department, teacher, and totals; retention by grade, subject, school-distribution of marks, curriculum, department, subject, teacher, and school; graduates' records, in college, business, and industry; alumni follow-up; costs, by curriculum, department, subject, and pupil; costs of texts, supplies, library, activities, and cafeteria; contagion, accidents, emergency first aid, physical examination, and follow-up; occupational preferences; special student interests; college choices; employment records while in school and outside of school; accrediting agency inspection; state inspection and fire and safety inspection.

Office Relations and Personnel

The clerical staff. It now seems rather well-established that a clerical staff should be an integral part of every efficiently operated school. Studies indicate that most schools having from 150 to 300 enrollment employ clerks. Economically, the relatively small school can ill afford to be without clerical assistance. It is still true, even in large schools, that teachers give too much of their time to distinctly clerical services. The relation of clerical services to instructional services deserves much careful analysis and appraisal.

In the large schools, clerical work seems to have a more significant place relatively, but the one secretary or clerk can be a very important factor in the operation of the small school. Often, he is the one person who knows the whole story in all of its details and whose ability and permanence tends to hold the institution together amid all the coming and going of teachers and principals.

When there are several clerks, it is desirable to allocate specific duties, with some general assignments for the purpose of flexibility. It is especially necessary that clerks be skillful in meeting and adjusting to the various personalities of the teachers. It is important, too, that visitors be greeted courteously by the clerical staff and that the telephone be answered with kindly effectiveness. Either the principal, or someone appointed by him, should act as manager or supervisor of the

office. If the staff is large, a general secretary or chief clerk should be next in charge and should be especially concerned with the effective use of the time and service of all of the staff.

Large staffs will carry specialists, such as: chief clerk or secretary, secretary to the principal, recorder or registrar, accountant or bookkeeper, attendance clerk, business clerk or cashier, counter clerk, departmental clerks, general clerks, receptionists, switchboard operators, and assistant clerks.

Student assistants. Many schools offer office clerical practice as a part of their business training curriculum. To the degree that such practice involves real learning procedures and helpful supervision, it may be easily justified. The school can also supplement its clerical services by giving part-time work to students who owe money for fees, tuition, supplies, or books.

Use of clerical help. Principals need to make wider use of clerical help. The following suggestions include some of the ways in which such help may be utilized.

1. Whenever tabulations are for purely administrative purposes and do not have diagnosis values for the individual teacher, they should be made by clerks.
2. In the interest of economy and efficiency, work should be done by clerks rather than teachers whenever possible.
3. Clerical assistance allotted to the school should be assigned within the school by the principal, not determined by central authority.
4. High-priced supervisory and administrative officers should not spend their time and energy in work that clerical workers at one quarter of their salary can do more accurately and more quickly.
5. The type of clerical workers should be determined by the kind of service to be rendered.
6. The clerical staff should carry the clerical load of the school.
7. Clerks should perform clerical services, not personal services.
8. Student assistants should be organized.
9. Student assistants should not be exploited.

Some good office practices. Executives in educational work differ greatly in their ability to follow good office practices. As a result, some school offices create the impression that there is little planning, and a noticeable lack of efficiency is apparent. This situation leads to criticism from visitors and dissatisfaction among teachers and students. In a well-managed school office, such practices as the following are likely to be in use:

1. The principal keeps regular office hours that are known to the pupils and the staff.

2. The principal keeps his clerical staff informed concerning any changes in his office hours, especially any enforced absences or any unexpected delays in returning to his office.

3. The principal is in the office before the opening of school in the morning in order to take care of emergencies and to ensure that the school day is properly begun.

4. The principal avoids making engagements for extended interviews during the early hours of the school day.

5. The clerical force is carefully instructed in matters of office courtesy, with special emphasis on the importance of courteous treatment of visitors.

6. The principal has a courteous procedure whereby a clerk interrupts an unnecessarily long interview with a visitor, especially when other visitors are waiting.

7. As far as possible, all routine matters and furnishing of information are in the hands of the clerical staff in order to conserve the time of the principal.

8. Teachers are advised as to the most appropriate times to come to the office for interviews in order that they may avoid loss of time.

9. Books and magazines are available to those who have to wait in the outer office.

10. A plan is followed whereby students are available as messengers to escort visitors to various rooms, to carry messages to students and teachers, and to aid in the distribution of supplies.

11. Careful instruction is given to those who answer the telephone in order that courtesy will always be exhibited and essential information will be secured from parties who telephone the office.

12. A spirit of helpfulness characterizes all of those connected with the principal's office.

The tone of the principal's office. A high standard of office practice should be developed by the principal. He should introduce policies and practices designed to build a large measure of good will for his office. Many patrons have their only contact with the school through the office and its personnel. If these contacts by telephone or in person are pleasing, a large measure of good will for the school is developed. If on the other hand patrons are made to feel unwelcome or are treated with scant courtesy, the school and the principal are the losers.

A principal should seek to give his office a good reputation among the students. It is very unfortunate when students think of the principal's office as a place for rebukes and criticisms only. A spirit of helpfulness should characterize all of those concerned with the principal's office. Careful instruction in matters of office courtesy should be given to those who answer the telephone or meet patrons, teachers, and students. What matters should be included in instruction in office courtesy? Should a principal insist that more students come to the office for commendation or advice than are sent for reproval?

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. It is stated by many school administrators that boards of education object to the appointment of an adequate number of clerks. What explanation can you offer for this attitude?

2. Is it your observation that teachers are called upon to do a considerable amount of clerical work? Justify your opinion.

3. Why is it very important that the high school office be organized efficiently?

4. Which of the principles of efficiency mentioned in this chapter do you believe are commonly violated by school administrators?

5. Make a list of commendable office practices and policies followed by some school executive you have known.

6. What office equipment would you recommend for a typical school with which you are acquainted?

7. Should small high schools have as many kinds of records and reports as large high schools? Give reasons for your answer.

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Chapter IX. BUDGETING AND ACCOUNTING

Widening Participation in Planning the Budget

In recent years, an increasingly active concern with the financial problems of schools has been forced on school administrators and teachers. The struggles necessary to secure adequate local, state, and federal funds for education have aroused widespread concern within the profession and have enlisted the interest of many laymen. Most schools during the depression years were required to plan educational programs in terms of restricted budgets, and many had to provide for growing enrollments on curtailed incomes. Under the reduced national income of that period schools suffered disproportionately in the adjustment of public expenditures, and recovery for schools was painfully slow. Immediate causes for this financial discrimination against schools cannot be readily identified, but the failure of the public in general to understand the financial needs of schools is doubtless the major cause. To these circumstances were added, a few years later, the tremendous inadequacy of school funds in the inflationary period created by World War II.

The making of the school budget is a more perplexing problem than it was in the period when the competition for public funds was not so intense. Twenty-five years ago budget-making received scant attention; today it is one of the most disturbing problems of an administrator, and several states now have laws relating to budget preparation.

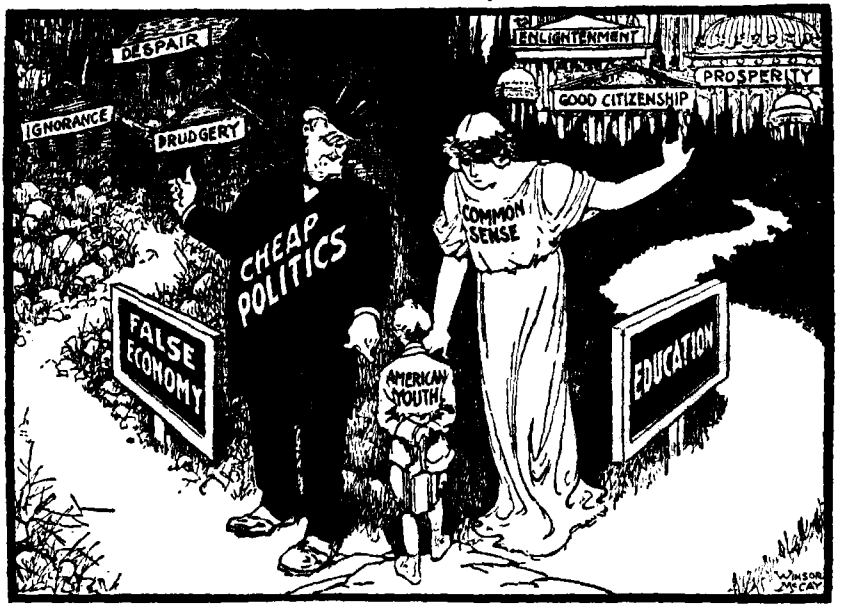
Often, it has been assumed that budgeting and accounting were peculiarly the spheres of the superintendent of schools and therefore of relatively small concern to the high school administration or teaching staff. Recently, this conception has changed markedly, and the theory of wider participation

of the staff in all problems has been more generally accepted. The growing complexity of operations generally, the need for better administration, and the urge for economy have conspired to make the secondary school staff not only con-

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Which Way?

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In its 1932 report to the Superintendents' Convention of the National Education Association, the Committee on School Costs said:

"Our social heritage, our democratic form of government, and our present industrial civilization alike demand a continuously effective school system.

"Crippling the schools through unwise retrenchment, therefore, means an irreparable loss to American childhood, a lowering of national standards of culture, health and efficiency, and a dangerous attack on the soundness of our democratic institutions."

February 10, 1933.

scious of the structure of the budget plan but active in its operation.

The Principal and Budget-Making

The influence of school size on budgeting. It is important that the high school administration have a definite part in the scheme of budgeting and accounting. Therefore, a general understanding of the theory and practice in relation to these items becomes desirable. The principal of the high school and all of the staff members should participate in the

making of the budget. One of the important considerations is for the staff member to see all of the demands on the budget. The chief administrator must see the whole picture, but ambitious or peculiarly interested teachers or citizens often do not care to see further than their particular wishes.

The size of the school has much to do with the scheme of budget-making. In schools with fewer than 300 pupils, for example, the superintendent necessarily has a close relationship to all of the school problems. In small systems, there is such interrelation of costs and so much overlapping in the use of staff, material, and equipment that budget breakdowns between two or more units of the system become quite difficult. In large school systems, where the high school is a distinct unit, there is more emphasis on the details of participation and on specific responsibilities in budgeting and accounting.

The most pronounced development occurs when there is more than one secondary school in the system. All procedures become more specific, and coordination practices increase. Another type of practice appears when there are several high schools, and a director of secondary education or assistant superintendent becomes the chief administrative officer of secondary schools. The building principal, however, still carries certain responsibilities.

All the finances of the large city school system may be under an assistant superintendent, or a business manager may operate as the chief financial officer. Each variation develops something of a peculiar pattern, and the individual principal must take his place in this design. In some cities, the principal has little more concern with the general budget than to sign requisitions and serve as custodian of materials. In others, he carries a large responsibility in both planning and operating the budget and accounts for his school.

Township, union, and community high schools. In certain areas, especially in the state of Illinois, schools carrying the specific name of township or union or community high schools operate as distinct units. These schools are independent taxing bodies with separate boards of education.

The positions of superintendent and principal are often combined. Legally the chief officer's title is superintendent — actually he is a special variety of high school principal. In such instances, budgeting and accounting become entirely the responsibility of the high school administration. Here the problem may concern only the high school as a unit. Obviously, all phases of budgeting and accounting are involved.

The high school as a part of a unit system. In any community or city, there should be centralized accounting. This ordinarily is the chief responsibility of the superintendent, but it is desirable for all administrative heads to carry some accounting responsibilities and to have some participation in the making of the budget. If the school is small, or even of middle size, the principal may be of direct assistance in the actual making of the budget. In any case, he should have certain responsibilities in making estimates of budget expenditures for the high school and in rendering accounting records for expenditures made. The larger the school, the more distinct become the principal's budget responsibilities in the typically organized system.

Some scheme of centralization and supervision is obviously necessary if the inefficiency of duplications and waste is to be properly prevented. Great effort should be made to avoid unnecessary mechanics and to prevent an attitude that the budget is something of an inevitable machine which defies individual care and responsibility. In an attempt to appeal to staff members regarding this important matter, a high school principal placed the following statement in his regular bulletin to teachers:

> The operating costs of this large institution are something to think about and impressive enough when broken down into daily realities. For example, it costs per day: about $31 for electricity; $6.50 for water; more than $7.00 for telephone; in mid-winter $80.00 for coal; about $12.00 for substitutes; about $235.00 for interest on bonds. We regret the necessity that demands "No" to many worthy requests for expenditures and we loathe having to support the negative answer but our obligation is to suggest discriminating care in your requests.

Teachers can be very helpful in keeping school costs at a minimum if they are resourceful and discriminating in their proposals for the expenditure of funds.

The principal should make every reasonable effort to improve the working of the budget and of accounting procedures so that the high school may become an especially effective part of the centralized budget plan. Whatever is done in the local unit should be carefully considered in relation to the central plan. Even activities planned as supplementary to the centralized procedure should receive endorsement of the central office in order that possible interference or unnecessary duplication may be avoided.

Budget Administration

Budget-making. Under the most adequate budget-making procedure, the high school principal is asked to submit a budget for his school. That his work may fit best into the general plan, it is helpful for him to follow the practices of the central office. Therefore, it is desirable for the principal to be thoroughly familiar with the techniques of making the budget. It seems simple enough when the budget is defined as a financial statement covering the estimated expenditures and revenues of a specific school situation for a given year. However, questions as to the possible sources of income, how to determine expense items, and what form the budget shall take, show the need for knowing certain facts and procedures.

Necessary and helpful budget information. The first step in a new school would be to survey the complete situation, breaking down the costs into separate items. These include: (1) the plant and grounds in all of the possible costs of maintenance, repair, and operation; (2) the student enrollment, complete data; (3) the projected curriculum in relation to plant facilities, staff, and subject enrollment; (4) supplies, instructional materials, and textbooks; (5) staff, janitorial, and service pay roll; (6) the auxiliary and supplementary services; (7) the debt service; and (8) other possible extras and contingencies.

In an established school, the first step might be to review the existing budget, subjecting it to the most careful scrutiny, particularly in relation to value received or services given. In such a review, the various provisions should be analyzed in detail. An annual survey is essential.

Both in the general survey and in the specific analysis of all budgetary items, the principal should make reasonable use of staff participation. Heads of departments and officers in charge of specific services or activities, such as the library, may properly have budgets of their own. These subsidiary budgets should receive the same relative degree of survey and analysis.

The principal and his cabinet or council may find it helpful to discuss certain items of the budget which have proved inadequate or which suggest doubtful values. It is surely worthy of note when such consideration results in a recommendation to eliminate some provision that has not returned the value expected.

If there is a teachers' council or a representative committee of the staff, it is quite in order for the principal or the principal and his chief counselors to meet with this group to consider portions of the budget that particularly affect teachers. This usually pertains to salaries, sick leave, or cost of substitutes. However, the group might well discuss the introduction of a new course which may in its character affect the general policy or standing of the school.

Pronounced changes in the budget often suggest topics for general faculty discussion and recommendation. Certainly a faculty should be interested in such problems and feel free to suggest faculty consideration. The staff should be well acquainted with the difficulties that may be peculiar to a given budget.

School situations vary markedly in respect to these difficulties. For example, one variation may be cited. The tax rate, which is fundamental to the revenue stipulated by a school budget, is based on property valuations. Theoretically, these valuations are determined by the market value. Prac-

tically, the valuations are usually below the market, varying all the way from a low of 1 per cent of the actual value to full value. The tax rate, therefore, may be high or low according to the method or percentage of valuation assessed. It is this variation that makes comparison of tax rates so disturbing and often so untrue. The staff and patrons of the school should be informed on this point.

One particularly difficult budget problem is the avoidance of duplication in equipment, supplies, and other materials. For example, each social studies teacher may wish a complete set of maps as recommended by the publisher to cover every possible teaching situation. Obviously, if purchased, some of these maps will never be used; others will be used slightly. It is highly important for all the teachers of this department to see this problem and with the chairman and principal to work it out with a reasonable expenditure.

Budget divisions and items. The most commonly used headings or divisions of the budget are: (1) general control (salaries of superintendent, supervisors, principal, clerks; office supplies, etc.); (2) instructional service (teachers' salaries and supplies); (3) operation of plant (janitors' salaries, fuel, maintenance, etc.); (4) auxiliary agencies (library, health service, etc.); (5) other expenses (capital outlay, equipment, repairs, fixed charges, etc.); and (6) debt service (bond maturities, interest charges, and borrowings).

It is common practice to segregate the high school expenses. This is relatively easy to do on all these items except some phases of general control and certain items in auxiliary expense and debt service.

The sources of income are commonly listed as: (1) tax levy (income from tax collections); (2) state aid (income from distributive fund based on average daily attendance, federal aid through state-administered Smith-Hughes or George-Deen funds); (3) tuition (income from pupils living outside district); and (4) fees (income from various fees, such as towel, locker, book, supply, laboratory, extra-subject, and post graduate).

Determining relative values. The general budget in the typical system must be concerned with relative costs of the elementary and secondary schools. The high school is certain to be interested in what its share of the total budget is to be, but should be particularly concerned with the relative costs among its own departments and divisions. Inevitably, the staff is greatly interested in the relative costs of budget items, as eventually all costs influence teachers' salaries. Relative cost values are affected by the type of system involved as 8–4, 6–3–3, 6–6, 6–4–4. Ample provision for vocational education opportunities in both junior and senior high schools increases the expense for the secondary school. Naturally, the junior college increases the secondary school expense. The single salary schedule may greatly affect relative instructional costs.

It is desirable for budget-makers to give considerable study to relative costs. Such considerations should offer significant topics for staff discussions. There are some formulas arrived at by tabulation of the various field practices. For example, the item of instructional service typically constitutes 70 to 80 per cent of the total budget. Other items generally vary from 1 to 3 per cent each. Items that are clearly out of line with general practice should be thoroughly scrutinized and completely justified or adjusted accordingly.

Department budgets. In large schools, it is a fairly common practice for each department to submit its own budget. Obviously, the necessity or desirability varies among departments. For example, a budget would be a real necessity for a large practical arts department with extensive expendable materials, supplies, repairs, maintenance, inventory, and varied service fees, charges, and cost accounting. For a large department of Latin or French, however, the cost and accounting would be relatively simple. A single inventory accounting might prove quite sufficient, while the costs could easily be a part of general items.

It should be noted, in the above connection, that subject costs should be a regular part of cost accounting. If separate

budgets tend to clarify subject and departmental cost accounting, that would constitute real evidence for maintaining departmental budgets.

The library budget. The library has become one of the most important parts of the school. If any division of the high school merits a separate budget, it probably is the library. In many instances, the library is allowed a certain rather arbitrary sum within the general budget. Some schools determine the amount by an allowance of so much per student. A standard used by one of the regional agencies suggests an allowance of 75 cents per student per year. This allowance is recognized as inadequate for small schools.

The administration should be concerned with the choice and with the equitable distribution of library books among the several departments or fields of study. These two problems may well be worked into the library budget plan.

Each department may be given an opportunity to determine a desirable sum to be expended each year for its library needs. The principal should have available a breakdown of the actual library expenditures by departments for a five-year period. These should be compared with the new requests and properly analyzed in relation to needs, use, suitability, and equitable relation to all other departments.

Some principals have found a central library committee composed of departmental representatives helpful as an agency for the review of library requests and for determining the final distribution of the sum available for library needs. In practice, it is often found desirable to break down the total library budget into separate budgets for each department or division, determining the respective sums on the basis of departmental enrollment and use by teachers and students. The sums will therefore vary considerably among departments.

There is much advantage in reserving a rather large percentage of the total library budget for general purposes. This provision may cover books and materials used by students irrespective of subjects or used in common by several departments. It may provide also for equipment, supplies, and a

reserve to cover emergency requests. All of the separate budgets within the total library budget should be carefully surveyed each year. It is surprisingly easy to develop a library filled with many books that are seldom, if ever, taken from the shelves.

The final budget. The general procedure in working up the financial budget has now been indicated. Specifically, these procedures may vary widely, but the general considerations will be common to all school budgets.

The principal will find it desirable to keep completely itemized records for all sums that have gone into his estimates. A special book for this purpose may prove helpful. These records may well contain original itemized estimates, changes, if any, and the items with actual costs as finally allowed. The monthly balance between budget provisions as allowed and the sums actually spent may be kept. All special accounts or budget breakdowns for certain activities or departments may be recorded in this book.

It is especially helpful for the principal to be allowed a petty cash fund. This may be accounted for through the budget provision of "other expenses" or special account. In spite of the most careful planning, there will be a number of expense items that are small, unexpected, and, perhaps, unclassifiable, yet highly desirable and easily justified. Such expenditures often make the difference between smooth, rapid effectiveness and irritating, awkward operation. This account should be determined each month in amount by the demands of the situation. The principal should return a completely itemized statement covering the petty cash fund for each month.

From the several foregoing accounts, the principal makes up the budget forms, the requisitions, or the approximate estimates in the form required according to the local practice. The actual method of presenting the budget information varies greatly, as do the budget policies. The principal may find it expedient to follow a pattern which expects over-large estimates. These will be returned for reduction as a matter of course. Usually the high school budget may well be an honest,

straightforward statement of needs. If there is to be padding or reduction, these are more often the responsibility of the superintendent, and he will make budget allowances accordingly.

The total and final budget is significant far beyond the various sums represented. A careful study of the total budget should reflect rather adequately the educational philosophy of the school. It will demonstrate the effectiveness with which the community supports the philosophy of the school. Also, it will indicate the degree to which the board of education responds honestly and courageously to its responsibilities.

Requisition procedures. The use of some form of requisition seems universal. Again, size influences the complexity of the form and the degree of use. Requisitions contain the information needed for proper approval and intelligent purchasing. They are readily available for reference, and they afford a permanent record.

A well-administered budget requires careful requisitioning. Department heads, for example, should give consideration to the money available and to the quality, quantity, utility, place of manufacture, and actual cost of the items before filing the requisition. The principal should do likewise if he is the officer who makes out all requisitions that go forward to the central office. The principal in most situations is expected to review the requisitions and approve them. No principal may otherwise be reasonably held responsible for the efficient working of the budget.

Usually a standardized list of supplies is printed on the requisition form. These supplies may be easily checked for routine requests. If the system is large enough, routine requisitions may be presented at a stock room or storage office and filled by the clerk in charge. Janitors often receive their supplies in this manner. In some schools, teachers or clerks may give part time to filling routine requisitions. In such instances, definite hours for such services and often a requirement of requisitions made some time in advance are found advisable.

An important problem in connection with requisitions is that of centralizing purchases. Even in small systems, there is

often much confusion and uneconomical practice because of loose or uncertain delegation of the purchasing power. Unquestionably, efficiency is gained if one person is especially trained and given the specific responsibility for all purchasing. Individual nonconformists object strongly to centralized purchases. They cite interesting and often effective examples of freedom for individual purchasing. Specific and helpful information possessed by individual teachers may easily be utilized by the purchasing agent, however. The requirement of a requisition and the use of a regular order form, approved in advance, is highly desirable.

Accounting Procedures

Financial accounting. Most of what may properly come under this heading is intimately connected with the administration of the budget. For example, the suggestion previously made about the petty cash fund might properly be developed here. Perhaps the point most in need of emphasis is that anything less than perfect accounting suggests the most serious consequences for the principal. Often, the principal's difficulties in a given situation are due to uncertainties in financial accounting. The wise administrator will devise adequate methods and adhere to the meticulous accounting for every dollar entrusted to his care. He will be especially careful to arrange for an adequate check upon all his school accounts. Strange as it may seem, there are some administrators who, as financial custodians, receive school money, credit the amount, make purchases, pay out the money, all within their own accounting and without check or auditing by a second person. The best and the safest practice for the administrator who must handle money is to see that his accounts are audited monthly and that all checks are co-signed.

In the larger schools, there is sufficient handling of funds to make possible the assignment of a teacher or clerk either full or part time to all of the accounting practices. The principal or his representative may act as auditor or co-signer. In the largest schools, there may be opportunity for a full-time

treasurer as well as auditor. Ordinarily, there is a centralized system of accounting for the entire school system. Usually, the principal cannot escape some financial accounting even under the highly organized small centralized system, as he will, to some extent, be responsible for seeing that certain receipts reach the treasurer.

Room or teacher collections of money. School practices vary greatly in respect to collections of money by teachers or in classrooms. Many schools are surfeited with multitudinous collections. A few schools have specific policies and regulations, while some permit students or teachers to make collections within classes for almost any purpose that sounds reasonably good. The charitable appeal and the gift for the departing student or teacher carry sentimental values that may require exceptions to hard and fast rules.

Accounting obviously is an important part of such procedures. There are character values as well as training opportunities and surely worthy educational experience in such activities, but such values are largely influenced by the degree to which planning and accounting are present.

Some of the best operated schools require all suggestions for collections to be referred to the student council or the administrative council, or both if the matter seems sufficiently important. In such schools, provisions are also established for regular procedures in handling all monies. The financial accounting is recognized at its real worth by both students and teachers. These schools, too, have well-defined policies that serve as guiding principles in solving the many questions that arise.

The central treasury. The smallest school will have a number of student funds, although the total necessarily will not be large. It seems essential that student officers and handlers of even the smallest amounts receive the best training possible in the accounting of these funds. In many schools, the sums run to amazingly large totals. It is not uncommon for a comparatively small school to support student activities which account for several thousands of dollars each year.

Large schools often carry student funds with yearly totals from $25,000 to $50,000.

A centralized scheme, with a faculty treasurer, seems to have proved the best plan. Separate accounts are maintained for all organizations and for special events and collections. The treasury is operated as a bank, and the accounting is worked out accordingly. The principles of the regular school budget, its administration, and methods of accounting are applied to the various organizations to as large an extent as desirable and practicable.

The student activity budget. There seems to be a marked trend toward the budgeting of student activity finances. Many schools have some form of activity budget. There is much variation in coverage. Few schools, as yet, use a single budget which includes all student activities. The operation of the single budget is apparently rather complex and offers some disadvantages. The most prevalent form is the budget that includes the activities more or less common to a given field or division of the school. Athletics is the leading example, while publications and music and dramatic activities follow closely. Various combinations of these several activities may also be found.

It seems reasonable to expect that further recognition of the importance of budgeting and accounting and greater attention to the best educational experience and practice will result in the improvement of methods in this field.

Supply and Equipment Accounting

Storage. Planning suitable physical or plant provision for storage has been discussed in the chapter on the school plant. Such provisions vary much in order to fit best the existing conditions. There seem to be two fairly well-defined schemes.

The completely centralized storage and supply office with a distributive scheme is sometimes found. More frequently, supplies are ordered from a central office, but are shipped and delivered according to the separate school or unit requisitions. The school itself supplies storage space as best it may.

Special storage facilities should be planned for athletic equipment and for musical instruments. Improper storage and accounting in these departments may result in much waste. Forms and methods peculiarly adapted to adequate accounting of such equipment should be worked out carefully.

Receiving room. There must be some provision for receiving supplies. Ideally, a receiving room with a clerk to check and supervise proper storage should be the rule. More often, it is necessary to use one or more closets and to have the janitor check deliveries. In any case, a specific procedure with checking and records is desirable. It is important to choose a responsible and careful person for this assignment. Adequate forms may be used to cover description and quantity of the goods received. If centralized storage within the building is inadequate, the supplies may have to be distributed immediately to the teachers' closets or rooms.

Inventories. Whatever the scheme of supply accounting, inventory sheets adapted to the methods used will prove helpful. Department or divisional chairmen may also be required to maintain accounting for supplies and equipment. The larger the school, the more essential the divisional accounting. It seems a good plan to require each teacher to submit either to the department chairman or to the principal's office an inventory of all equipment, supplies, or other material in his room at the close of the year. If teachers do not have individual room assignments, some other scheme of obtaining the inventories should be developed. In some schools, for example, an assistant principal is responsible for the complete inventory. The principal usually has the inventory completed in a form convenient for ready reference and for transmittal to the superintendent's office.

Free or rental textbooks. Schools working under either plan find it necessary to establish regular and specific accounting practices for books owned by the school. Most schools rely on the individual teacher to obtain the books from a central depository or storage room, to distribute them to the students, to keep an inventory of books received and individual record

cards for each student, and to collect the books at the end of the year and return them to the depository.

Books may be stored according to departments. Often, the department head is in charge of the collection and distribution of the books. The teacher usually is responsible for the collection of damages for defaced or lost books. A definite report concerning titles, names of students, and sums collected is presented to the person in charge of the book room. Schools find it necessary to develop a scheme for rating damages to books. The damages to be paid are based largely on age of the book, condition when given out, possibility of repair, and necessity for replacement. Numbers or other symbols for rating damages may be used to expedite collection of damages and to determine the rental charge according to the condition of the book if the rental plan is used.

Reports of teachers concerning books should be audited by the person in charge of all the books, who should maintain a complete inventory of all books received and given out and a record of all funds received from damages. This record should be checked against titles and teachers.

Auxiliary book room. Schools not having the free or rental plan often use a book room for storage of supplementary books. For example, the English department may develop a plan whereby classics and other briefly used books may be checked out in class sets. These sets are rotated among the various classes according to some prepared schedule. This schedule should be administered by a clerk, teacher, or department chairman. The accounting procedures are much the same as in the regular free textbook plan.

School store and cafeteria. Accounting principles and methods are especially applicable to the conduct of a store or cafeteria. As these activities are rather highly specialized, each of them must use additional forms and procedures that are peculiarly adapted to their particular needs.

The school store, for example, should use as much of the regular commercial technique as may prove effective. This is particularly true if the store serves as a student laboratory.

The store may prove especially valuable as a central agency for the receipts and accounting of ticket sales, various collections, and special sales of pins, rings, etc. Some schools have successfully placed practically all of the activities of the central treasury in the school store.

The cafeteria needs the most careful and expert accounting practices. Too often the school lunchroom is the source of rumor and suspicions which suggest mismanagement and petty graft. The best cafeterias use completely adequate systems of accounting. Food, labor, maintenance, operative, and other costs are always available. Inventories are properly maintained. Expenditures are clearly indicated. The teachers, students, and patrons know how their lunch money is spent.

Accounting Records

The school census. The census is the basic record — the beginning of the school's accounting for its students. The census responsibility and the immediate activities and records relating thereto are carried by the superintendent's office. The records as they affect adolescents are particularly significant to the high school. It is from these records, for example, that the high school may discover enrollment trends that affect secondary school planning. The number of adolescents of high school age who are not in school and what percentage of all eighth grade or junior high school graduates enter the senior high school are examples of important information furnished by the census.

The compulsory attendance laws which generally require attendance through the eighth grade or age fourteen, and qualification for a working certificate in lieu of school attendance between fourteen and sixteen years of age, are usually enforced through the central office of the superintendent. Often, there is an attendance or truant officer who is the specific agent in charge. The high school, however, is definitely concerned with all students of high school age who have finished the common school, and should either work intimately with the city attendance officer or establish its own procedure.

Student accounting records and reports. The extent and character of the student accounting records and reports needed will vary with the size, type, and general organization of the high school. Forms or blanks will also vary in detail within comparable situations. Basic forms, however, tend to carry the same essential information. Determining factors should be accuracy, adequacy, permanency, utility, and state requirements. The information required by state reports and the administrative instructions from state departments of education influence the form and character of the records used in student accounting.

The accounting records most commonly found are: (1) permanent office record or cumulative records of pupil progress, (2) test records, (3) individual attendance records, (4) average daily attendance, (5) enrollment or registration card, (6) health record, (7) age and grade chart, (8) teacher's register, (9) monthly attendance reports by teachers or by home rooms and for the school, (10) guidance or personal rating card, and (11) student activity or pupil participation card. Also, a wide variety of temporary forms and records are used, such as: (1) leaving room slips, (2) special permits to leave early or to come late, (3) regular and special reports to parents, (4) daily programs, (5) class lists, (6) athletic permits, (7) traffic passes, (8) excuses for absence and tardiness, (9) election forms, (10) work permits, (11) change of program permits, (12) library and special room permits, (13) interview slips and records of interviews, (14) college intentions, (15) placement records, and (16) requests for employment.

Staff records. The principal will also wish to have available adequate records of his staff. His office files may include: (1) applications for teaching positions filed and cross referenced according to qualifications; (2) attendance record of teachers; (3) substitute list with addresses and telephones; (4) personnel cards for teachers, including qualifications, personal history, salary record, teaching, and other duties; and (5) transcripts of teachers' undergraduate and graduate work.

Many schools find that the cumulative folder is quite as effective for teachers as for students. Correspondence and memoranda may thus be conveniently filed with other material important for reference.

Pension, pay roll, and service data should be given special accounting care. In some school systems, the principal and the superintendent divide the custody of certain of the staff records in order to avoid unnecessary duplication.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What are some of the causes for the inability of schools of your acquaintance to secure adequate funds for operation?
2. Make a list of reasons for believing that a brighter financial future, or a darker financial future, is ahead for schools in your area.
3. What information do you believe classroom teachers desire concerning the budget of the school in which they are employed?
4. What are the usual steps in budget-making in some school of your acquaintance?
5. There is a general opinion that the typical percentage of the budget devoted to instruction is too small. How do you account for this opinion?
6. Collect several sets of forms that are common to student accounting. Evaluate these forms.
7. Secure a list of the various permits used in schools. Interpret these in terms of philosophy, control of students, accuracy, and effectiveness.
8. What should be the individual teacher's attitude toward records and reports?
9. From your reading, do you receive the impression that the "red tape" of records and reports grows apace at the expense of teacher initiative and energy? Justify your answer.

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DIVISION THREE

Administration and Guidance of Pupil Personnel

Chapter X. DISCIPLINE

Importance and Functions of Discipline

One of the major aims of education is to fit the individual to live with and for others in order that he may be prepared to be a useful member of society. In considering disciplinary control in the high school, this aim must be kept constantly in mind. Methods that do not conform to it are fundamentally wrong and have no place in the school system. Every outbreak in class or school should be considered as a chance to teach social control. The administrator should at all times emphasize the fact that an outbreak is an offense, not against the teacher or administrator, but against the school and, consequently, against the social group of which the offender is a member.

Discipline should not be interpreted in the narrow sense as a means of punishment; a broader interpretation should be placed upon it. It should be a means of improving a student or group. To consider the means of bringing about this improvement is the purpose of the following paragraphs.

In view of this interpretation, what are the functions of discipline? They may be summarized as follows:

1. *To create and preserve the conditions essential to the orderly progress of the school.* Cooperation on the part of the student, a sense of group responsibility, and an intelligent sympathy on the part of the teachers are essentials for the orderly progress of work.

2. *To prepare the student for effective participation in adult life.* Many liberties should be granted the students, but they should be balanced with corresponding responsibilities. Allowing much freedom to the individual should imply the individual's use of this freedom for the welfare of society.

3. *Gradually to instill the fundamental lessons of self-control.* This can be done by teaching the student the importance of remote over immediate ends. He should be taught to realize the values of persistence and effort.

Types and Trends in Discipline

Forming the disciplinary policies of a school. Because of the contribution that appropriate disciplinary policies can make to the training of students, it is highly desirable for the staff of a school to discuss policies and practices in discipline with the purpose of arriving at working agreements. Such agreements are necessary if real cooperation in disciplinary matters is to be developed. These discussions should relate to such questions as the following:

1. What aims should be recognized as of basic importance in the discipline of the school?
2. What part should be played by the individual teacher in the attainment of these aims by the parents? By the students?
3. What are some of the specific practices that should be followed by all teachers in order to attain the accepted aims of school discipline?
4. What regulations are needed to govern traffic in the halls, absences, tardiness, destruction of school property, and similar problems?

Unless there is sufficient discussion of the foregoing questions by the members of the staff of a school, it is quite likely that some teachers will follow the policies and practices of the older type of school discipline, while others will be committed to the policies and practices of the newer viewpoint of discipline.

A school where there is such a division of opinion as to discipline cannot expect the results that are possible when working agreements permit effective cooperation. Understandings about discipline are just as important as understandings about school marks, instructional procedures, and other common problems of a teaching staff. The principal should assume a large measure of responsibility for developing

a working philosophy of discipline based on the cooperative thought of the members of the teaching staff.

Types of school discipline. Three types of discipline used in schools are: (1) absolute authority, (2) appeal to personal interests, and (3) control through group responsibility.

The school controlled by absolute authority on the part of the faculty is a relic of former times, and very few, if any, examples of this old type of school should persist in the present day. It controlled the students by instilling fear in their hearts. Their interests and enthusiasms were repressed. They were marionettes in the hands of their masters. Educational philosophy of today teaches that this is a very poor method of control and that it probably does more harm than many other factors combined.

Often, disciplinary problems can be solved by appealing to the personal interests of the students. Determine the students' interests and ideals and use them as your basis of appeal. Teach students approved ideals, and give them something to do in which they are interested — something that calls for qualities of leadership if they are of the domineering type. In certain instances this method of treatment has transformed bullies into efficient and likable students.

Control through group responsibility is by far the most important of the three types of disciplinary control. The students' interests and enthusiasms are guided. A feeling of responsibility as members of the group is engendered by guiding the students to purposeful and interesting activities. We need to give students an opportunity to take their places as members of the units of society. We need to give them the opportunity to exercise, so far as they are able, the qualities of leadership, initiative, and cooperative and intelligent obedience, all of which are fundamental in society.

In the school where these opportunities are provided, there will be no evidence of discipline. The students will be attentive and interested, and there will be no problem of order to distract the teacher. In the well-governed school, discipline is conspicuous by its absence.

The new versus the old in discipline. One characteristic of the older type of school discipline was the repression of the interests and enthusiasms of students. Now the teacher seeks to give direction to the interests and enthusiasms, with the result that they contribute to the student's education. In the older type of discipline through an appeal to fear, corporal punishment was common. Many persons of mature years can recall the time when success in teaching and ability to administer whippings were assumed to go together. In the older days, some parents notified the teacher that a whipping at home would follow every whipping at school. Many grandfathers can testify that the slogan "little lickin', little larnin' " was once an accepted educational philosophy.

Teachers used to place much value on prompt conformity to their strict rules and severe regulations. Now the emphasis is placed on standards of conduct understood by the students as a result of explanation by the teachers and their own experiences. In many schools, students are given definite instruction in matters of good sportsmanship, courtesy, and conduct; and hundreds of schools mark students on their school citizenship.

In the older type of discipline, there was marked emphasis on quiet, order, and submissiveness. In the new type of discipline, the emphasis is placed on industry, cooperation, and helpfulness. The hum of industry is more pleasing to the modern teacher than the perfect order of the old school. Teachers were once expected to rule the school, and, as a result, many teachers were dictatorial and arbitrary. Now emphasis is placed on student cooperation with the teacher.

The newer type of discipline calls for a different type of teacher. He must possess such a degree of preparation for his work as to ensure genuine respect for his training. The successful teacher must also possess qualities of personality that will command the confidence and respect of boys and girls. He must understand students well enough to anticipate situations that may lead to troublesome disciplinary problems. He must know how to appeal to the desire of boys and girls to work with their associates.

Present-day leaders in public education believe that the newer type of discipline will give boys and girls better preparation for effective citizenship in a democracy. It is not an easy matter, however, to induce some teachers and parents to understand the meaning of the new type of discipline, with its emphasis upon good citizenship rather than upon "deportment."

Some Kinds of Misconduct, and Methods of Treatment

Common offenses. Offenses are acts or attitudes that interfere with the desirable growth of the student in the school. To disturb a class or to pervert an extracurricular activity is an offense. As a rule, offenses are due to such causes as resentment of control, a desire to attract attention, misdirected energy, antisocial ideals or ill-formed moral judgment, lack of culture, faulty physical conditions, and imitation of others.

Three stages. Considering offenses from the standpoint of the degree of trouble caused, the disorderly class or individual is a result of growth and usually has passed through three stages. These stages are: (1) the incipient stage of whispering and inactivity; (2) the active stage of laughing, talking, and the writing of notes along with considerable "horse play"; and (3) the aggressively disorderly state. In the final stage, the throwing of missiles, catcalls, and open disrespect for the teacher are in evidence.

Analysis of offenses. Some offenses injure the group; others injure only the individual himself. Tardiness ordinarily is the loss of the latecomer, as is unwillingness to work. Other offenses, such as impudence, are direct affronts to the teacher and indirectly undermine the respect and work of the class, in the long run hurting all. This process of analysis and listing specific misdeeds could go on almost indefinitely. It should be unnecessary to list all of the forms of offense, since each teacher has to analyze her own cases and, after determining the causes, to apply an appropriate remedy. The number of actual offenders brought to a principal for treatment should not be very great, and his work will be largely

the giving of advice to teachers on all sorts of cases. It is important that the principal understand the nature of the offense, its cause, and finally the best corrective and control methods.

Serious offenses. Certain tendencies and activities should always be considered serious offenses or behavior problems. This list should probably include indecency, impudence to teachers and to passers-by, offensive language, marking or injuring property, gambling, rough treatment by bullies, cheating, stealing, falsifying, hazing, and the playing of certain harmful games on the playground or in the school.

Corrective measures. What should a senior high school principal do with students who have committed offenses? What should he not do? Where do circumstances alter cases and penalties? How should a principal advise teachers to treat those committing offenses? Answers to such questions as these are indicated in the following paragraphs.

In general, the principal should be willing to assist teachers in analyzing and treating the more difficult behavior problems. Yet, he should recognize the good that comes to a teacher in having to settle for herself all the cases arising under her jurisdiction. Only the most serious offenses should be allowed to come to the principal, but these should receive careful attention. It is well to keep in mind the fact that the school has a right to protection from disturbing influences; but at the same time the maladjusted student should receive sympathetic and intelligent treatment. It is the duty of the principal to apply those measures that will be most effective.

Success of corrective measures. Analyses have shown that only about a third of the corrective measures commonly used are successful. It is both serious and unfortunate that teachers and principals are so unskillful in dealing with disciplinary problems.

The evidence is clear that kindness coupled with fairness and firmness achieves results. On the other hand, certain measures, rather effective in their relation to other activities, are intrinsically wrong. The giving of extra work as a penalty

tends to make a student hate his studies. It puts schoolwork in an unnatural place and prevents wholesome attitudes of interest and initiative. To cause a person to fail in his work or to lower his marks is also unjust.

Corporal punishment. Although common in the past, corporal punishment is now rare. Corporal punishment is generally condemned by educational writers, and opposition to all kinds of physical indignities is steadily growing. It is prohibited by the rules and regulations of some boards of education, and is considered inexpedient in many school systems because it tends to impair the morale of the school. Teachers are frequently advised that any form of corporal punishment should be used only as a last resort, which generally means that it should not be used at all.

If, however, corporal punishment is authorized in a school and it does seem necessary as a last resort, the person administering it should take the following precautions: (1) make certain that the results will justify the means, (2) get the signed permission of the parents, (3) administer the penalty in the presence of a responsible witness, and (4) be certain that the student does not have grounds for attributing any physical injuries to the punishment he receives. The administrator should realize that corporal punishment has given rise to numerous lawsuits that could have been avoided.

Detention. Many successful teachers favor the practice of detaining students after hours for misdeeds. This in general is a bad policy because: (1) it causes the student to dislike school, and (2) it is an unnecessary demand on the teacher's time. The teacher might better be enjoying physical recreation.

Personal conference. Personal conferences with students, with appeals to do the right thing, are always good for first offenders. In this connection, it is well to let the student do the talking and get him to prescribe his own penalty. Reproof should generally be given in conference and should consist of an unbiased statement of the conduct and the reasons why it is not permissible.

The principal is in a position to know the worst offenders. Sometimes their parents believe them still to be in the "little angel" stage. A sympathetic conference with parents calling attention to their child's troubles is often provocative of reform.

Restitution. Restitution for damage done and apology for real insults are good measures to insist upon. They are in line with the doctrine of the adaptation of the penalty to the misdeed.

Social disapproval. There is no deterrent to wrongdoing like that of social disapproval. Strong school pride and loyalty will brand the individual who harms the school. If someone mars a desk and his associates have the right spirit, the results will be unpleasant for the offender. This spirit is the product of a type of management and education that has been continuing for some time. If it can be aroused, it is the most effectual corrective measure known.

Control is a more serious problem in the high school than it is in the grades. In the high school, organizations spring up, and organized wrongdoing is a powerful force. It is necessary to check and destroy organizations having wrong ideals by means of student participation in school government and by rightly motivated groups.

Threats and humiliation. It should be obvious that making threats that will not be carried out will usually result in failure. The same may be said of unjust penalties. The student should realize the connection between the deed and the reward, good or bad. Such punishment as being compelled to mop the floors or to do extra work is ruled out. One test for the justice of penalties is that they should meet the approval of the punished. Offenders will realize the justice of decisions if the principal does not give way to personal feelings such as anger, but is always consistent, impartial, and judicial. Stormy scenes are recognized as a weakness by students.

The principal's attitude. Certain attitudes make the application of corrective measures easier. The principal should always be considerate, giving to the accused the benefit of any doubt and treating him as an adult, if possible. Spying does

more harm than good; it is better to trust the pupil's sense of justice, which in most cases is very keen.

Preventive measures. If the fundamental aim of discipline is to produce a self-governing individual, and if the measures to be used are those which will function through expression rather than repression, what are some of the preventive measures that can be employed?

Motivation of lessons. One desirable preventive measure is the preparation and interesting presentation of the lesson. The student feels more keenly his responsibility for individual assignments or projects than for ordinary daily recitations. The students must be made to feel that they are responsible to the group or class for the completion of an assignment and not to the teacher. This brings about a sense of loyalty and is a means of gaining the cooperation of the unruly student.

Interest and enthusiasm. In the daily recitation, the teacher will find many of her disciplinary problems solved if she takes time to outline an interesting procedure and enthusiastically presents it. Outside reports and topics brought out in student discussion of the lesson serve as an illustration of one of the many ways in which the class can be made more interesting. A variation in the classroom procedure also aids a great deal. Students soon tire of a sameness of procedure from one day to the next. The teacher should use originality and ingenuity in creating a change in the daily program from time to time.

High standards. Another means of gaining disciplinary control is through high standards of work. The habitual use of the school day for a succession of interesting and vital activities leading to a high quality of achievement obviously has an important bearing on a problem of discipline. It helps teach the fundamental lessons of self-control and self-discipline by acquainting the child with the value of systematic work. The teacher must guard against operating such a system under a nervous tension which is harmful to the physical and mental health of the students.

Students who are absorbed in their work will cause the minimum of trouble in discipline. This has become practically an

axiom in educational administration, but merely increasing the quantity of work will not eliminate discipline problems. Too often, because of disorder, the teacher increases the assignment. This is quite justly interpreted by the student as a punishment; and schoolwork should never be made a punishment.

It is the qualitative standards of work that should be raised. Invariably, an unruly student is deficient in the quality of his work. Emphasis should be placed on neatness, accuracy, thoroughness, and so on, rather than on quantity. Qualitative standards can be raised by means of self-conducted objective scales and tests, which can be used to direct the student's attention away from unruly conduct to his own work in school. In the use of these scales and tests, the teacher does not take the part of judge, but now assumes the role of a guide and counselor. Both teacher and student are now working together toward one objective goal. Group rivalry will also aid in raising the standards of work. Group rivalry stimulates all the students to do their best for the benefit of the group. This in turn stimulates group responsibility and improves disciplinary control.

Extracurricular activities. Aside from their other very important educational functions, extracurricular activities, including athletics, offer further values in the alleviation of behavior problems. Today, no high school can be without these outlets for student energy and growth and still retain the good will of the student body. The relief from pent-up physical energy in athletics on the playfield means much less disturbance in the classroom. The satisfying of the varied intense adolescent interests and bents through extracurricular activities gives the brighter pupils a chance to create something besides mischief.

The technique of preventing disorder and unwholesome attitudes toward the school has not yet been standardized. Perhaps it will never be, but at least many procedures that are always helpful have been ascertained. The principal can find use for these in helping teachers who have not developed to the point where they can effectively war against the very germs

of disorder and can build up each individual's resistance to temptation. In the field of preventive or indirect discipline lies the opportunity for emphasis on ethical character.

Teacher and Student Cooperation

What student participation means. The term "student government" needs clarifying. Where students have been given a degree of participation in the administrative control of the school, the practice has often been called student self-government. Gradually student self-government has become student participation in school government. The implication that the former terminology has carried with it has proved not only false, but also distasteful.

With student cooperative control, the students are not self-governing. On the contrary, the teacher still remains a vital source of advice and sponsorship. Student government is not student autonomy. Student participation in school government is a plan which provides a definite organization primarily to share in school administration. It involves the organization of representative students elected to assist through cooperative effort in working out helpful social relationships in school activities and civic problems. To some, the term has falsely connoted a school condition where the teachers' sphere of influence lies solely in the classroom and where the principal sits contentedly in his office with the administrative problems solved. The direct opposite is true. In a school where a serious attempt is made to teach citizenship and efficiency by the student-control method, the teachers' influence is increased, not minimized.

Common types of student participation. The realization that student cooperative control measures must be adapted to meet the needs of the specific school in which they operate has resulted in a multiplicity of types. Although many organizations in different schools are similar, no two are exactly alike. Moreover, principals quite generally agree that complicated machinery should be avoided. While it is imperative that each school work out for itself the organization that will best meet

its needs, a consideration here of the most common types of student organizations for participation is appropriate.

The types of government employed to put student participation into operation may be classified in three ways: (1) according to purpose, (2) according to organization, and (3) according to powers granted.

Some schools experiencing serious disciplinary trouble have attempted to institute cooperative control to solve the problem. Some have employed it for the purpose of teacher emancipation, while still others have taken up the idea to better the condition of the students themselves and to prepare them for citizenship. The latter motive is of course the one most easily justified. Any type of student participation based primarily on student disciplinary functions will ultimately fail. Education and guidance must be emphasized rather than offenses and punishment.

The student council plan. Although there are many types of organizations, varying in complexity from minor club organizations to the "school city," the student council plan which is based on limited participation is the most common. There is a lack of uniformity among schools in the way in which the council organization is effected. Home rooms, honor rooms, independent clubs, classes, and the school at large form the basic units for representation in the various school councils. If the council is large, an executive or advisory board usually is responsible for carrying out its policies. In some schools, the council is composed of both students and faculty, while others have one, two, or three faculty sponsors. In all cases, the principal either directly or indirectly exercises the power of veto. It must be understood that these councils are identified by a score of different names and the officers are given a variecy of titles, but the student council plan is fundamental in almost all schools employing cooperative control.

Other plans. There are very few other types of student governing organizations. Apparently, students are actually self-governing in a few instances, but even then the principal

has a power of veto that is inconsistent with complete autonomy. Under a plan of participation in school government to be found in a few schools, the students' degree of self-direction is increased with the time spent in school.

Values and aims of student participation. Student participation is based on the theory that citizenship in a smaller or larger group of society necessitates ideals and knowledge combined in action. The strongest argument for student participation is that it produces a higher type of citizenship by providing the students with an opportunity to follow the democratic principles laid down by the school. They become impressed by the similarity of school experience and life experience.

Citizenship. Participation in an attempt to solve local and vital problems, as a part of the school's government and under wise leadership and supervision, will do much toward helping the students to interest themselves in desirable activities. The transfer from school to life is more likely to be successful if the conditions in the school are similar to desirable conditions outside of the school. The elements required for good citizenship in school are like the elements of good citizenship required in the community at large. Student participation brings with it a realization of membership in a society with its duties and privileges. It helps to develop the ideals of fair play and unselfish service and makes students more thoughtful and considerate of the rights of others. Student cooperation should develop the individual into an intelligent, well-rounded, public-spirited citizen by leading him to a realization of his personal responsibilities. He must be so much taken up with the spirit of public service that he will willingly subordinate self to the interests of the group.

Socialization and morale. The second value that is to arise from student participation is the improved moral tone of the school and a better socialized atmosphere. The students feel that they have a part in the school and do not feel like slaves who have to "walk the chalk line" without having any voice as to where the line should be placed. In studies of participa-

tion, schools have consistently reported that a greater degree of loyalty is cultivated and there is evidence of the development of self-confidence and self-assertion on the part of the students.

Discipline. Another important value is the influence of cooperative control on the conduct of the students, to say nothing of the valuable part it plays in school spirit and loyalty. The teachers and principal cannot sit back and free their hands of the problem of discipline, but cooperative control will help greatly. It is not advisable to try to solve a bad disciplinary situation with student help, but in an average or better than average school cooperative control should achieve a great improvement in discipline.

Leadership. Leaders are needed in every phase of life, and there is no place where better leadership training may be secured than in the school. In student participation, there is the best chance to pick out those who have the qualities of leaders and give them practice and training in this field. Not only will these leaders be trained, but those who have the qualities of good followers will have training to do their bit. It gives the students a chance to do some reflective thinking and a chance to act upon their conclusions.

Further outcomes. Some other values of student participation in school control are:

1. It utilizes the moral and ethical aims of education.
2. It secures better cooperation between the home and the school.
3. It makes provision for a more intelligent majority rule.
4. It aids in interpreting and molding school opinion.
5. It is a true project method for securing a broad and rich educational experience.
6. It offers an ideal means of unifying the life of the school.

An illustration of the student viewpoint with regard to the kinds of outcomes to be achieved is the "Code for the Good Citizen of the American High School," [1] adopted by the

[1] "A Code for the Good Citizen of the American High School," *School and Society*, XLVIII (October 8, 1938), 452.

National Association of Student Officers at their annual convention in New York, June, 1938:

I realize that, as a student in an American high school, I owe an obligation to parents or relatives whose sacrifices have given me the foundations upon which I am building, to the school which offers me an opportunity to develop my natural powers, and to the community which makes my educational advantages possible, to my country which gives me liberty under law, and to my own future as an individual and a citizen.

As a token of my determination honorably to discharge this obligation, I promise:

That I will use the facilities offered by the classroom to enlarge and broaden my interests, to increase my knowledge, to bring me closer to truth, and to cultivate habits of industry and sound thinking.

That I will broaden my sympathies and practice the arts of sociability, true friendliness and helpfulness in my home, in the school and in all my associations; avoiding snobbishness in my own conduct and condemning it in others.

That I will develop habits of reading and conversing which will broaden my culture and enable me better to understand the problems of community, state and nation.

That I will carry on discussions in and out of the classroom, not to overcome opponents and gratify my pride but that I may grow in knowledge and wisdom.

That I will avoid every form of cheating or dishonesty and will undertake to discourage all dishonorable practices.

That I will obey every rule or law of school, city, state and nation, reserving the right to criticize rules and laws constructively, but respecting them so long as they prevail.

That I will use my powers and influence for the common good.

That I will pursue happiness myself and strive to establish conditions under which happiness and opportunity may be hopefully pursued by every one in my home, my school, my community, my country and the world.

Difficulties in student participation. Perhaps the greatest danger may arise because the school has established an elaborate piece of machinery which becomes too complex. The purposes of student cooperation then become lost in the maze. This causes a lack of interest on the part of students and teachers alike.

The organization may cease to function properly if the student council is too large. This will be especially likely in a large school where the authorities feel there should be a large representation from each home room or class organization. An unwieldy council will result in a waste of time and in losing sight of the true democratic principle of the organization.

Another danger that does arise in some cases is that the students and teachers may not realize the meaning of the idea. Some teachers have thought that the system relieved them of responsibility, and the parents and students therefore received the same impression. They have regarded the council as an instrument to take over the unpleasant duties of the faculty, relieving teachers of the responsibility that should rightfully be theirs. This attitude can be remedied to some extent by a broad system of education of parents, teachers, and students before the plan is put into effect.

Functions of officers, unless clearly defined, often give rise to troubles which will cause the scheme to be labeled a failure. The purposes of the plan and the functions of each officer must be clearly defined before it can operate successfully.

Some other possible causes of serious trouble are:

1. It is a difficult task to train students to assume responsibility.
2. Standing committees are not used sufficiently.
3. Lower classmen find difficulty in securing election to councils.
4. It is difficult to develop school spirit in a very large school.
5. There is a feeling on the part of some students that they are to govern by virtue of their office rather than by a willingness to learn to govern.
6. A faction may gain control of the organization.
7. Self-importance may develop.
8. Natural leaders may be overworked.
9. Guidance by the principal and sponsor may be too obvious.
10. Criticism is offered in some instances that students are

taken away from their actual studies too much — but inasmuch as the plan is a laboratory course in citizenship, this criticism is not valid.

Before any definite organization is formed, the principal or one in authority may well proceed in the following manner:

1. Study the problem thoroughly, taking into consideration the type of organization needed for the school.
2. Confer with the faculty, getting their advice and support.
3. Call in some of the leaders of the student body and sell the idea to them.
4. Permit these students, in company with one or more teachers, to observe some schools in which student participation is emphasized and proving successful.
5. Call a meeting of the student body, at which the students mentioned above may tell of their observations and their ideas concerning the plan.
6. After this meeting, let the students discuss the matter in home rooms or class meetings. Take plenty of time for discussion.
7. Permit the question of deciding in favor of or against the plan to go before the student body for vote.
8. If the students decide in favor of cooperative control, a constitutional committee should be appointed by the principal or elected.
9. Obtain sample constitutions from various schools where student participation is proving successful; also, secure reading material on this subject.
10. The committee should frame the constitution (with faculty supervision), taking into consideration the particular problems and situations of the school.
11. Put copies of this constitution in the hands of all students and have a thorough explanation of it given, either in the home rooms or in a special assembly.
12. Suggestions and criticisms from the students should be acted upon by the constitutional committee.
13. Secure ratification of the constitution by the student body.

14. By carefully planned steps, put the provisions of the constitution into effect.

Functions of the student council. Student councils cannot be readily classified according to the powers granted them. The following duties are those most commonly discharged by student councils: (1) providing for election of school representatives; (2) cooperating with faculty council or representative; (3) supervising school charity; (4) controlling extracurricular activities and clubs: (5) preventing disturbances in halls, locker rooms, cafeteria, and grounds; (6) acting as a student court; (7) assigning penalties; (8) making plans for improving attendance; (9) scheduling class and club meetings; (10) controlling organization finances; and (11) conducting an employment bureau.

Additional Practical Suggestions on Discipline

The beginning teacher and discipline. Problems of discipline loom large in the thinking of beginning teachers. This is not surprising, since many inexperienced teachers are classified as unsuccessful because of their inability to maintain a satisfactory standard of discipline in their classes. There is no formula that beginning teachers can follow with the assurance that all of their disciplinary problems will be satisfactorily solved. Much of the discussion in this chapter should be helpful to beginning teachers. In addition, it is suggested that the beginning teacher become informed concerning the prevailing disciplinary problems. In turn, the principal and older teachers should feel a very keen sense of responsibility for helping the beginning teacher, as the failure of an inexperienced teacher because of disciplinary problems is a reflection on the efficiency of the management of a school.

The teacher as a guide. A few considerations of adolescent psychology are necessary for the teacher who must control high school students. The youth sometimes finds himself in direct conflict with his teachers and parents. His whole physical and mental being is active. This period is called the turning point of life or the great formative period for the individual.

The adolescent period has great possibilities for development of cooperation, leadership, and vocational skill.

Much trouble may arise in school from the heedless, the uncouth, and the selfish. They may mean well, but they do not know how to act. The school has a duty of informing these people in matters of courtesy. There is also a need for teaching codes of sportsmanship. Too frequently athletic events are scenes of unnecessary interschool cheating and strife.

Since the aim of education is to develop people who will live successfully in a democratic society, students should be given as much self-control in school life as they will assume responsibility for. The teacher is the guiding force in this regard and should know when the students have all the control they will use advantageously. The test of good discipline comes when the teacher is gone for a time.

A check list of disciplinary practices. A teacher will find it profitable to check his disciplinary practices in terms of such proposals as these:

1. Set a good example as a teacher in matters of honesty, fairness, courtesy, kindliness, orderliness, industry, and reverence.
2. Create many opportunities for students to cooperate in activities for the good of the school or class.
3. Plan to use the surplus energy and initiative of students in directed playground activities, school assemblies, and other kinds of cooperative undertakings.
4. Routinize many matters of class management, such as taking the roll, collecting and distributing papers, inspecting desks, arranging illustrative materials, and adjusting shades.
5. Remove or modify conditions that cause disciplinary problems.
6. Cultivate the kind of morale that will cause students to show disapproval of misconduct by associates.
7. Create a spirit of success among the students in a school or class.
8. Give definite instruction in matters of courtesy and good sportsmanship.

9. Emphasize the rewards, honors, and merits of good conduct rather than the penalties of misconduct.

10. Treat all students in a kindly, impartial, and considerate manner.

11. Organize the work in such a manner as to keep students busy with profitable tasks during every minute of the school day.

12. Make *early* the few rules needed for the smooth running of the school or class.

13. Make the punishment of a student an individual matter. Do not punish the group for the misconduct of the individual.

14. Expect from students a fine type of conduct, but prepare for occasional disappointments.

The foregoing list of recommended practices is based on the assumption that the teacher should work cooperatively with the students and assist their efforts to grow in self-control and self-direction.

Discipline a means to good citizenship. It is commonly agreed that the major tasks of the adult citizen are to assist in organizing his group, to perform his duties as a member of the group, and to act in such a manner as to promote the best interests of all. The students in our schools have a similar set of tasks, and our modern schools are emphasizing a type of discipline that affords opportunity for training in these tasks. The kind of discipline that the present-day schools are seeking may be defined as that type of conduct on the part of students which makes possible an effective quality of schoolwork and which leads to the forming or the strengthening of habits of obedience, cooperation, courtesy, honesty, fairness, industry, and reverence.

The collective life of the secondary school exhibits many of the basic processes and problems of adult political societies — the establishment of authority and social control, the safeguarding of personal liberties, the formation of effective public opinion, and the selection of leaders and representatives, to mention only a few. The student who learns to be a good citizen of a democratic secondary school, and who comes to understand the ways in which the school community operates, will thereby progress far on the road to good adult citizen-

ship. The life of the school itself is therefore a proper subject of study in the school, and is a potential source of insight into the nature and procedures of democracy.[1]

Training in effective citizenship should be the chief aim of school discipline. Many parents, in visiting present-day schools, are surprised to find a hum of industry rather than the enforced silence that was once so highly prized. They are also much surprised to find boys and girls going about their tasks without the close supervision of a teacher. Some of these parents are critical of the present-day school when they find that students are not ordered, commanded, or threatened as they were in the older days.

The present educational theories almost completely reverse the old standards of discipline, which were marked by emphasis upon silence, order, and submissiveness. While there are still many teachers in our schools who rule with an iron hand, such teachers are less common than they were some years ago. Modern schools are seeking to introduce a type of discipline which emphasizes the fact that the school is a real and not a make-believe community. The teachers in these schools feel that it is as important for the student to cooperate with his classmates and to respect their interests as it is for his parents to practice cooperation and respect for the rights and property of others.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Mention some of the recent changes in ideas about school discipline.
2. Why do so many teachers continue to use an autocratic kind of discipline in their dealing with students?
3. Why is group discipline much more effective than personal discipline?
4. Are there instances in which the teacher should counsel with students alone rather than in the presence of others? Give reasons for your answer.

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy — A Case Book of Civic Education*, p. 260. Washington, National Education Association, 1940.

5. State the conditions under which you would sanction corporal punishment.

6. How would you proceed in a school where corporal punishment had been authorized by school-board action and published in the daily papers?

7. Discuss the value of school prizes for good conduct.

8. Write an argument for or against a high school course in morals and manners.

9. Outline some of the specific policies governing discipline that you would recommend for a high school with an enrollment of at least 400 students.

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Chapter XI. THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The Nature and Significance of Guidance

Guidance is essential in the modern high school because of the increasing complexity of our civilization and the presence of all classes and types of students. A carefully planned guidance program is imperative if these students are to find their bearings in the modern high school, with its numerous curriculum offerings, electives, and extracurricular activities. Moral, social, ethical, educational, leisure-time, civic, and vocational guidance are needed. Many of these aspects of guidance should be cared for largely in the regular classroom instruction. More difficult phases should receive the attention of special counselors, the dean of girls, the adviser of boys, the director of extracurricular activities, the principal, and the assistant principal. To coordinate the guidance program in large schools, it is highly advisable to have a director of guidance.

Much attention should be paid to the problems of educational and vocational guidance. Their great importance in the secondary school warrants a guidance program that is properly devised and administered, and such a program should reduce both maladjustment and school mortality.

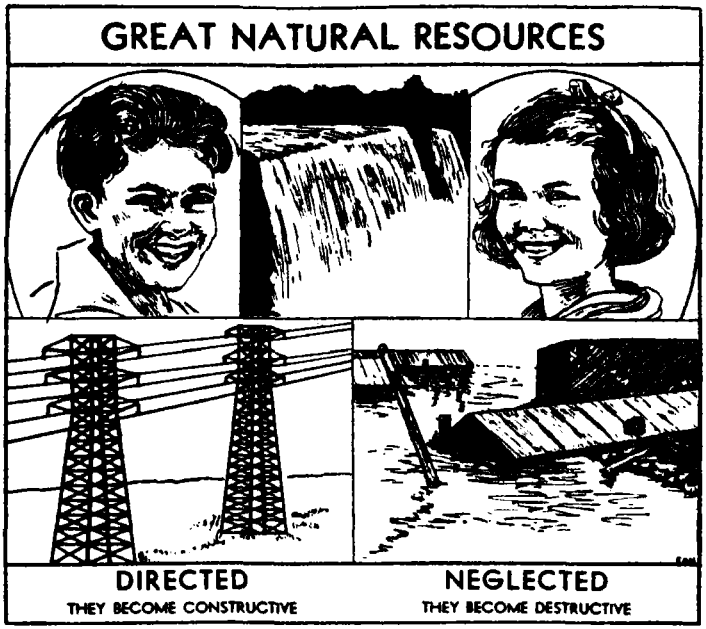
Educational Guidance

The meaning of educational guidance. The connotations of the term "educational guidance" are so broad as to include all the types of development in which the student should have guidance in school. It includes health, academic, vocational, social, and ethical guidance. In this discussion, however, vocational guidance is abstracted for separate treatment later in the chapter on account of its somewhat specialized techniques.

Educational guidance is concerned, to a large extent, with

choice of studies, courses, curriculums, and extracurricular activities adapted to the various needs and interests of students, whereas vocational guidance relates to choosing, preparing for, entering, and making progress in an occupation. Thus, educational and vocational guidance are interrelated but not identical.

Need for educational guidance. A certain emotional instability is characteristic of youthful and adolescent interests.



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Students do not know themselves fully. Their purposes and plans are constantly changing to some extent. They need guidance to help them discover their possibilities and to aid them in distinguishing between real and passing interests. They need assistance in analyzing their needs and in choosing wisely from the curricular offerings.

Individual differences. Formerly, a highly selected group of pupils whose ultimate aim was a college education attended high schools. Today, studies show how wide is the range of differences, especially in chronological and mental age, capac-

ity, and social development, and how essential is guidance, if the high schools are to organize an effective program.

Many individual differences result from situations in the home and the variety of social backgrounds. Students today have many opportunities for out-of-school contacts and for experiences away from home. Consequently, many formerly uniform characteristics have changed.

School mortality. Students of lower mentality are going to high school in increasing numbers, and, because their school subjects are badly selected, school mortality is very high. At present, most of those who enter the first grade begin high school, but fewer than two thirds of these continue until they are graduated. Courses are now being formulated for students of low intelligence and for the physically defective. Guidance of students into these courses should reduce school mortality.

Expansion of curriculums. The student has insufficient experience to know what his needs are in relation to the courses offered. The high school program of studies is an insoluble puzzle, for the courses and curriculums are seldom described except in technical language. In the large high school, there are generally at least two curriculums offered, and in the small high school there are certain elective courses. Concerning all of these possible choices a student needs information. It is because of this complexity of courses and the student's limited understanding that real educational improvement may result through guidance.

Previous home and school experience. There are certain previous school experiences, maladjustments, and social and economic conditions within the home that make guidance imperative. Many students reach high school with physical or mental defects, such as poor reading habits, diseases, and physical disabilities. Sometimes these are not clearly defined, but will greatly affect schoolwork and later life. Emotional conditions and certain home factors, both economic and social, must be considered. Narrow vocational training may result from special abilities or interests if a student's choice is left entirely to him. Hence the need for guidance.

Information needed as a basis for guidance. Educational guidance must be based on a study of the individual. There are several means of self-guidance, such as descriptive explanations of courses, classroom discussions, and tryout courses. However, the main and most efficient guidance is given by a counselor. The kinds of contact with a student that are necessary to effective guidance will be indicated. It may not be possible under some local conditions to follow in detail the suggestions offered, but they are important. A counselor should be guided by the types of information discussed below.

Learning capacity. In order that a student may be placed in the right curriculum and course, it is necessary to know his mental capacity. Courses should be selected which are not too difficult for the student taking them. When a classification has been made as to ability, a student can be placed in a homogeneous group where the development of the whole class is more nearly unified. The determination of a student's ability will be secured largely through intelligence-test scores and teacher ratings.

Past school record. As a student enters high school, his elementary school marks and achievement rating should be obtained. This array should include the marks in all subjects and should indicate his general scholarship. These marks will reveal certain strong and weak points in schoolwork, certain subjects where interest is greatest, and a rough measure of a student's ability. This record will help in determining certain courses he can take because of ability and interest shown in earlier grades.

Previous training. Data for guidance should include the kind and type of school from which the student came and the opportunities offered there for educational development. Any tryout courses or guidance a student has had, and any outside employment he has, will help the counselor to know his background. For example, one student, coming from a small school where the faculty is limited, where no guidance program is offered, and where there is little organization, may be found retarded in some respects in comparison with another coming

from a modern fully equipped junior high school. The information concerning past training may be obtained through a conference with the student and from any available records concerning the schools from which the high school draws its students. Knowing the student's previous training, a counselor will meet his needs in certain tryout courses which correspond in difficulty with previous work, and in particularly suitable extracurricular activities.

Health. Health and attendance play a very definite part in school success. The health of a student can be determined largely from elementary school records giving previous health examination, height, weight, attendance record, promotions and failures, and general physical condition. These should aid a counselor in determining a student's load, type of work or activity that he will succeed in after leaving school, and the courses that will best meet his needs.

Character traits. The most important traits to be considered in educational guidance are industry, courtesy, honesty, dependability, cooperativeness, loyalty, conscientiousness, and disposition. A rating on these characteristics may be secured from some previous teacher or from the student as a self-rating. A knowledge of these traits will help the counselor to know the personality of the student, to identify certain types of activity to which he is best suited, and to aid him in choosing the kind of training, social or individual, that he needs.

Personal ambitions and interests. Four main types of interests — athletic, recreational, social, and vocational — are significant in educational guidance. In determining a student's interests, a counselor must find out whether they are lasting or merely fleeting. Interests and ambitions may be discovered through conference, academic records, and questionnaires filled out by the student, parents, and teachers. A counselor should not guide a student into courses or curriculums in which he is not interested unless there is a basis of need for the subject leading to future interests. Interest is the basis for success in school work.

Emotional traits. Probably nothing is harder to ascertain

than emotional traits or attitudes. Some of the best ways of discovering them are through teachers' ratings, students' self-ratings, anecdotal records, and recently developed tests on attitudes. The normal emotional conduct of the student will not affect a counselor's program greatly, but any unstable emotional condition affecting physical or social conduct will need special consideration.

Status of family. The economic, social, educational, and cultural aspects of family life are the most significant factors in a student's home conditions. Among the usual ways to obtain ratings on these factors are a home visit, a conference with the pupil, and a questionnaire. At least, an attempt should be made to get this information in a proper guidance program. For example, a boy from a large family of foreign parentage, financially in need, will face more serious problems in considering the desirability of trying to go to college than the more comfortably situated student. Counselors should be in a position to help him weigh the advantages and disadvantages of a contemplated course of action.

Parents' ambitions and interests. The desires of parents must be regarded in a guidance program. If the interest and capacity of the student seem contrary to family wishes, a home visit by the counselor often clarifies misunderstanding. If the family is expecting a student to enter a certain occupation, a trial through schoolwork may be helpful. Family wishes may be determined through interview or questionnaire, but should be considered only one factor in guiding a student.

Special abilities. Often, special abilities in such fields as music, art, dramatics, and drawing are overlooked. However, care must be taken not to have the student specialize in an ability too early in school life. In helping a student to plan his program, a counselor should consider special abilities, but he must also plan broadly. He must determine in some measure the subjects to be taken by a student who expects to leave school before graduation. More commercial or shop subjects should be taken than by those who will be graduated and intend to go to college.

Means of educational guidance. The work of educational guidance has been greatly advanced by the increased uses of various kinds of exploratory courses and by tests for the purpose of measuring general intelligence or of prognosis.

Exploratory courses. Tryout and exploratory courses have been designed: (1) to contribute to general experience and vocational analysis, (2) to render assistance in educational selection without encouraging leaving school, and (3) to give preliminary training to those who must leave school early.

Among such courses are those intended to discover the possession, or lack, of mechanical and trade ability. In one plan, seventh-grade boys are given general shopwork in printing, wood turning, wood benchwork, and light machine work. A period of five weeks is devoted to each type of work, after which the student is allowed more advanced training in the particular phase of the work he likes best. If he makes passing marks in the basic subjects, English, mathematics, and the social sciences, he is allowed much leeway in the election of his subjects in the ninth grade.

Another plan requires eighth-grade students to take English, United States history, and mathematics; advises them to take geography; and allows them to elect music appreciation, art appreciation, or printing. In the ninth grade, it requires English and science; advises a language (French, Latin, Spanish, or German) together with either general shop for boys or home economics for girls; and offers as electives mathematics, science, music appreciation, art appreciation, elementary design, and geography. All of these courses help the student to find his own abilities and interests, and, with the advice of a counselor, his future educational career as well as his place in civic and social life.

The nature and objectives of exploratory courses should be explained to prospective junior high school students by means of folders or mimeographed sheets placed in their hands in the spring of their completion of the elementary school program. Such preliminary information, accompanied if possible by a talk by the principal of the junior high school, enables

the student to investigate his own interests and learn the wishes of his parents before seeking the advice of a counselor in filling out his card for the first semester in the upper school.

Intelligence and prognosis tests. Although the different phases of a general intelligence test, such as written directions, study of opposites, practical judgment, and vocabulary, do not measure specific abilities in educational subjects or courses, these tests are of value in helping the counselor guide the student into the course in which his chance for success will be greatest, for it has been shown that there is a high degree of correlation between success in high school and intelligence as determined by the better individual and group intelligence tests. It should also be remembered that those of better than average ability will tend gradually to achieve their educational ambitions, while those who are below average in ability will tend to find their ultimate occupations at levels below their high school plans for a life career. Proper educational guidance as to high school courses is particularly necessary because a closer relationship seems to exist between intelligence and persistence in educational plans than between intelligence and persistence in vocational plans.

1. Algebra. The Rogers Diagnostic Composite, given at the end of the first half-year of algebra, has a correlation with future mathematical ability of from 0.60 to 0.80. The test may be given in 90 minutes.

2. English. The constant subjects, such as English and the social studies, may be adequately covered by such achievement tests as Tressler's English Minimum Essentials Test, Pressey's Diagnostic Test in English, and the Columbia Research Bureau Test in English.

3. Foreign languages. There are two types of tests available for prognosis of ability in foreign languages: (1) the mental ability tests, and (2) such individual tests as those of Wilkins, Henmon, Carr, and others.

The following tests are also helpful in foreign language prognosis: Luria-Orleans Modern Language Prognosis Test; The American Council Alpha and Beta French and German

Tests; The Columbia Research Bureau Tests in French, German, and Spanish; and the Ullman-Kirby Latin Comprehension Test.

4. Mechanical Ability. For the prognosis of mechanical ability, the Mechanical Aptitudes Test by Stenquist is of value in student guidance. The Minnesota Assembly Test is also helpful here.

5. Science. No available prognosis tests of ability in science are considered reliable. However, Thurstone's pre-engineering tests, covering arithmetical reasoning, technical information, algebra, physics, geometry, grammar, mechanical aptitudes, and estimating, are of value in counseling high school seniors as to the college curriculum for which they are best fitted.

6. Typewriting and Commercial Subjects. Thurstone's Clerical Test and the study "Determination of Ability to Learn Typewriting" are available to the teacher of these subjects.

It should be borne in mind by the high school counselor that the time has not yet arrived for absolute reliance on prognosis tests as a means of predicting special abilities that have to to do with educational success. Educational guidance may be based in part on these only when supplemented by the study of intelligence tests, records of actual accomplishment in the elementary school, and teachers' estimates.

Aptitude tests.[1] In the early years of the high school period aptitude tests in various fields should be introduced. These should be administered for the purpose of ascertaining what are the developing aptitudes, bents and interests of pupils. When properly handled they become invaluable agents of guidance. They represent just another means of discovering pupil capacities for guidance purposes.

Educational guidance and the schedule of recitations. The proper functioning of the program of studies depends in part on careful guidance of individual students before their schedules have been arranged. In order to assist in accomplish-

[1] A wealth of information is available in the helpful bulletins coming out of the Vocational Education Division Bulletins of the U. S. Office of Education. Attention is called to Bulletin No. 202, Series 2, Chapter IV, 1939.

ing this object, a satisfactory grouping of students may be made by a combined study of teachers' marks in elementary school or junior high school, teachers' estimates, and mental tests. In the plan employed in many large high schools, prospective high school students are grouped by a study of intelligence-test scores, school records, and teachers' estimates into X, Y, and Z groups representing bright, medium, and slow students. During the summer preceding their entrance, the principal makes a study of each student's record, and on the opening day the student is assigned to a section. The reason for his assignment to a particular section is not made known to the student. He may be in section X for one subject and in Y for another, though cases of this kind are not frequent. He may also be transferred from one group to another in the same section. By this plan, many failures are eliminated, and the guidance of individual students is simplified considerably.

Outline of a plan for educational guidance. 1. The counselor's study of the cumulative card index of the student, if one has been kept, should show the results of his achievement and intelligence tests up to the first year of junior high school. If no card record has been kept, the counselor will find it helpful to secure several kinds of information before giving definite advice to the student as to his election of a course of study. The information secured should include: *a*, teachers' ratings on past schoolwork; *b*, teachers' estimates of student's intelligence, industry, and application; *c*, health record; *d*, chronological age; *e*, mental age; *f*, intelligence quotient; *g*, anatomical age; and *h*, the student's educational ambition or expression of vocational interest.

2. The study by student and parents of a bulletin or mimeographed statement describing the nature and purposes of the different courses offered in the high school.

3. Counselor's study of the student's social and civic outlook.

4. Individual or group instruction in the requirements of the various professions, and preparatory training required in

each, which may well be supplemented by printed circulars explaining these matters.

5. Student's election of the course in which he is most interested and which he thinks will best fit his needs and capacity.

6. Advice of counselor as to the aims and content of each subject in the course chosen.

7. Change of course in view of parents' or student's dislike or student's lack of capacity for the course.

8. Parent's signature of approval of course chosen.

9. Counselor's signature of approval, together with any comment as to prospective success or failure, for office records.

10. Arrangement of the program of studies in a way that will allow exploration by student, and profitable change of studies or course upon discovery of various interests and abilities or lack of them.

The counselor. Guidance can best be given by a counselor who studies a limited number of pupils individually as to learning capacity, past school record, health record, anatomical age, character, home conditions, social outlook, civic outlook, personal interests, wishes of parents, length of time student will probably remain in school, and certain factors peculiar to the community.

Of course, where it is not possible to employ a trained counselor, a great deal may be done by the general faculty when a careful study is made of the problem.

Vocational Guidance

The vocational counselor. At the very outset, we must take carefully into consideration the individual in the school who is responsible for vocational guidance. To a large extent, the success or failure of the entire vocational guidance program depends on him. In a large high school, some one individual should be selected to give his entire time to counseling. In the small high school, that duty devolves on the principal, the superintendent, or some other individual fitted for this function of being a confidant of the student. It may not necessarily

be the principal, but there should be a definite understanding with the authorities as to the status of that person. His authority and policies should be clearly determined.

The requirements for success in the position are considerably above those of the average teacher. The counselor should have academic training that has included sociology, economics, biology, and psychology. He should have a background of successful teaching experience. Finally, he should have had successful experience in either commercial or industrial life so as to give him a real understanding of the problem. His personality, on which so much depends, should be characterized by sympathetic understanding, sincerity, and a keen sense of humor.

The program. The question of setting up the guidance program involves the pupils. They come to high school with a background of experiences that have given them interests and capabilities that are unknown specifically to the counselor. It must be remembered that the entire problem of guidance is not centered in the secondary school. An effective program continues from the student's entrance in the elementary school to his graduation from high school. His interests and aptitudes have been aroused and explored as he has progressed in the school system. Data should have been accumulated and passed along as he advanced through the various grades of school. Too frequently, school systems have been organized in units, with no attention given to the possibility of coordination.

Records and reports. In a guidance program in high school, data on the following matters should be used: (1) scholarship, (2) attendance, (3) health, (4) parentage, (5) character, (6) citizenship, (7) habits, (8) activities, (9) discipline, and (10) intelligence. These records should be carefully filed and adequate provisions should be made for adding to them. The records should be kept up to date. In addition to the above data, a record should be filed of the student's answers to rather frequent inquiries as to his desired vocation.

Classes. Arrangement of classes into homogeneous groups is facilitated by the information accumulated in these school records. It should be kept in mind that homogeneous grouping does not imply that the groups are fixed. Flexibility of the school program is a prime essential if the actual needs of the student are to be met. This implies transference from one group to another and from one course to another as the process of adjustment takes place. It is at this point that many schools fail. The school program should be built with the idea of transferring students from one course to another without disturbing the routine of the school. There is no need to assume that because once the student has chosen the commercial course, he cannot transfer to the industrial course. Where inflexible practice continues, the student exists for the school, not the school for the student.

Vocational courses. The facilities of the school in giving vocational guidance are not limited to the counselor. Some courses deal directly with vocations. An important group of offerings consists of the courses in business occupations dealing with such subjects as bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, commercial law, and economics. Another group of courses that may be definitely vocational includes the offerings for girls in the field of household arts: foods, textiles, costume design, millinery, cafeteria and home serving, and dietetics. Some of the courses for industrial occupations are: woodworking, sheet-metal work, electricity, patternmaking, machine-shop work, auto mechanics, printing, and agriculture. The range of the courses offered should be determined by local needs. For example, Los Angeles offers courses in both plant and animal life, while Detroit offers courses in airplane design, auto mechanics, and commercial art. The possibilities are unlimited, and more serious consideration should be given to their development.

Tryout courses. A field that has been quite generally neglected is that of tryout courses for the professions. There may well be courses in mathematics that involve problems in engineering, in biology that involve dissection, in business

law that involve practical problems in business, in chemistry that involve analysis of a practical nature. All of these are possibilities that need future development. Existing courses of study may be revised in order to help solve these life problems. English themes and reports can be adjusted to carrying on investigations of occupations and avocations. Assigned readings in English frequently encompass excellent informational material that gives the student a broader vision of life's possibilities. Social science considers the industrial and economic development of people. Assigned reports that treat of those vocations most interesting to the student are of great value. The realization of the objectives depends on the coordination of the school and the wisdom of the vocational counselor.

Work experiences. One of the more recent developments in this area is the work experience movement. Many educators feel that real experiences with definite learning outcomes are possible when adolescents are placed in real, vital situations and get genuine learning experiences by coming in contact with on-the-job work conditions. Probably in no other way can youth, reared under the artificial conditions of modern life, where they are often denied the privilege of learning by doing with their hands as was possible in the earlier days of our republic, get into life situations bearing more directly on the choice of a permanent vocation.

Extracurricular activities. The functioning of the extracurricular activities offers great possibilities for carrying out an effective vocational guidance program. The formation of clubs, under skilled leadership, is of great value in this respect. Some of the clubs that would be of value are: library, short story, debate, public speaking, journalism, school publications, dramatics, science, biology, nature study, gardening, chemistry, electrical, radio, aircraft, agriculture, art, foods, textiles, millinery, sketch, camera, commercial handicraft, premedic, and engineering.

Class in occupational information. Imparting vocational information should begin before large numbers of students

leave school. Therefore, the information should be given in the early grades of the high school. Since many boys and girls are eliminated from our schools by the end of the ninth grade, a course in occupational information should be given for them. All the students should be encouraged to enroll in this course, including both those whose lack of fitness is such that there is a possibility of their dropping out and the more able students to whom the information is equally vital. In every case, furthermore, the course should be a regular subject in the curriculum. It may be taught by the vocational counselor if he is available, but in any event the teacher who has the responsibility of conducting it should have a large fund of information about actual conditions and possibilities.

The course should be supplemented by investigations, field trips, talks by men representing different vocations, magazine articles, newspaper accounts, and assigned readings. The advantages and disadvantages of various vocations should be studied. Actual conditions should be presented. It is necessary to learn the requirements of the job. The economic and social possibilities should be so presented that the pupil would know exactly what he is about. Wages, hours of labor, seasonal demands, apprenticeship, supply of labor, demand of labor, sources of labor, and common deficiencies of the workers should all be considered. The range of vocations presented would depend on the needs of the students and the community. Individual projects should be encouraged so that no student need receive less attention than the others.

Putting the program into effect. The problem of making use of the facilities of the school confronts the counselor. By the use of the information at hand, and that which is to be gained by a series of self-analysis blanks, special-interest tests, teacher judgment, and conferences with parents, he can guide the student in his choice of subjects. Several good self-analysis blanks have been published, but the counselor may, if he prefers, devise his own blanks to fit his particular group.

There should be close cooperation in the school so as to give usable information to the counselor. He must inspire

the confidence not only of the teaching staff, but also of the students and the community. He should have intimate contact with business and professional agencies, and should know the requirements for positions in their organizations. He should have up-to-date data on the various occupations of the community. These data should be filed and organized so that ready reference can be made to them when occasion demands their use. He should have a library containing the state and local child labor laws, vocational surveys, and data concerning social agencies. He should have frequent information from employment agencies, for he is certain to need it.

Placement. The counselor has the opportunity of using part-time employment in the furtherance of his program. He may place a student in a job as a tryout in the hope that he can fit him into the work he can do best. This should not be haphazard work. The job itself, and qualifications necessary for filling it, should be considered systematically. The student is then selected after a careful examination of the data concerning the applicants.

Occupational information from business people. Before taking up the problem of placement in greater detail, it will be well to consider the possibilities of imparting occupational information to the school as a unit. This can be done by programs of moving pictures that deal with industries. In some instances, the pictures available from large industrial organizations are acceptable and helpful. Assemblies where capable bankers, lawyers, doctors, manufacturers, and representatives of other trades and professions are invited to speak are sometimes provided. However, it is much more valuable to have them visit the school to consult with small groups, not to make a speech but to answer questions from the students. Exhibits and displays in classrooms, hall display cases, and the library can help arouse the student's interest. Books collected and placed prominently in the library invite investigation. The ingenious counselor can find many available methods of accomplishing his objective.

The school placement bureau may operate under the direc-

tion of the school counselor in the small school, or under a centralized placement bureau in a city. The purpose is threefold:

1. To help students secure employment while they complete, or after they complete, the vocational course.

2. To secure part-time occupations for the students who are desirous of continuing their education, but cannot do so without financial self-help.

3. To find jobs for those students who do not wish to continue schooling but who will make happy and useful citizens if properly placed.

Interviews with employers. The procedure in placement involves, first, a private interview with the applicant. The student should be required to fill in his own application card. The counselor investigates the student's health, scholarship, achievement, and application record. He then finds out whether he comes within the lawful working age. The interview frequently will not lead to placement, but often may lead the boy to see that it is best for him to remain in school. If an economic necessity exists, or if it is impossible to fit the boy into the school and he is beyond the compulsory education age, the counselor gives him the following information: available jobs, conditions and requirements of work, wages, time schedule, and name and address of employer. The health certificate, application for permit to work, and the parents' consent card should all be on file before the boy applies for the job. The boy is furnished with a letter or a notice of employment which serves as an introduction. If he is given work, the employer signs the letter or card and mails it to the school. If he does not find work, he should return to school to await another opening. He should seldom be asked to take a job that he does not like.

Continuing advancement. Finding a job for the student is not sufficient. A careful follow-up as a continuous check should be used for some time after employment. This is a satisfactory means of measuring the effectiveness of the placement work.

The correlation of industry and the school should be more evident in the future. Many large commercial organizations have undertaken the job of training their own employees. The school should fit students more adequately for life. The whole problem of vocational guidance consists of measuring the demands of the possible vocations and of the applicants, and then fitting the applicant into that place which best suits his talent and ambitions.

The Increasing Emphasis on Guidance

Some of the reasons for the increasing emphasis on guidance are implied in the following summary of significant facts and trends affecting youth:

1. Youth of today is subjected to much greater emotional strains in the home and in the community than youth of a generation ago.

2. Most parents are less able than formerly to aid their children in selecting and preparing for a vocation because of the increased complexity of the problems of vocational adjustment.

3. The attractiveness of professions and white-collar occupations has been unduly emphasized by parents and teachers, with the result that many more young people are planning such careers than can be absorbed in our economic order.

4. Many youths are out of school for several years — two, three, or even five — before they obtain their first full-time job. The majority lack either vocational experience or vocational training.

5. The labor supply is growing relatively older, but industry wants the services of young workers for a variety of reasons. The admission of young workers to industries is resented by the older men already employed.

6. About 90 per cent of all workers in industry today are not classified as skilled laborers, but as unskilled workers who do mostly routine, repetitive types of work.

7. Very narrow occupational specialization and mass production are of relatively recent development. The U. S.

census list of specific occupations gives many hundreds of occupations and jobs which had little or no place twenty years earlier.

THE MEANING OF POPULATION TRENDS

***School Plant*:** The location and design of new buildings should be determined after careful studies of existing and probable future population trends.

***Guidance*:** Guidance services should be used to adjust educational programs, not only to the children who remain in one locality, but to those in a mobile population.

***Rural Schools*:** The probability that rural areas will be the reservoirs of future population makes the improvement of rural education a national necessity.

***Attitudes*:** The schools should encourage among youth and adults the formation of attitudes toward family life that are socially and individually acceptable.

***Adult Education*:** The increasing proportion of adults in the population requires increased provision for adult education as an integral part of public education.

***Financial Support*:** Movements of population within the same state and from one state to another suggest the importance of increased state and federal participation in financial support for basic educational services.

ADAPTED FROM
THE EFFECT OF POPULATION CHANGES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION
by the EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

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8. While our population was growing and spreading over the continent, there was plenty of room for young people in search of experience and a place in economic society, but now the old frontier has disappeared.

In view of the foregoing facts and trends, it is not surprising that society demands increased attention to problems in the field of guidance.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Show that the term "vocational guidance" is too limited to be applied to all the guidance work in secondary education.
2. Is guidance more needed now than when you were in high school? Justify your opinion.
3. List some of the limitations that the high school faces in its efforts to do guidance work.
4. Why should the home conditions of a fifteen-year-old boy be known if he is to be advised in his educational and vocational career?
5. Make a list of recommendations for a program of guidance in a school where expert service is not available.
6. Can a regular classroom teacher in high school do incidental guidance work in connection with her daily teaching? Illustrate.
7. What things should be kept in mind in the administration of the placement program?
8. What are the follow-up duties of a high school to its students after placement?
9. What were the influences that caused you to enter college? For which of these influences was the high school responsible?
10. What should be included in a well-organized guidance program in a high school of 1,000 students where there is a full-time director of guidance?
11. Make a short selected list of guidance books that have appeared in the last five years. Which of them are found in your library?
12. Do you favor a cooperative program between the school and the community in which pupils would earn high school credit for work done in shop, office, field, etc.? State reasons for your answer.
13. Mention some extracurricular activities that are valuable means of guidance on the secondary school level.
14. Which of the topics listed in your high school handbook are helpful in a guidance program?
15. Define self-guidance. To what extent is the average high school student capable of self-guidance?

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Chapter XII. THE HOME ROOM

Origin of the Home Room

In spirit, the home room dates back to the first schools of colonial days. When children arrived for the first time at one of those little one-room country schools, coming from all quarters of the district, they were met by the teacher whose first desire was that they become quickly orientated to their surroundings so that they might feel very much at home. After putting their dinner pails on the floor in one corner and hanging their wraps on nails or pegs in the rear of the room, they greeted their teacher and seated themselves for the opening exercises. This period usually consisted of roll call, singing, reading the scriptures, prayer, announcements, and admonitions, after which the school moved into its regular routine. In reality, their short opening exercise was for the purpose of letting the children settle down to work and become adjusted to the spirit of the school.

As formal as this opening seemed, there was present a significant spirit which pervaded the work of the entire day and whose influence continued all during the year. It was a spirit of comradeship and helpfulness between the younger pupils and the older ones. The older pupils helped the younger ones in their work and play, and the younger pupils sensed the idea that they must give way when the older pupils' work was in progress.

As the population increased and the school grew in size, a village school of several rooms, or a consolidated rural school, replaced the old one-room school. However, the spirit of this one-room school was not lost. It was transferred to the larger building, and each room became a little community with a report period similar to the early opening exercises. This

report period took on increased importance as the idea of guidance grew in our concept of school administration. Beginning at first as a mere administrative device, new activities and responsibilities were added, until now this period has become the very heart of the guidance and pupil activity programs of the modern high school.

Underlying Philosophy of the Home Room

Secondary school administration has passed through three stages in its evolution, and from these has emerged the home-room idea. These three stages have evolved in the following order: first, the principal-centered school; second, the faculty-centered school; and third, the student-centered school.

The principal-centered school. It was but natural that the principal, the sole teacher, was the dominant factor of the small one-room school of colonial days. Textbooks were rare, laboratory materials exceedingly scarce, and libraries almost unknown. Consequently, the teacher, plus a few poor textbooks, constituted the chief sources of learning materials. Only a few of the select boys of the community, who were college bound, entered this college preparatory institution. Discipline was austere, work was hard, and pupils were expected to labor long hours on the mastery of the studies assigned them if they hoped eventually to enter college. Most of the students were relatively mature in years, and were laboring with a rather fixed purpose in mind. They knew where they were headed and needed little or no guidance for their tasks. Under such a scheme, the principal did most or all of the teaching, managed the school, administered the discipline, kept the few records needed, advised with the pupils on their problems, and was the sole contact agency of the school with the community.

The faculty-centered school. When, with the growth in population and the increase in the popularity of secondary education, the one-room building was replaced by a many-room structure, additional teachers were added to the staff. By degrees, the duties and responsibilities of organizing and

administering the school were shared with the various members of the faculty. In the process of time, the upper part of this school developed into the modern, cosmopolitan high school, enrolling thousands of students, and there emerged such officials as dean or adviser of girls, dean or adviser of boys, director of extracurricular activities, director of pupil personnel, director of guidance, director of athletics or intramural sports, etc. In this second stage, the principal gradually shared his duties and responsibilities with certain officials set apart for the task. But, in all such instances, the principal was the recognized head and leader. Although an advance over the earlier stage, this development still lacked certain socializing elements necessary to a modern high school. For example, the principal still administered all discipline, kept in his private office all the records of the students, and made little or no effort at developing a full, well-rounded guidance program. In many ways, he was a benevolent autocrat.

The student-centered school. The evolution of the modern high school, dedicated to the task of developing each student to his capacity in terms of his own interests, ambitions, and potentialities, has brought the progressive administrator to a procedure wherein each individual student in the school becomes an identity to be dealt with in terms of his or her own personality. When to this concept is tied the idea that a student grows and develops best in a sympathetic atmosphere of activity, operating under guidance, the working basis of the student-centered school is provided.

In this third stage, secondary education has become a great democratic, cooperative undertaking. Mature people mingle with adolescents and, through a program of mutual understanding based largely on guidance procedures, move toward desirable goals. In such a program, every teacher and his home-room pupils participate in the cooperative life of the school.

In this program, the home room becomes one of the functional units of the larger organization. From it radiates the social life of the thirty or more students assigned to it, and in

turn there flows into it the stimulating life and spirit of the entire school. It is a center of varied activity in which a small group of students works its way out into a larger social, moral, and educational existence. In some schools, the home room handles all minor administrative routine matters, such as checking attendance, reporting on tardiness and absence, reading the bulletin of announcements for the day, sending special report cards to parents, and holding a short devotional period. The home room also serves as the administrative unit for all intramural sports, contests, and physical education programs. In some schools, it serves also as the administrative unit for social activities sponsored by the school.

Under the concept of the student-centered school, where the whole atmosphere is one of activity and mutual understanding, most teachers must "double." For example, in addition to teaching his usual load of five classes in English, the teacher is also expected to perform his share of the responsibility of sponsoring a large number of worth-while student activities. It is in the relationship of sponsor, especially as a home-room sponsor, that he finds his greatest opportunity for expression and growth. In this relationship, he conceives his function as a teacher as something more than that of instructing. The teacher also gives of his ability, skill, and time to other matters pertaining to the work and welfare of the school.

Organization of the Home Room

The basis of organization. Since the home room is the center of the guidance program, it is essential that it be so organized as to lend itself easily to that activity. In most schools, only students of the same grade are placed in the same home room. In order to maintain a normal, wholesome balance in membership it is advisable to have in each home room both boys and girls and, so far as possible, a rather wide distribution of ability.

Since the success of a guidance program is grounded in mutual knowledge and understanding between sponsor and students, it is highly desirable that the sponsor be assigned

permanently to a home-room group when it first enters the school, remaining with the group throughout its life in the school. When he has guided a group through the institution he should be assigned once more to an incoming group at the lowest level of the secondary school, and repeat the process. This procedure will allow a sponsor gradually to gather all kinds of needed information regarding his home-room students through visits to their homes, conferences with their parents and friends, interviews with the individual students, conferences with other faculty members, etc. Thus the teacher will naturally accumulate the wide range of information necessary for an effective guidance program.

Size and arrangement of the home room. If the home room is to be the administrative unit of the school, where the guidance phase of the work centers, the number of students in the group cannot be large. The most practical number seems to be from 30 to 35. The necessity for keeping a home-room group small is clarified when it is realized that effectual guidance work involves visiting each home represented, having personal interviews with each member of the home room, conferring with each student's other teachers, etc. Size becomes a determining factor when human relationships must be maintained on an individual basis.

The arrangement and appearance of the home room can have a great deal of influence on satisfaction and morale. Nothing can be more bleak and unattractive than a large, traditional classroom, with its rows of patent desks screwed to the floor. Such uninviting surroundings are not very conducive to the growth and development of a homelike spirit and atmosphere for a group of adolescents. Rearranging the seats, hanging a few curtains, and providing a few flowers and pictures can transform such a room into a place of warmth and beauty, which students will welcome an opportunity to visit.

Home-room officers. In order that students may receive all the training possible from their home-room experiences, many of the routine procedures should be conducted in accordance with parliamentary procedure. This means that each home

room should have at least a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer. Such additional officers may be added as the good of the work advises. Each officer should perform those duties usually ascribed the office by some such standard authority as Robert's *Rules of Order*. Great care should be exercised by the teacher in preparing for the choice of these officers. Outstanding students with fine moral and educational records should be placed in these positions of leadership. So important is their selection that many authorities stress the advisability of having a preliminary discussion period covering one or two meetings, during which time the traits, training, responsibilities, and duties of each home-room officer are presented before the election takes place. The purpose of this preparatory work, of course, is to impress the members of the group with the importance of the election and of wise choice, thus ensuring an attitude of mind that will be incompatible with any frivolousness when the election takes place.

Home-room committees. A large part of the success of the home room depends on the selection and work of the committees. In some respects, the careful selection of committees is even more important than the selection of the officers, for much of the actual work of the home room is done by the committees.

A discussion period similar to that advocated before election of officers is advisable as a preliminary to the selection of the committees. Such a discussion not only sets out the work to be done by the members of the various committees, but adds a zest and a point of view that determine the effectiveness of the whole program.

Perhaps the most practical criterion for determining the number of committees needed in a home room is that as many functioning committees should be provided as the active work will justify. As activities increase, or take on peculiar or unique phases, special committees will be called into existence. Consequently, a live and vigorous home room, carrying on a variety of projects, may have a number of special

committees at work. The usual home-room committees are: (1) standing committees, which serve a semester or year, to be concerned with program, room beautification, welfare, scholarship, etc., and (2) temporary committees, which serve for a special occasion, often relating to a special intramural sports event, a cooperative literary tournament, a joint or all-school music program, or problems of control.

The chief objection to standing committees is that, often, they just stand. Action and activity are key words in a home-room program, and sponsors and principal must be alert to see that the committees function. Good practice is for the president, in conference with the other officers of the home room and the sponsor, carefully to name his committees with due regard for the fitness of each member.

Administration of the Home Room

Time of meeting. There is no one best time for the home-room group to meet. Practices over the country show that the meetings occur at almost every period in the day. In most schools, it is held somewhere near the middle of the morning. The home-room meeting is usually one or two of the five periods occupied each week by the activity schedule. The arguments for having the activity period each day, concentrated somewhere near the middle of the morning, are that after an hour or more of substantial classroom work the entire school breaks up for a 30- or 40-minute period which is fundamentally one of rest and recreation, after which the regular curricular work of the school is again resumed.

Frequency of meeting. The number of home-room meetings should be determined by the prominence of the home room in the general program of the school. If the principal makes the home room the functional unit in general administration, and through it carries on a well-organized guidance program, it will need to meet at least once, and possibly twice, a week. Perhaps the type and intensity of the guidance program carried on through the home room will be the determining factor.

Length of meeting. Consensus of opinion and practice seem to favor a period somewhere between 30 and 40 minutes in length. A good many principals follow the practice of convening the home-room groups for a short check-period of from 5 to 15 minutes at the opening of the school day, and calling it home room. This is a misnomer. This check-period can perhaps be justified, but it should not be confused with, nor substituted for, the regular home-room period. Where the check-period is used, there should be also a home-room period dedicated fundamentally to guidance.

Place of meeting. This chapter dealing with the home room is predicated on the assumption that there is a seat in a typical home room for every student in the school. Under crowded conditions, where it is necessary to seat large numbers of students in study halls or in assembly rooms for some of the purposes appropriate to home rooms, it is almost impossible to organize and administer such a program as this chapter proposes. The ideal situation which every principal should strive to approximate is one in which each staff member is assigned a room designated as "his home room," to which a normal-sized group of students are assigned to be under his general supervision. At least one period a week must be arranged so as to permit the sponsor the privilege of sitting down with all the members of the home-room group and talking over frankly and freely the problems common to all of them. To build such an atmosphere, it is imperative that each student be assigned to a definite home room, with a sympathetic sponsor, and that it become in a real sense a meeting place of congenial spirits.

Records needed by sponsor. If the home-room sponsor is to be the real friend and counselor of youth, he must have access to records and materials dealing with the educational, vocational, moral, social, and recreational life of his group. Not only must he know their scholastic records, but to know and understand them fully he must assemble data relating to such matters as those included in the home-room folder presented later in this chapter.

It is only when a sponsor carefully studies his group, and gathers and records for daily use many kinds of personal data pertaining to them, that he is in a position to be a home-room sponsor. To gather, classify, tabulate, and analyze the needed types of data necessitates a system of records and reports specifically prepared for the purpose.

The responsibilities and training of the sponsor. Much has been said or implied already in this chapter concerning the responsibilities of the home-room sponsor. In some schools, he is a minor administrative official who handles roll call, attendance slips, minor cases of discipline, reports to parents, and numerous other routine details. Such activities, however, may interfere with his effectiveness as a counselor and friend to those in his home room. The sponsor is also charged with the responsibility for the guidance program in his home room. A further important responsibility is that of the extracurricular activities program, including all the intramural sports, which revolves about the home room as a base of action. In fact, the home room is the functioning unit in the administration of both the curricular and the extracurricular programs of the modern high school. Upon the shoulders of the sponsors of these home rooms rests the primary responsibility of keeping the administrative machinery oiled and running smoothly.

The qualifications of such a person are numerous. In the first place, he should have specific training for the task. Not only should he be trained in the fundamentals of secondary school administration, but he should have a particularly good understanding of guidance. He should be trained in the organization and administration of the extracurricular program so as to carry forward this phase of the work in his capacity as sponsor. Also, he should be a wise, judicious, sympathetic, and dependable confidant. He should be approachable and sincere. He should have a fairly thorough knowledge of adolescents and should be a cheerful, optimistic, constructive guide who tries to understand the weaknesses and foibles of youth, but who has confidence in their fundamental goodness.

Program of work for the home room. The program of work pursued in each home room consists of two general types of activity. First are those activities which are performed as part of the larger administrative task of the school. A wise principal will have his school so organized as to bring each home-room group into a discussion of fundamental administrative problems that are vital to the success of the school. The second phase of the home-room program will consist of such activities and discussions as are needed in carrying forward a well-organized guidance program. The different units of these individual programs may be quite diverse and may vary from room to room in order to fit the needs of students at different age and grade levels. The principal, however, must be on the alert to see that over a span of years each sponsor brings into his home room the larger elements of guidance needed by each student in his group.[1]

Evaluating the home-room program. It is essential that the administration at intervals evaluate the effectiveness of the home-room sponsor. This evaluation is a service that the administration owes the sponsor and that must be performed in the interests of the growth and development of the program. It is manifestly unfair for a principal to say to a home-room sponsor "Your home room is poor; I wish you would improve it materially," on the basis of mere opinion. It is his duty to analyze the program as objectively as he can, and to point out its strengths and weaknesses.

Since the home room is primarily social in its aims, the evaluation of it should be based largely on group activities and achievements. Such activities as ticket sales, scholarship records, keeping a clean orderly home room, and assisting in maintaining beautiful school grounds encourage group efforts and social tendencies. It is possible to develop a home-room morale and, by a scheme of comparison with other rooms, create a wholesome and stimulating spirit of rivalry.

[1] For a graded series of lessons or activities, in a grade-placement arrangement, on guidance for use by a home-room sponsor, *see* Joseph Roemer, C. F. Allen, and Dorothy Yarnell, *Basic Student Activities*. New York, Silver Burdett Company, 1935.

A home-room folder as a guidance device. During the more recent period of development of guidance and character education in our secondary schools, there has developed an urgent need for an adequate record card for the use of the home-room teacher, who is relied upon to direct the major portion of this work. Prior to the inception of the student activities program in high schools, the principal had little occasion for filing elaborate material relative to a student's school career. His record contained only the pupil's academic credit and a few nonpersonal questions on which he depended for future reference. Now, with the advent of the new student adjustment program, this should be supplemented with informative and personality records. Therefore, a home-room folder is desirable.[1] By virtue of the close contact that the home-room teacher has with his pupils, each individual can be given a rating with respect to his attitudes, leadership qualities, and attitude toward the worthy activity movements of the school.

In order to understand and direct the complicated life of an adolescent youth, a teacher must be familiar with all the environmental factors affecting the student's life. A student may become so involved with such problems as health, employment, home duties, leisure-time activities, outside organization work, hobbies, and the like, that he will seriously hamper his school career. Records of classroom work and activity participation would, therefore, become a necessary part of any informative set of records kept by the home-room sponsor.

Likewise, any home-room sponsor must be prepared to understand the cause of failures in algebra, Latin, or science. Such a solution might be found in the home-room folder in the summary of test data or under the summary of traits and abilities. A student rated as slow, lazy, irregular, and with low intelligence would be thoroughly out of place in some

[1] The home-room guidance folder presented on adjoining pages was adapted from one devised by Principal W. T. Crawford and used in his junior high school at Moberly, Missouri.

classes, and it would be the home-room sponsor's duty to see that an adjustment was made. The reasons for a student's low rating in obedience, reliability, or sportsmanship may sometimes be quickly determined by consulting his home-room folder on personal and social qualities.

It is obvious that the home-room sponsor, with his close personal contact with the students, would be in the most strategic position to accumulate such knowledge as is needed in guidance. Furthermore, he is the most logical person to make any necessary adjustments in the student's program because he should know the situation better than anyone else. In his work, he needs to know much about the home and the environment it offers, affiliations each student has, how he spends his leisure time, etc. He will need to visit the home and talk to the parents, and in some way learn the economic status of the home.

The home-room folder can be made to serve a number of purposes in any school designed to make student adjustments. It should serve the teacher or principal in helping to understand shortcomings in the student. It should give the probable background for maladjustments discovered in the student.

Some of the more important advantages claimed for the folder illustrated are as follows:

1. It is simply constructed, very inexpensive, and most convenient to file and store.

2. Being a folder, it may be used as a convenient place to file all notes, excuses, tardy slips, and communications relative to a student. An accumulative record of this nature becomes valuable history in a school.

3. It combines the extracurricular activity, guidance, and academic records, thus relieving a sponsor of much added work.

4. It gives a survey of a student's whole life at school, at home, at work, and in society.

5. It contains space for recording results of tests and data which will help the sponsor to summarize a student's potential abilities.

6. It summarizes for the sponsor much material that is used as a basis for educational, moral, and social guidance.

7. It serves as a valuable supplement to the record card used by the principal.

8. The material can readily be made available to anyone who needs the information.

9. This collection of personal data relieves the school administrator of much trouble and annoyance when he is called upon to answer the questionnaires of colleges and universities.

10. It may be made adaptable to any secondary school, regardless of whether it has a two-, three-, or four-year plan.

11. It is designed to meet the needs and conveniences of the home-room sponsor.

Ideally, those promoted from the junior high school to the senior high school should have their folders transferred to the senior high school and placed in the hands of their new home-room sponsors for use throughout their senior high school careers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. In what respects is a 10-minute check-period at the beginning of the day not really a home-room period?

2. Give an illustration of how the home room may be the basis of all extracurricular activities.

3. Sketch briefly the home-room plan in your high school and evaluate it in terms of this chapter.

4. Show why the large high school needs the home room more than the small one.

5. List ten reasons why some home-room sponsors fail.

6. In a small high school, what is the best basis on which to set up the home room?

7. Can you think of any objections to having the sponsor of the home room follow the group through the entire high school career?

8. What should a home-room sponsor know about each student in his room?

9. State arguments against separating the boys from the girls in setting up a home-room program.

10. Present arguments for and against making up a home room with students from all the grades in the high school.

11. What is a good plan for an intramural program with the home room as the basis?

12. Show that the home room is the most logical unit for representation in the student council.

13. What are the values to be derived from having each home room develop a name, work out a ritual, and design an appropriate plaque?

14. Enumerate what you would consider a good, full list of committees for a home room.

15. What are the arguments in favor of having home-room meetings follow parliamentary procedure?

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Chapter XIII. THE PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM AND ITS ADMINISTRATION

Effect of World War II

Little or no change in the professional training of administrators occurred during World War II. The great emphasis put upon physical fitness by the armed services brought, however, a new appreciation of the need for provisions of physical education and health training in the schools. A large number of local and regional conferences, with new publications and statements from national professional organizations and the Office of Education, increased the knowledge and understanding of the content and method of health and physical education courses.

The result was increased emphasis on all activities in this area, more thoroughgoing methods, a reaction against loosely operated physical activities, a drive on body building programs, a wider recognition of physical examinations and the importance of their follow up, an increase in time allotment (a number of states passed new legislation), and a general acceptance by school administrators of a larger and a more active concern in the development of adequate programs. In the interest of national strength and security the responsibility to carry on in this important area of education seems exceptionally clear.

Even though the secondary school has a strong department of physical and health education, staffed by well-trained personnel, the principal should have a sound understanding of health needs and problems. This is true even in large and well-organized secondary schools where the principal has the help of a health council, nurses, deans, physical directors, heads of departments, and the like. The sooner the principal applies his best efforts to forward-looking administrative plans for

developing and controlling the physical and health education program, the fewer difficulties will be encountered. The purpose of this chapter is to give a brief introduction to some significant phases of the administration of the physical and health education program in the secondary school.

The Health Program

Physical and health education as expanding school services. The increasing tendency in recent years to extend the scope of public services is a development of major significance to all citizens. This tendency reflects a growing awareness of the many needs of our population that could be satisfied by the services of governmental or private agencies.

Our educational system, as one of the major public services, has expanded in response to the needs of an increasing school population and has augmented its traditional offerings with a variety of services that now extend beyond the boundaries of former definitions of the school's function. In this period of expansion of the schools, the problem of health education has received increased attention, largely because society has come to recognize the social necessity of ensuring the maintenance of the physical well-being of every child. The increasing recognition of equal opportunity as a democratic ideal has promoted cooperative action to safeguard the physical and emotional well-being of children.

The demand for health services has been further increased by changes affecting the home. Today, the home devotes considerably less emphasis to many functions that were well-established family obligations in former decades. The schools have begun to meet the resultant needs with nursery schools, with child guidance, dental, and medical clinics, and with programs of training in health habits. To an increasing extent, school nurses, school physicians, and school dentists have been employed, and programs of physical education have been modified so as to stress the health objective. Modern education now places real emphasis on the development of

sound mental and physical health, and the health objective is of much concern to administrators and teachers in all fields.

New emphasis on health education. It has long been established that the state's obligation to educate its citizens includes physical, as well as mental, welfare. Modern medicine, physiology, psychiatry, and hygiene have brought to light the profound interrelation of the mental and the physical, with corresponding implications and responsibilities for public school administration.

The following excerpt illustrates a condition just prior to World War II, but during the war this evidence was repeated again and again, thus dramatizing knowledge already known but not acted upon.

> At least 22 per cent of the pupils in high school suffer from malnutrition, tuberculosis, eye and teeth defects, or some other imperfection which could be remedied or actually corrected if care were available. Of the school children examined in six selected cities, 65 to 95 per cent had defects of some seriousness; 33 per cent had diseased tonsils; 34 per cent, defective vision; and 50 per cent, defective teeth. When the Life Extension Institute examined 100,000 young men, three out of four were found to be physically defective. Modern youth may have inherited health, but in many cases the estate has not been settled. Does pupil personnel work take sufficient account of physical conditions? Is there adequate and practical health education provided in the average curriculum? Can schools cooperate with other agencies in questions of child health? Should the school have any concern with the physically handicapped? [1]

A statement from a report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education shows the need for the public school to expand its functions to include broader health services:

> The good health of youth is fundamental to a successful people. Since, in our democracy, the school is the one institution which touches practically all of our youth, the educational system should include significant health procedures. Education must help youth attain an attitude toward their bodies that will make them wish to keep themselves at their peak, must urge proper habits of living in the present for present experiences, since youth are not exceedingly interested in

[1] American Association of School Administrators, Sixteenth Yearbook, *Youth Education Today*, pp. 37–38. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

the future. Furthermore, many services not now generally available, such as thorough examinations, follow-up treatments, bed care, and some operations, will have to be provided gratis, perhaps in the school if not elsewhere.[1]

In many schools the concept of health education is being extended to include mental as well as physical health, as it is now more generally recognized than formerly that problems involving the emotional stability and proper adjustment of pupils are of basic importance. Many school systems are now employing school psychologists and are making use of the services of psychiatrists. Other schools have working arrangements with neighboring higher institutions or public clinics for special services in the field of mental health. The classroom teacher has a large responsibility for identifying those pupils who need special attention, and to an increasing extent higher institutions are stressing courses in mental hygiene as a part of the preparation of prospective teachers.

Organization of the program. In order that administrative treatment of the physical and health education program may become definite and adequate, the different phases of the program must be evaluated. As a general title to cover this field of work, it is increasingly common to find the phrase, "Department of Physical and Health Education." Occasionally, the word "athletics" is included; more often athletics is assumed to be included under physical education.

In practice, athletics are too often almost completely separated from the physical education program, and only in the more forward-looking schools is health work truly incorporated with the other material of physical education. However desirable it may be to interrelate and correlate all of the work in health, physical education, and athletics, it becomes advisable to recognize three general divisions for purposes of developing an administrative plan.

In the small school, there is necessarily less distinction between these units. The principal, a teacher appointed by

[1] Homer P. Rainey, *et al.*, *How Fare American Youth?* p. 74. New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937.

him, or the superintendent usually coordinates and supervises the work, assuming the combined duties of health counselor, leader of the physical activities, and coach of the athletic teams. The individual in general charge of the program must recognize all of the phases of his responsibility for the physical welfare of the pupils.

In large schools, specialists in the various phases of the work are usually employed. In the latter instance, the presence of a highly trained and able executive to coordinate and direct the work of the specialists is desirable. In any case, the principal must himself supply whatever supervision may be needed.

Until a few years ago the programs of the schools were developed with the idea that their health work should be primarily educational and preventive, rather than curative. Essentially, this point of view remains unchanged, but during the past few years, principals have been putting more effort into providing a health program somewhat broader and better adapted to the needs of young people. Such a program requires both diagnostic methods and remedial measures. Persons trained to make initial diagnostic tests of pupils must help with the first part of the program, being especially concerned in having individual cases taken to private physicians for treatment. The school can carry out some of the remedial measures; others must be carried out through the cooperative efforts of the health services of the school, home, and community.

Relationship to the community. The first item in the health program will usually be the establishment or recognition of the relationship between the school and the village or city health authorities. Understanding and cooperative efforts are highly important. Indeed, the development of a health program is often limited by the degree of cooperation obtainable from the local health authorities.

The wise principal will make the most of whatever contacts are possible. It is understood that the program should be supported by the board of education and the superintendent of schools, and approved by a sufficient number of the civic

and educational organizations of the community. Otherwise, the procedure will be difficult.

To an increasing extent, the health work in the public schools is being developed under the complete control of the school authorities. The development of health education is a logical function of the public school. City departments of health are concerned chiefly with protection of the food and water supply, with the control of sanitation, and with the safety of the community from communicable and contagious diseases.

In all phases of school health work, it is advisable for the policies and plans of the school to be well understood by the community, particularly by the private physicians. Their interest should be enlisted and their support encouraged. The salient fact that all of the school health program is designed to see that the treatment of illness and disease is referred to private physicians should be made sufficiently clear.

School and community cooperation. As the school cannot solve all the problems in the field of physical and health education, cooperation between the school and selected community agencies is imperative. Cooperation among community agencies concerned with the health of school children is an inherent obligation of all authorities charged with public administration. Officials are sometimes content to vote support of policies which ensure nominal cooperation, but more than such votes is needed. As one of the major social institutions of the community, the school should endeavor to cooperate with community health agencies. This cooperation should include: (1) matters of quarantine, (2) health education of the adult public, (3) supplying school records and facilities to responsible medical authorities for research and analysis, and (4) reporting the existence of conditions that violate public health regulations or otherwise threaten the public welfare.

Cooperation is also essential in planning the community-wide health program, for the school is obligated to educate

children and adults in terms of the best health practices. The increased tendency to provide for the establishment of community councils or community planning boards is an encouraging development. The best type of program is certain to be the product of the cooperative efforts of those who are concerned with the promotion of a high level of individual and community health. Such cooperation is likely to follow in a community where frequent conferences are held and where emphasis is consistently placed on developing a program that will yield the best results in terms of the needs of children.

Physical examinations. It is now well established that every student should be examined at least once in two years or oftener. This means, ideally, a thorough examination. Many school examinations are altogether too hurried and casual.

It is important that examinations be finished as soon after the opening of the school year as possible. Inadequate time for the school physician sometimes carries the examinations far into the year, making it difficult to follow up the findings. Several physicians working together according to a definite scheme can speed up examinations in a large school. Some schools have found it possible to employ internes, or senior medical students, for this work with resulting economy of expenditure.

Some provision should be made for clerical help so that adequate card records of examinations may be kept. These are practically indispensable for follow-up and remedial work. The importance of a definite scheme of follow-up can scarcely be overemphasized, yet this part of the work is often neglected. Parents should be informed; interviews should be arranged when necessary; appointments should be made with family physicians or with cooperating hospital clinics; aid should be solicited from charitable sources in certain cases; pupils with certain defects or weaknesses should be assigned to corrective classes or special classes for segregated differences; and nutritional cases should be scheduled for rest and other special treatment.

The examining physician, whether he is a regularly employed

part-time school physician or someone brought in for the examinations, will not be able to do the detailed follow-up work. A member of the physical education department, a suitably trained teacher acting as the school's health counselor, or a well-trained and capable school nurse may be most profitably employed in this type of work. In any case, the individual charged with this responsibility should be in close relation to the school physician and should be as much under his supervision as time and the situation will permit.

New students entering the school, and all students returning from absence caused by illness, should be required to report to the school physician or nurse before entering regular work. If possible, the school physician should be at the school early each morning to take care of such cases. If the physician is not available, a school nurse can do this important work, or a member of the faculty, preferably a member of the physical education department who has had some training in this field, may act in such capacity.

All students participating in interscholastic or intramural games should, without exception, receive thorough physical examinations. In such cases, nothing less than the authority of a reputable physician should be acceptable. Coaches should be familiar with the physical examination cards of their team candidates.

The health counselor. Whatever the size of the school, there should be a school official to whom the students and teachers look for counsel on health matters and for leadership in health activities. The principal, or a teacher appointed by him, may serve in this capacity in small schools. If a local physician is able to give sufficient time to such work, there are obvious advantages in securing his services.

In the larger schools, a science or physical education teacher with suitable training and interest may well be given adequate time to develop a plan of health counseling. If it is possible to offer courses in health or hygiene, the health counselor is the logical teacher. If it is feasible, the position of school nurse may be combined with that of health counselor. The latter

seems to be a better name, especially if the nurse is working on a full-time basis and is rated as a regular member of the staff. In this case, the nurse should be preferably a college graduate with hospital training as further preparation. Some experience as an academic teacher is desirable.

In large schools, there may be several health counselors assigned to different grades, rooms, or divisions. If the health work is separate from the physical education in its organization, it may be necessary to have a leader or supervisor of the group who, quite properly, may be called the director of health. The work of the health counselor leads directly into this larger field and can easily be developed into the larger aspects in accordance with the size of the school and the opportunity afforded.

In most schools, classroom contacts are made through the health counselor or school nurse, who should be able to give assistance to both teachers and students and should secure the cooperation of parents and make certain that they are kept informed of the health needs of their children. The counselor should refer all cases of actual illness to the school physician or to the family physician. Ordinarily, the school nurse or the school physician should confine all treatments to necessary first aid, sending the student to a physician actually named by him or his parents for such treatment as may follow. The schedule of the counselor should be kept flexible so that he can have an opportunity to meet students who are returning to school after a period of illness, interview students who reveal symptoms of illness, and the like. Questions of heating, lighting, and ventilation should also receive his attention.

Characteristics of the school physician and the health counselor. The school physician must be a person who is in sympathy with the health program of the school and who thoroughly endorses the school point of view that all school health activities are either supplementary or promotional in relation to private medical practice. He should have broad training in the field of public health work, should know how to cooperate with administrators and teachers, and should

have the kind of personality that will make it easy for him to work with boys and girls of high school age. If the school system is not large enough or cannot afford a full-time physician, his part-time salary should be large enough to warrant the necessary sacrifice in his private practice. With the help of health counselors or nurses in the different buildings or units in the school system, one capable physician can look after the needs of a large group of students.

Counselors or school nurses should also have particular qualifications for their positions. First, they should have professional qualifications on an equality with those required for other positions in the school. Second, they should have experience in schoolwork which will enable them to fit into the various organization emergencies. Third, they should have good health and a sympathetic understanding of adolescents, as well as the kind of personality that will inspire the confidence of boys and girls.

Status of health instruction in secondary schools. More progress has been made in health instruction on the elementary than on the secondary school level, although the program of instruction in health is still inadequate, even in elementary schools. In secondary schools, many of the courses relating to health are elective, and they are often conducted under handicaps.

High school principals now recognize that the high school must follow through on the health work started in the elementary school. It is argued that good health habits are as much a part of the equipment for life that the secondary school should provide as are good habits and attitudes in English or social studies. Then, too, there is relatively advanced health information that should form the basis of a part of the secondary school student's training. Much maladjustment among youth could be eliminated by means of a more vital program of health instruction in secondary schools.

Characteristics of the health education program needed in secondary schools. A committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has recom-

mended that the approach in health education be shifted away from the specialist's point of view to the consumer's point of view. In other words, the instruction should be designed to meet specific life situations. Emphasis should be placed on those health problems and situations that the present generation is finding most prevalent. The chief causes of death today are organic diseases that result from wrong habits of living and the strain of modern life. They are heart disease, cancer, cerebral hemorrhages, accidents, nephritis, and pneumonia. Diabetes, cancer, and heart diseases are on the increase. Other diseases which are somewhat prevalent among youth and with which the secondary school should be particularly concerned are mental diseases, venereal diseases, and tuberculosis.

The health education program of the secondary school should give students an opportunity to understand their own health status. In acquiring a knowledge of his own health status, the student should be taught the facts about anatomy that are important in giving proper care to his health. He should also be taught to seek regularly the advice of a competent physician. Problems of community health and sanitation should be given a more significant place. Health instruction also should train the student to protect himself against quacks, high-pressure salesmanship, and the unethical advertising of patent medicines and remedies. This demands that the student acquire knowledge and ways of thinking that will equip him to evaluate the information and the pressures to which he is subjected in health matters.

Administrative problems of health instruction. The chief administrative problem is to decide how and where health instruction should be included in the school curriculum. It is comparatively easy to add another elective course to the schedule, but it can be reasonably certain that this will not solve the problem. If the full implication of the importance of health instruction is accepted, the course must be required, or suitable provisions must be made for correlation with other courses such as general science, community civics,

biology, or physical activities. In all these courses, however, the textual health material is slight, and appropriate treatment generally necessitates curtailment of the accepted material of the main course. Obviously the teacher, interested chiefly in the main course, does not easily reduce the established material in favor of the effective treatment of health. Then, too, the teachers in charge of such courses may not be qualified to give health problems the attention that would seem to be desirable.

The second important administrative difficulty in planning health instruction is to find teachers who have the necessary skills and understanding for giving the instruction. Teacher training institutions have not given sufficient attention to the problem of training personnel for health instruction. In the past, practically no one was prepared to teach health. In recent years, many physical education teachers have accepted the long-standing implication that they should assume responsibility for the physical welfare of students. No longer do the best teachers in this work consider themselves merely to be coaches, gymnasts, or play directors. They are alert to the relation of all physical education to health. Increasingly, teachers in this field are preparing themselves to teach health.

Until teacher training institutions respond by producing graduates better qualified to teach courses in health, the administrator will have a serious problem in making the program of the school meet the present and probable future needs of students. Under the conditions prevalent in most schools, it is probably better to have specific course requirements in health education than to attempt extensive fusion or correlation with other courses. Certain phases of health instruction, however, should certainly be included in science, in social studies, and in physical education. The school physician and the health counselor can also be responsible for certain of the problems pertaining to health instruction through their personal contacts with students.

Immunization program. An immunization program

should be part of the activity of every secondary school. This program should be carried out with the cooperation of local authorities and health agencies. Many students will already have developed an immunity to certain contagious diseases, but a careful check-up is necessary in order to protect all students. In certain communities, immunization to typhoid fever and vaccination for smallpox should be given. All teachers and health counselors as well as the school physician should be constantly on the lookout for symptoms of venereal diseases among students. One of the diseases to which secondary schools should give particular attention is tuberculosis. It outranks all other diseases as a cause of death in the age group of 15 to 25 years. If there is a local medical society, or several interested physicians, a skin testing and X-ray program can be worked out at small expense. One large high school, for example, has a cooperative plan whereby a group of local physicians, the school physician, and the school health and physical education department operate a tuberculosis-finding program each year. Positive cases are followed up through private physicians named by the parents.

Other health problems. As a part of the health program, attention should be given to the general sanitation and cleanliness of the building and grounds. Especial care is necessary with respect to toilets, shower and locker rooms, lunchrooms, and shops. The kind, quantity, and quality of foods in the school cafeteria, the length of lunch periods, and the time of day used for them are all problems related to health. The ventilation and heating of the building need special attention, with suitable instruction to both pupils and teachers. Such instruction, to be effective, should be followed by supervision. The recreation of teachers and students, and student and teacher loads are direct matters of health, and warrant recognition as such.

Some schools have found it advisable to have a faculty committee on the general problem of health, with the chairman and members acting as constructive agents with respect to

the various problems mentioned. In other schools, a director of health assumes responsibility for all of the phases suggested above.

The necessity of a critical attitude toward health teachings. In few other fields of instruction is there greater necessity for a critical attitude toward what is taught. So far as possible, the habits, skills, and attitudes stressed should rest on a basis of factual knowledge rather than on the propaganda of special-interest groups, including that of manufacturers of foods and drugs. Scientific standards should be defined for the selection of instructional materials in this field.

The Physical Education Program

Importance of physical education. The arguments most often advanced to justify the program of physical education or physical activities are:

1. Such activities give an opportunity for bodily activity essential to the high school youth who are passing through a period of physical maturation.
2. They result in the development of attitudes, habits, and interests which are of value from the standpoint of wise use of leisure time.
3. They result in better social adjustment of young people and afford opportunities for the group activity and cooperation necessary in our society.

In many schools, the program of physical activities is completely overshadowed and dominated by competitive sports. Physical activities for all have had a hard struggle for recognition as an essential phase of the curriculum. The present trend is to give physical activities more emphasis in the curriculum, to adapt them better to the needs of boys and girls, and to keep them from being submerged in competitive sports.

Ideally, the physical education work is supplementary to health, or thoroughly correlated with it. In this presentation, we are primarily concerned with the administrative organization of the physical education program.

Its place in the daily schedule. In small schools, it is often wise to organize all physical education activity at the close of the academic day. The advantage possible in an alternating morning and afternoon arrangement has not been generally recognized. Too often, organized physical activity is ignored or is casually done merely to fulfill part of the state requirements. This latter condition exists in many of the large schools as well. When the school enrollment exceeds 100, more nearly adequate organization is possible. The time allotment varies from one to five periods a week, with a growing tendency toward the daily period.

Showers and special clothing are most desirable. Since use of these requires about 20 minutes' time, the period length is important. Less than 50 minutes is generally considered unsatisfactory. Obviously, a period of less than 1 hour gives slight opportunity for constructive effort.

Tests and measurements. The application of tests and measurements, with attendant individual rating, is no longer unusual or unnecessary in the work of physical education. Segregation of physical education classes according to ability and needs is as important as in academic subjects, if not more so. Individual physical differences are often more obvious than mental differences. The need for graded courses and for assignment to classes on the basis of accomplishment has been too generally overlooked.

Meeting individual needs. There is large opportunity for meeting the individual needs of students who are low in vitality, who are underweight or overweight, who offer nutritional problems, who need combinations of certain exercises and rest periods, who need recreational spirit, or who have postural defects. Because the successful physical education program brings such significant results, its establishment and prosecution present a real challenge to the educator.

Athletics

Types of organization of athletics. Ideal organization of athletics includes the athletic activities as a definite part

of the physical education program and as a direct outgrowth of the physical education plan. Under this policy, athletics is supplementary to the regular work, or, better still, definitely correlated as an integral part of the whole design for the physical welfare of the students.

Probably the regular physical education classes form the base upon which the most effective scheme of intramural athletics can be developed. This is especially true if the school is large enough to have a number of classes in each grade and if the work is required. The values of team competition can be obtained within the regular class periods if the periods are approximately 60 minutes in length.

It will be necessary to use an after-school arrangement for the intramural program if the school is small and the period length, the gymnasium, or other physical facilities are inadequate, if the work is not generally required, or if the teaching staff is insufficient. Much of the energy of the physical education staff should be expended upon intramural development. From the standpoint of true physical welfare, the play and recreational phases are probably the most valuable, and the intramural organization can easily stress these objectives. There is a danger in the overstrenuous competitive side of intramural athletics. Too often there is insufficient equipment, little if any training or supervision, and poor grading of teams such as would be exhibited by ninth-grade and twelfth-grade students in direct competition. Intramural athletics well organized and wisely supervised offers great possibilities for wide participation and for the teaching of desirable traits with respect to civic, mental, and emotional action.

Interscholastic athletics. If interscholastic athletics had not been traditionally developed apart from a physical education program, it could well be urged that the school offering of interscholastic competition should be a direct outgrowth of the intramural program and of basic physical education classes. The fundamental athletic skills, as applied to any of the recognized sports, would be taught as regular content in the

material of physical education, demonstrated and improved through use in the intramural program, and brought to public display through interscholastic contests. The public display would act largely as an incentive, as a motivating force, as a final demonstration of athletic skill.

If the idea presented above is educationally sound, it follows that there need be no very considerable amount of interscholastic competition. A few contests in each sport would offer as much motivating influence as would be necessary to enliven the program with a major objective. Student and school spirit, in the best sense, might respond more eagerly to a few contests than to the large number now prevalent.

This conception of interscholastic athletics would allow little, if any, opportunity for district, state, and national tournaments. Much of the overemphasis on school athletics may be said to have developed out of the tremendous zest of college and university athletics departments in their much-advertised and highly emphasized athletic meets. These affairs seem to have offered capital fillers for the columns of eager professional sports writers, with the resultant creation of a considerable fandom, ready to exploit the local high school teams under the banners of civic loyalty, town pride, and the much-emphasized educational benefit to the students most concerned.

The growth of the league or association as a means of control and management of interscholastic athletics has been especially notable within recent years. The National Survey of Secondary Education [1] reported the percentages of membership in associations as follows: national, 5; state, 79; district, 40; county, 28; city, 17; and local conferences, 10. Associations have been especially helpful in the preparation of schedules and in obtaining recognition and solution of common problems.

According to the National Survey, previously referred to, administrative practice tends to support a limitation of partici-

[1] P. Roy Brammell, *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*, p. 66. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 27.

GOOD SPORTSMANSHIP

for

STUDENTS and OTHERS

"Sportsmanship is that quality of honor that desires always to be courteous, fair, and respectful, and it is interpreted in the conduct of players, spectators, coaches, and school authorities."

— Fielding H. Yost

High School Students

Should set a good example in the matter of sportsmanship and should quickly condemn unsportsmanlike conduct on the part of other students or adults. To this end they should —

(1) Remember that a student spectator represents his school the same as does the athlete.

(2) Recognize that the good name of the school is more valuable than any game won by unfair play.

(3) Respond with enthusiasm to the calls of the cheer leader for yells in support of the team, especially when it is losing.

(4) Learn the rules of the various athletic games so that either as spectators or critics they will be intelligent.

(5) Accept decisions of officials without question.

(6) Express disapproval of rough play or poor sportsmanship on the part of players representing the school.

(7) Express disapproval of any abusive remarks from the side-lines.

(8) Recognize and applaud an exhibition of fine play or good sportsmanship on the part of the visiting team.

(9) Be considerate of the injured on the visiting team.

(10) Insist on the courteous treatment of the visiting team as it passes through the streets or visits the local school building, and extend the members every possible courtesy.

(11) Acquaint the adults of the community and the grade pupils with the ideals of sportsmanship that are acceptable to the high school.

(12) Impress upon the community its responsibility for the exercise of self-control and fair play at all athletic contests.

(13) Advocate that any spectator who continually evidences poor sportsmanship be requested not to attend future contests.

(14) Insist on fair, courteous, and truthful accounts of athletic contests in local and school papers.

(15) Be familiar with the state rules of eligibility and support their strict enforcement.

(16) Encourage the full discussion of fair play, sportsmanship, and school spirit through class work and auditorium programs in order to discover ways by whch students and schools can develop and demonstrate good sportsmanship.

Distributed by the Michigan High School Athletic Association.

pation in sports. However, 59 per cent of the schools had no limitation, a fact which indicates clearly enough the seriousness of the problem; 15 per cent limited participation to three sports per year; and 8 per cent had a limitation to two sports per year.

Special problems. Other important problems in the administration of athletics are transportation of teams and cheering squads, community interference, interferences with schoolwork and school time, crowd behavior, publicity distortion, finance, and eligibility. This last problem is especially interesting in relation to the currently developing philosophy that emphasizes recognition of the individual, whatever his plane of ability or his degree of interest. In such light, there can be no sound support of imposing scholastic ability as a limitation upon participation in any student activity fostered by the school. The fact that many schools now feel particularly hindered in realizing objectives for individual development, because of the inflexibility of state association eligibility regulations, has raised a most significant problem for the administrator.

Interscholastic sports for girls represent a serious health hazard, and there is strong argument that they should be abolished. Much progress has been made in this direction. With the emphasis on winning which is almost always present in interscholastic competition, both coach and players often forget that playing severe games may be a serious menace to the health of a student who is not in proper physical condition. It is definitely recognized that competitive athletics are much more hazardous for girls than for boys. Another objection to the strenuous competitive athletic contests for girls is that their emotional nature makes them less easily adaptable to competitive contests. The play days sponsored by a number of secondary schools are better adapted to girls and are of more value from the point of view of preparation as well as desirable recreation. These games place the emphasis on skill rather than on winning, and have most of the advantages of competitive sports with none or few of the hazards.

The state athletic associations have played an increasingly constructive part in the better control of girls' as well as boys' athletics. A study of these organizations will reveal steady progress toward better management and a saner outlook on the whole problem of competitive athletics. The National Federation of State Athletic Associations is also active in the coordination of desirable policies and practices.

Intramural athletics. The accomplishment in organization and control of intramural athletics for girls is somewhat remarkable in the face of the practice in boys' athletics. Interscholastic competition for girls is entirely absent in the large majority of schools, and where it is found it seems to be in schools of doubtful standards. Investigation proves, too, that a very much larger number of girls participate in athletics through intramural organization. This is increasingly true.

In the large school, there should be ample opportunity for the successful development of intramural athletics through groups determined by gymnasium classes, home rooms, grades, weight, age, ability, or by means of specially organized groups. In order that leadership and control may be adequate, the use of senior leaders, especially trained for the purpose, has been found particularly helpful. Intramural leagues often add the incentive to success. Adequate health and physical education supervision should be required.

In a study of 35 representative high schools, 31 different intramural sports were listed.[1] The most unusual ones follow: soccer, speed ball, kitten ball, archery, fencing, horseshoes, golf, riding, ping pong, and badminton. The most time given per day to intramural athletics was 120 minutes and the least 30 minutes. Eleven of the schools used eligibility rules and six schools allowed credit. The Board of Education met the intramural expense in 22 of the schools. Six of the schools made no attempt to correlate the intramural program with health. All but five of the schools believed their programs to be successful.

In the very small high school, the problem of insufficient

[1] Judd Club Study for October, 1933. University of Chicago.

numbers for competition intramurally is present, and possibly the extension of interscholastic competition should be more favorably regarded in such schools. It is not unusual for a school to have barely enough students to organize one team. Isolation of the school from other centers of population may necessitate considerable traveling if there is to be any kind of athletic competition. Whatever the situation, wide student participation is important to the wise administration of the physical education program.

The staff. The well-organized physical education staff, in schools large enough to support the most nearly ideal arrangement, may consist of the Director of Health, Physical Education, and Athletics as the head; the school physician; the school nurse; the health supervisor or counselor in charge of the health division; the chairman or head of the girls' division of physical education, and the corresponding officer for the boys' division; the director of intramural activities; the supervisor and the business manager of interscholastic athletics; the head coaches of the various sports; and the regular and special teachers. In large schools, there will be clerical assistants, matrons, and attendants for stock, supplies, towels, repairs, and swimming tank. Various adjustments, combinations, and developments of this staff outline will necessarily be made in accordance with the local situation.

Equipment. Sufficient equipment is necessary to the proper administration of the physical education program. It is more important to have two gymnasiums than to consider size alone. Flexibility in the use of gymnasiums is most desirable. From the standpoint of health, the ventilation and lighting of locker rooms is especially important. Basement rooms are not suitable. Drying facilities, central control of showers, and flexibility in locker use are important points in the best administrative plan.

Swimming pools, although highly desirable, are particularly costly to build and maintain and are doubtful parts of the physical equipment unless the best equipment is used and the most careful and expert supervision can be maintained.

Outdoor facilities are more important than has been generally recognized. Adequate play fields are most essential to the proper development of a complete program. Roof and open-air spaces are valuable for regular physical education classes and are being used to an increasing extent.

Handicapped students. In almost every school, there are students who are unable to participate in the regular courses of physical education because of some physical defect. An attempt should be made to meet the needs of this group of students. In many instances, an examination is necessary to detect the physical defect. The instructor should secure the recommendations of the school physician and nurse in dealing with these students. The student who cannot participate in some physical activity should be provided an opportunity to engage in some recreational activity which will not endanger his health or make him feel that he is completely set apart from his fellow students. A feeling of inferiority and maladjustment may result if he has no part in physical activities.

The Extension of Physical Education and Athletics

Physical activity, in the form of sports, interests and occupies the American people to an increasing extent. The relation of the school program to community sports as involving the out-of-school time of students and the leisure of unemployed older youth and adults generally is fast becoming a larger and more complicated question.

School and municipal recreation. Already, in many instances, city bureaus or departments of recreation are much concerned with the administration of variously developed programs. Should the school and municipal departments act jointly, independently, or merely cooperatively in the use of playgrounds and equipment? Examples of each of these methods may be found. The municipal plan is almost certain to be more largely political in respect to control and personnel, while the school, when it is in complete control of all of the community recreation, tends to be too conservative and rarely has enough funds to do what needs to be done.

The school facilities plus municipal parks and budgets may offer the most fruitful results in most situations. This solution presupposes that there will be a satisfactory working arrangement for control and management. Probably, the best plan to ensure adequate supervision provides for a single director of recreation for the municipality. If this is not practicable, a joint committee of representatives from the schools and the city may work out policies and operations.

School sports and adult extensions. Much emphasis has been placed in recent years on the carry-over values of school sports and physical activities. Team games have been criticized because students do not usually continue to play them after graduation from school. Certainly, it is commonly the professionals alone who continue active participation in such rigorous and highly skilled games as football, basketball, and hard baseball.

Some values of team play, it seems, have been forgotten in the sports carry-over argument. Adolescents may profit from the socially democratic and the emotionally stabilizing values inherent in team sports. The spirit of American democracy seems a part of the group loyalties and the cooperative efforts necessary to the successful and joyous participation in team games. School administrators will do well not to lose sight of these values.

Tennis, golf, riding, handball, and other sports, essentially individualistic, offer larger opportunities for follow-through in adult life, but they possess narrowing tendencies in human behavior in contrast to team games. Also, they quickly tend to become much too strenuous for the sedentary occupations that many sport enthusiasts follow. It is increasingly apparent from the pronouncements of the medical profession that adults play not only too seldom, but too rigorously.

In summary, the school should provide team games for high school youth on a reasonable basis of healthful participation. A program of individual sports should also be provided so youth may acquire the best values within both team and individual sports. Increasingly, the school should seek to

provide programs for older youth and for adults which will be chiefly of a recreational nature.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What are the needs of high school boys and girls in health education?
2. What are the requirements in health and physical education of high schools in your state? Are these requirements fixed by law? by act of the state board of education? by college entrance requirements?
3. What are the criticisms of interscholastic athletics as carried on in many high schools? Do you agree with the opinion on interscholastic athletics for girls expressed in this chapter?
4. How far do you think the secondary schools should go in providing health services gratis for students who cannot secure them elsewhere?
5. Make a list of the objectives of physical education on the secondary level. How are these different from the health objectives of the elementary school?
6. Is the intramural program an adequate substitute for interschool sports activities? Can an interesting intramural program be developed in the small high school?
7. In what subjects in the curriculum should health instruction be given?
8. List the different aspects of a secondary school program of health education that is adapted to the needs of all boys and girls.
9. If you were given a free hand in organizing a high school, would you require physical education of all boys? of all girls? Would you permit interscholastic athletics for boys? for girls?
10. Do you anticipate that communities are likely to provide summer camps for students as a part of the school's program of health and physical education? Justify your opinion.

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Chapter XIV. THE SCHOOL ASSEMBLY

Development of the Assembly

The modern high school assembly has evolved from the earlier devotional exercises of secondary schools. The puritan practice of beginning with prayer a meal, the day, and all other important undertakings was responsible for the practice of holding religious exercises at the opening of the school day. This accounts for the origin of the name "opening exercises." These opening exercises involved scripture reading, prayer, and a few songs. No effort was made to develop student initiative, nor was the feasibility of such a procedure even considered. Today, as a result of the changes in secondary education, our views have been broadened, and the possibilities of the assembly as an educational force have been more fully realized.

From the earliest stage of the assembly, when the programs were of a sermonic and moralizing type, the programs have passed into a more advanced stage where the keynote is student participation in their organization and production. A third stage is dawning in the more advanced schools, where audience participation is occurring. In this newer type of assembly programs, an effort is being made to have the entire audience participate actively in the program rather than as listeners only. In discussing this newer phase of assembly development, McKown says:

> The audience is asked to indicate by its applause which of two costumes or examples of interior decoration it likes the better, or which one of two procedures in courtesy is proper; to identify the various characters, settings, or scenes portrayed in an historical or literary review; to make use of a self-analysis blank in a program on guidance; to climax a number of "suspended action" scenes in courtesy. In

short, the watchwords of this new period are "Do," "Judge," "React," "Choose," and "Apply." [1]

Functions of the Assembly

The specific functions of assemblies may be summarized as follows: (1) to develop school unity, (2) to encourage school spirit, (3) to motivate curricular functions, (4) to stimulate extracurricular activities, (5) to motivate expression and overcome self-consciousness, (6) to develop proper habits and attitudes in audiences, (7) to share information, (8) to influence public opinion, and (9) to develop aesthetic senses.

To develop school unity. The assembly is an excellent place for building up school morale and developing a sense of unity among the many interests of the school. Students sometimes fail to recognize the common purpose of all the organizations of the school. In the assembly, however, members of these various organizations are brought together and, through expression of opinions and occasional participation in the program, learn the value of cooperative effort and action. A sense of unity is thus developed throughout the whole student body.

To encourage school spirit. If there is a strong sense of unity within the school, there will usually be, also, a certain enthusiasm for the school's welfare and a joy in its service. A spiritual atmosphere develops which pervades the whole student body.

To motivate curricular functions. Many times students fail to appreciate the real value of knowledge; but in assemblies there is an opportunity for schoolwork to be presented by students themselves. Assembly programs should, to a large extent, grow out of regular classwork. This sharing of knowledge gives to information a social value which cannot be derived from classwork alone.

To stimulate extracurricular activities. The appearance of students before assemblies is a strong incentive for those

[1] Harry C. McKown, *Assembly and Auditorium Activities*, pp. 4–5. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1930.

engaged in extracurricular activities. Their contribution must interest as well as instruct, so that the audience may profit as well as those actually taking part. Such participation on the part of organizations of few members motivates them by giving them a definite part in the school life.

To motivate expression and overcome self-consciousness. In an assembly that is well conducted, from the standpoint of its educational aims, the students take an important part both in planning and in executing programs. High school students are going through the critical adolescent period of their lives, which in many cases produces extreme self-consciousness and timidity. The assembly offers assistance in the guidance of these students toward overcoming such handicaps.

To develop proper habits and attitudes in audiences. Not all high school students are so fortunate as to have the proper training at home to fit them for society. The assembly has wonderful opportunities to develop this sort of training. It is a good measure of the quality of the school life. It furnishes excellent opportunities for setting up standards of group conduct. Attitudes during speaking, applause, personal conduct, sitting posture, and the like may be wisely guided in a well-supervised assembly.

To share information. The opportunity to relate their experiences may well be afforded students who have taken part in football games, gone on excursions or field trips, or participated in some other unique or unusual event. Needless to say, these students are willing to use a great deal of time in organizing their talks.

To influence public opinion in the school. The assembly is one of the best places to develop public opinion. On many occasions, the opinion of the group should be considered and dealt with. The assembly may be used in developing proper attitudes toward such aspects of school life as scholarship, punctuality and attendance, conduct, treatment of personal and community property, and hospitality to visitors.

To develop aesthetic senses. Through the promotion of art assemblies, plays, and dramatizations, various cultural

interests are appropriately encouraged and there is developed a certain appreciation which leads to preference for the more desirable forms of entertainment. It is possible that special talent can be discovered and encouraged in emphasizing this aspect of the assembly.

Administration and Supervision of the School Assembly

Assembly periods. Studies of the number of assemblies indicate that about 40 per cent of high schools have one assembly a week, 30 per cent have two, and 10 per cent have five. Large schools tend to have fewer assemblies.

The length of the assembly period in the larger schools is frequently an hour; in the smaller schools, it averages about half an hour. If assemblies are held daily, 15 minutes is usually the limit. In such assemblies, very little can be accomplished beyond making routine announcements and singing a few songs — a program far short of the ideal assembly.

Many principals find that either the first or the second period is an excellent time for the assembly. Students will have no good reason for not being there, and, if the exercises are made interesting enough, assemblies will help to solve the problem of tardiness. Some schools have assemblies in the middle of the forenoon, so that adequate preparations can be made. This practice affords occasional relaxation and recreation in the regular morning schedule.

There are a few precautions which, in order to make the assembly interesting and instructive, the principal must keep in mind. The assembly is not the place to say unpleasant things. One of the worst things a principal can do in assembly is to find fault openly or to criticize the student body. The time should not be taken up in acquainting pupils with school affairs which do not pertain directly to the students or in the making of unnecessary announcements. A bulletin board should be used for such information and announcements. Finally, it is not the best place for the devotional period. Progressive principals have transferred this activity to the home room where it rightfully belongs.

Supervision of the assembly. Under the present organization of our secondary schools, the principal has the entire responsibility for administration and supervision of the assemblies, although he may delegate a part or all of it to the director of activities or to some other individual or group. It is a common practice for the principal to organize an assembly committee, composed of four or five of the student representatives and one or two members of the faculty. This committee has the responsibility of outlining and submitting plans for the programs to the principal for approval.

In schools where student participation is encouraged, student officers should preside. The principal, however, should take charge from time to time in order to maintain the dignity and prominence of the assembly in the school program. It is probably a good plan to assign students to regular seats, so that the roll can be taken easily by student monitors. It is a good plan to have teachers sit among the students at all times. The administration should always keep in mind the functions of the assembly and should guard against irrelevant tendencies.

Schedule of assemblies. It is rather generally agreed by successful schoolmen that there should be a definite time fixed for the assembly. It should occupy at least one of the periods each week set apart for the extracurricular activity program. If the extracurricular program is well enough organized, and if it is producing sufficient materials to justify a second assembly each week, well and good; but careful thought should be given the subject before such action is taken. Two fundamentals should be safeguarded in the assembly schedule: (1) the programs should contribute definitely toward the strengthening of the work of the school, and (2) the programs should be the product primarily of the student body rather than outside talent.

Types of Assemblies

All school assemblies should be interesting, instructive, and inspiring. The extent to which these three characteristics

are incorporated in the programs largely determines their success. In keeping with these requirements, assembly programs may be of several types.

Impart knowledge. It is occasionally desirable to bring before the students prominent outside speakers of known ability. Only the best of speakers should be engaged for the assembly. The principal and teachers may also be expected to give occasional talks. Their presentations should be inspiring and interesting, and may touch fields not covered by other activities of the school. Moving pictures of an educational character, "the world before our eyes," are always interesting and instructive. Educational films are obtainable from various manufacturers for the cost of transportation charges. Much interest can be maintained by taking up current topics, such as new inventions and world events. There are community, state, and national problems which can be presented by speakers or by the civics class, and upon which students need correct information.

Report activities. Community organizations that have a contact with the school are often helpful in giving information of value to the student body. Such organizations as the anti-tuberculosis league, the child conservation league, the parent-teacher association, the child welfare club, and the alumni of the school are usually available for this purpose.

Demonstrate class and club work. Most high schools have several, or many, organizations that can provide a wealth of material for the assembly. Among these may be mentioned the agricultural club, the science club, the camera club, the radio club, the debating club, the honor society, the student council, the Hi-Y club, the Girl Reserves, the Camp Fire Girls, and the Boy Scouts.

The classes of the school and the various departments should also contribute frequently to assembly programs. Typewriting contests can be made interesting and at the same time stimulate interest of the student body in the commercial department. There are plays and demonstrations which students of the science department can present to show the

work they are doing. Interest in the home economics department is often increased by having a style show or a description of proper diet. The librarian and her assistants can make valuable use of the assembly period by describing how books are handled in the school library, what books are best to read, and how to care for the school books. This information may well be given in the form of a play. During Good English week, the English department may profitably present a little play, a short reading on English as it should be used, or book reviews. If student participation in school government is being used successfully, it is well to have the student council give a program to acquaint new students with its plans for the year. This kind of assembly may well be arranged for the first meeting of the year. The faculty is usually expected to take charge of the assembly at least once during the year.

Assembly Programs

Celebration of special days. In the observance of special days lies a splendid opportunity to develop right attitudes in students. Armistice Day can be properly observed by having a special talk by an outsider on the spirit of patriotism or some other appropriate topic. Thanksgiving may be observed by turning the program over to an organization such as the Hi-Y club or the Girl Reserves. Christmas observance gives an opportunity for the grades of the school, classes, and organizations to present a program which is religious in character. Short plays, readings, recitations, pantomimes, sacred songs, and the like can be very fittingly employed to make the occasion impressive. The birthdays of Washington, Lincoln, Columbus, and other national heroes give opportunity in the program to emphasize outstanding qualities in their lives. Readings or plays relative to their lives may be included.

Class day, if it is a tradition in the school, may take the form of speeches and demonstrations by the seniors just before their graduation, or it may occur at the time of nomination or election of school officers for the following year. The primary

object of such days should be to strengthen class or school spirit.

Art assembly. The art department of the school may give a program for the display of drawings, paintings, and other kinds of art work. Another device is to invite some outsider to take charge of the assembly for a chalk talk or to illustrate the work of painters, interior decorators, and cartoonists. This practice has resulted in many interesting and instructive assemblies.

Music assembly. The assembly provides an excellent opportunity for the orchestra, band, glee clubs, choruses, and individual talent to express themselves before the school. Great care should be exercised in the supervision of this kind of assembly so as to emphasize the best kind of music. Schools fortunate enough to have radios and victrolas may easily furnish the best in music and yet appeal to the student body The work of the great music masters may be brought to the students by these means. Most communities have talented local musicians who may be brought before the students occasionally.

Debates. Student policies or current topics of interest to the students may be used for developing leadership and speaking ability through debating.

Dramatics. If the school has in its curriculum a public speaking class or a dramatic class, dramatization of one-act plays for the assembly offers many possibilities. Student audiences are always well pleased with such a program, and it gives excellent training to those taking part. Plays may be written by members of the speech class and the best ones presented in assembly programs.

Health. Assembly programs are widely used today to give instruction in proper health habits. The Junior Red Cross, usually fostered in the public schools by the Red Cross, may use the school assembly for demonstrations, lectures, and pictures dealing with health policies. Boy Scouts or physical education classes may be asked to demonstrate bandaging and first-aid work of the type most likely to be needed at the

particular time of year. There is opportunity, too, for emphasis by the physical education instructor, the doctor, or nurses on proper eating, rest, posture, and dress. The importance of frequent physical examinations can be stressed to advantage, since many schools have yearly examinations conducted by doctors and nurses.

Safety. City officials are usually glad to talk to the children on the causes and the prevention of accidents. It is helpful to have students or patrols report on unsafe conditions that have come within their experience, together with means of remedying such conditions. Members of the city fire department may well be invited to take part in an assembly concerned with fire prevention. Moving pictures are useful for the purpose of showing the result of carelessness in dealing with fires. Boy Scouts or members of science or physical education classes may demonstrate how to enter burning buildings, the fireman's drag, the fireman's carry, artificial respiration, and how to help put out fires.

School interests. School interests offer much opportunity for student activity in the assembly. Assemblies may be concerned with school elections for student council, installation of officers, pep meetings for arousing enthusiasm for athletic teams, talks on school spirit, and the like.

Every principal should check on the assembly programs. He should see that the programs are well selected, interesting to pupils, within their range, and appropriate to the occasion. He should also make certain that the programs pertain to curricular and extracurricular activities, develop pupil initiative, increase school spirit, and cover all the important interests of the school.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Is the tendency to take all devotional activities out of the assembly period justifiable?
2. State ten outcomes of a good assembly program.
3. Is it possible to judge the results of the assembly program by the attitude of the students? State reasons for your answer.

4. Discuss some types of assemblies adapted to high school use.

5. In a large school, should all students be in the assembly at one time if the auditorium is large enough?

6. Outline a procedure for interrelating other extracurricular activities with assemblies.

7. Make a list of proposals for maintaining satisfactory discipline during the assembly period.

8. What is the best hour of the school day for the assembly? Why?

9. Make an outline of a good assembly program for a 60-minute period.

10. What are the arguments against having an assembly period each school day?

11. Make a brief of the arguments pro and con on seating pupils in the assembly. Which is the stronger side?

12. How can a principal arrange his assembly program so as to eliminate all announcements?

13. Sketch a short pep assembly program preceding the Thanksgiving football game. What are its good and bad points?

14. What are the difficulties encountered in holding assembly for all twelve grades in the school together?

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Chapter XV. STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

Clubs

The strength of a program of school clubs is dependent on the adequacy of the individual clubs. It is essential that the principal of the school supervise their work, seek the cooperation of the faculty, take the initial steps in launching the clubs, and exercise control over the personnel, aims, and activities of each organization. He should be cognizant of the special contribution that each club is expected to make and should have a clear grasp of the range of clubs needed in his particular school and community.

Formation of clubs. Having organized the system, the principal must not look upon it as a finished product, but must continue to sense new needs as they arise and to plan clubs commensurate with them. The principal should subject each club to a searching analysis in terms of such questions as the following:

1. What is its specific aim?
2. Does it meet real needs of the students? What needs?
3. What are its immediate and deferred values?
4. Will its influence be confined to the schoolroom? If not, what are the plans for making it contribute to the welfare of the school, the home, and the community?

The entire club program should be evaluated occasionally by the principal and the school faculty so that the suggestions and judgments of all may function in the planning. For such evaluation, the following questions about the clubs are suggested:

1. Is their range great enough to meet the needs of the student body?
2. Do they cover the requirements of such objectives of

SCORE CARD

Standards for Judging Club Sponsor after One Visit

CLUB..... SPONSOR..... DATE.....

Directions: Observe one club program and with this in mind go to the office and answer the questions below. Arrange for a conference later.	UNSATISFACTORY	SATISFACTORY	SUPERIOR
FITNESS			
1. Is the sponsor physically adapted to club work? (Evidence of reserve energy, vitality, etc.)			
2. Is her appearance in keeping with good taste?			
3. Does she exhibit good conduct and manner?			
4. Is her voice pleasing and modulated?			
5. Does she understand the aims and functions of her club?			
6. Does she exhibit training in club work? Is she willing to learn?			
7. Does she command pupil respect? engender confidence?			
8. Is she versatile, tactful, resourceful?			
9. Is she capable and responsible?			
10. Is she magnetic, stimulating, optimistic, friendly?			
ATTITUDE			
11. Is she just and fair with all pupils?			
12. Does she manifest a sympathetic interest?			
13. Does her guidance stimulate interest and cooperation?			
14. Is she punctual and prompt?			
15. Does she meet unexpected situations well? Has she poise?			
TECHNIQUE			
16. Does she recognize and encourage any pupil contribution?			
17. Does she encourage initiative? Does she act as a guide?			
18. Is she skillful in offering constructive criticism?			
19. Are her efforts confined to guidance?			
20. Does she recognize the values of marginal learning?			

SCORE CARD

Standards for Judging a Club Sponsor at the End of the Semester

CLUB..... SPONSOR..... DATE.....

Directions: As a supplement to your several club-sponsor score sheets obtained by visiting single club meetings, it would be well to answer the following questions in the light of the impressions gained by a semester's supervision and acquaintance of the sponsor in her club work. Follow with a conference.	UNSATISFACTORY	SATISFACTORY	SUPERIOR
FITNESS			
1. Is the sponsor in demand by other clubs?			
2. Is she awake to the possibilities of club activities?			
3. Is she a confidante of the club members?			
4. Does she serve as an example to club members?			
5. Is she fitted by temperament to associate with and guide pupils over a long period of time?			
6. Does she show adequate knowledge of adolescent psychology to be a real leader?			
7. Does she show growth?			
8. Does she maintain poise?			
ATTITUDE			
9. Is she as enthusiastic and efficient at the end of the semester as at the beginning? Does she desire to continue?			
10. Does she cooperate with faculty members so her club activities accentuate schoolwork?			
11. Is she reasonable and fair at all times?			
TECHNIQUE			
12. Are participation and contribution carefully nurtured?			
13. Does she demand a finished product — completeness?			
14. Does she build up club work by commendation?			
15. Does she keep in the background, acting only as an adviser or guide?			
16. Does she evaluate the work of the semester? Does she measure her club and its activities, making particular comparison between aims and accomplishments?			

education as health, worthy home membership, worthy use of leisure, vocation, citizenship, and ethical character?

3. Do they cooperate with city, state, or national associations dedicated to civic betterment or altruistic service?

Sponsors for clubs. The success of a club is largely determined by the attitude and ability of the sponsor who is named to exercise guidance in its activities. This sponsor should be tactful, understand boys and girls, and be able to guide without dominating. The number of social functions should be limited, and the finances of the organization should be well regulated. A sponsor should ensure that emphasis is placed on the entertainment, decorations, and activities of an evening function rather than on refreshments. The adviser should attend all meetings and should influence the club members by word and deed to carry on properly the work of the group.

Club membership. The question of club membership should be very seriously considered before a club program is launched in any school. The student who is a natural "joiner" will have a tendency to participate in too many clubs, while the shy, retiring students may not be inclined to take part in any activity. The following practices are recommended:

1. Require that membership in clubs be open to all pupils on the same basis.

2. Require tryouts as a basis for membership in musical, dramatic, debating clubs, and the like.

3. Limit club membership to those actually enrolled in the school.

4. Place a limit on the number of clubs to which a pupil may belong. In the case of large city high schools, activities in band, glee club, orchestra, chorus, and debating are often included as a regular part of the program of curricular work.

5. Have special assemblies to give new pupils an idea of what the various clubs are doing, but generally withhold membership until the second semester.

Time and place of meeting. It is desirable to set aside part of one day in the week for club meetings. The faculty

should decide whether this activity period is to be held in the morning or in the afternoon after the last class period. The amount of time should be sufficient for the meetings of any organization with the exception of the major athletic teams and perhaps of such outdoor organizations as the hiking club. If the different clubs need different amounts of time for their meetings, it is desirable to have these meetings at the end of the school day.

It is always advisable to hold club meetings and social functions in the school building if possible. Evening meetings should be discouraged, but if they are unavoidable they should be held on Friday nights or on evenings preceding holidays.

Finances. A wise policy with regard to finances is to have all club money turned in to a school treasurer — a faculty member, a special clerk, or the head of the commercial department — who will deposit the funds in a bank, allowing the club to withdraw money on requisition of the adviser and one officer of the club. The use of a common bank account for all club funds avoids the charge for banking privilege made in large cities, and makes it unnecessary to open a large number of small accounts. Financial control should be kept within the school. This principle applies especially to clubs which have connections with outside organizations.

Club dues should be kept as low as possible, so as not to exclude any member of the school. The expenditures for social affairs should not be large.

Social affairs. By careful planning, an alert principal will help his sponsors and club officers to avert any disciplinary difficulty in connection with social affairs. The following suggestions are offered:

1. The number of social functions should be definitely limited.

2. All plans for any social function should be submitted to the chairman of the social committee or to the social director at least a week before the affair.

3. Before any club plans a party, the social director should be consulted as to the availability of a suitable room and

appropriate equipment. The janitors should also be informed so that there will be no misunderstanding with regard to the use of clubrooms by different organizations.

4. Admittance to social functions should be refused to those who are not at the time members of the organization sponsoring them, unless special arrangements have been previously made for their admission as guests.

Debating

Values claimed for debating. It is claimed that debating affords an intensive preparation for presentation of an argument. In this preparation, students become familiar with the use of the library, current publications, reference books, and government documents. They learn about the organizations formed to promote various causes, and they develop initiative by discovering new sources of material on their particular subjects.

It is believed, also, that students develop a skill in organization of materials that is important not only in debating but in other practical affairs of life as well. A premium is placed on clear, logical reasoning, by which a proposition is analyzed into its various factors. The next step in this process is to rearrange this material in its proper order, according to time or importance. It is pointed out that the debater learns to analyze his opponents' arguments, discovering their weaknesses, and then proceeds to organize his refutation in a clear, orderly manner.

It is said, too, that interscholastic debating develops cooperation in the individual. As a member of a team, he must work with his colleagues in order to build up a successful argument. This training in teamwork, it is pointed out, will continue to be valuable in later life.

It is claimed that debating helps the student learn the mechanics of public speaking and how to express his thought in clear, forceful English. It is observed, moreover, that debating correlates, organizes, and uses knowledge already obtained in the student's various subjects, such as mathematics, economics, history, civics, English, and geography.

Other values frequently mentioned are that debating develops originality, inculcates a wholesome respect for evidence, increases respect for scholarship, stabilizes the student's self-control, gives training for democracy, instills honesty and courtesy, trains in thoroughness, and develops leadership.

Criticisms of high school debating. It is sometimes claimed that the questions selected for debating are not worth while, and that they are often too involved for high school students. In the past, there has been some justification for this criticism, but those in charge of the work today are endeavoring to choose suitable topics. The fact that their attempts have been successful in some measure can be seen from an examination of subjects now in use. In several states of the Northwest, where agriculture is the principal business, secondary schools have been debating the question of farm relief. The direct primary, the World Court, various peace plans, and federal aid for education are topics which have been successfully used during recent years. Those in favor of debating point out that, if some of the questions debated have not been worth while, this fact is not an inherent evil in debating, but is rather the fault of those who select the topics.

It is charged that debaters are arbitrarily assigned to sides regardless of their personal convictions, causing them to uphold a position in which they do not believe. The defense of this practice is in the suggestion that a debater should not express his personal opinion, but should make an effort to present the merits of his side of the question. It is claimed that this procedure causes the students to appreciate the fact that there are two sides to every question.

It is urged that the desire to win overshadows the desire for truth; that the thought always uppermost in the minds of the debaters is not, "Are we right?" but rather, "Can we win?" While this attitude is sometimes found, the responsibility for it lies with the coach of the debating team. In many cases, he feels that victory means promotion and increase in salary. If the coach has a proper code of ethics and the true debating spirit, this evil will be considerably lessened.

It is said that the work of the debaters is often done by the coach. This practice is undoubtedly one of the greatest evils of high school debating. Specific instances have been discovered in which the coach worked up the material, wrote the speeches, and prepared "canned rebuttals," allowing the students merely to memorize and recite what he had written. Such practices are not only ethically wrong, but they also tend to nullify the real values of debates. The solution for this situation is not to abolish debating, but rather to remove the dishonest coach.

It is stated that high school debating has no validity of thought and little reality in concrete relation to everyday life; that in practical affairs truth is found through discussion, weighing of facts, and search for facts, not by assuming an attitude and attempting to prove that it is right or wrong. In formalized debating, as it is controlled by the high school debating leagues, no provision is made for a change of attitude on the question by the debater.

Other criticisms often advanced include the lack of spontaneity on the part of the speakers, the disappearance of individuality, and a strenuousness of work inappropriate for students of high school age. However, debating is increasing in spite of the criticisms.

The selection of the coach. A qualified coach in debating must be one who will not place the glory of winning above instructional values. In the early years of school debating, lack of properly trained coaches caused many difficulties. Universities and colleges are alleviating this problem by sending out an increasing number of qualified and well-informed coaches. A national forensic organization issues coaching certificates to those who have won special distinction in intercollegiate debates and who have various other specific qualifications. This certification is important because such coaches are less likely to bring criticism on debating.

The selection of questions for debate. One of the most troublesome problems of debating is that of selecting suitable questions. Many different practices are employed in choosing

the propositions. Usually the questions for interscholastic debating are chosen by a committee of people connected with the universities of the different states. In some cases, however, the topics are chosen by the debate coaches.

The major principles governing the selection of the proposition are:

1. *The proposition should be such that study and discussion of it will lead to a realization of the objectives of debating.* The topic should be of interest to the speakers and to the audience, be a question of policy rather than fact, and be a question on which there is an abundance of available material.

2. *The proposition should be technically correct.* It should be in the form of an assertion, be debatable, not employ ambiguous terms, not be too broad, not give the affirmative the burden of proof, not be double-headed, and not be question-begging.

3. *The proposition should be selected by representatives of the schools which are to debate it.*

The selection of speakers. There are three common methods of choosing the speakers who will compose the high school debating team. The first method is to work in cooperation with the English classes in having interclass debates. The procedure here is to substitute argumentation for a part of the regular English work. It is thus possible to get a large number to take part in the work, and in this way to give the training to many students.

The second method involves carrying on debates between literary societies or creating regular debating societies. This plan provides an opportunity for those who are not enrolled in the English work to take part in the tryouts. Here great interest is created by the rivalry and competition among the various clubs.

The third method, probably the most common, is to get the students to sign up for a series of tryouts. The debating coach, by notices and talks, urges all who are interested to try out for the team. At the time of the final tryout, other faculty members are invited to give their opinions as to the capabilities of the

various speakers. These tryouts enable the coach to become acquainted with the different pupils and to point out their weaknesses before the final event.

The selection of judges. Nearly all schools seem to prefer debates in which a decision is rendered; but there is a slight tendency toward debates of the nondecision type. The number of judges is usually three, although some schools prefer to have one expert judge. When there is only one judge, he acts as critic and explains his decision to the audience and the debaters at the end of the program. The trend toward nondecision debates is said to be the result of the varying standards among judges as to what constitutes effective argumentation.

The efficient, competent judge must be impartial, unprejudiced, familiar with debating, satisfactory to both schools, and not connected with either school. Different methods have been used for evaluating debate speeches, but there is no definitely accepted standard. Every judge is asked to give his decision to the team which he believes has done the most effective debating. In this respect, he is allowed much freedom and is permitted to use his own standards. Judgment is ordinarily based on the debaters' analysis of the question, the evidence they submit, their argument and rebuttal, their organization of material, and the general effectiveness of their delivery.

The Oxford plan. The Oxford plan has been suggested as representative of the type of debating that should be used in the United States. Under this plan, the speakers do not consider the activity as a contest, but rather hold it to be merely a discussion. One school may have one of its members on the team of an opposing school. These debates may be of the decision or the nondecision type, and may have a vote of the audience before and after the discussion. This type is less formal and utilizes analogy, humor, literary allusion, and illustration to a much greater degree than the type now common in America.

The advantages of this plan are that it develops individualism, sincerity, and a more natural manner of speaking. One

of its primary purposes is to arrive at the truth — not merely to build up a case. This style is more interesting both to the audience and to the debaters because it allows greater personal freedom.

Some of the disadvantages cited are that it does not develop cooperation and the building up of the team as a unit. Another disadvantage is that the preparation is not nearly so thorough as that resulting from the method commonly followed in this country.

Although it is doubtful whether this type of debating will become popular in the United States, the debaters of this country have unquestionably learned a great deal from this English form. As to its desirability for high school use, the general opinion is that the average secondary school student is too immature to master its principles.

Debating as a subject. Since debating is not universally established in the high schools, it is still considered an extra-curricular activity. There is a tendency, however, to use a class period for the subject aside from the time given in English classes. Placing it in the curriculum involves added expense as well as problems in making room for additional classes and in the amount of credit to be given.

The present plan of devoting time to the study of a league topic prevents extensive study in the principles and fundamentals of debating. Instruction in theory is essential when the students are preparing the debate topic. The most effective means, then, is to place debating in the curriculum so the proper instructional value will not be side-tracked. It is the opinion of most writers that a series of debates on the same topic will not give returns in training proportional to the time and cost involved.

Financial support. Debating, like athletics, must be financed. Coaches' salaries, league costs, traveling expenses, and materials may be provided for: (1) through funds provided by the board of education, (2) by charging for contests, or (3) by the assistance of the debaters or debating society.

In general, boards of education have not provided a separate

fund for maintenance of debating, but they do usually meet instructional cost. The necessary books and materials for debating are usually purchased by drawing on the library fund.

In most cases, no admission is charged for contests. This differs from the practice adopted in athletics and means an added problem of meeting expenses, especially in the smaller schools. However, it is better from a public relations viewpoint not to make an admission charge so that more patrons will attend the contests.

Where debating is distinctly an extracurricular activity, and where it has been recently introduced into the school, a club composed of those interested in the subject frequently devises means of raising the necessary funds.

Credit for debating. There seems to be no uniformity over the country in the amount of credit given for debating. A student has the opportunity of participating for four years. If a quarter of a credit were given for each year of debating, one of the sixteen credits earned in high school might be earned in debating. If credit is given, the question might be raised: should instruction in the fundamentals of debating or participation in yearly contests be assigned the same credit value?

Some schools offer debating as a regular school subject and give one-half unit of credit each semester, while others give one-fourth unit each year to students entered in contests. Some schools do not give any credit. It is evident that there is a need for some standard for granting credit.

Dramatics

Values of dramatics. One of the values of dramatics is the necessity it involves of learning to do outside things while carrying on the regular schoolwork. Thus is demonstrated one of the great practical lessons of life — the need for establishing right relationships between one's vocation and one's avocation.

Experience in dramatization gives the student greater appreciation of the drama and discriminating recognition of the

artistic and literary value of the best dramas. It develops habits of poise and self-control, and thus aids in the development of personality. Dramatic activities help to overcome adolescent self-consciousness and self-depreciation and give the participants a new power to express thoughts and emotions through gesture and voice. Dramatic activities also develop an attitude of cooperation. A well-managed play has a desirable effect on the spirit of the school, and should become a school affair by enlisting the services of as many members of the student body as possible.

Pageants are specially effective in a community which has small schools. A pageant may be so planned by a county superintendent that a different part is assigned to each school, and students from the whole county come together at the county seat for its presentation. This procedure increases school interest and develops cooperative community spirit. The practice may be followed in larger schools by making the pageant an all-school affair, enlisting the services of all classes or clubs.

A value not always recognized is yielded through the presentation of plays of literary merit. An appreciation of the drama is here developed not only among students taking part in performances, but also among their families and friends, and in the whole community. Thus, our schools may help to develop something more than a musical burlesque appetite, hastening the day when the theater audience in America will demand drama of artistry and beauty.

Criticism of high school dramatics. Many objections have been raised to dramatization in the secondary school. It is said that, because it takes a great amount of time from the regular academic work, it lowers the standard of scholarship and may be a drain upon the vitality of the students. The skeptics contend that, unlike athletics, rehearsal for a play is not recreative, but is practically another difficult lesson. This objection is a real one, but it may be minimized by excluding from the play those students whose scholarship is weak. The notion that a good actor is a poor student is seldom borne out

by the facts. Often, the best actors are found among the honor students.

It is said, too, that dramatic activities sometimes awaken bitter feelings of jealousy and rivalry. These feelings are certain to arise when the cast in the play is chosen by popular vote. The director or coach and the class adviser should work earnestly to see that the group of students in charge of the play represent the student body as a whole rather than some fraternity or clique.

In many schools, the money earned by dramatic organizations is added to the funds for athletic teams, used to provide a new drinking fountain, or spent for some other similar purpose. Such money should be used for stage equipment or for books dealing with dramatics.

Types of dramatic organizations. Dramatics may be controlled by a dramatic club under the sponsorship of the dramatic department or of a teacher who has an interest in the work. It may be organized as a regular part of the curricular work, or as a part of the extracurricular activities program. The arrangement chosen, and the extent to which the activity is emphasized, will depend on local conditions with regard to capable faculty leadership, adequate financial support, and the degree of interest aroused.

The frequency and length of plays, and scenery for them, will be considerably influenced by the size of the school. However, this fact need not serve as an excuse for limited accomplishments or poor results in small schools, because the production of school plays should be kept simple. There should be room for the imagination. Elaborate scenery and costumes are not of primary importance.

The selection of plays. Every play produced in school should be of acceptable literary merit. There should be an attempt to find plays of such variety in type as to illustrate problems in criticism, taste, and methods of production. Many teachers hesitate to choose a good play because they feel that it will be too ambitious. This is a mistaken point of view. It is safe to say that standard plays may be given more

satisfactorily than inferior plays, because they hold more in plot and character to sustain the interest of the audience. It is imperative that the play be free from undue emotional stress and from situations that are in any way questionable.

Such conditions of production as age, training, size, and ability of the group, and the size of the stage, its scenery or the lack of it, and the expense of costumes must be taken into consideration. The character of the audience and the tastes and prejudices of a community must be considered.

Coaching the play. It is not desirable to employ an outside or professional coach for school plays. The outsider too frequently does not have the interest of the student or the school at heart. He is employed to coach a play, and is more interested in turning out a perfect production than in providing a really educative experience to the student participants. Excellence and success are to some extent necessary in any play or game, but overemphasis on the immediate result usually means underemphasis on the ultimate aims. It is therefore preferable to use a regular member of the staff, rather than an outsider, for play coaching. In large schools, it is best of all to have a teacher who gives his full time to the dramatic work.

The use of dramatics in literature classes. Experience has shown that classes get the most from such classics as *Ivanhoe*, *The Lady of the Lake*, *The Princess*, *Silas Marner*, and *The Tale of Two Cities* if certain class periods are given to dramatizations of these works. The adaptation can be made by the teacher, or often by the more mature students as exercises in English composition. No pretense at costume or scenery need be made in these brief dramatizations. Often an entire review of a classic can be made, with the students enacting certain episodes and the teacher filling in by reading aloud the connecting parts. If the school has a platform that can be used as a stage, it is a good plan to have the various classes compete in such incidental dramatization and, later in the year, to have a complete performance of some dramatization before the school.

Music

The status of music. During the past decade, music in the high school has developed unprecedented strength. Music in the school involves a number of problems because: (1) it has had to be taught in large classes; (2) it affects every phase of school life; (3) being a noisy activity, it demands special rooms or quarters; and (4) uniforms, music, and instruments entail considerable outlay of funds. Perhaps no department has quite so many problems of finances, schedule making, discipline, or school morale as does music; and yet, scarcely any department has within it quite so many possibilities for social, moral, and leisure-time training of our future citizens.

It seems to be true, unfortunately, that the average high school principal knows little about music. He is fond of it in a vague and rather desultory way, and he desires the best music department possible because he realizes its influence on the prestige and morale of his school; but he has little idea as to what he could or should do to further the work of this department. His administrative activity in this regard is usually confined to a policy of letting the department go its own way.

Planning the work in music. Care should be taken to schedule the large music classes, such as band, orchestra, and chorus, so that they do not conflict with required subjects. When conflicts do occur in individual cases, there should be a readiness to compromise as the occasion demands. In most classes, one student more or less makes little difference, but any particular member of a music organization may be a "key man," without whom the organization is seriously handicapped in its work.

The principal should remember that, as a rule, the music teacher carries a particularly heavy teaching load. The question of fatigue is important. The problem of preparation of equipment and materials is always present. The safe plan is a conference with the head of the department and his teachers if the principal is to avoid practices that will tend to lower the efficiency of the department.

In music, as in most things, the important factor is the quality of the work done, not the number of subjects taught. Only well-planned courses should be offered. Their number and scope will depend on the size of the community, the budget of the music department, the number of music teachers on the staff, and the local attitude toward music.

All work in music should be carried on in regular classes, in school time, and should receive credit which may be applied toward graduation on a par with other electives. The National Association of Schools of Music and the Music Supervisors' National Association have jointly and individually worked out a certain standardization of courses in music study, together with suggestions as to credit allowances. This information is easily available, and should be in the hands of every principal.

Classrooms and equipment for music. A music department with adequate equipment, housing facilities, and funds is so rare as to be almost unique. Instruments, uniforms, and music in sufficient quantities represent enormous outlays of money. Ten thousand dollars would hardly equip a 60-piece band. Upkeep of these materials is another large item. The principal cannot often help in a direct way, but his influence should be used wherever possible to the end that the equipment of the music department approaches the ideal.

In planning a new building, the music room should be carefully designed and placed. It should be available for use at all times without annoyance to other classes. It should be large enough to approximate acoustical conditions found in an auditorium. It should include suitable filing and storing space for music and instruments. It should be so placed that the stage of the auditorium is easily accessible, and it should be on the ground floor to save carrying the large instruments farther than necessary. In old buildings, ideal conditions should be achieved as far as circumstances permit.

Disciplinary problems. The music teacher often finds that his courses are all electives, and that pupils do not elect courses they dislike. His is not a protected subject, but one

that must demonstrate its values constantly. The teacher of music must make his courses attractive, and at the same time ensure progress. His problem of discipline is increased because the classes are very large, each student is provided with an efficient noise-maker, and there is a perfect array of extraneous things such as instrument cases, music, music stands, and chairs. The music teacher must "win" the students under his guidance. They must learn to respect him as a musician, admire him as a man, and esteem him as a friend, if they are to follow him loyally.

The director of a music organization should endeavor to build up a spirit and morale that will discourage ordinary breeches of discipline. Music organizations are large, and have a community purpose and a pride in attainment that make it possible and desirable for them to be self-contained, self-controlled, and self-disciplined with merely a little unostentatious guidance. Young people in such groups can and will maintain a discipline, impose and exact penalties, and set up and strive toward higher standards and ideals than most teachers attempt.

Types of School Publications

In an age when everything connected with the schools is subjected to intimate scrutiny, curricular and extracurricular activities alike being searched for values, school publications have steadily grown in popularity both with educational critics and with the public generally. This, of itself, suggests a readily apparent value and indicates that school publications are not a passing fancy, but possess permanent worth as a factor in education. McKown voices the general opinion when he says: "School publications, by carrying news, encouraging enterprises, supporting worthy traditions, and by promulgating ideals and general understanding, can be of inestimable value in promoting solidarity and in developing a worthy school consciousness." [1]

[1] Harry C. McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*, p. 351. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1937.

At present four kinds of school publications are commonly found in public high schools: the handbook, the magazine, the newspaper, and the annual. Some of the largest schools have a publication of each type, but usually, and especially in schools of less than 300 students, the maintenance of one or two types is adequate and wiser. The small school, because of its limited enrollment and its relatively few events and activities, often requires considerable modification of any plan that would be satisfactory in the large high school.

The conditions peculiar to an individual school must be carefully studied before a type of publication is selected for it, and it must be recognized that too ambitious a program entails the danger of failure. It is desirable, then, to choose only the kinds of publications that local conditions require and that can receive the careful attention fundamental to success.

The School Newspaper

Popularity of the school newspaper. The universal popularity of the school newspaper is due to several of its characteristics, chief among them being (1) its adaptability to schools of all sizes and (2) its direct bearing on school life. For the small school, the newspaper is readily adaptable to such forms as bulletins and mimeographed sheets, less expensive than the printed paper and produced by a relatively simpler organization. The printed newspaper readily adapts itself to a variety of forms, sizes, and corresponding costs.

Values of the school newspaper. The high school paper is the most natural medium of communication between the students and faculty, and between the school as a whole and the public. Since it is written, edited, and published by students, it is a most effective medium of self-expression. It stresses those activities that are of the most interest to the student body and affords one enterprise in which all may join. There is no feature of school life that cannot directly benefit from the school paper. The administration is brought into contact with student opinion, and, through a better understanding of policies, a common aim is established.

The significance of "news." The chief function of the school paper is to carry school news. It is well to note in this connection that the term "news" suggests not only the importance of the event described but also its recentness. What is news today becomes history tomorrow. The school newspaper, then, if it would justify its name, must appear sufficiently often to give its news an air of freshness. Some large schools publish small dailies, but a weekly paper is found to be more successful in most schools. The date of issue should be so chosen that the paper goes to press immediately following the days on which school affairs generally take place. News is of most value when it has an element of the unusual and when it is related to people or places well known to readers. It may also be of the "human interest" variety which is a favorite with public newspapers. "Coming events" columns furnish an opportunity to advertise school affairs and to give the paper two news stories where otherwise there would be only one.

News must be sought; it does not "drop in" on the paper. The school paper should adopt methods of the public dailies and "cover" every possible source for news. Some fixed sources can be covered best by keeping informed of all coming events and assigning a competent reporter to them. Furthermore, every member of the student body should be alert to discover things worth reporting to the paper. Students should be encouraged to regard the paper as an activity for which they are responsible.

The objectives of the newspaper. The objectives [1] attained by publishing a school newspaper have been given as:

1. To provide an organ of information that will present all the news desired to those who are actively interested in the school, the pupils, the teachers, the parents, the administration, and to some extent the former graduates.

2. To provide an organ for the expression of student thought and to unify ideals and objectives.

[1] Edward M. Johnson, *A Manual and Scorebook for Editors and Staffs of Scholastic Newspapers.* Minneapolis, National Scholastic Press Association, 1929.

3. To create a wholesome school spirit and to support the best traditions of the school.

4. To promote and encourage worthy school activities.

5. To encourage the ideals of true sportsmanship.

6. To promote scholarship — the really useful school newspaper deals with more than superficial activities.

7. To provide an outlet for the best creative literary and artistic work of the school.

8. To provide training in useful and purposeful writing.

9. To create a desire for the best forms of journalism both in and out of school.

10. To provide an organ in which may be given general and special forms of information pertaining to the school and its needs.

11. To record in permanent form the history of the school.

12. To promote cooperation between taxpayers, parents, the school, and its students.

It will be noticed that all of these objectives except the first and the last have to do with advantages to the individual or the school from within the school itself. The last three deal with school publicity, which is, in some respects, the most important result to be gained from publishing a school newspaper.

Departments of the newspaper. The chief types of material in the school newspaper are: (1) news stories, (2) editorials, (3) feature stories, (4) illustrations, (5) humor, (6) fiction, (7) advertisements, and (8) miscellaneous.

News stories commonly report such matters as athletics, social affairs, assemblies, work in different departments of the school, new courses offered, and changes in administrative policy. A large amount of news space can be devoted profitably to athletics, since it has a very general appeal to both students and friends of the school. Social affairs also are interesting to a large group. They can either be carried under a separate social column or be distributed among other news stories. A "personal" column will take care of small items that are of interest but are not of sufficient importance to be reported as stories.

Editorials have an important place in the paper. They are generally attempts to boost the school or some specific

activity in the school. They may suggest administrative policy or reforms in student conduct. A definite purpose should prompt their writing. The editorial, however, is no place for the airing of personal grievances. It should concern itself with questions of vital interest to the school at large.

Feature stories are generally based on incidents not important as news items but of interest through their emotional appeal. They may be of either a tragic or a humorous nature, but they must be entertaining.

Correspondence columns are contributed by students and alumni, and represent personal opinions of the writers. In such contributions, considerable latitude should be allowed. They may even criticize school policies or suggest changes in methods of control. In publishing correspondence, the newspaper acts merely as a medium of expression and should not be assumed to support the ideas expressed. Offensive parts of letters should be omitted, and long and uninteresting ones should be shortened. It is usually preferable, of course, to print letters as they are written. The correspondence column is devoted to the expression of student opinions, and these opinions should not be rigidly censored.

Advice and helpfulness may consist of information to new students, suggestions for study, health hints, or other advice intended to improve existing conditions. This type of material is admittedly filler and should be used sparingly, but it may be made both interesting and instructive.

Illustrations may be reproductions of either photographs or drawings. They commonly add a great deal of life and interest to the paper.

Humor is generally overworked and, in the opinion of many authorities, constitutes a serious objection to the average school paper. There are, however, many humorous incidents in school life which may well take the place of the copied jokes which are so prevalent. Good cartoons also add much to the paper's appearance.

Fiction is another stumbling block for the high school newspaper. While it is not the chief function of a newspaper to

print fiction, an occasional short story or original poem has the advantage of lending variety. It should be recognized, however, that such material belongs rather in a separate publication. The newspaper ought not to be a vehicle for creative writing of the literary sort, but rather for terse, well-written news reports, feature stories, and the like.

Advertisements are a source of revenue only, and should never be so arranged as to overshadow the news items. They should appear not on the front page but rather along the edges and across the bottom of other pages. Advertisements should be carefully written, and should be grouped in such a way as not to detract from the appearance of the paper. Bunching the advertisements not only destroys the effectiveness of the paper's appearance, but also suggests to the advertiser that the paper's interest in him ceased with the getting of the copy.

The miscellaneous department usually includes alumni notes, exchange news, and other items not falling naturally into other departments. Alumni notes can be made interesting to the majority of students and have the additional value of maintaining the interest of former students in the school. A material increase in circulation is often the result of a well-organized alumni column. Exchange news should be in the nature of comments on what other schools are doing rather than mere criticisms of their publications.

Choosing the staff. The first and perhaps the most important part of organizing the school newspaper is the selection of a competent faculty adviser, who should have newspaper experience and business ability. An essential qualification of the faculty adviser is the ability to work with students and to inspire confidence and enthusiasm. The adviser is usually chosen by the high school principal, who is in a better position to judge fitness than are the students.

The staff should include: (1) editor-in-chief, (2) business manager, (3) assistant business manager, (4) circulation manager, (5) advertising manager, (6) associate editor, (7) assistant editors, and (8) reporters. This list is not necessarily complete; additional members may be added to the

staff where local requirements demand it. It is worse, however, to have too many staff members than not to have enough. The wise adviser will not clutter up the organization with useless numbers.

The editor-in-chief and the business manager are the student leaders of the staff and should be selected with care. Various methods of selection are in use. They may be elected by popular vote or appointed by either the principal or the faculty adviser. It seems more in keeping with the democratic idea of school activities to have seniors elected by the upper classes to fill these positions, subject to the approval of the faculty adviser.

Assistant editors may be elected by one or both of the upper classes, or they may be appointed by their respective chiefs. The latter method has the advantage of securing a harmonious personnel; but it has the disadvantage of placing too much authority in the hands of a clique, and this misfortune defeats the purposes of the paper. Reporters are chosen by the classes and organizations they represent. Whatever method of selection is used, the adviser should see that students possessing the required ability are chosen.

Duties of the staff. The faculty member of the staff is an adviser, not a proofreader or writer. His wider knowledge and experience should enable him to outline the duties of each staff member and to help the editor-in-chief and the business manager in assigning work to their assistants. He should have a clear knowledge of the aim and character of the paper, and should possess the ability to convey this idea to the staff. He must have the ability to direct without dominating.

The editor-in-chief is responsible for the success or failure of the paper. It is his duty to provide material for the paper and to evaluate it. He represents the entire school. He delegates much of his work to assistants, but he is still responsible for its accomplishment. He is the authority on what goes into the paper. The writing of at least some of the editorials comes within his duties, but in general his work is of a supervising nature. Such responsibility requires unusually good judgment,

willingness to work, ability to lead and direct others, and supreme loyalty to the school. If possible, he should have had previous experience on a school paper in a subordinate capacity.

Assistant editors work under the direction of the editor-in-chief. In large schools, one is sometimes designated as associate editor. He is first assistant to the chief editor, having such duties as assigning reporters, checking copy for advertising, and writing editorials.

The business manager is responsible for the financial success of the paper. As funds must be assured before the paper is published, it follows that his position is an important one. He will confer with the editor-in-chief on matters relating to the general policy of his office, and he will plan advertising and subscription campaigns with his assistant managers. He must have a knowledge of business methods and an ability to get cooperation from his assistants. He must be of known integrity and must have the confidence and respect of the school and the public. He should know at all times the condition of the paper's finances. He should keep accurate books, which should be audited at frequent intervals by the adviser.

The advertising manager solicits advertising. His work is important not only because it deals with an important source of revenue, but also because the attitude of businessmen toward the paper is to a great extent determined by his methods. He should be a salesman, not a taker of charity. The advertising manager should sell service as well as space. He can write copy for the advertiser, counsel him on frequency of insertions, offer timely suggestions, and eventually build up a feeling of good will between the paper and its advertisers.

The circulation manager sells the finished product. His original canvass of possible subscribers will largely determine the character of the paper. He conducts subscription campaigns at the beginning of the school year and seeks by every legitimate means to increase the sale of the paper. Enthusiasm, tireless energy, and personal popularity are his essential characteristics. His campaigns should be brief, but they should be

filled with action, class competition, prize contests, and the like.

The reporters get the news. This task requires that they be keen observers, possessed of a good judgment of values, and that they be always on the job. Reporters should be assigned to cover events in which they are interested, and of which they have a knowledge.

Preliminary details. Before the routine duties of the staff begin, policies will need to be determined regarding such matters as frequency of issue, size and general character of the paper, relative space to be devoted to advertising, dates of issue, subscription rate, cost of printing based on estimated circulation, and the advertising rate. A number of suggestions regarding these details are here offered.

Weekly papers furnish comparatively fresh news and are therefore preferable to those appearing less frequently. Make the size fit the material — a small interesting paper is better than a large one made up of filler. Keep the subscription rate low enough that every one in school is able to subscribe. Limit the advertising to one-fourth or one-third of the entire space. The rate of 25 cents per inch for advertising is suggested, and there should be no cut in fixed charges. Bids for printing should be obtained as soon as the character of the paper is determined, and printing contracts should be detailed and in writing. Do not start the first issue until sufficient funds are assured.

The Handbook

Purposes of the handbook. The purposes of the handbook are: (1) to serve as a guide to pupils, especially new ones; (2) to establish, through definite information, right school habits and a certain mental attitude toward the school and all of its activities; and (3) to give the parents information concerning the organization and administration of the curricular and extracurricular work of the school. The handbook has for its principal function the orientation of the new student. Instead of passing the first days of his high school life

in a maze, he quickly picks up the ideals and traditions of the school, finds out what is expected from him in the way of conduct, and saves time and worry in finding his way about the strange building.

Parts of the handbook. The handbook should contain: (1) a title page, (2) a preface by the principal, (3) a table of contents, (4) a brief history of the school, (5) a list of the faculty members, (6) a list of rooms and subjects, (7) an outline of courses of study, (8) an explanation of the marking system in use, (9) a statement of the requirements for graduation, (10) full details on all student organizations, (11) school songs and yells, (12) daily schedule, (13) fire drill regulations, (14) school calendar, (15) constitution of student council, and (16) other miscellaneous information regarding the habits and customs of the school.

Sponsors of the handbook. The handbook is generally published by some school organization, such as the Hi-Y club or the student council. It may be prepared as a project in English classes. The group chosen for the work should begin preparations early in the year preceding its publication, and they should take extreme care to avoid mistakes either in fact or in the mechanics of publication.

Size and costs. Handbooks should be of convenient pocket size and, at the most, should be limited to 100 pages. For small schools, ten or fifteen pages will be sufficient. The material should be of a practical nature, since the book is primarily a reference book. An effort should be made to produce an attractive book, but at the same time the cost should be kept low enough for all students to afford it easily. The price should not exceed 25 cents; small books can sell for as little as 5 cents.

Responsibility of the principal. The handbook is an administrative organ and should be prepared under the direct supervision of the principal. He may delegate most of the work to students and members of the faculty, but the final draft of the book should have his inspection and approval before it goes to press.

The Yearbook

Types of yearbooks. The yearbooks commonly found in high schools are of three types: literary, historical, and senior. The first, as its name suggests, consists largely of student writings in the form of stories, poems, essays, and editorials. It is really a magazine enlarged to contain pictures and data of the graduating class. The second type is a chronicle of the school events for the year. Senior activities may be stressed, but other classes are given almost equal attention. This type has a wider appeal than a more restricted type. The third type is to some extent a mixture of the other two in that it has both literary and historical characteristics. The senior class, however, is given most of the space, and considerable attention is paid to the juniors. The lower classes are either ignored entirely or, at the best, given very little attention. This type of yearbook has little to interest the student body as a whole, and therefore is generally not a financial success.

Values of yearbooks. To be effective, the yearbook must be a record of the entire school rather than of a few students. It must have permanent worth. Its main value lies in its appeal to the student at the time it is issued, and in the reminiscences of later years. This requirement is met by the historical yearbook, which will be considered as the basis for the following discussion.

Character and material of the yearbook. The yearbook is generally made up of several divisions, each of which is composed of sections. The divisions commonly used are: (1) the introduction, containing the title page, dedication, table of contents, and sometimes a scenic section; (2) faculty and class section; (3) activities and organizations, such as athletics, societies, clubs, and debates; (4) humor, consisting of the school calendar, cartoons, comic snapshots, and jokes carefully selected with reference to lasting value; and (5) advertising, including written material, cartoons, and pictures to keep this section from being set aside by itself. The permanent nature of the yearbook suggests the use of better ma-

terials than in other types of publications. A cover of heavy paper is fairly effective and is commonly used where expenses must be kept low. A more lasting cover is a composition known by several trade names, but appearing to be a kind of artificial leather. This wears well and can be made very attractive. A good quality of coated paper adds attractiveness out of proportion to its additional cost. A sewed binding adds greatly to the durability of the book.

Organization of the staff. Yearbooks are usually published by the senior class, but the practice is subject to variations. The staff is similar in personnel to that of the newspaper, and the same general scheme of organization can be used. In fact, it is advisable to select the staff from former newspaper staff members, for their experience will be a valuable asset. An examination of various high school yearbooks will give the staff an idea of what they want.

The members of the yearbook staff should be selected early in the year, or at the end of the previous spring term, and should be made to realize the extent and responsibility of their undertaking. Mid-year is rather late to begin working on material. In fact, considerable expense may be avoided by supplying the engraver with material several months before publication. Good snapshots can be secured by offering prizes for the best. Students who have sufficient artistic ability to draw effective designs can usually be enlisted. Frequently, one border design can be used throughout the book, and another design can be used as a background for the inserts in each different section.

Advertising. The use of advertising in a yearbook is financially necessary, as a rule. Good judgment is required in order to preserve the appearance and at the same time to satisfy the advertiser. The advertisements should not occupy more than one third of the book. A satisfactory arrangement can be effected by breaking up the advertising with school data, humor, and continuations of articles. The rate for advertising in the yearbook is considerably higher than in the newspaper, it being from $10 to $20 per page, with part pages

at a slightly higher rate. Local conditions will largely determine the rate.

Humor. The use of humor in yearbooks is necessary, but it should not be overdone. Stunt pages depicting life in the school, cartoons, and jokes are the usual forms of humor.

Mechanical features. The success of the yearbook depends to such a great extent on the printing and engraving that care should be exercised in letting contracts. Bids from as many engravers as possible should be secured on an earlier edition of the yearbook, and all clauses of contracts should be carefully scrutinized. The smaller firm will allow larger discounts, but, as engraving is a complicated business, it is wise to select the better engravers at smaller discounts. The printers of the yearbook can give valuable advice in the matter of engraving. The engraver should be directed to make out a complete record and budget sheet for the entire year, and should be required to adhere to it. More money is carelessly spent in engraving than on any other part of the yearbook, and it is important at the beginning to learn from the engraver how money can be saved.

Printing bids should be received from local as well as other printing firms. One of the misfortunes in making yearbooks is the frequent necessity of having the printing done in a local plant that is not equipped for the task. Yearbooks should not be printed on job presses, which cannot do justice to good paper and cuts. Furthermore, firms equipped for yearbook work are usually able to make lower bids.

When engraving and printing contracts have been signed, the adviser, the business manager, and the editor-in-chief should meet with representatives of the contracting firms and plan the year's work. The plans should be recorded in the dummy and then followed scrupulously. With the dummy before them, the adviser and the staff can plan the budget, and they should be careful not to overestimate the funds available from various sources. The dummy should be the work sheet for the staff, and as soon as the materials are ready they should be sent to the engraver and the printer.

A central theme contributes to the effectiveness of the yearbook by supplying unity. In carrying out the theme, photography now plays an important part which was formerly taken by artistic drawings.

Merit in yearbooks. In many of the yearbook contests now held in various parts of the country, prizes are awarded schools of various sizes as classified on the basis of enrollment. These contests are doing a great deal toward the development of superior yearbooks.

It should be remembered that a yearbook's value as a souvenir increases with the passing of the years. The staff should realize the satisfaction derived from an excellent piece of workmanship, and should strive to create the best book their resources will permit.

The School Magazine

The school magazine has been sometimes called a modified yearbook. At least, it is similar to the literary type of yearbook in that its function is to publish student writings. Of all school publications, the magazine has been subjected to the severest criticism. The chief objections that have been raised are:

1. By the time the magazine is published, news items are too old to be of much interest.
2. A month is too long an interval between issues.
3. There is too much extra expense involved in an attempt to make it more than a monthly newspaper.
4. Student interest is low.
5. It is difficult to sell advertising space.
6. Too much filler is used in order to maintain a magazine of conventional size.
7. There are too few student contributions.
8. Financial support is difficult to secure.

Trends in School Publications

In recent years, trends in practices affecting school publications have included the following:

1. *The popularity of the newspaper is on the increase.* More

and more, schoolmen are realizing the great possibilities latent in the newspaper for molding student opinion and keeping the general public informed on the policies and programs of the school. It is perhaps the school's best medium for the purpose.

2. *The popularity of the yearbook is waning.* Slowly, but surely, schoolmen are recognizing the fact that the annual cannot be justified. Merchants are becoming audible in their criticism of the unjustness of the advertising necessitated to finance the book. They pay it, not because it is good advertising, but because they are caught in a situation where it would be most embarrassing not to contribute to the fund being raised to pay for the project.

3. *The practice of making the last issue of the newspaper or the magazine a sort of annual or yearbook is increasing.* By culling out choice bits of writings, selecting attractive pictures, cuts, etc., and laying them away for the last issue of the newspaper or magazine, it is possible to produce a most attractive issue that answers the purpose of the yearbook admirably. This can be done at a nominal cost, to the great delight of the local businessmen.

4. *The handbook is coming into use more and more.* As high schools increase in population, and as they become more and more conscious of the need of an orientation program for entering students, the handbook assumes greater importance.

5. *The tendency to mimeograph and ditto material to replace the printed page is on the increase.* Many schools are turning to the mimeograph as a financial relief and are finding it better, in many respects, than to have everything printed. Besides being cheaper, it offers many opportunities for art work in sketching covers and designs.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What are some of the values to students of participation in school clubs?

2. How can a principal encourage students to take an active part in school clubs?

3. List some of the difficulties in organizing a program of school clubs on a thoroughly democratic basis.

4. Should credit for admission to college be granted for participation in the work of student clubs? Justify your opinion.

5. In schools of your acquaintance, what are some of the policies with regard to school clubs?

6. What types of clubs should be found in a comprehensive club program?

7. What provision, if any, is made in your state for a state-wide program of contests in debating, oratory, and related fields?

8. State the advantages and disadvantages of the nondecision type of debate.

9. Why has the old literary society almost died out in the modern high school?

10. Enumerate the values of extemporaneous debating.

11. Tell of one debate you witnessed in high school, and point out its strengths and weaknesses.

12. Discuss several ways to improve high school debating.

13. Show how English and history classes can be used to great advantage as laboratories for dramatic work.

14. Write out an argument in favor of allowing credit for work in dramatics.

15. How can a pageant be made a splendid agency for developing better school spirit?

16. What would be a good organization for the development and control of dramatics in high school?

17. Can the requirement that all high school students shall take music be justified? Why or why not?

18. Should girls belong to high school bands? State reasons for your answer.

19. Can you justify the school operetta?

20. What are the chief activities of the school festival?

21. Can you justify the state-wide musical concerts where large numbers of students come from the high schools of a whole state to participate?

22. How does music integrate with every subject of the curriculum?

23. If a school could have only one publication, which one should it be? Why?

24. How large should a school be in order to publish an annual? A handbook? A newspaper?

25. What are the arguments for and against the suggestion that the English department of the high school should be held responsible for all publications of the school?

26. How should sponsors for the publications be selected?

27. What are some qualities that the sponsor of the annual should possess?

28. In preparing a handbook, who should compile the material? Why?

29. How strictly should the faculty censor the contents of the various publications?

30. Is it advisable to give credit toward graduation for work on the staff of the school paper? Why or why not?

31. What are some dangers to be guarded against in handling all publications of the school?

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Chapter XVI. COORDINATION OF A PROGRAM OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The Philosophy of Extracurricular Activities

The extracurricular activities program should be based on a sound educational philosophy, with such underlying principles as will result in progressive procedure and well-rounded development of boys and girls. Since intelligent judgment is needed in building this program, as in any other part of the schoolwork, the educator will do well to proceed cautiously, observing the relative value of the curricular and the extracurricular and maintaining a reasonable balance between them.

Extracurricular activities must be dignified in the minds of students and teachers through the administrative program. They should have a place in the daily program, and provision should be made for limiting and encouraging participation, but their interest, joy, and spontaneity, however, must be preserved. This makes it possible to secure interested participation, and will result in an administration in harmony with progressive educational thinking.

Relation of extracurricular activities to society. The philosophical background of extracurricular activities is that of our total educational program. In our conception of equal opportunities for developing individual capacities in such a way as to promote the welfare of society, we are recognizing two major factors of our educational problem, the needs of the individual, and the needs of society. A democratic organization of social life is dynamic in character. The operations of natural laws produce change in the needs of society, and therefore of the individual. As these social changes occur, so

will the extent, character, and objectives of our group activity be modified.

As our conception of life in a democratic society has evolved and our vision of its significance clarified, we have come to regard our social relations as a process of cooperative living in which is to be achieved the greatest expansion of the individual compatible with the fullest development of society. In this process and for this purpose, the individual and the group are in constant interaction, sometimes merging into compact organic unity, at other times apparently diverging into more or less systematic unity, but always interacting and interdependent. Today the youth are gaining insight; tomorrow — with or without it — they will be dominant. The type of growth needed by democracy proceeds best when the individual's experiences are in a social situation and are the result of inner urges and interests. This fullness of living his own life according to his daily needs is the birthright of every student. Moreover, psychology has taught us that the most efficient method of adaptive learning is to exercise a function in situations as nearly as possible like that in which the function is to be used. Today, in our compelled recognition of others in each connection from idea to idea, incident to idea, or idea to conduct, the school must so utilize social situations and inherent tendencies as to maximize the common elements in the student's experiences now and in later life.

Social needs and individual development. It is to meet these conditioning requirements, to serve these purposes, and thereby to magnify its value as an educational institution, that the secondary school stands committed to a progressive program of activities. Such a program is an urgent need in the school's efforts to further individual development and social evolution. In this responsibility, there is a moral demand based on social need for each member of the entire staff to orient himself to his own proper response to the work. This demand satisfied, there will be only such rivalry as is found in emulation which determines who can best act or can best serve.

Some Basic Principles for Organizing and Administering a Program of Extracurricular Activities

The growing demand for training in the practical arts of citizenship has had much to do with the increased interest in extracurricular activities. Here, if correctly evaluated by the school and appropriate to the age of the students, are offered fertile fields for social experience for boys and girls. The school should be a democracy where one learns to live *by living* and whose main purpose it is to make good citizens, not with knowledge only, but also with right ideals and attitudes, and with worthy habits.

If activities within the school are to function at their best, certain underlying principles must be given careful consideration. For administrative purposes, these principles may be outlined under the following main headings: (1) centralization of organization and administration, (2) supervision, (3) scope and participation, and (4) administration.

Centralization. 1. Every extracurricular activity should be chartered by a central representative body composed of students and teachers. Only such activities should be chartered as fulfill some educational purpose.

2. Students, under proper guidance, should share in the responsibilities of developing and guiding the activities.

3. All accounts should be budgeted through the central organization, and a definite and specific means should be provided for checking and disbursing accounts.

4. All activities should be under school direction and control.

Supervision. 1. All activities should be under the guidance and cooperation of the sponsor rather than under his complete direction.

2. The sponsor should be a teacher whose interests, preparation, and intelligently inspired direction fit him to serve as a counselor and guide.

3. Each teacher, as far as possible, should serve as a sponsor of some extracurricular activity both for the guidance of students and for the good effect it will have on the teacher.

4. Favorable working conditions should prevail in order to develop social skills, attitudes, and habits.

Scope and participation. 1. Students should select the activities that satisfy their needs and interests and have educational value.

2. Every student should be allowed to participate in such organized social life as his ability permits.

3. The variety and nature of activities should be determined on the basis of need.

4. It is advisable to limit the number of activities to which any student may belong, keeping in mind the proper balance between curricular and extracurricular load.

Administration. 1. A place in the daily schedule should provide a definite time allotment, thus giving the activities the dignity they deserve.

2. Membership in the activities should be confined to the membership of the school.

3. So far as possible, the high school should be the meeting place for all activities.

Encouraging and Limiting Participation

The teacher's part. The belief on the part of the teachers that the social life of the school furnishes one of the most effective means of securing the ends of secondary education can surely make them better teachers. In an ideal program of extracurricular activities, every teacher would share the responsibility and joy of guidance. It must be recognized, however, that this work makes heavy demands on the time and physical energy of teachers already carrying a full program. It remains, therefore, for the administrator to inspire them to recognize the true values to be derived by the students from an activity program, and to encourage and stimulate them to the point where they become voluntarily interested and ready for active participation.

There are several valuable methods of encouraging teachers to accept the responsibility for the supervision of student organizations. Among these are the following:

1. Special consideration may be given to a teacher's cooperation in extracurricular activities in the rating of his work.

2. The teacher's assignment of class teaching may be reduced one or more periods per day.

3. Teachers may be freed from other work, such as roll call and committees.

4. Teachers may be shown the opportunity to train students in effective school citizenship.

5. Teachers may be convinced of the values of the more intimate contacts with students.

Plainly, an effective educational campaign of some duration is needed, before the introduction of the activities program, to awaken both teachers and students to a realization of the possibilities offered. Inspirational faculty meetings, suggested readings, and personal conferences, with suggestions of the educational values accruing to students and teachers alike, are productive of good results. The use of the assembly, the student council, and home-room discussions also serve as valuable mediums for stimulating and inspiring both teachers and students.

Limiting student participation. Two aspects of student participation in extracurricular activities make it necessary to place a limit on the amount of extra work a student may be permitted to undertake: (1) the enthusiasm of the adolescent for doing extra work and for joining as many organizations as possible, and (2) the desirability of having an appropriate number of students in each activity.

The active student is quite likely to overload himself, attempting more extracurricular work than he can carry successfully, with the probable result of failing to do really well in any field. Some schools arbitrarily permit membership in only one club, on the basis of the one activity period per week. In schools where more than the one weekly period is provided, the problem of limitation definitely arises. This problem may be handled in various ways, such as:

1. Establishing a certain number of clubs as the maximum any pupil may join.

2. Limiting activity on the basis of scholarship, the student being required to pass three fourths of his academic subjects to be permitted to enroll in clubs. This requirement is a debatable one.

3. Limiting on the basis of organization, or points, the student being limited (*a*) to a number of points, (*b*) to a major and a minor, or (*c*) to one activity in each of the various types of clubs, such as scholastic, athletic, or social.

This third type of limitation requires a more complete explanation than the former types, which are quite simple. It is well to consider it in its three forms.

The point system. For those who wish to administer their work on a point system, the following outline may be helpful. The major purposes of a merit point system are:

1. To encourage more students to participate in extracurricular activities, thus training more students in initiative, leadership, use of leisure, and citizenship.

2. To prevent overloading by restricting the number of points per student per semester, depending on his grade of work, either by total points, or by high-point and low-point activities.

3. To distribute more equitably the opportunities for participation. It furnishes a means whereby a few popular students may not become elected or appointed to too many important activities to the exclusion and detriment of others. In this sense, there are three types of activities: (*a*) those on a voluntary basis, as a club; (*b*) those on an elective or appointive basis, as editorship; (*c*) those in which the student "tries out." In other words, it may be that the student does not participate because he does not want to, he is not elected, or he does not have the requisite skill or technique.

4. To develop and maintain higher standards in the activities entered. The sense of mastery, high type of achievement, or success in a few things is better than mediocre work or failure in many things.

5. To establish a uniform basis for granting a credit, either for student record, for graduation, or both. Most employers

are more interested in qualities, attitudes, aptitudes, interests, and a general level of mental attainment than in specific subject marks. If extra credit for graduation is permitted or required on an activity basis, such a record is necessary.

6. To aid in the selection of honor students. Activity participation and contribution is as valuable in selecting honor students as is Latin or trigonometry.

The points given to each activity are arbitrarily set by the group in control of activities. This group should include representative students. The limitations may be prescribed on points alone, as is done by some schools, or by limiting the points to types of activities, as is done by other schools.

The major-minor system. In the major-minor system, each student is limited to two majors, or to one major and two or three minors. Points may be given for each major and each minor, and thus a modification of the merit point system is developed.

The group system. In the group system, extracurricular activities are grouped under various heads, such as athletics, academic, arts, social, and others. Participation is limited to one activity in each group, although the number of groups may be limited. The aim in this system is to lead the student to widen his range of interests and to prevent premature specialization.

Additional ratings. Each student should also be marked by his immediate student superior — president or chairman, for example — and by his sponsor. In a system used quite often, "A" indicates unusual dependability and responsibility, and work well done, while "B" indicates average quality and mediocre work, and "C" indicates lack of dependability and responsibility, and work poorly done.

Combined values. The combined records give credit where it is due, impress students with the feeling that strict responsibility is a part of the activity chosen, furnish both the student officers and the sponsors with a means of appraising individual members, and provide a basis for student as well as faculty appraisal in the selection of honor students.

Low-point activities. Finally, it is well to have some activities of low-point or subminor value from which no students are excluded, regardless of academic scholarship, in order that all may engage in this phase of social life. No training for citizenship in a democracy could be much worse than isolation from group life because of academic failure. Also, it may be well to have a subcommittee of the activities council, or a student-teacher activities committee, devise an equitable plan, make adjustments, hear complaints and requests, and allow extra credits or place limitations. Through it all, it must be remembered that a nicety of administration is but a means to the end of serving the interests of the individual and of society.

Distribution of participation. The second aspect of limitation has to do with the number of participants that is most appropriate to any organization. Probably, no definite limit can be placed, since much depends on sponsor ability, type of students, interest, and local conditions. The size of the room and the amount of equipment control the number of participants in some activities. One all-school period in classrooms which accommodate 30 students would limit the size of groups. Probably, no one limitation would be usable in all schools, and the general practice seems to indicate that no definite limitation is placed.

Limitation is concerned not with prohibition of membership, but with the amount of participation. The tendency not to limit the numbers who join shows a widespread desire of educational authorities to honor democratic spirit in the organized social life of adolescents. Some of the principles that should govern limitations are:

1. Every student should be allowed to engage in whatever organized social activity his ability permits.
2. The program should encourage the successful participation of many students.
3. The kind and amount of work the organizations do should be considered.
4. The program should provide adequate opportunity for students to explore many fields of interest.

5. Noninterested, preoccupied, and indifferent students, lacking energy and initiative, should be encouraged to participate. They need some encouragement to arouse them to a realization of the social and moral values of extracurricular activities.

Distribution of values. In a democratic organization, an effort should be made to distribute the values of extracurricular activities to as many as possible, that is, to offer opportunity to all for discovering aptitudes and fostering interests. The giving of credit toward graduation dignifies the extracurricular activities, thereby adding to their worth-whileness and to the results accomplished. Awards of material evidence of participation are sometimes made by giving recognition through school honor rolls, or through articles in school and local papers. Other and more concrete evidences of successful participation are given in some schools in the form of such awards as pins, medals, certificates, or letters.

Supervision and Credits

The extracurricular activities period. The organization of extracurricular activities is a conscious effort on the part of the school to afford outlets for the gregarious instinct of the adolescent and to train him in a measure for the worthy use of leisure. A definite time allotment for activities in the daily schedule is one of the important factors in the success of an extracurricular program.

Activities may be scheduled during the regular school day, the number of periods per week varying from one to five according to the amount of recognition to be given. Periods vary from 15 minutes to the length of the regular class period. Sometimes this period is the last in the day, quite often on Friday afternoon, which provides opportunity for activities involving field trips. Another plan provides for hours of meeting for some organizations during the school day and allows others to meet after school. A program of this sort offers longer periods after school to such activities as may require it, but it may limit participation to those students who can

remain after school. A third plan of scheduling provides for all group activities after school. This arrangement occurs most frequently in smaller schools, where it appears that the school day has not been planned effectively in terms of the real needs of all students. Under this system, many students are practically excluded from the benefits of this type of training.

The director of extracurricular activities. The success of the activities program depends largely on the wisdom, foresight, sympathy, and enthusiasm of the principal and those delegated by him to carry it out. In the large high school, the principal needs the assistance of at least one faculty member, who is usually called the "director of activities" or the "extracurricular teacher."

The position is a specialized one of great importance and high requirements. The director should be an educator of rare ability because he has teachers to educate. A desirable procedure for the principal would be to organize a faculty committee on activities which, under the chairmanship of the director, would help determine policies, suggest programs, and in other ways shape the activities schedule. This committee should therefore be composed of those teachers who are highly respected by the faculty and who are interested in activities.

The director should be selected with great care. He should be a person with a clear-cut conception of the place of extracurricular activities in the modern school program. He is an administrative officer, responsible for the administration and control of all extracurricular activities. His work puts him in touch with all of the students. Therefore, he is concerned with plans for interesting every student and encouraging participation in worth-while activities. The important relationship of the director to the students calls for a person who is popular with them. He must be a leader, a teacher, a counselor, a friend. The best educational and professional preparation, a pleasing personality, sympathy, unbounded enthusiasm, ability, vision, a sound knowledge of psychology, and a keen appreciation of human nature are requirements for this position.

The teacher as a sponsor. No activities program can play a useful part in the life of the school without earnest, intelligent, and inspired direction from the teaching staff. If teachers are indifferent, few activities will be organized. If favorable working conditions are not established, even the greatest earnestness and intelligence will scarcely enable teachers to develop in students the desired social skills and attitudes. The function of the teacher-sponsor is that of a counselor. His better judgment and experience should be capitalized for the good of the organization. He is responsible for the organization of a particular activity, its program, its aims, and its plans. Certain principles should therefore govern the selection and appointment of a sponsor:

1. Their selection is the most important single factor in the successful operation of any student organization.
2. They should be appointed by the principal, who should first take into account their qualifications.
3. Volunteer sponsors who have caught the vision are, as a rule, more successful than those pressed into service.
4. Selection should be determined, to a certain extent, on the basis of subject-matter interests, although teachers are rapidly losing the old-time idea that they should confine their interests to subject matter alone.
5. The importance of experience, aptitudes, and training which would fit teachers for activities work should not be overlooked.

Credits for graduation. An increasing number of schools require for graduation a certain number of points, majors and minors, or groups, such units being added to those already required for curricular work. The advisability of the requirement is a disputed question. Some authorities say that this type of experience is even more fundamental than academic training. They hold that every student should participate not merely in one activity but in several, and that he should accomplish a certain qualitative result. Others hold that, with this view, all of the original eagerness, spontaneity, buoyant initiative, and enthusiasm in activity programs are destroyed.

Perhaps neither view is entirely correct or totally wrong. The former is really focused on subject matter rather than on the student; the latter will lead ultimately to a glorified exuberance of sentimentality. The two extremes must be harmonized to meet local conditions and individual differences of pupils. The best plan is perhaps one which gives every student ample opportunity to engage in such activities as he needs, in which the wise procedure of the administration and the skill of sponsors will make unnecessary the "thou shalt" of the school, except when all other means fail. It appears that when this final force is necessary, the school itself has not entirely succeeded. Moreover, some exigencies may arise to nullify individual cases of required activities credit. Therefore, regulation should be sufficiently flexible to permit some exceptions. Lest this offer consolation to the inertia of administrators and sponsors, it must be remembered that the aim is not a comfortable local procedure, but the setting up of the best administrative means, based on research and appraisal, for meeting the local situation and for carrying out the ideal embodied in the term extracurricular activities.

Activity Record Card

It is evident that if a principal is going to keep a close tab on all the details of the extracurricular program, he must have in his central office a complete system of records. Many schools are developing such a set in connection with their activities program. Obviously, each set developed will be adapted to the philosophy of the program in operation at the school.

The junior-senior high school at Winfield, Kansas, has developed a good set of activity record cards.[1] The Activity Record card for the senior high school is presented on the next two pages.

A study of this card shows that all the activities in the program have been recognized, classified under certain headings,

[1] E. E. Evans, *The Answer Book*, published by the Junior-Senior High School at Winfield, Kansas.

ACTIVITY RECORD CARD

WINFIELD SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

No._____

Merit Points

From Previous Cards

This Card.....

Total Points.....

Leave Blank

Pupil's Name..... Class..... Date..... 19.....

Activity See reverse side of card	Indicate here the nature and date of activity, time involved in carrying it out, and the amount of work done.	Rating by immediate student superior. (Chairman, etc.) See below. Rating by faculty sponsor. See below.

"A" for unusual responsibility and work well done.
"B" for average qualities and mediocre work.
"C" for lack of responsibility and dependability, and work poorly done.

(over)

The following list gives the maximum number of merit points that may be earned in the various activities of the school. Eighty points may be presented at the end of senior year for one unit of credit in extra-curricular activities. (Forty points for one-half credit, etc.) Each year the eight seniors having the highest number of points shall receive a school citizenship emblem, providing each has a minimum of 160 points, 80 of which have been won in activities for which no award is given.

Student Council	
Student President	25
Secretary	12
Other Officers	8
Representative	8
Class	
Senior President	14
Junior President	12
Sophomore President	12
Other Officers	8
Lead in Play	9
Part in Play	6
Society	
President	14
Other Officers	8
Lead in Play	9
Part in Play	6
Part in Programs	3
Y. W. C. A. and Hi-Y.	
President	16
Other Officers	8
Lead in Play	9
Part in Play	6
Home Room	
President (one semester)	5
Secretary (one semester)	4
Other Officers (one semester)	3
Basket Ball Team	5
Volley Ball Team	5
Program	2
Inter-Society	
Inter-Society Basket Ball	5
Inter-Society Track	5
Inter-Society Tennis	5
Inter-Society Baseball	5
Other Inter-Society Contests	8

Basketball, Football, Track, Tennis, and Golf	
Captain of First Team	14
First Team	12
Captain of Second Team	11
Second Team	10
Representatives in Scholarship	12
Debate Team	12
Second Debate Team	8
Representatives in Music and Forensic Contests	12
Stock Judging Team	12
Representatives in Typewriting	12
Miscellaneous	
Cheer Leader	12
Assembly Program	3
Chairman of Standing Committee (Major Organization)	8
Members of Standing Committee (Major Organization)	7
Chairman of Temporary Com.	4
Member of Temporary Com.	3
Minor Club Officers	5
Managers (Stage, Property, Business)	6

Any other activity which involves responsibility — not in connection with work for which credit is given — may count for points. Twenty-one points in music is maximum for one year.

and assigned certain definite numerical values. This makes it possible to strike a total and work toward a definite goal. It also makes it possible for the principal and his faculty to set up a system of majors and minors, or groups.

Financial Administration

The problem. With the almost phenomenal growth of the extracurricular activities program in the high school during recent years, there has appeared a great increase in the number of different accounts and funds that have no regular place in the accounting systems of the schools. The aggregates of these funds now form totals so large that administrators must find adequate means of supervising and handling them.

The problem becomes all the more acute when we realize that, where these activities programs have sprung into existence almost entirely unsupervised, each of the many organizations has its own peculiar methods of accounting. In such cases, records and vouchers that exist are difficult of access when wanted; proper audits are generally impossible. Through carelessness or lack of integrity, thousands of dollars of these funds are lost yearly. Students go from such schools trained in lax and irresponsible methods of handling public funds. Balances of prosperous organizations are spent ill-advisedly, while other activities go bankrupt. Worst of all, young students in these schools are constantly subjected to, and sometimes yield to, the temptation to misappropriate funds. From these and other conditions, there arises a fourfold problem. The finances of the student activities in high school should be so supervised and managed that:

1. Their management will serve to train students in the systematic handling of accounts, in assuming the full responsibility for financial obligations incurred, and in integrity in all money matters.

2. A wise, economical, and honest expenditure of funds will be assured.

3. The principal will be able at any time to inform himself

immediately of the financial status of any or all of these activities.

4. Legitimate, feasible, and economical methods of supporting these activities will be provided.

It is to be noted that this discussion deals only with the funds of the extracurricular activities, and not such other funds in an internal accounting system as income from the cafeteria and the bookstore.

Sources of the funds. The sources of the income for these activities have, historically, been almost as miscellaneous as the activities themselves. Every game, debate, entertainment, play, lecture, class dance, or publication had its own separate sale of tickets or drive for funds. Other activities met their needs by fees, assessments, various kinds of sales, tag days, carnivals, and donations. These and similar devices too numerous to mention are still in vogue in many high schools. But, the demands that these drives and collections make upon the time and energies of the students, together with the irritation they cause and the disrepute into which they often bring the activity concerned, combine to make a more satisfactory method of support necessary. Two possible solutions to this problem are emerging from many chaotic attempts to solve it.

Public funds. One solution is based on the argument that these activities are as much a part of the educative process as the teaching of mathematics or language, and have, therefore, a right to their share of the public tax money for support. Of course, many activities are by their nature revenue producing, and need little or no financial assistance. Others are wholly, or at least largely, dependent on outside sources of income. But, if these activities are worth carrying on at all, they are worthy of support, and each should be subsidized by the board of education, at least to such an extent as to ensure their maintenance without forcing the faculty and students to expend too much time and effort upon the income-producing features of the activities.

Unfortunately, boards of education have not all come to

this way of thinking. In the meantime, how is this financial problem to be solved? The activity ticket has been used with considerable success.

Activity ticket. The activity ticket is sold to the student at the opening of the term, and will give him admission to a given number of activities or events during the year — say 30. The income from these tickets is apportioned at once to the various activities in some previously agreed ratio. This fund forms the basis for the activity's budget for that term. When the student wishes to go to some school function, he takes his activity ticket to the proper person, has it punched, and receives in return a student ticket for the event. For many of these events, adult tickets are sold in the regular way.

This method has several advantages. It eliminates the necessity of high-pressure drives during school. It gives each organization an assured basic fund upon which to formulate its budget for the term. It brings out larger attendance to school functions, as students like to get the full value for their payment. Furthermore, the cost to the student per function is less than it was under the old plan. In one school having an enrollment of 175 students, the activity ticket is sold for $5.00 if it is paid for in $1.00 installments once a month, or for $4.50 cash. The events represented would cost the student $17.00 if they were paid for in single admissions.

But even more important than the collection of funds is the handling of funds after they are collected. This involves the other three phases of the problem, which will be treated together.

Types of organization for financial control. Schools may organize for financial control by providing an auditing system for checking the records of the organizations, or by providing any one of several systems for controlling the funds more directly.

The audit. The audit system leaves the actual handling of the funds with the organizations, but provides for a complete audit. Definite regulations may be set up for both the organizations and the auditors, to assure common and continuous

practices. The audit is much better than no control at all. However, it is still better to have a more direct control of the funds, retaining at the same time the audit, which may be made by the school auditor or by some other qualified person.

Direct financial control. There are three common systems of direct financial control of the various organizations by the school authorities. They are: (1) control through the administrative office; (2) control through a faculty sponsor, preferably from the commercial department; and (3) control through a school bank, where one is in operation. Formal plans and regulations may be set up, but circumstances in the various schools will modify the plan. Each of these systems calls for a central agency to control all the funds of all the organizations, this agency to be in charge of a person whom we shall term the financial secretary. It is not recommended that this financial secretary be an administrator or a member of the office staff, for obviously this would remove the possibility of making the financial administration a school project with students assisting. Either the bank or the business manager of the board of education is still the final depository of the funds, but the funds go through the financial secretary to this depository.

Blanks and forms. Many schoolmen feel a need for assistance in finding the proper blanks or forms to carry on this program of financial control. A number of the educational supply companies have suitable forms for sale.

The finance committee. Since the modern high school almost always has a legislative body of some sort, the finance committee occupies an advisory position. It should concern itself with all phases of extracurricular finance: sources, budgeting, accounting, and auditing. The finance committee should be representative of all school activities, students, and faculty. It should have representation in the legislative body and probably should be sponsored by the financial secretary.

The finance committee is of vital importance. Its sincerity of purpose and efficiency largely determine the success of the financial program of the school activities. However, the prin-

cipal, as the head of the school, must still assume responsibility for the success of the whole program.

The budget. The budget will need some time for adjustment. Few know just how much of the total income from activity tickets each organization is entitled to use. Estimates of needs may be made by each organization, and the whole brought together for adjustment. Each organization, having been assigned its portion of the funds, should in turn budget its expenses for the year with a strict understanding that any excess must be first brought before the finance committee for consideration, together with an approved plan for meeting the extra expense.

Evaluating a Program of Extracurricular Activities

An interested, alert principal seeks ways to evaluate his pupil activity program. He is eager to know whether he has the right organization set up, and whether it is functioning in a desirable and efficient manner.

There has been a growing recognition among educators of a need for some objective means of evaluating the program in its general administrative aspects. Practical school administrators are asking such questions as these: What is the faculty's part in a well-organized program? What are the functions the principal is to perform? How much advance planning should be done? Should the faculty be trained specifically for their places in the program? How is the activity program related to guidance? What are the earmarks of a good assembly? How should a club program be organized?

Thirty criteria which can be used by anyone endeavoring to evaluate a program of activities follow: [1]

1. A definite time allotment should be provided in the regular school day for an activity program.

2. The principal is responsible for the leadership of all activities, and should have a veto power on all matters and decisions pertaining to them.

[1] Basil T. Welch and Joseph Roemer, "Evaluating an Extracurricular Program," *Peabody Reflector and Alumni News*, X (March, 1937), 102.

3. Each organization should be sponsored by a member of the faculty, appointed by the principal.

4. All extracurricular activity meetings should be attended by one or more sponsors.

5. Students should be allowed to elect their club activities under proper supervision.

6. Activity membership should be limited by the approved rules of the school.

7. Membership should be limited to regular students. Students severing their connection with the school should cease to be members of all organizations.

8. Students desiring to form an activity organization should secure the approval of the principal.

9. All meetings must be held in the school building unless special permission is obtained from the principal.

10. Money handled by all organizations should be checked by sponsors, who in turn must account to a general treasurer in accordance with forms and procedures devised by the principal.

11. Provision should be made in the school budget for defraying the necessary expenses of the student activity program.

12. Each class should be organized for aiding the administration in caring for matters pertaining to their group, for social purposes, and for participating more effectively in the larger school programs.

13. Office holding should be limited to prevent overloading popular students, and to give others a chance to develop their abilities.

14. The school should limit the number of organizations to which a student may belong, permitting no student to belong to more than one organization in any one group at any given time.

15. Each activity unit should have a written constitution or code of rules indicating its name, purpose, membership, method of electing officers, officers' duties, and other necessary matters.

16. The school council in cooperation with the principal of the school should have developed a "point system" or its equivalent for crediting and evaluating the part of each student in the activity program.

17. An activity record for every student in school should be kept and made a part of the student's official school record.

18. The activities and programs of clubs, home rooms, and assemblies should be arranged in advance for an entire semester, as far as possible.

19. Faculty members should be trained in directing student activities and should be willing to cooperate in activity work; methods should be devised for stimulating faculty growth in the student activity program.

20. There should be a sufficient variety of democratically conducted clubs in each school to meet the needs of the entire student body; they should be organized around student interest, seeking to encourage self-expression by all students, and to develop the service and citizenship ideals of the school.

21. Provision should be made in each school for an adequate home-room program through which each student may receive guidance in social, moral, and avocational matters; a short period should be provided each day for routine and administrative details, aside from the regular home room guidance period.

22. Each school should provide for an assembly, meeting at a regularly scheduled time at least once each week; these programs should be characterized by student leadership and participation by giving to the students definite entertainment, instruction, cultural, and inspirational values.

23. The athletic program in each school should be characterized by team play and student participation rather than exploitation of individuals or groups; the program should not interfere with the regular school program or with other school activities.

24. School publications should be provided in all schools in the form of school newspapers, handbooks, magazines, and articles in local newspapers; the "annual" may be used in the form of a practical yearbook or special edition of the school newspaper at the end of the year.

25. Definite provision in each school should be made for dramatics in the form of plays, pageants, carnivals, debating, or other forms of self-expression.

26. Secret fraternities or societies should not be permitted among the students of the school.

27. Some form of student participation in school control should be provided whereby the students may participate in the government of the school and learn citizenship by practicing it.

28. The school should provide honor organizations and systems of awarding honors.

29. Definite provision should be made for musical activities and operettas in the activity program.

30. Commencement exercises should be characterized by student participation portraying school and community life.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Why have principals been reluctant to recognize the educative values of the extracurricular activities?

2. In what ways should the extracurricular activities in high school differ from those in the elementary school or the college?

3. If high scholarship is required for participation in interscholastic athletics, should it also be required for participation in hobby clubs, dramatic productions, school publications, and the like? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Is training for leadership closely tied up with the extracurricular program? Justify your opinion.

5. Should credit in extracurricular activities be required for high school graduation? Why or why not?

6. How may the extracurricular activities be employed as aids in a well-rounded guidance program in the high school?

7. Show how the commercial department can handle the extracurricular finances of the school as "laboratory material" for the department.

8. What are the arguments in favor of budgeting the entire extracurricular activities income of the schools?

9. Discuss the advantages accruing to the students in a school where they have a large share in handling the finances of all extracurricular activities.

10. What are the dangers involved in letting each student treasurer keep the funds of his particular pupil organization?

11. State arguments for and against a student activity ticket.

12. Do you favor the subsidizing by the board of education of all extracurricular activities? Give reasons for your answer.

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DIVISION FOUR

Providing for the Improvement of Instruction

Chapter XVII. THE CURRICULUM

The Broadened Curriculum

At about the turn of the century, a movement for the reorganization of secondary education began. This movement may be described as an attempt to incorporate the contributions to instruction of such fields as psychology, sociology, and hygiene, and to arrive at a sound philosophy of secondary education. The statements on the "Social-Economic Goals of America" and the "Issues" and "Functions of Secondary Education" which are summarized in Chapter II, and the present activity in curriculum improvement, may be regarded as a result of the reorganization movement.

No phase of secondary education is more significant and far-reaching than the administration of the curriculum. The emphasis on the curriculum during recent years indicates that administrators are becoming conscious of its importance. From 1930 to 1937, about 28 per cent of the reports listed in the U. S. Office of Education bibliographies of research studies dealt specifically with the curriculum. A prewar survey[1] indicated that programs for curriculum development were under way in over seven tenths of the cities above 25,000 population, in nearly half of the school systems in communities of from 5,000 to 25,000 and in a third of the systems in communities of less than 5,000. The end of the war saw most of this activity speedily renewed.

The schools demonstrated an amazingly effective flexibility of adjustment to the demands of war. Many intensive preinduction courses were effectively operated at the request of the armed services and a considerable reorganization of objectives

[1] *Education Digest*, III (February, 1938), 62.

and subject content was made through the High School Victory Corps program prepared under the direction of the Office of Education and the Armed forces.

Accelerated courses enabled boys to obtain diplomas before induction. Credit for military service, for service schools, for correspondence courses, and through "General Tests of Educational Development" was largely realized according to a universal plan worked out by the American Council on Education, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the United States Armed Forces Institute.

The industrial arts departments, trade schools, and Smith-Hughes courses contributed to the specific training of youth and adults for war work with remarkable effectiveness. The vocational schools of the country from 1940 through the war trained in short intensive courses a total of about 12,000,000 war workers. Work experience, and cooperative and special part-time plans of school organization, contributed untold hours of youth labor to local needs.

The dominant query at the end of the war was how much of all this would be retained, or to what degree would school curriculums be permanently affected.

It seems evident that most of the special arrangements were dropped at once. Distortions which had worried many educators were immediately wiped out. There seemed to remain a larger appreciation of the need for curriculum flexibility, for methods and materials more suited to the needs and abilities of youth, a wider recognition of the values of work experience outside the school, more adequate provisions for technical training, a more functional approach to citizenship and health education, and a much closer affiliation of school and community.

A quick renewal of local and state-wide attacks upon the curriculum problem followed the end of the war. Soon administrators came to realize that the remaking of the curriculum and the program of studies remains a constant challenge and that the war had left relatively little change in the basic structure.

The Program of Studies

The curriculum offerings. The traditional academic subjects still form the nucleus of most secondary school curriculums. This fact is largely explained by college entrance requirements. In the past five decades, however, many subjects have been added to the traditional base. The high school administrator must face, as one of his most important problems, the allocation of the various subjects upon some reasonable basis of recognition and balance. A brief résumé of the curriculum field should point the direction for further study and practical application.

Practical arts. One of the first of the nonacademic subjects added to the curriculum was manual arts, which has since developed in more specialized forms, culminating in the fully organized and separate trade school.

There has developed a marked differentiation in the organization of the practical arts subjects at two levels: (1) those for general treatment and exploratory use in the junior high school, and (2) those planned definitely for specific industrial training in the senior high school. The general shop, with its many opportunities for adjustment to the interests and abilities of individual pupils, has become a feature of the high school. Another variation in the junior high school is the organization of a number of short-term exploratory courses in practical arts, with opportunity for the pupil to sample all of them, in preparation for wise selection of an intensive course to be followed in the senior high school.

Vocational education. For some time, there seemed to be a tendency to consider all practical arts as opposed to vocational education and to develop vocational education as something apart from general education. However, the current trend is to recognize that the objectives of vocational and general education are, to a large extent, similar and that all curriculum materials dealing with occupational life are a part of vocational education.

For administrative purposes, the practical arts are now often

considered part of the general curriculum, with the general shop and arts and crafts emphasized. Specialization is gradually being postponed to grades beyond the tenth. Beginning courses are serving more as general education. Some attention is directed to the development of skills and attitudes necessary to entrance into the industrial vocations. There is some indication that specialization for given trades may gradually be advanced to the last year of the senior high school and on to the junior college. At the same time, it is recognized that for a certain small number of students earlier preparation for the realities of occupational work may well be justified.

In large industrial centers, vocational education in trade schools seems to fill a need. Such schools as the Milwaukee Vocational School, the Chicago Washburne Trade School, and similar schools in practically all the large cities are interesting and effective examples of specialization in vocational education.

Home economics. In the field of practical arts for girls, home economics has taken the lead. Originally a general course combining the elements of cooking and sewing, the field has now developed to include a variety of specialized courses. Basic courses are still given, largely in the junior high school. In the upper three grades of the high school, intensive courses are given in a large number of such different phases of home economics as foods, clothing, dressmaking, design, interior decoration, millinery, home management, home hygiene and nursing, child care, home finance, textiles, dyeing and dry cleaning, tailoring, dietetics, bacteriology, household physics, and household chemistry.

There is a current trend to integrate home economics with general fields of human activity such as a core of "human relationships," or "arts in living." There is an increasing tendency to extend various pupil activities into the home and the community.

Business and commerce. The subjects in the field of business and commerce offer another illustration of the wide development of practical subjects. There is large demand in high schools for commercial subject matter. Diversification

and specialization are influencing the organization of the various courses. A business orientation course, called general business training, has had a pronounced development in the ninth grade. Its exploratory functions are used as a means of directing students into the intensive courses of the senior high school.

There is some tendency apparently to postpone the more specific courses, such as stenography and bookkeeping, to the later years of the senior high school or to the junior college. The traditional commercial courses are being influenced by the emphasis on general integration, while the skills and functions that are intimately related to satisfactory adjustment in business activity are being increasingly coordinated by practice in the community.

The George-Deen Act, giving federal and state aid to certain courses and activities, is encouraging a rather large development of school and community relationships in this field.

Fine arts. For the most part, the work in music has developed from the old-fashioned group singing to large and varied activities in vocal and instrumental groups. School bands and orchestras are emphasized in the junior high school and extend throughout the senior high school. There has been a large increase recently in the teaching of instrumental classes. Music appreciation, harmony, and the theory and history of music have made much less relative progress.

Attempts to integrate music and the school as a whole, and to make it a part of the efforts in fusion and core treatments, are increasingly evident.

Free-hand drawing remains the basic form of art work in most schools. Many schools offer a four-year curriculum in free-hand drawing. The latter subject has greatly widened its scope in the majority of schools, and under its heading are offered varied opportunities in design, modeling, leatherwork, block printing, scene design, costume design, pottery making, and jewelry making. Many of these subjects are also offered as special courses in a large number of schools. A few schools

require a basic art appreciation course, usually offered in the ninth grade. Like music, art has a recognized place in the curriculum. Variety in methods, in types of courses, and in activities in art is increasing.

The newer curriculum organizations provide more adequately for the fine arts. However, the fact that many students are enrolled in several academic courses limits the time they devote to fine arts activities. Schools with little demand for college preparation may meet this problem of time for the fine arts with comparative ease.

Physical education and health. In most schools, physical education did not receive major emphasis until after the World War. A majority of the states have now passed laws requiring school recognition and practice of physical education activities. World War II renewed the emphasis with larger effect. Laws which increased the recognition of physical education and health were either amended or added. A new emphasis has also entered the field through the increased recognition of related health problems. It is evident, too, that athletic sports are gradually being incorporated as an integral part of the physical education program.

Secondary school teachers generally have not realized the importance of health instruction, and many principals and superintendents have not provided adequate programs in this field. Beginnings have been made by allowing some time for health instruction in general science and biology courses, and other attempts have been made to correlate the work with home economics. A small number of schools have in the ninth grade a separate required health course. Many schools, however, are beginning to realize that it is the physical education courses that offer the largest opportunity for practical, functioning, health instruction. Much of this dawning realization is due to the recent training of the physical education teachers in all phases of school health work. The position of these teachers as exponents of the best all-round physical development naturally gives them a strategic position in the teaching, and especially in the application, of health informa-

tion and practices. Another significant trend in this work is the increasing recognition of mental health and of the need for a wise and adequate treatment of both the mental and the physical aspects of health.

New emphasis on social studies. One of the most noticeable developments in the subject-matter field has been the reorganization of the social studies. Once this field included only a few sharply defined courses in various periods of history. Recently, it has come to include social civics, vocational civics, economics, sociology, psychology, commercial and human geography, problems of democracy, personal and social problems, human living, and many other variations in titles and organization of content. Perhaps the most interesting and significant phase of this growth has been the emphasis on civic and individual applications. The social studies are becoming the school laboratories for the development and control of citizenship within the school itself. The administration of this phase of the curriculum, through all of the desirable correlated activities, is one of the most significant responsibilities of the high school executive.

Character education. The secondary school has always, to some degree, recognized the importance of character training. Critics of the older methods, however, say that such training usually has been both accidental and incidental. The inference follows that such treatment accounts for much lost opportunity and lack of functioning in the training of character.

Out of this latter view has grown a new school of thought in regard to the methods of teaching character. As a result, a number of definite courses of character materials have been offered through home-room instruction periods. The so-called case-conference method, in which specific case problems of human behavior are a regular part of civics, for example, has been used by certain schools. Other schools have made varied attempts to correlate character content through a number of the academic subjects. Theoretically, it is said, all subjects of the curriculum should give definite and important place to character teaching with attention to specific applications in life.

Consumer education. The lean years of the depression had created the first real school interest in the problems of the consumer, and the shortages enforced by World War II brought additional concern and some curriculum recognition. The one-time rather widely used thrift or banking plans largely disappeared and these to some extent were replaced by consumer education.

Schools of Brookline, Massachusetts, offer the older type of courses in school banking that have served as a model for similar courses in a number of secondary schools. The course is reported to be effective in teaching students to use money intelligently, and to get them into the habit of saving. The general aims of the course are: (1) systematic habit formation, (2) the control of money uses through budgeting, (3) the control of money reserves through safe investing, (4) the cultivation of a proper sense of values, (5) the creation of interest in making the most of what one has rather than in the ill-satisfying pastime of keeping up with others, and (6) a growing understanding of the fact that money should not be an end in itself, but rather, when wisely used, a means toward realizing and enjoying the highest and finest things in life.

Today, the great majority of administrators see the need for consumer education. A number of schools are carrying on experiments in teaching intelligent purchasing and in consumer problems generally. The commercial, social studies, science, and home economics departments have all given some emphasis to consumer problems. In some schools, courses in consumer education are offered.

As a result of newness and uncertainty, consumer education in the secondary schools is in a chaotic condition.[1] The National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Better Business Bureau have been making jointly since 1940 the most comprehensive and promising study of consumer education ever attempted. For the first time, an adequate interpretation of the character and place of consumer education

[1] R. G. Walters, "Consumer Education," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (January, 1938), 23–29.

in schools has been defined and set forth. A comprehensive series of booklets for school use has been published and may be obtained from the Consumer Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Conservation education. During recent years, the secondary schools have given much emphasis to conservation education. As in the case of consumer education, various experiments have been tried. Some schools offer separate courses on conservation; others attempt to correlate conservation instruction with other courses. In almost every school, some school activity deals with conservation. A recent article [1] proposes three points of attack: (1) teach a few units dealing largely with conservation in the local community, (2) stage campaigns each year to establish an interest in conservation problems, and (3) set up school activities dealing with conservation to serve as a medium through which proper civic attitudes can be developed.

The director of educational work in the Forest Service of the United States Department of Agriculture proposes four general objectives for conservation education: [2] (1) to replace much of the sentimentalism about conservation with facts and understanding, (2) to develop the realization that conservation must be considered as dependent on natural laws, (3) to transmit knowledge of the kinds of activities in which man engages in conservation, and (4) to realize that conservation implies some sort of public control.

Safety education. Each year, more than 105,000 lives are sacrificed and over 10,000,000 persons injured as the result of accidents. In recent years, the deaths from traffic accidents alone have totaled more than 40,000 annually. A country-wide wave of interest in safety education has resulted in the publication of many courses of study and textbooks on safety, in the provision of courses and conferences by colleges and universities to train teachers to offer safety instruction, in the distribution of

[1] Frank Jones Clark, "High Schools in Conservation," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (January, 1938), 11–13.

[2] W. P. Beard, "Objectives of Conservation Education," *ibid.*, pp. 14–18.

motion pictures dealing with safety, and in the enactment of laws requiring the teaching of safety.

In some schools, separate courses on safety education have been started. In others, safety is taught as a part of many courses. Health and physical education courses have been advanced as especially suitable for inclusion of all phases of safety. Home-room periods are being devoted to safety activities, and pupil organizations and leaders are making functional applications. In a number of schools, students issue their own handbooks on safety education.

Many schools have extended their safety programs throughout the entire community. A few schools now offer driver training and safety education courses practically applied by the use of dual-controlled automobiles. Certificates are given when a certain degree of skill is gained. In Evanston, Illinois, this same course is offered by the school to adults.

Secondary school administrators throughout the country have recognized the great need for safety instruction and are giving administrative and curricular attention to the problem. According to one authority on safety education, an unfortunate tendency in safety instruction is that, in most courses of study, traffic safety alone is included. "The complete high school program should include all phases of safety — swimming and water safety, fire prevention, home accidents, the school shops, athletics, recreation, and others. Let us not be satisfied with traffic safety alone. This is just one phase of the total accident picture." [1]

Distributive education. An entirely new field to be emphasized by secondary education is that of distributive education. An increasing number of states are appointing directors of distributive education in their state departments of education. Distributive occupations are those concerned with: (1) distributing to consumers, retailers, jobbers, wholesalers, and others, the products of farm and industry; and (2) managing, operating, or conducting a commercial service or personal

[1] Herbert J. Stack, "Safety Education in Our High Schools," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (April, 1938), 29–34.

service business, or selling the service of such a business. A vocational distributive subject is one involving a discussion or presentation of the specific working practices of a distributive occupation for the purpose of increasing the skill, technical knowledge, occupational information, or judgment of workers engaged in that specific occupation. A course closely related to those dealing with distributive education is "cooperative marketing," which is finding its way into the curriculums of a number of secondary schools. A course in cooperative marketing in North Dakota high schools was provided for by the 1937 session of the legislature.

Visual and auditory education. The armed services learned much from school experimentation with audio-visual aids, and in turn, the schools have much to learn from the significant development made in this field by the armed services. As the student comes into contact with the radio, motion picture, billboards, charts, graphs, tables, etc., in his daily living, the real problem is to direct such instruction toward socially beneficial purposes. There are more than 25,000,000 radios in this country, and an average of 70,000,000 persons attend picture shows each week. Both theatrical films, attended by over 15,000,000 persons between the ages of fifteen and twenty-one each week, and the educational films in common use by secondary schools have a large influence on the interests, attitudes, appreciations, activities, and habits of pupils. The radio, as well as other auditory devices, has an important contribution to make to the education of boys and girls. Both radio and motion pictures affect the emotional life of adolescents.

The tendency in the larger schools is to set up a visual-auditory department whose purpose is to coordinate, direct, and stimulate the work in visual and auditory education. In some cities, such as New York and Chicago, the work in the secondary schools is coordinated by a department for the city schools which also serves as a central distributing center for materials and equipment. State boards of education and state universities also act as agencies in the distribution of visual and auditory aids to the secondary schools.

Among the tasks of such a visual-auditory department is the general supervision and coordination, handling of equipment, and relationship with distributing agencies and organization. At first, administrators were more concerned with economy of time and money in introducing visual-auditory aids than with the use that could be made of them in enriching the experiences of the students. Administration of the department is usually in charge of a department head or chairman. The department head frequently has the help of a clerical assistant. The practice in large schools is usually to have a few teachers free at different periods during the day to devote their attention to visual education work. Some schools have found it more economical to employ a full-time teacher for the work. The importance of auditory and visual instruction in secondary schools is shown by the demand for professional courses to train teachers in visual and auditory instruction, the large number of handbooks which have been issued on the topic by state departments of public instruction, and the variety of new visual and auditory aids which are released each year.

Speech re-education. A problem of secondary education is to provide a program in "speech re-education" that will help large numbers of pupils to fit themselves for their places in the social scheme. This involves helping two groups of students: (1) those with extreme types of speech defects, such as stammerers, cleft-palate cases, and aphonias, generally referred to as pupils in need of "speech correction"; and (2) general training in habits of utterance for students whose speech is in any way conspicuous in itself. Many educators feel that the school's first obligation is to the second group of students, whose speech habits need cultivating and refining, rather than to those with defects of extreme types.

Students with extreme speech defects, such as stammering, are easily detected, but the real problem is in connection with the other groups. Therefore, the first step in a program of speech re-education is to have every student tested by trained examiners. The second step is to tabulate data from these

tests in order to determine what types of problems appear and to give a picture of the speech needs of the school. The third step is the organization of classes to meet the existing situation. Data secured from the examinations and recommendations are given to the administrative officials in charge of registration. The amount of time available and the special provisions which can be made for the pupils in need of speech re-education will be determined largely by the flexibility of the curriculum. In some schools, the teacher of speech rotates through the sections in English once per week; in others, speech is scheduled as an extra subject once or twice a week, and students are assigned according to their free periods. In most cases, speech is considered an extension of the English department.

Trends in programs of studies. In recent years, there have been some distinct trends in programs of studies in the secondary schools. Some of these trends are as follows:

1. The number of different curriculums — that is, schematic arrangements of courses — has increased. Many schools now have the college preparatory curriculum and the general curriculum as formerly, but also have curriculums in industrial arts, commercial studies, household arts, fine arts, and agriculture.

2. There has been an increase in the amount of work offered in English, the social studies, commercial subjects, industrial arts, household arts, fine arts, and physical education. Fields experiencing the least expansion have been science, mathematics, and foreign language — three of the five academic subject groups.

3. There has been a shift away from foreign languages and mathematics and toward English, the social studies, and physical education.

4. Many schools have substituted general courses for specialized subjects of study. In English, this displacement is reflected by the rapid disappearance from the programs of courses with such names as grammar, composition, reading, spelling, and penmanship, and the emergence in their place of

courses reported simply as English or, at most, of courses in the two main phases, language and literature. Similar changes have occurred in the social studies, mathematics, and the sciences.

5. The vocational subjects in the earlier years of the secondary school have become more general, with added emphasis on try-out and exploratory values.

6. A wide interest has developed in the "core" as an integration of general education; in "unified or fused" studies involving chiefly English and social studies; and in "common learnings," a specially reorganized pattern of general education offered in *Education for All American Youth.*

Curriculum Organization

Some problems in curriculum organization. The two general problems of curriculum organization with which the administrator is most concerned are: (1) determining what the offerings of the school shall be; and (2) arranging these offerings into unitary blocks to serve the needs of different groups of students.

Many factors influence the offerings of an individual school. An administrator, in planning the program of studies for his school, must take into consideration the following determinants: (1) restrictions and standards set up by state law and state boards of education; (2) the requirements of institutions of higher learning which pupils enrolled in the school expect to attend; (3) the relation of the program of studies to the aims and the functions of secondary education; (4) factors in the local community, such as resources, prejudices, aspirations, and needs; and (5) physical limitations of the school plant and the qualifications of the local teaching staff.

The traditional method of organizing the curriculum has been to group certain subjects in a definitely planned order. As already pointed out, the original need was to meet college entrance requirements. The colleges laid down the demand for certain subjects, and the school organized these subjects in the sequence required and assigned them accordingly to those students who were preparing for college.

The purpose of this section of the chapter is to discuss the second phase of the problem of curriculum organization; namely, arranging the program of studies into unitary blocks to serve the needs of different groups of students.

Until recently these curriculum blocks have been administered with considerable rigidity. Not only were they treated as separate compartments of subject-matter knowledge, but transfer or adjustment between them tended to be difficult. With the reorganization movement in secondary education came new ideas of curriculum arrangement. In the light of new criticism, requirements and electives were subjected to various evaluations. Questions were raised: What subjects should be common to all students regardless of curriculum allocation? Correspondingly, what subjects should be elective for all students? What special curriculums should be maintained? How should flexibility and adjustment be obtained? Should there be sequential requirements within the general curriculum and also within the specialized curriculums? Should constructive effort be aided by requirements demanding persistence in given fields of work through two or more years? These and similar questions still face school executives.

Methods of organizing the curriculum. Certain basic subjects such as English have been recognized as constants to be required of all students. Certain other subjects, *e.g.* world history, chemistry, woodworking, and advanced bookkeeping, are listed as variables open generally to all students either as electives or in accordance with the specific limitations of a special curriculum.

While the rigidity of the various curriculums has been greatly reduced, many schools set up a number of different curriculums. The purposes in thus defining routes through secondary education are to: (1) clarify the procedure, (2) provide convenience and illustration for educational guidance, (3) indicate the subjects most advisable for preparation in specific careers, (4) emphasize a desirable sequence of subject matter, and (5) aid persistence of effort in a given field.

In this type of curriculum organization, there are certain

requirements within each of the various curriculums, and the variables or electives are usually limited to those more or less related to the general aim of the specific curriculum.

The restricted or specialized curriculum. The restricted curriculum is well illustrated in the four-year high school by the business curriculum. English, physical education, and perhaps civics or general science may be general curriculum constants required of all students. The special curriculum constants in the first year may be business arithmetic, penmanship, and junior business training; the curriculum variables may be music, drawing, and speech. In the second year, commercial geography may be a curriculum requirement, and the variables may be typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping. and penmanship; a general curriculum constant might be world history. In the third year, United States history may be a general requirement and business organization a curriculum constant, and the variables may be typewriting, stenography, and advanced bookkeeping. In the fourth year, English may be the sole requirement, and variables may be typewriting, stenography, accounting, salesmanship, commercial law and economics, and office practice. For students seeking preparation for certain definite careers, there may be such added sequential requirements as three years of bookkeeping, or three years of stenography and typewriting. Certain other variables in mathematics, science, social studies, practical arts, and fine arts, with selection limited to one subject for any given year, might be made available from the general curriculum electives.

The nonrestricted curriculum. Many schools have broadened the curriculum still further by eliminating all specific curriculums. The organization rests largely on a scheme of constants and variables. In four-year high schools, there may be a few such general constants as four years of English, four years of physical education, one or two semesters each of community civics and general science, and a year of United States history. Civics and science are usually allocated to the ninth grade and U. S. history to the eleventh or twelfth grade.

Schools vary greatly in additional general constants. The variables are theoretically open to all students, with some limitations as to grades in which particular ones may be elected. Practically, the administration finds it necessary to set up certain other guiding devices and limitations.

Most schools operating under the above arrangements use some system of majors and minors, or such required sequences as two consecutive years in foreign language, two or three years of a sequence in the social studies, and similar provisions in science or practical arts, or in other fields of work. The student may be required to select a major, with a minor in a certain allied field, or two majors and one or more minors. This type of organization places a premium on skillful advice and meticulous follow-up work. The position of the teacher-adviser is highly important under this arrangement of the curriculum.

Junior high school curriculum organization. Neither of the above curriculum types is suitable to the junior high school. It is possible to separate junior high school subjects into constants and variables, but the constants will be grade constants rather than curriculum constants. The variables will be few and will appear only in the eighth and ninth grades. They may consist of such subjects as practical arts, fine arts, junior business training or typewriting, and general or foreign language. English, social studies, mathematics, and physical education may be sequential requirements throughout the three grades. In some localities, there are additional requirements in such matters as guidance, club periods, drawing, health, and general science. The widely recognized secondary school functions of integration and exploration, of course, are most important in determining the junior high school curriculum offerings. (See "common learnings," *Education for All American Youth.*)

Guiding considerations for organization of the curriculum. A brief list of considerations should prove suggestive as guides in curriculum organization of secondary schools. The administrator should try to ensure:

1. The offering of courses that will aid in the realization of the aims and functions of secondary schools, as discussed in Chapter II.

2. Desirable articulation between grades, with other schools, and with the community.

3. Constants and variables placed in accordance with the needs and capacities of the students.

4. Mechanical organization in a form that may be readily understood by teachers, students, and parents.

5. Flexibility rather than rigidity, contributing to a ready adjustment to changes in students' needs and interests.

6. Progression from the general to the special, with few choices in the beginning, and common needs served by general courses; more electives or specialized courses gradually introduced beyond the tenth grade.

Issues in curriculum administration. Before the publication of the report of the Committee on Orientation dealing with the issues of secondary education,[1] there was no generally accepted agreement on some of the problems fundamental to the administration of the secondary school curriculum. This report added a number of principles of curriculum organization to the philosophy of secondary education. These may be stated as follows:

1. A program of secondary education should be provided that functions effectively in meeting the needs of all normal individuals.

2. Secondary education should be concerned not only with the welfare and the progress of the individual, but also with the welfare and progress of society as a whole.

3. Secondary education should provide a curriculum of differentiated offerings in order to meet the diverse interests and capacities of the students.

4. Secondary education should not be limited to general education; it should include also a dynamic program of voca-

[1] Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education.* Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

tional education. Vocational education includes all activities directed by the school for the specific purpose of preparing individuals for successful participation in different fields of service. General education refers to all other activities directed by the school, namely, those having no reference to the particular fields of service in which individuals hope to engage.

5. The primary concern of secondary education should not be preparation for advance studies, but the value of its own courses, regardless of a student's future academic career.

6. Secondary education should be responsible not merely for the presentation of organized knowledge, but also for the development of ideals and attitudes.

7. Secondary education, instead of accepting the conventional school subjects as fundamental categories under which school experience shall be classified and presented to students, should arrange and present experiences in fundamental categories directly related to socio-civic, economic, health, leisure-time, vocational, and preprofessional problems and situations.

8. Secondary education should be organized as a distinct but closely articulating part of the entire educational program, with specially emphasized functions of its own.

Problems of Articulation

The articulation of secondary school units. Meeting the need for adequate articulation between the eighth and ninth grades has been one of the outstanding accomplishments claimed in justification of the reorganization movement in secondary education. The traditional gap at this point offers a number of serious difficulties. The organization of the junior high school, to a large degree, closed the gap between the eighth and ninth grades, but it tended to create new gaps between the sixth and seventh grades and between the ninth and tenth grades. The fact that the majority of school systems have not found it feasible to reorganize on the 6–3–3 basis leaves the problem still largely unsolved. The rapid development of the junior college has created another problem of articulation — between the twelfth and thirteenth grades, or

between the tenth and the eleventh grades in the 6–4–4 plan. All administrators of secondary school units are vitally concerned with procedures for effective articulation between their respective units, although the general problem, with its various ramifications, has not been clearly recognized until lately.

Articulation from the elementary to the junior high school. In the school systems which have made serious attempts at articulation, the following problems have been discovered and dealt with: (1) the early selection of college preparatory work as necessitated by differentiation in subjects, (2) the necessity for a plan of counseling concerning selection of courses, (3) the proper transition and adjustment for pupils of varying abilities, (4) the need for suitable exploratory material, (5) the need for vertical or overlapping curriculum committees or supervision to ensure proper integration and continuity of subject matter, and (6) the need for similarity in the viewpoints of the various teachers concerning purposes of education and desirable experiences for boys and girls.

Articulation from the junior to the senior high school. Between the junior and the senior high schools articulation has been quite difficult. The junior and senior high schools often differ markedly in social and physical problems of the students, complexity of organization, content of the curriculum, teaching personnel, and administrative policies.

Other sources of difficulties at this point are less attention to supervised study in the senior high school than in the junior high school, increased home assignments, change to specialized techniques, more formal textbooks and methods, change from pupil emphasis to subject emphasis, less ability grouping, failure to organize and supervise sequential material, increased emphasis on social activities, career problems, intense application of skills, and lack of sufficient attention to individual differences. Some of these problems are also found at entrance to the junior high school. The difference lies in the increased intensity.

Articulation from the senior high school to the junior college. The general treatment of the articulatory contacts

between the high school and higher institutions is given in a later chapter, hence the application here is to the junior college.

Those who are administering public junior colleges seem to be strongly convinced that the junior college simplifies the problem of articulation. It is claimed that there is the advantage of a much closer contact, since:

1. A number of teachers work with corresponding subjects in both units.
2. The high school subject matter and methods of teaching are graded to produce better preparation, and the college teaching is adapted more effectively to the high school preparation.
3. Elements of continuity are stressed because supervision follows through both units, making the tie-up more effective.
4. Personnel methods and student follow-up work conform more readily to the interests of the students.
5. The social and extracurricular activities are more likely to be under desirable control.

There is a tendency to administer the last two grades of the senior high school and the two grades of the junior college as a complete unit. The new unit therefore becomes a thoroughly integrated and unified organization. Under such circumstances, the problems of articulation are comparatively easy to solve. A variation in this scheme of organization unifies the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades.

Apparently, the original tendency to organize the public junior college as a distinct unit is not so pronounced at present. There remains the need of solving the articulatory difficulties between the high schools and the private junior colleges. While this situation presents more variations and obstacles, the leaders of the two units are beginning to appreciate and understand the need for articulation, and the transition from one unit to another is gradually being made more effective.

Articulation with society. Subject content should be vitalized and related to the social, moral, economic, and occupational demands of current and future society. An effort should be made to ascertain whether the specialized courses of the secondary school actually function in the productive

life of the graduates. It is a problem which needs much attention. Before remaking the curriculum or adding new subjects, the school administration should know the needs locally and for larger areas as well. If the school is to function properly, definite knowledge should be gained through a survey of what has happened to the graduates already in the field, of the local and neighboring opportunities in industry and business, and of the needs of the home and the social life of the community. The current movement in community education gives needed emphasis to school and local community articulation.

It should not be forgotten that the functioning of students who leave the high school, after attending only one or two years, constitutes an important phase of this problem. Their activities should be analyzed so that suitable education may be given them. Their progress, too, should be followed and assisted after they leave school.

Examples of need for curriculum articulation. Inarticulation could be disclosed in a number of subjects. Consideration of a few will suffice to introduce the important factors in the problem. One of the outstanding weaknesses in subject articulation is found in the teaching of hygiene or health. Much of the confusion relative to this subject is due, no doubt, to the informal character of the presentation. In some schools, the material has been poorly graded. Much duplication has been the result, with waning pupil interest and with overemphasis on certain items of health information. The danger is that students may become tired of hearing about health.

The seriousness of this problem is accentuated by the lack of trained leadership on the part of health teachers and the failure of high school administrators to recognize properly the significance of health instruction. The remedy seems to lie in the training and selection of teachers, in the allowance of curriculum time, and in the making of carefully graded courses of study suited to the ages and interest of the students.

The rapidly developing courses in safety and consumer education are current examples of confusion due to lack of

suitable articulation. This problem also appears in the articulation of the last year of the secondary school with the first year of college. Duplication of material, identical courses, confused or unorganized courses of study, and extremes both in formalized matter and in courses too informal to be effective indicate the need for articulation of curriculum materials and methods between these upper secondary units.

Solving articulation problems. One of the first and most important problems in articulation is that of teacher attitudes. Perhaps the heart of the problem lies here. Much of the difficulty has been due to fundamental differences in the training and experience of the administrators and teachers. The teacher or executive of a certain unit understands and appreciates only the philosophy, the practices, and the needs of his own unit. The immediate attack, in the interest of articulation, must be an attempt to establish a thoroughly understood philosophy of the entire educational scheme. The evidence indicates progress in this direction. The training of teachers who have entered the field recently will help greatly in this respect.

Some of the methods used for the development of articulation are: (1) vertical supervision with subject supervisors working through both units, (2) the use of the same department heads for both units, (3) the formulation of definitely announced aims for each unit and clearly stated objectives for each subject or department, (4) intervisiting and interassignments of teachers, (5) training and experience of teachers in more than one unit, (6) overlapping committees of teachers to deal with problems affecting articulation, (7) the appointment of a director of secondary education, with authority to unify and supervise the units involved, (8) correlated and continuous personnel methods, (9) continuity of the recognition and adjustment of individual differences, (10) the working out and operation of a plan of continuous advancement from grade to grade rather than formal and definitely marked transition or promotion points, and (11) educational guidance.

A few of the educational guidance procedures that may be particularly helpful in dealing with problems of articulation

are: (1) explanatory talks to entering sixth-grade and eighth-grade or ninth-grade groups, (2) visits by these groups to the scene of the next unit, (3) meeting and conferring with the teachers of the next unit in advance of entrance, (4) the use of tests of various kinds, and (5) the guidance of students in their selection of elective courses.

The Problem of Curriculum Improvement

Reasons for modification. There are now numerous state and national committees concerned with curriculum improvement, and scores of local high schools are experimenting with new materials and new methods. Many universities and teachers colleges have developed curriculum workshops where samples of the more recent courses of study may be found. The state departments of public instruction have also been very active in stimulating interest in study of the curriculum.

Some of the reasons for the widespread concern about the curriculum in the secondary school may be summarized as follows:

1. Increased enrollments have brought into the high school large numbers of students of relatively low ability whose best interests do not seem to be served by the older academic curriculum.
2. The criticisms of the older program, as voiced by educational leaders and by national commissions, have caused our profession to be concerned with possible changes.
3. The increasing difficulties encountered by youth in securing employment have caused many parents and their children to be critical of the curriculum of the secondary school.
4. There is a growing demand that high schools increase the emphasis on preparation for the making of a living and on training for more effective adjustment to adolescent and adult responsibilities.
5. The increase in amount of juvenile delinquency has caused some social workers, educators, and public-spirited citizens to urge changes in the high school.
6. The preparation of students for college is no longer recognized as the primary objective of the majority of high schools.

7. There is a growing recognition of the conflict between the newer philosophy of the elementary school with its emphasis on child growth and the older philosophy of the secondary schools with its emphasis on subject-matter instruction.

Forces tending to retard curriculum improvement. In spite of the efforts being made by leaders in education to bring about a thorough revision of the curriculum in the secondary school, it must be conceded that progress is relatively slow. Part of the explanation is to be found in the fact that the public is only vaguely aware of the educational implications of recent social and economic changes in our American life. There is also the prevailing opinion in many communities that the high school has been, and should continue to be, a college preparatory institution with emphasis on the traditional subjects. In fact, in many communities, the more influential citizens demand that the high school give their sons and daughters the type of preparation for college that was offered in the academies and high schools of their earlier day. Progress is further retarded because of the desire of some teachers that no changes be made that might interfere with their special interests in selected subject-matter fields. To the foregoing reasons should be added the following retarding influences:

1. The fact that many teachers and administrative officers are so busy with the operation of the present school program that it is difficult to find time for the development of new programs.
2. The lack of well-organized instructional materials in certain proposed fields of instruction.
3. The absence of authoritative direction from state or national groups as to the best program for the high school.
4. The lack of adequate funds to support new programs and at the same time finance the older programs of instruction.

Some prominent trends. Although such influences are retarding curriculum revision, the evidence indicates that significant changes have already been made in many high schools. These changes are presented in extensive reports in the educational literature. A brief summary of some of these changes

will help to indicate the present direction of curriculum revision. The following trends will be helpful in getting a picture of these tendencies:

1. Greater recognition of the educational values of actual work by students in stores, shops, factories, homes, and on farms.
2. Increased emphasis on additional vocational courses of an exploratory character.
3. More complete programs of training in health habits.
4. Increased emphasis on courses in industrial arts, especially courses having avocational values.
5. Offering of courses in mental hygiene and social adjustment.
6. More exploratory courses in science, mathematics, and social studies substituted for the more formal work in these fields in grades seven, eight, and nine.
7. Additional courses in the social studies, especially those relating to community problems.
8. More emphasis on music, especially on instrumental music and on the contribution of the fine arts to some of the other school subjects.
9. Less dependence on the single textbook and greater emphasis on outside readings, field projects, and community undertakings.
10. More emphasis in physical education on the recreational phases, and on skill in games that may be carried into later life.
11. Offering of courses such as algebra, Latin, or English on two or three levels of difficulty.
12. Offering one or more courses in leisure reading according to student interests.
13. Less exacting programs for slow students.
14. Much of the work in extracurricular activities counted for credit toward graduation.
15. More courses in consumer education.
16. Using experiences of the summer vacation to advantage in some courses.
17. Provision of nonvocational courses in the commercial fields for large numbers of students.

18. Making the traditional subjects more meaningful by a wider use of sensory experiences achieved through projects that involve construction of things that illustrate the fundamental concepts and principles of these courses.

19. More emphasis in English courses placed on the services such courses might render to other courses taken by the student.

20. Advancing courses having a large college preparatory value, such as algebra, formal English, and foreign languages, to the later years of the high school.

Some interesting experiments. There are now a number of examples of schemes for the synthesis of two or more secondary school subjects. These attempts are more generally found in the fields of art, music, social studies, and English. The Progressive Education Association, now the New Education Fellowship, made an experiment of this kind among its schools.

One experiment is undertaking to rearrange the highly specialized secondary school subjects into four or five broad fields of knowledge, such as the fine arts, literature and languages, the social studies, and the sciences. The plan calls for the organization of these fields with definite sequence and systematized continuity from year to year. Another major attempt to select board fields of knowledge as core fields for four years of the secondary school is found in Virginia, where a state curriculum has been built on this plan.[1] As guides for the selection and organization of knowledge and of students' experiences, the major functions of learning and social life were predetermined.

Other experiments attempt a specific approach to the student through his occupational or other highly specialized interests. This requires individualized programs of study. The motivating principle is the theory that effective learning proceeds only when the student is aware of the significant relation of the learning to his interests. A plan of this character is suggested by the Fieldston School of the Ethical Culture

[1] *Procedures for the Virginia State Curriculum Program*, Bulletin XV, No. 3. Richmond, State Board of Education, 1932. See also related bulletins of Virginia State Board of Education published since 1932.

Schools of New York City. Further examples of the reorganization of the high school curriculum are discussed in educational periodicals and in recent books on the curriculum.

Some values of curriculum development. It has been found that the effort expended by teachers in curriculum revision leads to an increase in instructional efficiency. Such activity tends to focus their attention on aims and outcomes of teaching. It develops a critical attitude toward the present practices of classroom teachers and places a premium on the inventiveness and initiative of both teachers and supervisors. Teachers come to appreciate the importance of a study of the students' individual characteristics and of effective articulation between units in our educational system, and their concern with curriculums keeps our educational system in touch with social and economic changes in the life of America. The value of curriculum development is further increased because it gives occasion for cooperative effort on the part of all members of the faculty, stimulates the introduction into the classroom of new and vital material, and enlarges the vision of teachers with respect to their significant obligation to prepare students for life's responsibilities.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Why is there a growing emphasis on the social studies at the present time?
2. Aside from the social studies, what courses are closely related to practical citizenship?
3. Compare the courses offered in a modern high school with those included in the high school curriculum of 1890.
4. Is it possible for the small high school to offer a differentiated curriculum? Justify your opinion.
5. What are the most difficult problems of articulation the administrator is called upon to solve?
6. What is meant by the term "integrated curriculum"?
7. Distinguish between a Carnegie Unit and a learning unit.
8. The curriculum of the secondary school is evolving in the direction of less emphasis upon formal classroom work or units of credit and more attention to successful adjustment and learning to live. Explain this statement fully.

9. Have fusion or core courses been more successful at the junior or senior high school level? State reasons for your answer.

10. In what courses has the fusion movement been most successful? Why?

11. Which of the trends in curriculum development do you think are the most important? Why?

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Chapter XVIII. THE SELECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The Interest in Textbooks

From a very early date in the history of American education, the textbook played an influential role in our scheme of education. The recognition accorded the textbook as a major factor in the instructional program makes pertinent a chapter relating to it. Much of the concern about textbooks in this country is due to their basic importance in effective instruction in an educational system where the standards of teacher preparation are relatively lower than in many of the European countries. In fact, the excellence of our schools in spite of our relatively low average of teacher preparation is due in no small measure to the fact that we have better textbooks than are available to the schools of other countries. The close relation that textbooks bear to education in the United States has caused most states to enact legislation regarding their selection, cost, and use. Such legislation is seldom found in other countries, where the textbook has a lesser place in the educational program.

The textbook conserves the time of teachers and students by providing in well-organized form the materials of instruction. In general, it is a wasteful practice to attempt to carry on instruction without one or more textbooks. Their use tends to make for greater accuracy in instruction, since students have in printed form the material that serves as a basis of the classwork. Textbooks make for a greater degree of uniformity in the content of instruction within the different classes of a school system, and they also help to develop a reasonable degree of uniformity in the scope of work in widely separated schools. If teachers were expected to carry on instruction

without textbooks, there would undoubtedly develop very marked differences in the scope of the subject matter in the different school subjects, even within the same system.

The Importance of the Textbook

The textbook as an instructional tool. The textbook is one of the most important of the tools of instruction. In thousands of classrooms, the textbook determines the content of instruction as well as the teaching procedure. This statement may not accord with the usual theory, but it agrees with the facts reported by supervisors and state inspectors of schools. In most of our teacher training institutions, there is strong emphasis on the desirability of teachers' depending more on their own mastery of subject matter and less on the content of a textbook. This emphasis is most commendable. It does not imply, however, that textbooks do not have an important place in the classroom as an instructional tool. The slavish dependence on them of many teachers is conceded to be a significant weakness, but, undoubtedly, many other teachers secure more effective results because of their reliance on the materials and the suggestions for teaching that are found in some of the better textbooks.

It must be recognized that there is a grave danger that teachers will allow the author of a single textbook to determine the scope and the methods of instruction from the opening of the course to its close. Where this is the case, teaching is likely to become the mere direction of memorization of the materials in the textbook, and teachers are likely to cease being critical of what is taught and of how it is taught.

Avoiding the disadvantages of textbook teaching. In considering the losses likely to arise from dependence of the teacher on the textbook, it should be remembered that most of them may be readily averted. Some effective ways of avoiding these losses may be summarized as follows:

1. Encourage teachers to use more than one textbook in planning the work in a given subject.
2. Encourage teachers to contribute to curriculum studies.

3. Make available to teachers some of the newer textbooks in a given field and stimulate discussion of their merits.

4. Give teachers careful instruction in effective ways of using textbooks.

5. Cultivate an experimental attitude among teachers toward the selection of instructional materials, and encourage them to prepare units of instruction not based on any single textbook.

Textbook costs. In spite of the agreement that students should be provided with good textbooks, there is a general impression that schools spend too large sums for textbooks. This criticism is frequently voiced by parents, who view the purchase of new books in September as an item of great magnitude. The expense is relatively large where there are several children in the family to be provided with books and supplies for the opening of school.

During the recent depression, many schools discontinued the purchase of new textbooks, with the result that many students were denied opportunity to use the better instructional materials. This occurrence indicates that the schools are very sensitive to the criticism that textbooks cost too much. The expenditure for textbooks is, however, a negligible fraction of the total expense of the educational enterprise, and in very few instances does it amount to more than about 2 per cent of the total school budget. In view of the value of good textbooks, the teaching profession is justified in urging that an adequate supply be made available even at a considerable expenditure of money. A better understanding of the facts by the public should result in provision of the necessary funds.

Some recent trends in textbook making. A comparison of the textbooks of a decade ago with those of the present period shows changes which may be summarized as follows:

1. Textbooks are available in more different fields.

2. The newer textbooks give evidence of greater attention to organization in terms of teaching procedures.

3. There is less uniformity in the content.

4. There is a greater variety in the outside dimensions of the textbooks.

5. There is much greater use of color in the covers and in the illustrations.

6. The newer textbooks are larger, containing from 10 to 50 per cent more pages than the earlier textbooks.

7. Greater use is made of pictures, graphs, and other illustrative materials in the newer textbooks.

In addition to the foregoing changes, it should be noted that certain informal types of instructional materials, such as workbooks, outlines, and mimeographed units, have in recent years been used quite widely. Such materials are apparently useful, in many instances, to supplement and enrich courses and to provide additional exercises for the acquisition of skill. For a time, there seemed to be a tendency in some subjects to substitute workbooks for the regular textbooks. However, the innovation did not prove satisfactory, although it was probably responsible for some significant improvements in the content and organization of the textbooks affected.

Some newer developments in the use of textbooks. With the increased emphasis on variety in teaching procedures, the textbook is now used in more different ways than formerly. While many teachers permit the textbook to determine the content as well as the methods of instruction, there are many others who use it as a guide. In classes where socialized methods of instruction are followed, the textbook does not play the same role as in classes where emphasis is placed on the formal recitation. The increased use of projects has also affected the place of the textbook in many classrooms. As teachers acquire a better command of subject matter, and as they become familiar with a variety of methods of instruction, they become less dependent on a single textbook. In an increasing number of schools, class collections of textbooks are used. There is also the practice of using two or three textbooks in a class, together with an outline supplied by the teacher. Much more than formerly, students are expected to be critical of the material presented by an author, and are encouraged to

make comparisons between the views of authors of different textbooks. These newer plans call for more resourcefulness on the part of the teacher than did the use of the single textbook, with student promotions determined in terms of their mastery of the book.

Some Methods of Textbook Selection

The selection of textbooks as tools. In an enterprising industrial concern, special attention is given to the careful selection of tools. In making a choice, the management has in mind three questions: (1) What results are to be sought through the use of the tools? (2) What are the characteristics of the materials on which the tools are to be used? and (3) What are the peculiar requirements of the tools in terms of the preparation, experience, and attitude of the workmen employed? So far as possible, the representatives of our more efficient industrial concerns demand that tools satisfy the requirements suggested in these questions.

School authorities may well ask these same questions with regard to the tools to be used by teachers. The textbooks, as one of the most important of these tools, need to be selected by experts, who will insist that they be adapted to the objectives defined for the different subjects, to the students who are to be taught in terms of these objectives, and to the training and special abilities of the teachers who are to use the textbook as an important means of attaining the desired objectives.

It should not be inferred that the necessity of efficient teachers is minimized in this account of the importance of the selection of textbooks. The managers of any industrial concern will testify that the best tools in the hands of inefficient workmen do not lead to production of commodities of the highest quality. On the other hand, the best tools are necessary to ensure that competent workmen produce commodities of the highest quality in the shortest time. Competent teachers with the best textbooks offer the most reliable guarantee that the highest standards of instruction will be attained with the least effort and in the shortest time.

Selection by the board of education. Not so many years ago, the selection of textbooks was considered a normal function of the board of education. In some communities, this method is still in use because the boards not infrequently misunderstand their power of adoption to mean the right of selection. There are serious objections to selection of textbooks by the board of education. The most serious of these is the fact that board members are not qualified for the task, either from the standpoint of subject matter or from that of educational method. The selection of instructional materials is a professional task, not one to be performed by a group of laymen. Boards of education, for the most part, have come to realize that their duty is to adopt, and have shown a decided tendency to turn the matter of selection over to teachers and administrative officers.

Selection by the teachers. For a time, in rural schools as well as in secondary schools, textbooks were selected almost entirely on the basis of the teacher's choice. This method has been found to be somewhat short of the ideal, but in general it is obviously a vast improvement over selection by boards of education. The individual teacher apparently is influenced largely by her familiarity with the textbook, which accordingly makes for ease of preparation and instruction, but she thus fails to give due consideration to its real value as a text.

Selection by the individual teacher also offers opportunity for the less mature and poorly trained teacher to be unduly influenced by the representative of the publishing company or by pressure of individuals or of groups within the community. Teachers have been known to select a new book because they were tired of the old one, as they might tire of an old garment.

Cases could be cited in which teachers have chosen a new book because it had a gay new modernistic cover, or because the pictures were new, profuse, and interesting. These items of choice may be significant as far as they go, but at best they are a mere beginning of the extended analysis which should precede the selection of a textbook.

Selection by the administrators. In the early period of their ascendancy, the superintendent and the principal took over the function of selecting textual material. It is still not an uncommon practice for the superintendent to select secondary school textbooks with little or no consultation with principal or teachers. Quite often the superintendent and the principal, acting together, select textbooks without giving the teachers any voice. Some principals are delegated the power to make their own choices and do so quite arbitrarily.

Administrators also succumb to the pressure of economy and are not averse to selecting a book that will make for a margin in the textbook budget. Most administrators do not find adequate time to familiarize themselves in any detail with the merits of the many textbooks available in each of the various subjects of a highly complex curriculum. This accounts, in some measure, for the conservatism of many principals. They know the old textbooks but not the new. They fear, rightly enough, a casual and superficial selection; therefore, the old book remains. On the other hand, some administrators, keen to be in the vanguard, rush at every new textbook or supplementary aid as a tempting and colorful mark of progressiveness to be quickly and pridefully obtained.

Administrators who give enough of their own time to this important problem to ensure the most just and satisfactory choice of textbooks may be forced to neglect other equally significant phases of administration. Moreover, they are often not to use the books or to come into intimate contact with the textual material. The obvious deduction is that there should be developed and used a cooperative plan for the selection of textbooks, one in which teachers, committees, department heads, and executives will have appropriate parts. Such a plan is discussed later in this chapter.

Other procedures in the selection of textbooks. A study of the procedures actually followed would reveal marked differences among school systems. Obviously, textbooks are not all of equal merit. In most of the school subjects, there are numerous textbooks that are certain to be reasonably satis-

factory in the hands of a competent teacher. The existence of many books, however, does not mean that school authorities can afford to use any hit-or-miss plan of selection. Ideally, textbooks should be tried out in the classroom before they are finally adopted, for the ultimate test of the merit of any textbook is its success in use by the teachers and students. In some places, it is not practicable to follow this ideal plan since it involves the purchase by students, or by the district, of books that may be used for a semester and then replaced. There is a further objection that the turnover in the teaching staff is so great in some districts that textbooks which are successful with one group would be considered relatively unsatisfactory by a succeeding group. Practical considerations, therefore, make it desirable in many schools that school authorities devise some plan for the selection of textbooks for use during a definite period of time. Any such plan should involve careful examination of textbooks by teachers and supervisors and the selection of books on the basis of merit.

A suggested cooperative plan of textbook selection. The following plan illustrates some of the steps that should be taken in selecting a textbook:

1. Secure from the teachers a statement of their criticisms of the textbook to be replaced.

2. Advise teachers to read reports and studies relating to new materials, or to the revision of materials, in the subject matter under consideration. After teachers have made some preparation, call one or more meetings of the department for a discussion of the question, "What should be the aims and the scope of material covered in the field in which the textbook is to be selected?" The result of these discussions should be summarized by the principal or the department head.

3. Secure samples of recent textbooks.

4. Provide for the examination of these books by committees of teachers which are to select five of the most acceptable books.

5. After the best five books have been chosen, ask each of the teachers to compare them critically with regard to:

(1) Appeal to students. (Base judgment on an examination of three or four pages on the same subject in each book. Note the vocabulary, illustrative material, style, study helps, and so on.)

(2) Kind and value of teaching aids (review exercises, drill exercises, text material, bibliographies, etc.)

(3) Accuracy of scholarship. (Base judgment on an examination of the same treatment of a difficult topic in each of the books.)

(4) Extent of the use of results of scientific studies of subject matter.

(5) Success of the author in selecting and organizing materials in terms of the aims and objectives of the course as defined by the teachers.

(6) Quality of cover, binding, and mechanical make-up.

(7) Quality of paper.

(8) Quality of printing (type, illustrations, etc.).

6. Ask that a committee of three teachers and the principal study these comparisons and recommend a first and second choice to the superintendent of schools.

7. Submit the report of the teachers and the principal to the superintendent for his approval and for transmission to the board of education.

This plan recognizes the selection of textbooks as an important task for the professional group. It also provides for active participation in the selection by the users of the textbook. It should be noted that the plan calls for gathering much evidence on what should be taught and how it should be taught, and for the use of this evidence in the evaluation of textbooks. While any such plan for selection may not succeed in eliminating questionable choices, the definite procedure has many advantages over the superficial choices which are made in some schools.

State uniformity of textbooks. Earlier in the history of our schools, children were sometimes permitted to use such books as they found at home or bought from the local dealer. The resulting miscellaneous collection of books in arithmetic,

spelling, reading, and geography created serious difficulties for the teacher, and led to the demand for uniformity of books within the school. As students transferred from one school to another and found that their books had to be replaced with others, there developed a demand for uniformity within certain areas. This eventually led to a demand for state uniformity which had its most rapid growth in the latter half of the nineteenth century.

At present, 25 states prescribe uniform textbooks. These are: (1) in the Middle Atlantic States, Delaware; (2) in the South, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia; (3) in the Middle West, Indiana and Kansas: (4) in the Southwest, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico; and (5) in the West, California, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, and Utah. The policies of these states vary from uniformity which limits the approved textbooks to a single title for each grade or subject to a plan that is called a multiple list. Under this plan, a school may select a textbook from a restricted list of titles.

The usual arguments for state uniformity of textbooks may be summarized as follows:

1. Lower prices can be secured through quantity buying.
2. Families moving here and there within a state should not be put to the expense of new books when students transfer to another district.
3. A uniform course of study is best worked out with uniform textbooks.
4. If the state chooses the books, every student will have a standard textbook.
5. An expert committee, for the state, can make a better choice than local superintendents or teachers.

The usual arguments against state uniformity of textbooks are, briefly stated, as follows:

1. When textbooks are changed in all the schools of a state, the expense is so great that there is a tendency to continue the use of relatively obsolete books.

2. Too much state control tends to stifle the initiative of the individual teacher.

3. In too many instances, political rather than educational issues are paramount in the selection of textbooks for a state.

4. State uniformity prevents teachers as the users of the textbooks from exercising a major voice in their selection.

5. State uniformity is likely to place undue emphasis on costs, with the result that books of poorer quality are furnished.

6. It is difficult to provide for the diversity of interests, occupations, and social customs that are likely to exist in many of our states.

7. There appears to be a strong sentiment among the teaching profession against rigid state uniformity on the grounds that the educational interests of children are not best served by such a policy.

Free textbooks. The movement to provide free textbooks began in the city school systems more than a century ago. Philadelphia made provision for free textbooks in 1818, and other cities made similar provisions in succeeding decades. In 1884, Massachusetts enacted the first law providing for state-wide free textbooks. Since that time many states have provided for compulsory or optional free textbooks. In 1934, laws requiring free textbooks for public school pupils were in operation in 25 states, and twenty of the other states authorized local school districts to introduce free textbooks. The advantages claimed for free textbooks may be summarized as follows:

1. Since pupils are required to attend school, they should be provided with the tools with which to work.

2. Free textbooks ensure that all students will be provided with instructional materials, and that those from the less favored homes will not be under the handicap of not having their books.

3. The distribution of free textbooks at the opening of the school term makes for efficiency in initiating the program of instruction.

4. Free textbooks promote economy when changes in textbooks are made and relieve parents of the necessity of buying books that can be used by their children for a single year or half-year only.

5. Free textbooks relieve a burden on poorer parents and distribute the costs among taxpayers in proportion to the ability to pay.

6. The provision of free textbooks protects the school from the criticism of some parents that too much money is required to provide the needed instructional materials.

There are, however, arguments against providing free textbooks, and these may be stated as follows:

1. The expense increases school taxes by a small percentage.

2. There is the possibility that the school will be tempted to use its supply of textbooks for such a long period of time that old, unattractive, worn-out books will be supplied to children.

3. The supply of free textbooks may tend to discourage individual pride in the ownership of books.

4. There is the danger that publicly owned textbooks will be used with less care than individually owned books.

Most of the arguments against providing free textbooks are due to the improper administration of the system rather than to the system itself. Whatever may be the objections to free textbooks, it must be conceded that the movement is still gaining ground, and apparently no state which has tried out the system has found public support for abandoning the plan.

Some significant recommendations on the selection of textbooks. In the Yearbook entitled *The Textbook in American Education*,[1] there is presented a series of conclusions on issues relating to textbook selection. Among these pronouncements were the following statements:

1. The educational interest of the pupil must be the *primary* consideration in appraising plans for making and selecting textbooks.

[1] National Society for the Study of Education, *The Textbook in American Education*, Chapter XVII. Thirtieth Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1931.

2. The principle is cardinal that the selection of textbooks is the prerogative of the educational personnel of our schools.

3. The use of the plan of secret committees in textbook selection is not good educational practice.

4. The use of a score card for the evaluation of textbooks has certain obvious advantages in directing attention systematically to various items that should receive consideration. Score cards devised in terms of a particular book should not be used in the selection of textbooks.

5. Teachers, as the users of textbooks, should have a voice in their selection, but effective participation by teachers requires special competence on their part.

6. The choice of textbooks is so important an educational task that the study of approved methods and standards for selection should be emphasized in the professional training of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. (The Yearbook may be used to advantage.)

7. State publication of textbooks is unwise, uneconomical, and educationally unsound.

8. The committee does not believe that the state is a desirable unit for the adoption of textbooks. It recommends that the unit for adoption be the local unit of school administration and supervision.

9. Free textbooks should be provided in all public schools in the interests of better educational opportunities for the children.

10. The cost of textbooks is so negligible a part of the total cost of education, especially when account is taken of the value of good textbooks, that further increase in cost is fully warranted when it is necessary to secure better instructional materials.

11. For authors connected with educational institutions to use their positions to secure adoptions of their textbooks is likely to invite criticism endangering the good repute of our profession.

12. School administrators should be aggressive in demanding high standards of practice on the part of publishers, their representatives, and selecting committees. Unethical practices are so clearly detrimental to the public welfare that state or regional commissions representing the profession should be created and charged with the duty of investigating complaints. Publishers should frame standards of good practice for their representatives.

Ethics of marketing and selecting textbooks. There is persistent criticism of some of the practices employed in selecting textbooks. The committee for the yearbook [1] on the textbook made a special study of the ethics of marketing and selecting textbooks. A questionnaire was distributed to a

[1] *Ibid.*, Chapter XI.

selected group of superintendents and representatives of textbooks, and information was secured relating to a number of practices. A professional code of ethics was formulated on the basis of opinions gathered from this inquiry. This code of ethics should be of particular interest to principals and teachers in secondary schools. Some of the items are as follows:

1. 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 a school system, rather than with a board of education or a group of laymen.

2. 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 firms or to give weight to personal likes and dislikes toward publishers' representatives.

3. It is unethical, in general, for representatives to interfere with the relationship existing between the superintendent and the board of education; thus they should not appeal to boards of education to reverse the superintendent's recommendations, nor, if the superintendent is required to recommend textbooks, should they furnish samples of books to board of education members.

4. It is not ethical for a superintendent or a member of a selecting committee to receive from a publisher any reward for services in the selection of textbooks.

5. It is not ethical for a representative to try to secure the appointment of administrators or teachers to their regular positions, or on textbook committees, for the purpose of influencing the selecting of textbooks in his favor, or to try to influence the election of members of boards of education.

6. It is not ethical to interview teachers without the prior consent of their superiors, or to try to secure information about secret committees.

7. While it is not unethical to make use of secret committees in the selection of textbooks, there is considerable sentiment against such committees and evidence to show that genuine secrecy is not often attained; and it is charged that frequently the intent of the secrecy is to conceal an unethical selection.

8. It is not ethical to favor local authors unless their textbooks are as good as other competing textbooks.

9. It is neither legal nor ethical to reproduce, whether by printing or by mimeographing, any material covered by copyright unless expressly permitted by the holder of the copyright. This applies to books adopted as well as to books not adopted.

The opinions gathered from the representatives of textbook companies and from superintendents of schools indicated that standards of practice in the textbook business are now relatively higher than formerly. But the committee recommended that school administrators continually strive to eliminate unethical practices in marketing and selecting textbooks.

Relationships of School Authorities and Publishers

Publishers' field representatives. During any year, the representatives of several publishers are quite certain to call on the administrative officials and teachers of a local school. As a rule, these representatives have had a background of experience in education. Most of them have found their way into their work from the classroom or from administrative positions in schools. They are familiar with educational problems and have a genuine interest in the welfare of the teaching profession. They are not salesmen in the usual sense. It is their task, however, to keep their books before those who have the responsibility of making selections. Many of these representatives have a marked degree of interest in the more recent trends in education, and are competent to discuss their books in terms of new developments. One who desires to keep informed concerning new instructional materials can justify spending some time in exchanging views with the better informed representatives of the publishers. In general, these representatives recognize that the selection of textbooks is an undertaking in which the users of instructional materials should have the decision.

Some schools have rules regarding the relation of these field representatives to the teaching staff, including the requirement that the work of the classroom must not be interrupted by conferences with a representative. The requirement that a representative deal with the administrative officials first, rather than directly with the classroom teachers, is also found in some schools. The representatives of the publishers may be credited with keeping alive to the interest of teachers in securing an adequate number of good textbooks.

Abuses in sample textbooks. In the yearbook [1] on the textbook, attention was called to the unreasonable demands made on publishers for sample textbooks. Probably no other business enterprise is expected to distribute free samples in any such wholesale fashion. The net result of the abuse involving sample textbooks is a higher price for the books that are sold to the public, since all the expense of marketing as well as the cost of production must be absorbed in the income from sales.

In his investigation of this problem, Henry [2] found that the value of "gift copies of school books sent out by publishers is estimated by one representative to form 3 to 10 per cent of the value of the book sold."

One publisher declared:

> It takes a sale of at least twenty books to pay for one free sample, and the demand on the publisher for free samples has steadily increased in recent years. This is to no small extent due to the lavish and foolish waste of sample copies on the part of representatives of some publishers, but it is also due to the increasing demand for copies on the part of educational authorities. This organization of committees within committees, followed by a demand for a separate sample for each member of each committee, results in such a demand for sample copies in the minor cities that the eventual sale hardly pays for it, especially as there is more than a suspicion that these sample copies are eventually used for study, to take the place of books that would otherwise be bought.
>
> Moreover, there is a strong suspicion that these sample copies are sometimes sold by thoughtless educational persons, which results in their going into the second-hand trade and materially reducing the legitimate sales. If a teacher does not want the books given him, is it too much to ask him to return them to the giver? [3]

School administrators and teachers should recognize the unfairness of certain current practices in securing sample textbooks from the publishers. It has been proposed that the publishers enter into some agreement that would eliminate certain of these abuses. This would seem unnecessary, as their unfairness is so patent that school people should eliminate them of their own accord.

[1] *Ibid.* [2] *Ibid.*, pp. 191–92. [3] *Ibid.*, p. 192.

In all probability, the representatives of textbook companies are to some extent at fault because of their inclination to send samples to any person who expresses an interest in a particular book. A teacher should not ask a publisher to furnish a sample textbook unless there is a fair prospect of tangible results to the publishers. It might also be advisable for publishers to mark sample copies in such a manner as to bar them from sale as second-hand copies. It might also be proper to suggest that more schools follow the practice of purchasing copies of all sample textbooks needed by textbook committees or curriculum committees. In the long run, the public pays the bill. It is therefore incumbent upon teachers and school administrators to reduce the loss through wasteful sampling of textbooks.

The educational service rendered by publishers. The publishers of textbooks are entitled to high praise for the quality of most of their product. It is generally agreed that American publishers are producing textbooks that represent high standards of bookmaking not found in the textbooks of other countries. There is also considerable evidence that reputable publishers in the United States are handling manuscripts more carefully than ever before, so that errors in form and content are detected and corrected before publication. Publishers are rendering a real service to the schools by their meticulous care in these matters. In every field, a number of unusually good textbooks and a considerable number of poor ones are now on the market. To ensure the selection of the best textbook and to develop the most effective use of textbooks in the instructional program are two problems that all teachers face.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Do you believe that American teachers depend too much on a single textbook? State reasons for your answer.
2. Does nation-wide use of similar textbooks have a bearing on democracy? If so, how?
3. Compare the advantages of local and state uniformity in the adoption of textbooks for secondary schools.

4. What policy regarding state uniformity of textbooks would you advocate? Why?

5. What policy regarding free textbooks would you advocate? Why?

6. Discuss the relative merits of: (1) the use of a single basic textbook with library references, and (2) the use of an outline with several textbooks and additional library references.

7. Comment on the outline in this chapter entitled, "A suggested cooperative plan of textbook selection."

8. Outline a few administrative policies to be followed in dealing with representatives of textbook companies.

9. Which items in the code for marketing and selecting textbooks do you believe are commonly observed? frequently violated?

10. Show how textbook publishers are potential educational leaders.

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Chapter XIX. THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Standards of Scholarship

One of the favorite topics of discussion at conferences of high school and college representatives is the changing scholarship standards of the secondary school. It is frequently charged that these standards are being lowered, that students are no longer being held to rigorous requirements, that high school graduation has ceased to have its earlier significance, and that softness in methods is apparent in many classrooms. In such conferences, it is usually claimed that many young people in our high schools are so unfitted intellectually to profit by instruction that much time, energy, and money are wasted; and further that, as large numbers of young people now attend school as the easiest solution of their problem of unemployment, their interest is almost nil.

Many of the foregoing criticisms of secondary school standards are doubtless the result of the failure to find a satisfactory solution to the problem of educating the large number of pupils who possess very little ability in terms of the requirements of the present curriculum. Some of the criticisms may be traceable to the unsettling effect of the aggressive efforts by some leaders to substitute a new curriculum for the older or traditional one.

The real cause, however, for the fear that secondary school standards are likely to be undermined is the fact that America has determined that the masses shall have educational opportunities of a quality not offered to the masses in any other country. Our secondary schools are now attended by nearly all the children of all the people — a heterogeneous student body drawn from every social and economic level, with corresponding diversity of native ability, background, and future

prospect. This change in our schools has created a most baffling problem, especially for those teachers who fail to recognize the causes. To maintain as high standards of scholarship as possible in the face of serious difficulties is the problem faced by a supervisor and his instructional staff.

The Old versus the New in Instruction

Any consideration of standards of scholarship in the secondary school would not be complete without some consideration of the conflict between the older and the newer viewpoints on instruction. Within the past two decades, there has been a tendency to swing away from the formal subject matter and the formal methods of instruction of the older type of school. The school of yesterday accented the teacher and the textbook. The new school accents the needs of students, and the advocates of the new viewpoint would break down the subject-matter divisions and be guided by the demands of the student's natural growth.

In the older type of school, the acquisition of factual knowledge was of primary importance. The older doctrine of transfer of training was fully accepted, and the training of the mind was recognized as the major objective. Learning by listening and reading was emphasized, and the class period was used for hearing recitations in order to test outside preparation. The teacher was a tester of the student's mastery of the facts in the textbook. To a very large degree, the textbook was the course of study, and material was mastered page by page.

In the new type of school, the fixing of attitudes and the understanding of concepts are considered of primary importance. Emphasis is therefore placed on the habits, attitudes, and ideals of a good citizen. The probability of limited transfer of training is recognized, and emphasis therefore is placed on specific outcomes in various instructional programs. In the newer school, a variety of teaching procedures are used, including the socialized recitation, project teaching, individualized instruction, laboratory procedures, and dramatization. The textbook is merely one of the important tools of the teacher.

The teacher is a director of the students' learning activities, and one of his main functions is to create situations that will arouse their interests and enthusiasm.

There is much criticism of the older type of instruction, as well as of the new. It is charged that the older practices were based on the assumption that the acquisition of knowledge implied the development of the ability to make right judgments in all matters. It is further charged that there is too much emphasis on the competitive spirit in scholarship and too little emphasis on the development of cooperativeness. In criticism of the new, it is charged that there is too little emphasis on the factual side and too little attention to the disciplinary values of certain studies. It is further claimed that the newer type of instruction tends to undermine respect for the old ideals of exact scholarship.

In any consideration of instructional problems, account must be taken of the differences between the old and the new. A considerable number of the present teachers were trained in terms of the older practices. Many parents, too, were trained in schools committed to the older viewpoints. It is therefore a difficult task to make rapid progress in modifying the instructional program of a school, and those responsible for instructional improvement find it necessary to proceed cautiously.

Procedures in Instructional Improvement

Supervision and instructional improvement. The typical secondary school in this country does little about supervision. In this statement, supervision is interpreted as the attempt to improve classroom procedure, or what is often called the technique of instruction. Instruction probably has been, and still is, the crux of the whole educational process. The function of supervision is the improvement of instruction through recognition of effective content and methods, and through improvement of material and practice.

The elementary schools have done much with this sort of supervision. They have not only established techniques, they have put them to work. In the main, the secondary school has

done neither. While many trained supervisors in the elementary schools give daily demonstration of the values that may come through supervision, a very small number of secondary schools have comparable supervisors. For the most part, the elementary school principal and teachers have acquired a view of supervision far different in its sympathy and understanding from that found in most secondary schools.

The contribution of the teachers college to the professionalization of the elementary school teacher has been the outstanding influence in bringing recognition and development of supervision in the elementary schools. For the secondary school, there is no counterpart. The majority of high school teachers have received inadequate professional preparation for teaching. These college graduates, suddenly turned to the field of teaching, usually enter small high schools. The larger schools insist on experience, and experience must be obtained by most beginning teachers in the smaller schools, where the principal is usually as much a neophyte in the art of instructing youth as are the members of his staff. If experience and training are his, use of them is generally prohibited by his own heavy program of teaching plus an overwhelming multiplicity of management details. Often, in such situations, the superintendent is in a similar situation, and the major portion of his supervisory interest and time are generally given to the elementary grades.

Through such beginnings, the inexperienced college graduate becomes an experienced teacher and passes on to the higher salaries of larger schools. Habits and methods have, to a large degree, become formulated and static. These teachers have learned to teach, perforce, as they were taught.

There are exceptions to this rather somber picture, and recently a much more hopeful attitude is noticeable. More suitable professional training for high school teachers and principals is being required. Superintendents in some schools are assuming themselves, and are also placing upon their high school principals, more definite responsibility for a balanced program of supervision in the secondary school.

The principal as supervisor. Much has been said about the high school principal as the supervisor of instruction. Ideally, he has been named as the proper supervisor. Upon analysis, it may be found that this usual conception is open to a number of objections. Conditions in the small high school make the principal either unsuitable or unavailable as a supervisor of instruction.

In schools with fewer than 200 students, it may be strongly argued that the superintendent has a personal obligation to meet the problem of supervision in the secondary school as fully as in the elementary grades. The high school is much more in need of trained and experienced service. The superintendent in the small school system is usually more mature, more experienced, and more nearly permanent than the high school principal. A wider recognition of the responsibility of the superintendent for at least more specific leadership in supervision might clarify and improve the existing situation greatly.

In high schools with enrollment between 200 and 1,000 students, the problem is more clearly that of the principal. For this reason, he is all the more in need of help. Although the superintendent can give less time to the high school, in systems large enough to support high schools within this great middle grouping, he can easily be of much more help to the principal than is usual. It is not unreasonable to expect that a program of supervision shall make both superintendent and principal effectively operative in its development.

However well such a program is planned, the chief load will rightly devolve on the principal. Schools of this size, in the main, will not be able to support trained and capable department leaders. Leadership in supervision, as well as in other things, must be the definite obligation of the principal of the middle-size high school. For such leadership, he must obtain specific, adequate training in well-established schools of education. The summer school must play an important part in such training, for most of the specific preparation will become effective after the teacher has become a principal on the job. Much of the training will be vitalized by the use of the position in

the field as the medium for experiment and practice. The principal who is to supervise must know the characteristics of good teaching. He must learn and apply the technique of supervision in a variety of forms.

If the principal is to do all this, boards of education and superintendents must make available adequate office assistance, both clerical and managerial. Until this need for assistance is reasonably met, the immediacy of business management, startlingly insistent in the modern high school, will preclude the principal's satisfactory leadership in the improvement of classroom teaching.

Assistant supervisors. In schools having more than 1,000 students, capable and properly trained assistants to the principal may participate in supervision. They may be departmental leaders, curriculum or subject supervisors, or assistant principals especially selected for instructional supervision. To expect the principal of a large school satisfactorily to supervise the instruction in the broad and varied fields of the modern curriculum as it exists in our large secondary schools is, in most cases, to beg the issue. He must, perforce, become a general manager; and if he devotes to supervision the time that should be given to it, other phases of his school organization will suffer to such an extent that there will be serious interference with instruction. If the principal of the large school is especially qualified to supervise, he should delegate many important managerial and executive duties to capable assistants and give much of his time to classroom supervision. Few principals are as well qualified for detailed and specific supervision as are departmental specialists. The principal of the large school, as far as intelligent practice is concerned, must become a supervisor of especially trained and appointed officers of supervision. His great obligation for the supervision of instruction is likely to be that of coordinating and articulating the work of several supervisory assistants — a challenging, necessary, and skilled work itself. From this brief analysis, it becomes obvious that the size of the school and the qualifying conditions must determine the nature of the plan for supervision.

Conditions favoring instructional efficiency. Some of the conditions and practices that promote the efficiency of the instructional service are as follows:

1. The number of students assigned to teachers is small enough to encourage attention to the individual needs of students.
2. The principal acquaints beginning teachers with the scope of work to be covered during a semester and with the standards to be maintained.
3. The school authorities regulate the social and athletic activities of the school in the interest of classroom work.
4. Substitutes are provided promptly, instead of expecting other teachers or the principal temporarily to assume the work of an absent teacher.
5. The teaching load is adjusted according to the experience and health of teachers.
6. A spirit of friendliness and teamwork is cultivated among teachers.
7. Administration is centralized, with administrative functions performed at the central office.
8. Supervision is carried on in such a way as to eliminate fear.
9. The hearty cooperation of all the teachers is enlisted in carrying out some definite plan of training students in right habits of study.
10. Teachers are carefully selected and assigned to their responsibilities.

Selection of teachers and instructional efficiency. In spite of the emphasis which has been placed on the importance of the teacher, too little attention is given to searching for high-grade teachers. In the selection of his teachers, the principal has his greatest opportunity to increase the efficiency of classroom instruction. The standards of classroom work are almost certain to vary from year to year in a high school where the administrator follows the indefensible practice of engaging teachers without making the most careful inquiry into their training, experience, previous success, and professional zeal.

In view of all the difficulties involved in maintaining proper standards of instruction in secondary schools, it is imperative that teachers of the finest training and ability be selected. The teacher who works with students of adolescent age must have special qualifications. In addition to the usual qualifications of scholarship and training, all teachers should possess in a marked degree such qualifications as vitality, personality, social intelligence, professional spirit, control over method, leadership, and adaptability.

The teacher must have a good knowledge of adolescent characteristics and must really enjoy working with young people. He must have extra patience, extra sympathy, and a saving sense of humor. Because of the exploratory and guiding functions of the secondary school, the teacher must have a keen appreciation of the deeper meanings of life and life's relations, and definite training in educational diagnosis, prognosis, and guidance. In brief, the schools need superior persons in teaching positions. We have many such persons in our schools, but we would have more if employing officers were more insistent on obtaining the services of superior teachers.

It is generally conceded that a discriminating principal could raise the quality of instruction in his school if the board of education granted him the following powers: first, unqualified authority to nominate all members of the teaching staff; second, freedom to use at least ten days and to spend $300 for traveling expenses in actual search for promising teachers; and third, authority to offer a competent teacher from $50 to $100 more in annual salary than is paid in schools of comparable standing. Many school executives would certainly agree that they could increase the efficiency of instruction in their own schools if they could do these three things.

Assignment of teachers and instructional efficiency. Having his staff, an important responsibility of the administrator is to assign his teachers to the work of the school. Here is an excellent opportunity to start the process of improvement. Much attention should be given to the particular abilities of each member of the staff. Is the teacher better suited

to the younger or to the older students? Does this particular teacher have the kindly sympathy and lucidity of presentation that will be of especial advantage to the incoming class? Should not this teacher, who has the formal manner and an involved type of sentence expression, be placed with the seniors?

How many preparations should the average teacher have? Ordinarily, teachers do not do their best work with five classes of the same subject and grade. Observation would seem to indicate that a peak of instruction is reached with the third class, and that the last or fifth class suffers considerably. Three classes of one subject or grade and two of another offer a more interesting program, with attendant alertness and escape from full repetition. Some teachers, notable exceptions, prefer five sections of the same kind.

It would be generally helpful to have an interview with each teacher to go over the problem of assignment. In large schools, department heads or administrative assistants will help in such work.

The importance of a plan for supervision. The purpose of supervision is the improvement of classroom instruction. The oldest and most firmly established conception of supervision carried the idea of classroom observation by an officer who was superior to the teacher. This officer was to make constructive suggestions relative to the organization of subject matter and the method of developing the lesson. While this conception of supervision, properly carried forward, should be productive of valuable results, it is too often the only kind of supervision within a given school. Such supervision is good as far as it goes, but many other phases of supervision are intimately related to the teaching process, and fully as necessary to the improvement of teaching.

The principal who faces the problem of supervision squarely, whatever the conditions, will first view the situation administratively. He will organize a plan of supervision, not a highly complex and mechanical arrangement, but rather a plan which will be of a gradual developmental character. He will provide

for working out cooperatively the various phases of the whole problem.

Some recommended practices in supervision. Supervision is sometimes neglected because those responsible for this service have never formulated a series of supervisory policies and practices. The alibi that an administrator has too many other duties, and that it takes too much time to carry out a supervisory program, is also occasionally offered as an excuse for the neglect of supervision. It is instructive to consider the question, "*What are some of the policies and practices in supervision that produce desirable results and that do not require a large amount of time?*" The authors believe that the following supervisory practices and policies can be defended as effective and also as economical of time:

1. At the beginning of the school year, present to the teachers materials on objectives of education, as teachers need to be constantly reminded of the major goals of school instruction.

2. Request teachers at the end of the first two weeks of each semester to submit a general outline of each of their courses in order that they may be encouraged to plan their work in advance. Each outline need not exceed two pages in length.

3. Place copies of self-improvement cards in the hands of the teachers with directions to check their own practices.

4. Have a committee develop a plan for united emphasis by teachers on the training of pupils in effective habits of study.

5. Develop through conferences, or a committee, certain common understandings relative to the school's philosophy of discipline.

6. Secure agreements among teachers as to desirable instructional procedures in reading and other school subjects. A committee may study the problem and submit a report for consideration by the other teachers.

7. Use committees to define common problems on which teachers from various levels and grades may work coopera-

tively, such as problems in the field of health, citizenship, reading, and public relations.

8. Provide for visiting other grades, in order that a teacher may become acquainted with the work above and below his regular assignment.

9. Invite some outstanding teacher in a higher institution, or in a neighboring school, to meet with one or more of the different departments or grades for a discussion of teaching methods, content of courses, and related matters.

10. Arrange for each teacher to spend, at least once a year, a full day in visiting the classes of a teacher in some neighboring school. Such a visit should be carefully planned.

11. Encourage teachers to make use of the more reliable and valid standardized tests as teaching aids, and as measures of effectiveness of instruction.

12. Purchase samples of various kinds of timesaving materials and other teaching devices, and circulate these among teachers of different subjects.

13. Encourage the more resourceful teachers in each major division to make trials of new materials or new teaching procedures.

14. Encourage teachers to build a professional library according to a plan to be developed by the teachers. Use a committee to devise the plan, to select the books, and to promote the use of the library.

15. Organize the teachers of English and the languages into a group under the chairmanship of a teacher of their own choice, and do the same with teachers of other subjects that are related. Plan with the chairmen of these groups for occasional meetings, at which content of courses, new materials, methods, measuring of results, reports on visits to other schools, and notable magazine articles would be discussed.

16. Circulate copies of newer textbooks among teachers, and urge them to make comparisons with the textbooks they are using.

17. Cause teachers to feel that full credit and praise will be enthusiastically given for exceptional work in any field.

18. Cultivate an active interest on the part of teachers in the work of professional organizations, encouraging attendance and participation, as well as the reading of the professional publications. Have a standing committee on professional relationships.

19. Strive to give the school system a personality by selecting some element or issue that most teachers and pupils would desire to emphasize in the social or intellectual life of the school. Have an issue each year, or for a series of years, that would be a challenge to teachers, such as "citizenship," "guidance," "individualization," "health," "character," or "study habits."

20. Devote at least five hours a week to visiting classes in order to get general impressions of the spirit of the classes, secure illustrations of good and doubtful practices in classroom procedure, discover superior teaching, and discover which teachers need special help.

The point of view that supervision should be democratic rather than autocratic is accepted by the authors. Most of the foregoing proposals are therefore based on the assumption that it is desirable to provide opportunities for teachers to work cooperatively on their own problems of improvement. A supervisor should keep constantly in mind that it is not only important to know what is good practice, but necessary to consider carefully the plan for winning acceptance by teachers. Acceptance should be sought through demonstrations, conferences, and cooperative studies by committees of teachers.

Supervision and measurement. The alert principal will not be content with merely starting things. He will insist on knowing results. His whole program of supervision will be, to a large extent, objective in its character. He will test the component parts of his plan. He will be especially interested in knowing whether its operation has made a difference in the quality of the educational process. Unquestionably, measuring classroom instruction is most important. The knowledge of results may easily disclose the need, and furnish the starting point, for definite supervisory practice.

More objective material is necessary. Standardized subject-matter tests are available in great number and variety. Objective tests can be developed by the local school as a part of the program of supervision. An attempt to improve the testing practice will open up the whole problem of instruction. Curriculum content must be selected and organized, and certain essential parts must be emphasized and nonessentials eliminated. If teachers' results are to be evaluated, charted, and compared, methods of obtaining the best results are at once in demand. The principal who interests himself in supervising a subject-testing program can do much to forward the cause of efficient instruction in his school.

Recently developed and extensively used tests on social attitudes, interpretation of data, interests of pupils, and application of science principles are also available. Such tests can be used to advantage by schools in measuring a greater variety of educational outcomes.

Standards in supervision. Perhaps the most prominent weakness in supervision has been that of insufficient standards. The determination of standards for measuring classroom instruction has been extremely difficult in the secondary school. The multiplicity of specialized subjects, each with its own peculiar technique, has made the setting up of suitable standards exceedingly complicated. Once the necessary parts of a balanced program of supervision have been worked out in a given school, they will tend to create a set of standards for that school. It will be the principal's job continually to refine them in order to keep pace with the best thought and practice available. But this will not be sufficient. The principals as a group need to study the problem, which a pooling of efforts and findings will help to clarify. In time, supervision will of necessity be based on a set of principles and standards, with accompanying procedures that have survived through experiment and demonstration.

The place of inspection. A definite supervision program should recognize student control and management, and the physical conditions of the classroom, as a specific phase of the

general problem. These are considerations basic to the best teaching. Often, there is much confusion of the terms "inspection" and "supervision." For purposes of efficiency, inspection should be recognized as being merely a definite part of the whole program. Much argument can be advanced for inspection in relation to physical conditions and student control, and for checking certain specified phases of class procedure. However, it should be always understood that this inspection is merely a legitimate follow-up efficiency procedure. It should not be permitted to operate alone, but should be a well-understood item among several more important parts of the general scheme of supervision.

Faculty projects. A plan of supervision should include the professionalized faculty meeting as a medium of cooperative enterprise and common understanding of problems intimately related to the classroom. The importance and the place of the lesson assignment as a simple factor in classroom procedure may easily form an excellent project for faculty discussion and realization. This may involve observation, demonstration, and reports. This accomplished, another phase of supervision could be advanced and similarly developed. By a developmental plan of this character, the principal can learn and apply the technique of supervision as his teachers practice the technique of teaching.

A form used as the basis for discussion of the philosophy of instruction and supervision, both in faculty meetings and in individual conferences, has been devised by Good.[1] The form, after teachers have become familiar with it, is used by the principal as the outline for his notes on supervisory visits. The principal is advised to see that his notes and the subsequent conference with the teacher are preponderantly favorable, selecting one or two items at a time, as the teacher develops, as the basis of suggested techniques that should improve instruction. The form is reproduced on an adjoining page.

[1] Warren R. Good, "An Outline for Observations on Supervisory Visits," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, X (November, 1938), 26–29.

FORM FOR NOTES ON A CLASSROOM VISIT

CLASS_____ TEACHER_____ DATE_____ TIME_____

Types of activity observed: discussion, study, free reading, tests, etc.

Freedom of discussion: scope of problems introduced, limitation of teacher-student response, encouragement and development of interstudent exchange, evidence of student interest and preparation, etc.

Teacher attitudes: self-effacement, stimulation of independent study, encouragement of initiative, impartiality, provision for wide participation, development of student self-appraisal, acceptance of mutuality of problems, etc.

Student attitudes: disposition to participate in group activity, interest in discussion, willingness in mutual assistance, initiative in independent study, absence of loitering and disorder, care of materials, etc.

Evidence of planning: definiteness of activities and procedures, accessibility of materials, transition and sequence in activities, relation to previous work, preparation for next assignment, etc.

Suitability of work: interest and achievement of students, appropriateness of difficulty, applicability to social development and needs, variety of activity, etc.

Physical conditions: seating, ventilation, lighting, cleanliness, orderly arrangement, etc.

Curriculum revision. The improvement of teaching, in some of its larger aspects, depends on administration of the curriculum. Many high school curriculums are still largely untouched by the great movement in curriculum reconstruction. Here again, the elementary school has been more profoundly affected than the secondary school. The high school administrator can no longer ignore the social changes about him. He must lead his school in the interpretation of these changes, and in the translation of the older material of the curriculum into reasonable adaptation and realignment. It is his obligation to accept the challenge of a constantly renewed effort to keep the high school course of study in each subject abreast of the march of progress.

Changes or adaptations in the curriculum are best made according to some general plan which has been given consideration in advance. A survey of local conditions is advisable. In determining changes to be made, information will be needed on occupational opportunities, particular needs of the local community, the character and background of the population, the functioning of preparation for college, the functioning of the specialized preparation given by other departments of the school, the extent and cause of failure, the achievement of students according to standardized tests, and other pertinent factors. There should be careful study and resultant understanding of the best in educational thought and practice in the field of curriculum building.

Involving the teachers in curriculum development. Choosing a committee from the high school staff is a good method of initiating curriculum development. If curriculum adaptation is really to become effective, the teachers must be active participants in the process of reconstruction. Departmental committees in the large school can do much of the detailed work. Individual teachers will have to carry this load in the small schools. Finally the principal, and in the large schools a general committee on coordination, will need to compensate for the results of too much individual subject enthusiasm. There will be items of sequence, orientation,

interrelation, and duplication to be harmonized and refined in order to produce suitable unity of the whole.

Once the plan is in motion, there must be active follow-up work on the part of the principal, and some adequate attempt to check the changes for results. The administrative scheme should be flexible enough to allow for adaptation as the need becomes apparent, and permanent enough in its organization to carry a momentum that will make the process of constructive effort continuous.

Meeting the Instructional Needs of Slow Pupils

The need for new instructional materials. The development of new curriculum materials for pupils of the non-academic group is necessary if the secondary schools are to maintain satisfactory standards. In an earlier paragraph, mention was made of the increase, in our secondary schools, in the number of students of relatively low ability.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, students who were graduated from the elementary school were subjected to fairly rigorous examinations to determine fitness for further intellectual training, but now the entire output of the eighth grade is automatically admitted to the high school. Thus, the average intellectual level of students entering the high school is lowered, and this lower level tends to lower the standards of scholarship. One of the most serious problems confronting secondary school leaders is that of developing subjects of study and effective methods of instruction for students of low ability. It is unnecessary to submit evidence to any group of secondary school principals or teachers to support the assertion that we have an increasing number of students who cannot master the traditional subjects. One can teach these students, can even win their enthusiasm for some topic, and yet find that within 24 hours they accurately recall very few of the facts. A teacher can devote a maximum amount of time to helping them and still secure very meager returns for the labor expended. Some principals estimate that approximately one fourth of all entering students fall in this group. It is idle to

propose that they be eliminated, because the American goal for the high schools is the training of all students of high school age in such a manner as to develop their potentialities.

In the development of appropriate courses for students of low ability, the secondary schools must have a large amount of freedom, and the colleges should not interfere or be too critical. There is a real need in this country for carefully conducted educational experiments to determine what can be done for them. The solution is not to be found in merely increasing the number of vocational courses or in the mere dilution of present courses in mathematics, the languages, and other academic subjects. Nor, apparently, is homogeneous grouping the most satisfactory solution. Experimentation with new materials and new methods is needed. In the meantime, special attention should be given to the problem of protecting the interests of the students who have good ability. Hence, such practices should be used as seem best in view of our limited knowledge of the problem. It is useless to attempt to ignore the problem, or to try to solve it by failing the slow students or encouraging them to withdraw from school. It is hoped that our curriculum investigations will eventually produce instructional materials suited to their needs and capacities.

Segregation on the basis of ability. As soon as the principal begins to consider ways and means of improving the quality of the teaching process, he encounters the difficult problem of individual differences. The spread in rate of comprehension and in the quantity of accomplishment in various subjects is staggering. Better assignment of teachers and careful, constructive supervision will help to make proper adjustments, but the central fact of great divergence of ability among the pupils remains.

Extensive effort has been made in the attempt to solve this problem by segregation according to ability. There have been many variations of the idea, and much publicity has been accorded to certain local results. Enthusiasts have organized their schools with such mechanical precision that, in one case,

each of ten sections in English is segregated under its own peculiar I.Q. limitations.

Whatever the intensity of the effort, the plan of segregation fails, to greater or less degree, in the upper years and in subjects which have but a few sections. It is never completely consummated. Necessity of transfer, withdrawals, and additions affect the constancy of the units. Rigidity in the administration of the segregated units produces a lack of desirable flexibility. Teachers of the slow sections, for the most part, become completely discouraged and implore reassignment. It is not easy to discover the suitable teacher for such students.

Another serious problem is raised in the matter of marks. Are there to be three or more levels of marks? Are students who do their best and reach the highest standard set up for their level to receive an "A" mark, regardless of the differences in accomplishment? What does graduation or the diploma mean under these circumstances? What is the true passing mark under such arrangement? Do the three or more levels, as X, Y, and Z, make for democracy? or is there a bit too much of determinism and predestination in this conception? From the problem of segregation, these and many other questions arise to harass the administrator.

It is not necessary to advance arguments in favor of segregation. They can be readily and effectively obtained. It does seem desirable to point out difficulties which are not, as yet, satisfactorily disposed of, and which the principal must face. It should be suggested that the principal who is new to the task ought to proceed with caution. Experience in the field indicates that approximately 10 per cent of the highest and 10 per cent of the lowest standing students can be segregated to considerable advantage in schools large enough to offer a sufficient number in each group. The high-standing students can be grouped in classes larger in size, while the low-standing students may be placed in smaller classes, the greater expense of the latter being offset by the decreased cost of the large class. The advantage of the increased individual instruction to the slow student in the small class is obviously important.

This scheme leaves the large mid-section of students free from the difficulties of segregation and at the same time centers special recognition and effort where they are most needed.

It is conceded that there are many factors which should determine segregation: (1) general intelligence, (2) home conditions, (3) persistence of effort, (4) interest in the subject matter, (5) emotional characteristics, (6) personality of the teacher, (7) health, and (8) vitality. The number itself throws some doubt on the efficacy of the idea.

Segregation is designed primarily for the purpose of improving the instructional process. Investigations, analyses, studies, and reports are not particularly convincing with regard to the results obtained, at least with respect to the idea of segregation according to I.Q.'s or on any basis which tends to stratify the school into detailed levels.

Individualized instruction. However meritorious the idea of segregation, and whatever the plan, it does not solve the problem of individual differences. The segregation of a group of students on the basis of as complete a combination of factors as possible seems to result in the discovery of a new spread of differences not previously observable. This is the testimony of experienced teachers.

This apparent fact raises at once the question of the definite need of a plan for recognizing individual differences which may apply to any class. Briefly, the answer seems to be a matter of expert diagnostic ability on the part of the school and the teacher, and the application of methods to suit the variation of the individuals within the class. For the large middle group previously mentioned, and for the small superior group, this answer appears readily possible; for the slow group it is much more difficult. In all but the slow groups, the more established group method of instruction still continues to have reliability, while the slow classes need a far more skillful adaptation of method and content than has yet been devised. Only the complete individualization of instruction seems to offer a hopeful solution to the improvement of instruction within the lowest 10 to 15 per cent of the high school population.

Improving Instruction through Emphasis on Study Habits

The new emphasis on study habits. In the last decade, principals, supervisors, and teachers have taken an increasing interest in the students, in contrast to their former absorption in the subject matter of instruction. This is a change of great significance. It is certain that when all teachers devote their major attention to the individual student and make a genuine effort to adjust materials and methods of instruction to his abilities and needs, our school system will have undergone a complete revolution.

With the increasing emphasis on the student, teachers are coming to accept the idea that their chief function is to stimulate and guide learning, rather than merely to impart information. Teachers are much more concerned than formerly with aiding the student to form right habits of learning. They have also recognized that instruction is far from satisfactory unless students are taught how to attack their work through study, and how to study with increasing self-dependence. With these changes has come the demand by teachers for help and guidance from supervisors and principals in training students in habits of study.

That students need instruction in how to study is commonly conceded by teachers. Year after year, those entering higher institutions show, and admit, that they do not know how to study effectively. High school principals readily agree that neglect to train students in this regard is entirely unwarranted, but it seems to be difficult to secure agreement as to the best plans to be followed in correcting the defect. Numerous administrative schemes for ensuring the training of students in habits of study have been proposed, and many of them have been given a trial. However, not much progress has been made. Relatively little has been done to develop instructional procedures that the teacher should use in directing the learning of students. The literature deals mainly with providing administrative devices, and leaves the tacit assumption that teachers, once these devices are provided, can do the rest.

A definite program of training in study habits. The principal, as a part of his responsibility for instruction, should give attention to the development of a definite program for training students in effective habits of study. The questions may be asked; "Do we need a unified program for a given school? May we not safely leave this problem to the individual teachers?" It is the observation of the authors that a specific program is needed. It should be remembered that many teachers are not prepared to work out procedures of their own for such training. Others are likely to think that they do not have time to carry out any such program. Then, too, there are many habits of study that can be developed and strengthened only through united emphasis on the part of all the teachers.

A suggested program for a school. In order to help schools set up a plan, the following program for training students in habits of study is proposed. It is outlined in the form of ten steps, each of which calls attention to a specific problem that should be recognized in defining a program:

1. *At the beginning of the year, the principal or the superintendent should give a talk to the students on the importance of acquiring efficient habits of study.* This step is given first place because any plan will fail unless a desire is aroused among the students to acquire effective habits of work. One indispensable requirement for effective study, more basic than any rules or technique, is a *driving motive*, an intense desire to learn. It is clearly part of the duty of the principal to arouse students to an awareness of the value of good study habits.

2. *Before the time of the assembly talk to students, the principal or superintendent should discuss the problem with the teachers.* It is a very serious mistake for the principal to assume that his teachers do not need training in order to do effective work in training students in habits of study. It is unfortunately true that few of our teachers have had any special training for this important work. If any plan for improving the technique of study is to succeed, the principal must give special attention to the in-service training of his teachers.

STUDY HELPS FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS[1]

Recommended by Professors J. B. EDMONSON and HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, *School of Education, University of Michigan*

I. Plan Your Study Program

1. Organize a study schedule according to directions given by your teacher, and then follow the schedule carefully.
2. Make certain that you have full information about the assignment: what readings, problems, experiments, and topics are required?
3. Work on a new assignment as soon as possible, but allow time for a review before going to class.

II. Develop Effective Attitudes toward Your Work

4. Be vigorous and active in your study attitude. For example, try to answer to yourself every question asked by the teacher or some pupil in the class even though you are not called on. After you have prepared an assignment, make up your own questions on what you have done.
5. If you day-dream too much, stop your work and try to understand the cause for it, or change your work for a while.
6. Develop an attitude of self-reliance. Work and think independently. Ask for help only after you have exhausted your own resources.
7. Do your best. Be thorough. Do an oversized job. Do not be content merely to "get by."

III. Develop Habits of Effective Reading

8. Regulate your reading according to the purpose of your study. To find major points, read rapidly. For mastery of detail and problems, read carefully. Avoid reading everything at the same rate.
9. For most studying, first skim the chapter, then read carefully, then skim again.
10. If it is difficult to keep your attention on your reading, pause at the end of each paragraph and write down as much as you recall of what you have just read.
11. Hunt for key words, phrases, or sentences. They often contain the core of the lesson.
12. Increase your vocabulary. As you read, check the words you do not fully understand, but usually wait until you have finished reading before you look up their meaning in the dictionary.

IV. Develop Effective Habits of Writing

13. Prepare your written lessons twice. Write them first with three spaces between lines, revise what you have written, then write at least once again.
14. If you think you cannot write well, say what you think out loud, then try to write down what you have said, and revise what you have written.

V. Develop Effective Habits of Memorizing

15. If the material is to be memorized verbatim, break it up into meaningful units and memorize these as a whole, not piecemeal.
16. Do not complete the memorizing at one time, but allow some time between periods of practice. When you think you have finished, go over the material several more times to overlearn for mastery.

VI. Provide Favorable Surroundings for Study

17. Study in a quiet, well-ventilated room that is not too warm.
18. Have a good light at your left. Have your eyes tested by an expert to avoid working under the handicap of defective eyesight.
19. Study while you are rested. If you are tired, sleep for a while or change your work. Fatigue is bad preparation for studying.

To the Teacher: In using the Study Helps, it has been found that the placing of Study Helps in the hands of the students is of little value unless a teacher illustrates frequently the application of the recommendations to the preparation of different types of assignments.

[1] Published by the Michigan Education Association, Lansing, Michigan, 1939.

3. *A list of specific study helps should be prepared by a committee of teachers and adopted by the teaching staff, or use may be made of available study helps, such as those reproduced on page 429.* These study helps are based on the contributions by authorities and writers in the field of the psychology of learning. The rules therefore do not represent original contributions by the authors of the study helps. Some of the writers on problems of study have vigorously attacked the contents of certain of the sets of study helps for high school students and have pointed out that giving rules to students will accomplish little. It is a mistake to assume that students will be able to adopt a set of rules and apply them efficiently without much assistance from the teacher. At the end of the list of study helps issued by the Michigan Education Association, special care has been taken to emphasize the responsibility of the teacher in the training of students.

4. *Printed copies of the study helps should be distributed to the students through their classroom teachers and the students directed to paste a copy in each of their textbooks.* The step is most necessary as a basis for the united efforts of all teachers and students.

5. *The teachers should be directed to take at least 10 minutes of each recitation at frequent intervals to teach the students how to apply the different study suggestions to their subjects.* Principals should realize that the distribution of study helps to students will accomplish very little unless the teachers observe step 5. Students need specific instruction in how to apply rules of study, just as athletes need specific instruction in good form in running, jumping, or swimming. To bring these rules to the attention of students and have them understand them is relatively easy. To have students apply the rules to the actual process of studying a given subject is more difficult. Furthermore, to apply a rule correctly to the actual studying of a subject under the direction of the teacher is one thing, and to use the same rule daily, without being directed to do so, is quite another.

It is easy to acquaint students with the rules for effective studying, but it is a difficult task to cause them to cultivate

habits of effective studying. It should be every teacher's business to see that the rules are applied in the work done under his direction. A principal should give special attention to the practices of his teachers in showing students how to apply certain rules of study.

6. *Teachers should use the study helps as a guide in seeking the causes for failures of individual students.* Many teachers are handicapped by insufficient training in the use of diagnostic instruments. Such deficiencies in preparation can be readily overcome through the study of books on measurement and guidance. There is probably no more effective way to arouse the teachers' desire to discover the real difficulties of students than to insist upon step 6. It is also an excellent way for the teacher to measure the effectiveness of his own instruction in habits of study.

7. *Teachers should be encouraged to devise supplementary sets of suggestions to be used by students in the study of particular subjects, such as algebra or Latin.* The necessity for this is obvious. While certain rules of study are equally applicable to all subjects, the fact remains that the directions needed for work in Latin are somewhat different from those needed for work in the field of English or of mathematics.

8. *A copy of the study helps should be mailed to the parents of each student with a letter urging cooperation in carrying out certain suggestions relating to conditions favorable to study.* This step should not be interpreted as meaning that parents should be held responsible for training students in effective habits of study. Most high school students must do a certain amount of studying at home or risk the penalty of low marks. In view of this fact, principals should seek to instruct parents concerning the most favorable home conditions.

9. *A copy of the study helps, with some explanation of the importance of the problem, should be printed in the local newspaper.* In view of the fact that many parents believe the high school is neglecting the training of students in effective habits of work, it is strongly recommended that some attention be given to the matter of acquainting the public with efforts made to

improve the quality of training in habits of study. Unless this is done, the public will continue to voice criticisms. As a part of his public relations program, a principal should give the public some information concerning his program for training students in habits of study. A further reason for printing the study helps in the local paper is found in the desire of many people outside of school to improve their own habits of study.

10. *Teachers should be urged to take an experimental attitude toward the undertaking, and should at frequent intervals be required to make an inventory of results.* This last step is extremely important. It is highly desirable to impress teachers with the fact that the problem does not lend itself to an easy solution but is one to which all classroom teachers should strive to make some valuable contribution. It is a mistake to introduce any plan for training pupils in habits of study in a way that suggests to teachers that the proposed plan is a cure-all and if it fails they are to blame. If this step is followed, teachers will from time to time be called upon to pool their opinions and their findings relative to the changes that have been taking place in the study habits of their students. Such an inventory of the results is quite certain to reveal some elements of strength and other elements of weakness in the program that has been set up in the school.

In view of the helpful material now available in books and bulletins, there is little excuse for a school's failure to work out a plan for training students in habits of study. The one outlined in the above paragraphs may be followed with modifications, or a school may develop an entirely different procedure. What appears to be most needed, in any case, is a more positive conviction among principals that it is a part of their responsibility to be sure that teachers train their students in effective habits of work.

Cooperative Improvement of Instruction

From the criticisms offered in this chapter and from the recommendations made for improvement, it must be evident that the problem of improving instruction in secondary schools

calls for a cooperative attack by teachers, supervisors, and administrators, as well as by leaders in the field of higher education. It is useless to blame the secondary schools for failure to maintain high standards in instruction unless they show a disposition to refuse to recognize the problem. Many secondary schools are alive to the importance of trying to secure higher standards. What is needed is better direction of effort, as well as better understanding of the contribution that can be made by the different parties involved in organizing and directing the work.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What would be the advantages and the disadvantages of a person's teaching five sections of beginning algebra?
2. Should the principal of a high school with 300 students, with no clerical assistance and with all the responsibilities of his extracurricular program, be expected to do classroom supervision? State reasons for your answer.
3. Prepare an argument favoring the principal's having a very definite program of supervision to which he adheres.
4. Set forth the chief difficulties a principal would encounter in a supervisory program in a high school of 400 students where there had never been any really constructive supervision.
5. Do you agree that there is a special technique for directing students in how to study, and that consequently there should be one person in each high school charged with that responsibility?
6. Why do some teachers resent supervision of their work by the principal of the high school?

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Chapter XX. THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

America's Interest in Libraries

In the United States, the library is accepted as an essential part of our educational system. We therefore maintain many types of libraries, just as we support many types of schools. The library as a social institution of real community importance is, however, a product of modern times, and only recently has public sentiment demanded the extension of its services to the smaller towns and rural areas. It is becoming increasingly apparent that the library is one of our indispensable social institutions.

The Old versus the New in Library Service

Early developments. The town of Peterborough, New Hampshire, is usually given the credit for establishing in 1833 the first publicly supported library in this country, as well as the first free library in the world. Since that date, the various states have authorized the use of taxes to support libraries, which are now recognized as educational agencies of basic importance. Several states not only authorize the use of public funds for library support but also make mandatory the establishment of libraries.

Library objectives. In view of the phenomenal development of libraries in schools and communities, the educational responsibilities recognized by library leaders should be understood by the members of the teaching profession. The American Library Association has formulated a comprehensive series of objectives.[1] Some of these objectives, in paraphrased form, are listed on the following page.

[1] "A National Plan for Libraries," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXIX (1935), 91–98.

1. To assemble and preserve books and related materials in organized collections.

2. To promote their use, through stimulation and guidance.

3. To provide children, youth, and adults an opportunity and encouragement to educate themselves continuously.

4. To aid in the advancement of knowledge.

5. To improve the capacity of people for appreciation and production in cultural fields.

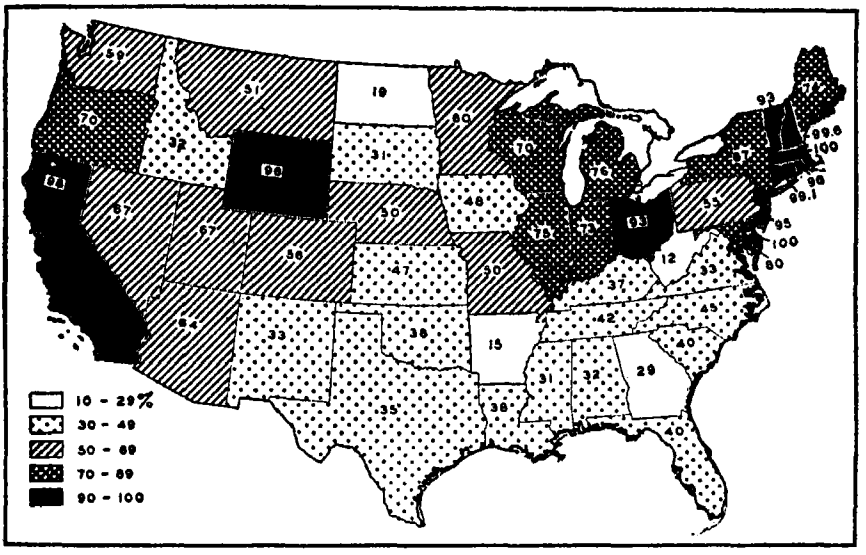


Figure 2. Per cent of population with public library service, 1934. (From Louis R. Wilson, *The Geography of Reading*, Figure 1. Chicago, American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938.)

6. To preserve the precious heritage of freedom of expression.

7. To promote a constructively critical attitude toward all public issues.

8. To enable children, youth, and adults to make such use of leisure time as will promote personal happiness and social well-being.

The foregoing objectives are similar to those defined as the basic objectives of our American school system. It is, therefore, not surprising that librarians and teachers have so many common interests which they advance cooperatively.

The changing conceptions of school library services. In no field of secondary education has there been a more striking development than in the library. The unit formerly called the library was usually one small, poorly equipped room, containing little beyond a dictionary, a set of encyclopedias, and a few general reference books used in the courses in history or English. Frequently, these books were housed in the principal's office, and permission to use them was a rare privilege. The program of study in the older school was usually determined by the textbooks used in each course. Seldom did a school provide an outline or guide to a rich field of knowledge to be explored by the students. The need for library services was therefore not great.

With the advent of the newer type of textbooks and the wider use of supplementary materials, there has gradually developed a departure from the textbook tradition in our secondary schools. Today, the better educational programs require that the school library be housed in a room definitely designed for library services, that it contain a variety of instructional materials for all courses, and that it be administered by a trained librarian. Many high schools now maintain library services that would have been the envy of colleges a few decades past. The changed conception of library services has created opportunities for a richer education for pupils and teachers.

New methods and the library. The various new methods employed today in many secondary schools are greatly influencing the functions and activities of the library in the modern high school. Johnson [1] refers to this influence in his study of the library for the National Survey of Secondary Education. He says:

> School librarians and educators unite in claiming that the newer methods of teaching cause an increase in the use of library materials. Few factual data have, however, been gathered to support the claim. During the present study two schools were visited in which studies have been made to determine the effect of new methods of instruction

[1] B. Lamar Johnson, *The Secondary School Library*, p. 4. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 17.

upon the use of the library as this is indicated by data regarding circulation of books and library attendance. . . .

The experiences of the libraries at the South Philadelphia High School for Girls and at the R. J. Reynolds High School give definite indication of the increased use of the library which may result from the introduction of newer methods of classroom procedure.

With the increased emphasis on education for leisure and the demands from higher institutions that high school graduates know how to read rapidly and how to study, the place of the secondary school library is coming to be more fully appreciated each year.

Requirements of a Good School Library

Types of school libraries. The following five principal types of libraries are found in high schools: (1) the central library, (2) the combined library and study hall, (3) the library with a connected study room, (4) the library as housed in separate classroom collections, and (5) the library consisting of departmental libraries. The public library in some communities serves most of the functions of a school library because of the lack of a regularly constituted library for the school.

In many instances, the type of library is determined by the design of the building, and many school buildings have been planned without any special consideration of library needs. It would doubtless be difficult to prove that any one type of library is distinctly superior to all others, because the value of a library depends not so much on its type as on the quality, spirit, and amount of the services provided. There appears, however, to be strong support for the central library among school librarians, on the grounds that it can be more efficiently administered and can provide more completely the types of services that are available under the other forms of library organization.

Purposes served by the library. Many secondary school principals realize that the library can and should become the center of school life, and should be the most potent single agency for promoting the continuance of education after school days are over. In setting forth the value and place of

the library in the secondary school, it may be said that the modern secondary school library is closely connected with the teaching work at all times.

While the old high school library was chiefly a storeroom for books, the new is a workroom for students. The old was used largely for reference and for required reading in certain courses, particularly history and English. The new is, in addition, a training school in proper methods of using library aids in looking up a topic, and also a room for joyous voluntary reading. Here, the student has a chance to browse among good books and magazines of all kinds. The modern school library is conceived as a genuine service unit. It supplies materials for developing and expanding interests. Through its reference tools, indexes, bibliographies, and catalogues, the realms of knowledge may be explored. The library cooperates with other agencies of instruction in helping students learn to use books and libraries, to find information, and to study. By its bulletins, exhibits, posters, and atmosphere, the library teaches informally. By its introduction to books, it suggests the lifetime use of reading to further any interest.

Organization and control. Before a school library can function effectively, the superintendent, the principal, the teachers, and the librarian must understand its purposes and agree on what it can do for the school. The superintendent can interpret the library to the board of education only when he knows its importance, and on his interpretation depends the financial support essential for the library's existence. The principal must know what he should expect from the library in order to provide properly for its functioning in the school. Just as the library's objectives are limited or extended by the school's objectives, so is its administration largely determined by the school's plan for its use.

Much of the success of a library depends on the librarian. His position offers unusual possibilities for service, but it also makes exceptional demands on him. The school librarian should be broadly trained, intellectual, cooperative, and of winning personality. He should have rank and salary at least

equal to that of department head. Of course, his educational qualifications should be as high, and a desirable asset is some teaching experience.

The Standard [1] of the Southern Association dealing with the library requires college graduation and at least 24 to 30 semester hours in an approved library school. Teaching and library experience are considered especially desirable.

The North Central Association uses the following criteria [2] in evaluating high schools with respect to the librarian:

> The library is under the direction of a properly qualified person.
>
> (*a*) In schools enrolling more than 800 pupils, the high school library is under the direction of a High School Librarian, namely, one who is a graduate of an approved library school which requires as a part of, or in addition to, the four years required for a degree, at least one full year of professional library training.
>
> (*b*) In schools enrolling from 400 to 800 pupils, the one in charge of the high school library is either a high school librarian, as defined above, or a Teacher-Librarian, namely, a person who is qualified as a member of the teaching staff and who has completed a minimum of eight semester hours of training in library methods, including instruction in classification of books.
>
> (*c*) Provision is made for an adequate number of assistants to the librarian.
>
> (*d*) The high school librarian is recognized as a member of the teaching staff.

If the library is to function at its fullest measure of efficiency, proper classification and organization are essential. The system of classification should be such that a student can secure the desired book easily and quickly. The Dewey-decimal system is quite commonly used, with some modifications to suit local needs.

Another aspect of library organization is the problem of teacher-librarian cooperation. Teachers and librarians are equally responsible for improving and establishing tastes in reading. By careful planning of library work, the teacher and the librarian may avoid many conflicts among different classes in the use of library material.

[1] For complete standard, see *Southern Association Quarterly*, II (May, 1938), 302.
[2] *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (July, 1940), 72.

Essential facilities. A vitalized library requires adequate appropriation, a carefully planned room (or rooms) and equipment, well-selected books, organization, and trained service. The facilities should be provided through the regular items of the school budget, which should include not less than 75 cents a student for books and not less than $100 for subscriptions to current magazines.

Equipment. The library should be the most attractive room in the school building and should be large enough to accommodate at any one hour most of the students who are not in classes. It is desirable to have a smaller adjoining room which may be used for storage of new and old books being prepared for circulation, and in which all mechanical work in connection with the library may be carried on.

The library should be located in the study hall, adjoining the study hall, or as near it as possible. Suitable arrangements for light, heat, and ventilation are fundamental to a good library. In the interest of quietness, the floor should be covered with cork carpet or linoleum. The shelving should be well arranged. There should be a suitable desk for the librarian, and tables and chairs should be strong and durable, but not heavy. One or more large bulletin boards should be provided, and card catalogues and magazine racks are essential. Pictures and plants add to the attractiveness of the room.

Books. Funds for purchasing books may be secured through state aid, city apportionment, grants by boards of education, personal gifts, proceeds from entertainments, and library fines. In the interest of economy, prices and discounts should be taken into consideration when books are purchased. Books bought for the library should serve one or more of these five purposes: (1) to replace books worn or withdrawn, (2) to furnish duplicates for adequate service, (3) to obtain new books requested by teachers, (4) to provide material for filling in weak spots, or (5) to interest the students in order that they may be won to voluntary reading. Students should have access to books so that they may: (1) enjoy reading that which is worth while, (2) supplement school

lessons by use of books other than textbooks, (3) use reference books easily and effectively, and (4) use intelligently both the school library and the public library. Books for school libraries, of course, need to be very carefully chosen with reference to the capacity and interests of adolescent boys and girls and the educational activities of the school. Magazines should be plentiful and should be as carefully chosen as the books; they should later be bound and catalogued for reference.

Student library assistants. In some school libraries, selected students, designated as student library assistants, are given certain responsibilities for the routine of the library. These assistants check attendance, file library slips, run errands, find books, replace books, and perform many other similar tasks. Much of the librarian's time and energy can be saved by the use of student assistants, and, under proper supervision, the students can be given very useful educational experiences. Many successful librarians had their initial experience in library work as assistants. The value of the services of such assistants is greatly decreased, however, when adequate trained personnel is not provided.

Discipline in the library. The disciplinary problems of the school library are complicated by the fact that an informal atmosphere is highly desirable if students are to profit most from their library experiences. On the other hand, quiet and order must be maintained so that students may use their time to advantage. In every school there are likely to be a limited number of students who do not know how to use the freedom of the library without annoying others by their disorderly conduct. If the discipline in the library is based on the demands of this disturbing minority, the interests of the majority will not be served well. It is therefore necessary to introduce a type of control in the library that will place a sufficient restraint on those students who are likely to abuse a reasonable degree of freedom. To do this, standards of conduct framed in terms of the demands of a library should be presented to students, and such measures should be taken as will ensure that these standards are observed. Student cooperation should

be cultivated, and the assistance of the instructional staff should be solicited. If real cooperation is developed, most of the problems of discipline will disappear, and a highly informal library atmosphere can then be created. The responsibility for securing such a favorable condition does not rest solely in the library staff. It is, rather, the joint responsibility of all members of the school staff.

Description of one school library. The library of the University High School of the University of Michigan is a combination study hall and library. It is housed on the second floor of the high school building in a large room especially designed for library purposes. There are no other study halls, so students report to the library for all free periods. The library is equipped with long tables, and has four conference rooms. Number one, in the southeast corner, is for the use of the Modern Social Problems class. Number two contains the books on biography, number three contains journalism and mythology books, and number four contains books on art and sports.

At the northwest corner is the magazine room, in which are kept the back numbers of all the magazines. The current numbers are on the case just outside the door. Next to the magazine room is the librarian's office, and beyond that in the northeast corner is the library workroom.

On the magazine rack and in the magazine room, there are about 30 magazines. The recent ones are on the rack, the back numbers in the magazine room. In both places, they are arranged alphabetically by title. The *Readers Guide to Periodicals* is on top of the case beside the dictionaries, next to the magazine rack.

In the filing cases near the dictionaries are hundreds of pamphlets and clippings, arranged alphabetically by subject. Collections of pictures are in the filing cases at the left of the pamphlets, and they also are arranged alphabetically by subject. In the large filing case at the left of the picture file are posters and charts.

The easy chairs and attractive furniture on the balconies were

provided by former graduating classes for the special use of seniors in the school. These are designed as leisure reading rooms.

Some of the policies of the library are as follows:

1. Most books, back numbers of magazines, and pamphlets go out for two weeks.

2. Pictures go out for use in the building, although they may be taken home by special permission.

3. All books and library materials are due two weeks after being taken out, if not before, and on each Monday morning a home-room representative comes around to gather up all the books due from that home room that week. There are no fines for overdue books, but pupils are sent home for books not returned by the Wednesday after they are due. Damaged or lost books are paid for, of course.

Using Libraries

Use of the library. Any school library may be of the single or dual purpose type, that is, it may serve only the school, or it may serve both the school and the surrounding community. If the community is to be served, the library will have to be open longer hours, a separate entrance must be provided so that the school need not be disturbed, and a greater variety of works of fiction should be provided.

All students should be given thorough and systematic instruction in the use of books. They should be taught not only how to find books and other material in the library, but also how to make the best use of the other material that the library contains. This instruction should be given, preferably, by the librarian to regularly scheduled classes and should be required for all students. The instruction includes the mechanical make-up and the printed parts of a book, the arrangement of books in the library, the use of the card catalogue, the use of reference books, the making of bibliographies, and the taking of notes.

The library is a laboratory which prepares boys and girls to go out into life activities with a knowledge of present-day conditions. It furnishes effective opportunities for vocational

and educational guidance. Therefore, it should be kept open the entire day, if possible, and books should be kept on open shelves so that the students may use them at will. From time to time, the librarian should prepare lists of new books and magazines that are available; and experience will show that a great deal can be done in this way to stimulate use of the library by the students.

Cooperation with the classroom. In order that the library may be of greatest use, close cooperation between the library and the classroom must be developed. In a school where such cooperation exists, the classroom teachers look to the librarian for suggestions concerning useful supplementary materials. They also advise students to consult with the librarian on interesting materials for term reports, for leisure reading, or for class reports.

The library can also cooperate with the classroom by providing a program for training students in the use of essential library tools. In some schools, the instruction is included in certain required courses, such as first-year English. In others, students are given individual instruction as needs are discovered, and sometimes a short, well-organized course taught by members of the library staff is offered. The last method, if only one is used, is considered the most adequate way of teaching students how to use the library and library books.

The relationship of school libraries and public libraries. There are 6,000 public libraries in the United States with 100,000,000 volumes in their collections. These public libraries serve thousands of students in our schools and, in addition, reach a vast group of adults. What should be the relationship between the public and school libraries? The answer to this question is not an easy one to find in many communities because the public library is generally a part of municipal government, while the school library is maintained by the school district, which is a separate legal entity in most states. The bridging of this legal boundary which separates the two jurisdictions often appears surprisingly difficult. Yet, both the public library and the school library are public libraries.

largely supported by the same taxpayers. Both are coordinate parts of the public system for supplying books and library service to all people — young and old. A competitive view of their respective fields of action is bad public service. Effective cooperation is entirely possible in many cases. Sometimes this cooperation is carried to the extent of unification of service, a situation usually found to produce satisfactory results.

It is in the rural areas that cooperative service of public libraries and schools is most essential, as the tax resources do not permit the operation of two independent library systems, nor does the community need two systems. Cooperation and conservation of funds are essential. Fortunate examples of combined school and public library service are found in the county library system in many places.

To ensure effective cooperation between the school library and the public library, the board of education is sometimes given full control of the public library. In too many communities, however, the school library completely ignores the existence of the public library and vice versa. This is a thoroughly unjustifiable policy, and public interest demands cooperation of a kind that will eliminate duplication of effort. Much of the responsibility for developing the needed cooperation should be placed on school authorities.

The school library has trained many thousands of young readers to use books and libraries as tools. This constant addition to the number of youth who become acquainted with the use of libraries is an achievement of unusual social value. Much of this value would be lost, however, without an adequate public library system in which school graduates may continue to find sources of supply for their reading interests throughout adult life. In a community where effective articulation exists between the school library and the public library, children, youth, and adults enjoy a richer educational opportunity than would otherwise be offered.

Supplementing the resources of a school library. There are few school libraries that have all of the reference materials needed by the students and the teachers. This is especially

true of materials relating to new fields of knowledge. It is important, therefore, to know how to supplement the resources of the school library. Such an undertaking is not as difficult as formerly because there are several agencies that are usually willing to be of help. In some states, county libraries have been so developed that their resources can be used to supplement local libraries. In other states, the library maintained by the state government has loan collections of books and bulletins that are available at little or no expense. Some higher institutions provide library services for schools, and loan books or collections of bulletins for short periods of time. In addition to the foregoing sources, it is possible to supplement the school library through the generosity of the citizens of the community, many of whom would be very willing to give or to loan the materials needed by the students and teachers. There are also private libraries in many communities that can be used to good advantage. Other sources of possible aid may be discovered by a resourceful staff.

Evaluation of the Library

The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards has prepared, tried out in 200 schools, and revised evaluative criteria for library service.[1] These criteria are concerned with the library staff, organization and administration of the library, adequacy and selection of library materials, teachers and libraries, uses of libraries by pupils, and special characteristics of library service. They should be of great assistance in evaluating and improving the library and its services.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Why has the high school library been so neglected in the past?
2. Can the financing of the library by the board of education be justified? Why or why not?
3. Is it justifiable to use the high school students to some extent in library service? If so, in what ways and to what extent?
4. How can the library become a vital center of the entire school?

[1] Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, pp. 49–60. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940.

5. What is the place of the library in an extracurricular program of a modern high school?

6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of combining the study hall and the library?

7. How may the librarian keep in close touch with, and assist, each classroom teacher?

8. In what ways should teachers assist and cooperate with the librarian?

9. Does the guidance movement in high school presume the existence of a modern library?

10. What steps may a principal take to secure the necessary support for purchase of library equipment and materials?

11. What elements go to make up a desirable library atmosphere?

12. How may interest in the library be promoted through the school assembly?

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Chapter XXI. APPRAISING AND REPORTING PROGRESS OF STUDENTS

Some Recent Trends in the Appraisal of Student Progress

In the past decade, interest has grown in newer methods of appraising the student's progress at all levels of schoolwork. Progressive teachers are no longer satisfied with such measures as the final examination of the traditional type, with emphasis on ability to recall facts. In many schools, a variety of kinds of evidence of change in the student are now collected and interpreted, including facts relating to attitudes, interests, and habits of work, as well as evidence of the kind that can be secured by a variety of types of oral and written examinations.

The newer attitude toward appraisal has come about because of: (1) the more general acceptance of a more democratic conception of education, and (2) the more widespread recognition that the desirable growth of the student should be the controlling aim of instruction. The newer and more democratic philosophy demands that secondary education be open to all the children of adolescent age. This philosophy implies that the secondary school must provide types of education as varied as the interests of its students demand. Each student needs the opportunity to progress as rapidly as he can, or as slowly as he must. Such a philosophy requires a different conception of appraisal of the student's work from that required in a school committed to the older viewpoint of the purposes and functions of the high school.

The older philosophy assumes that secondary education is a privilege to which only those of proved capacity are entitled. This philosophy calls for a system of secondary education for the intellectually and socially elite. It is the European point

of view. It implies that the secondary school must be progressively selective by eliminating all students who cannot maintain a high standard of performance. It is the older philosophy that the more conservative colleges would have the secondary schools accept. The newer philosophy, however, is written into much of our educational legislation and has become the accepted doctrine of leaders in public education. But it should be recognized that any discussion of present versus former standards of secondary education must take account of the fact that the newer philosophy has created many perplexing problems, especially in the field of appraisal of the student's work.

Methods of Measuring a Student's Progress

Uses of examinations. Tests and examinations are still important mediums for measuring school achievement. The practice of objective testing by means of standardized forms has given the examination an enlarged purpose and a new significance as an instrument of determining progress in school. Observation and analysis have brought forth the following uses of examinations:

1. To serve as a means for instruction and not merely as a means for determining marks.
2. To improve instruction through a study of the individual's progress.
3. To show the pupil the efficiency with which he has worked.
4. To show the teacher the effectiveness of his teaching.
5. To determine the relative values of different methods.
6. To measure the relative values of various textbooks or other materials of instruction.
7. To compare the efficiency of teaching in different schools.
8. To emphasize a thorough and vigorous attack in study and in teaching.
9. To reveal the general status of the teaching in any given school system.

10. To prepare the student to meet similar testing situations in business, profession, or college.

11. To motivate the student's work, since accomplishment seems to be greater when the pupil realizes that a final test must be taken.

12. To emphasize training in written expression and logical organization of material.

13. To measure the progress of the individual, the class, and the school.

14. To set standards of accomplishment for the student, the teacher, and the school.

Old-type versus new-type tests. It has been said that examinations are primarily designed to measure: (1) the mastery of subject matter, (2) ability in thinking and organization, and (3) ability in written expression. The old-type, or essay examination, does not seem to measure subject-matter mastery as well as do the new-type tests. On the other hand, the new-type tests appear to be deficient with respect to measuring ability in thinking, in logical presentation, and in written expression. This precipitates the question as to whether the old-type examinations measure these items at all adequately. They surely give the student opportunity to display the above qualities, but in scoring there may be some question as to whether teachers actually recognize these items sufficiently. It appears that, under the stress of marking a large number of lengthy papers in a short time, the teacher must search for subject-matter facts as the determining elements in the marks. It requires much time to mark for expression and organization. It is possible to give adequate time for such marking if examinations are given rarely, and not at the end of semesters when results must be known at once.

When new-type tests are to be used for testing factual matter at the end of marking periods, expression and organization could be tested by special examinations given within the marking period. This procedure would place desirable emphasis on these qualities, would probably ensure more satisfactory results, and would afford more time for marking these

items and for returning marked papers to students for correction.

Since measures of expression and of organization have been inadequately provided in the new-type tests, it seems quite possible that the future will see much experimentation in attempts to overcome this deficiency.

Criteria for constructing examinations. An examination should be so constructed as to meet these requirements:

1. It should contain more questions than any pupil can answer satisfactorily in the time allotted.
2. It should contain at least one question so easy that anyone in the class can answer it and at least one question so difficult that none, or only the best, can answer it satisfactorily.
3. A group of questions covering minimum essentials should be required of all.
4. There should be a group of optional questions, including very difficult ones, from which pupils may select after completing the required portion.
5. To further reasonable uniformity in aim and method, and to eliminate peculiarities of emphasis by individual instructors, examination questions may well represent the combined judgment of the members of the department.
6. Scoring should be as nearly objective as possible, with definite values assigned to the required questions, and values worked out for the optional questions.
7. Examinations should be so constructed that they emphasize organization of the material of the course and give opportunity for thoughtful applications.
8. The examination should be comprehensive, with wide samplings.
9. The examination should have validity, that is, it should measure what it is intended to measure.
10. The examination should be reliable, that is, it should yield consistently accurate results.

Reliability of tests. The achievement of reliability in tests is lessened by the personal interests, reaction, and opinions of

the test maker and the test marker. A large number of items increase reliability. The more detailed and specific the items, the more reliable is the examination. The examination with only about five items is probably the least reliable of tests. It is exceedingly difficult to score such a test with reasonable consistency. The whole of an answer, in such cases, contains so much verbiage that the determination of a blanket value is vastly difficult. An error in interpretation, by the student in answering one of five items or by the teacher in marking an item, may practically wreck the student's score.

The variation of responses from time to time may influence reliability, particularly when only a single test is given. A test repeated in the same or in a slightly different form, with the results of the two tests correlated, will reduce unreliability. In this respect, the new-type test is much more flexible than the old because of the greater ease and accuracy of the scoring.

Frequency of tests and examinations. There is much variation among schools in the frequency with which examinations and tests are given. Rather a general practice is to give somewhat formal monthly tests. A day or two is given to review, and the test usually occupies a single class period.

Many teachers use weekly tests, and some instructors find short daily quizzes helpful. It is seldom that the administration is directly concerned with a test plan that operates oftener than once a month.

For formal examinations, administration by semesters appears to be most favored, though a few schools still give quarterly examinations. In all of these cases, the practice generally is to set up a special examination schedule with periods of from one to two hours in length.

The semester plan is well adapted to schools that reorganize classes on the semester basis in respect to subject content; but the marking of formal examination books reduces facility in assigning students to the new classes. The extra time required by the special schedule is often mentioned as a disadvantage. As offering a preparatory exercise for those going to college, and as affording an opportunity to test more adequately the

mastery of subject matter over a large unit of work, there are obvious advantages for the special schedule of examinations.

Exemptions from examinations. The practice of exempting pupils from examinations is not uncommon. Reasons sometimes used in support of the exemption practice are as follows:

1. It rewards deserving pupils for faithful and satisfactory accomplishment.
2. It affords strong incentive to the best accomplishment.
3. It recognizes that sufficient accomplishment has been obtained.
4. It eliminates unnecessary reading and marking of papers.
5. It emphasizes the importance of satisfactory daily work.
6. Similar recognition of good work outside the school is illustrated by the bonus, and by similar rewards.

There seems to be a current tendency against exemption of students from examinations. Some of the arguments against exemption are:

1. It makes the examination a penalty for poor work.
2. It makes the examination a reward for one group and a penalty for another.
3. It emphasizes the passing of the examination as the principal end to be sought.
4. It fails to recognize the full educational value of the examination.
5. The examination is especially valuable for the able student.
6. Results show that the able student raises his scholastic average by means of examinations.
7. Colleges place emphasis upon examinations.
8. The best preparation for college examinations is obtained by experience in examinations.
9. The incentive value of exemption from examinations is doubtful, since students who win exemptions will do their work well without them.

Methods of Recording and Reporting a Student's Progress

Reduced emphasis on comparative ratings. The growing demand that instruction be adapted to the varying interests and differing abilities of the students in a class has reduced the emphasis on comparative ratings. It is hard to reconcile a plan of teaching in terms of individual growth with a marking system that sets a single standard of performance for all the members of a class. Marking systems of the traditional type have been called "scourges of childhood" because of the discouragement they bring to less capable students who have done their best work. Morrison has stated the case against comparative ratings as follows:

> Appraisal by rank in class is . . . badly calculated to identify and measure the real educational product. Worse than that, it seems to have an essentially anti-educational tendency. Most of the envy, hatred, and malice of life, and much of the unhappiness, arise out of the primitive inclination of men and women to compare one another in terms of social status. And yet, the appraisal by rank which the school often sets up in its classroom must, in the nature of things, furnish the very seed ground for the growth of these fundamental social vices. In the place of inward satisfaction in growth attained, of which the individual can be certain, it substitutes the restless ambition to surpass one's fellows. . . . We cannot build a democracy, not to say a Christian civilization, on such an educational foundation.[1]

Some of the newer marking systems are minimizing the comparative element by reducing the number of ratings to two or three levels, such as: Honors, Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory; or Excellent, Average, Below Average. Some schools use report cards with lists of specific items for mastery on an individual basis, a plan that eliminates comparative ratings.

School marks. An argument over school marks can be started on a moment's notice in any group of teachers or parents. There are few topics on which there is less agreement. In fact, the only common ground seems to be a belief that present marking systems are not entirely satisfactory.

[1] Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (revised), p. 72. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1931.

Some parents and teachers would like to go back to the use of older systems of school marks, while others would recommend that revolutionary changes be made in present practices.

For a long time, the prevailing system of school marks was the percentage one. Many parents cherish the memories of marks of 100 per cent received in their childhood, and offer frequent criticisms of their children, who do not bring home similar marks. Other parents still resent the fact that teachers gave them marks of 70 per cent or less. The more recent trend in marks has been toward the use of the letters A, B, C, D, and E. This system does not require that teachers attempt to make such discriminating differences as are called for in the percentage system.

The increased knowledge of differences among students in individual ability has caused many teachers to change their viewpoints on school marks. Experiments have shown that marks involving many scale values are highly unreliable. Competent teachers have been found to vary greatly in their marks of the same paper, or the same recitation. What was rated as 90 per cent by one teacher would be rated much lower by another. But, it is apparent that the number of teachers who claim the remarkable ability to distinguish between a mark of 84 and 85, or between a C^+ and a B^-, is rapidly diminishing. Teachers have less confidence than formerly in their ability to give marks that represent an honest and fair appraisal of the quality of work, and they are therefore interested in other ways of expressing their judgment of the progress of students.

In all probability, the most serious problems arising from the use of traditional marks are those created by the parents. Too many parents have a blind and unintelligent faith in the infallibility of teachers' marks. These parents urge their child to strive for A's when the child would be entitled to real praise for a mark of C, especially if enrolled in the class where there were a number of unusually bright pupils. Parents are also inclined to praise a child of superior native ability who receives marks for A for a minimum amount of effort. Children

are thus given an erroneous impression of the importance of industry and application. It may be that the surprising success of some of the "poor students" in later life can be traced to the fact that they acquired some valuable habits in school, even though they failed to get high marks.

Many parents and teachers dislike the competitive spirit that certain marking systems develop. Too frequently, friendships between students are put to a severe strain because of competition for marks. Advocates of the proposal to abolish school marks urge that they want boys and girls to compete against themselves, not against each other. This need not mean the elimination of various forms of healthy competition that arise in certain school activities. It is urged that social cooperation should replace the rugged individualism of former years, and that it is the school's duty to prepare youth for friendly cooperation rather than unfriendly competition. It is urged that teachers should devote their energies to real teaching rather than to giving marks. It is claimed that the outlook of teachers should not be colored by the necessity of marking 85 or 90, but that they should teach their students to work for the satisfaction of a job well done rather than for a given mark.

As a result of the growing feeling that the traditional systems of school marks are harmful to many students, numerous schools are now experimenting with other systems. These new systems are intended to: (1) put an end to the older practice of pitting the slow-learning student against the one who learns quickly, and (2) place the emphasis on improvement in a given student. Advocates of the new systems believe that students can be encouraged to put forth their best efforts because of a desire to learn rather than because of a desire to acquire a certain mark. The opinion is also held that the new systems, where traditional marks are eliminated, tend (1) to make the slower students happier in their school relations, and (2) to keep the brighter students from developing certain objectionable social attitudes.

It must be confessed, however, that no one has as yet

developed a marking system that is entirely satisfactory. The parents whose children are unusually bright prefer a marking system that emphasizes the traditional records of the quality of work. These parents enjoy telling their friends about the number of A's brought home by their children. In fact, some parents would be deprived of their principal topic of conversation if school marks were to be abolished. Parents whose children are not quite so successful are less well satisfied with the marking system that leads to discouraging comparisons. Those teachers who are really concerned with the scholastic progress of all the students, and their all-around development, will testify that the traditional marks have some harmful effects on many students, the brighter as well as the duller. The happiness of many children is impaired by the excessive emphasis in a number of schools on the importance of somehow acquiring high marks. It is encouraging to find that school systems are experimenting with better ways of estimating the progress of students, and that this experimentation is going forward in all sections of the country. Out of it should come real improvements in our procedures.

What constitutes the mark? Many questions are raised as to what elements or content should be considered in the determination of a mark. Studies of the practice among teachers demonstrate an appalling lack of uniformity. The scope of the items used is exceedingly broad. Many of these elements are comparatively unrelated, and most of them are indefinitely interpreted. These conditions contribute largely to the variability and inaccuracy found in teachers' marks.

Should marks be determined by effort, intelligence, improvement, energy, conduct, attitude, memory, industry, and the like? Should a student receive a passing mark merely because he tries? Observation and study show a wide variety of answers to these pertinent questions.

As many as 75 different elements of marking have been reported by school administrators and teachers. The following are offered as a compilation from various sources: achievement, final accomplishment, attitude, degree of interest, attention,

effort, general intelligence, rate of improvement, character, personality, quantity of accomplishment, quality of work, initiative, originality, amount of preparation, general ability, daily oral work, written work, special reports, outside work, library work, unassigned work, relative standing in class, quality of voice, facility of speech, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, handwriting, conduct, memory, reasoning power, understanding, punctuality, absence, make-up, degree of thoroughness, degree of correctness, use of right steps, correct use of principles, industry, home conditions, accuracy, neatness, order, speed, capacity, final examination, daily quiz, term tests, health, reputation, activities, disposition, and rumors. The above items are those which are found to be in most frequent use. A list of all the various elements would include almost twice as many items.

To the above items must also be added the personal peculiarities of the teacher in respect to interpretation, habits of thinking, methods of presentation, and the matter of values given to questions. Any attempt at analysis or weighing of these elements will readily disclose the lack of relation. Such analysis will also show that some items are outstanding in their influence on marks. Most teachers give a great deal of attention to the quantity of work; hence, industry and effort loom significantly. A number of items emphasize the fact that deportment plays a considerable share in determining marks. Punctuality and attendance are quite influential, while achievement is usually given the most prominent place. There is considerable agreement that achievement should be the sole item recognized in the determination of a scholastic mark, though as yet this is far from the general practice.

Marking personality traits. There seems to be some realization that marks, in general, may be divided into two main categories: marks denoting scholastic achievement, and marks representing citizenship. In this latter division are placed the ratings of those qualities that have to do with character, conduct, and personality.*

The enlarged emphasis now placed upon these traits by prac-

tically all colleges have made it obligatory for the high school administration to devise some plan of rating them. The best of the college forms give workable suggestions as to the traits to be marked. In many high schools, similar forms have been worked out. A helpful practice is to have each teacher rate his students one or more times per year in respect to the personality traits. Some schools have found that the adviser can best compile the ratings of the various teachers and transcribe a composite on the student's personnel card.

The difficulties, variations, and inaccuracies in marking personality traits are probably even greater than in the case of scholastic marks. All of the attention and remedial effort previously directed to the problem of scholastic marks must again be used, with even greater skill, in solving the procedure difficulties incident to marking personality traits. These traits should be defined, described, and evaluated as to content, and definite suggestions as to ways of estimating and measuring should be worked out.

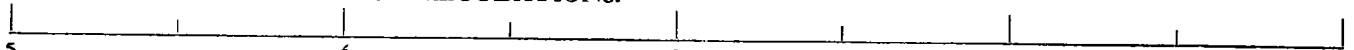
Some schools report trait markings to parents in the same manner as scholastic achievement. Other schools doubt the wisdom of this practice until our knowledge and methods of procedure are more certain and satisfactory.

Appraising the school citizenship of a student. The major purpose in rating a student's school citizenship should be (1) to help him discover his own strength or weakness in matters of good citizenship, and (2) to aid him in forming effective habits. If the school is to stress citizenship as one of its major objectives, a teacher should recognize the responsibility for giving training in citizenship in all of the group activities of the school. To facilitate the recording of estimates, a rating card, such as the one given on the adjoining page, should be developed by the teaching staff. The use of such a rating card will not yield satisfactory results in the hands of a teacher who is an autocrat in matters of discipline, or in the hands of a teacher who carries the idea of freedom to an extreme. In using any such rating card, a teacher is likely to do more harm than good if he is not sympathetically interested

RATING CARD FOR SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP

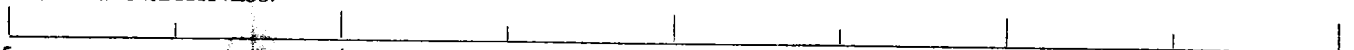
DIRECTIONS FOR USE: Place a small cross (x) on the scale at that point which in your opinion represents your best estimate of the degree of success the pupil has attained. Mark only those qualities on which you have been able to form a judgment.

I. ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL REGULATIONS:



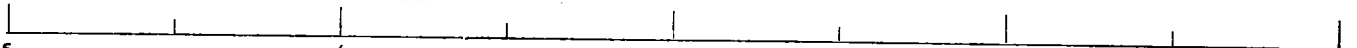
Definitions. 1. "Highest" means that the pupil observes school regulations with a willing, cooperative spirit. Never intentionally shows lack of respect for school regulations. Tries to cultivate right attitude on part of other pupils. 2. "Very Commendable" means that the pupil exhibits a very commendable tendency toward the highest quality. 3. "Satisfactory" means satisfactory in terms of the minimum requirements. 4. "Disappointing" means a disappointing tendency toward the lowest quality on the scale. 5. "Lowest" means that the pupil frequently and deliberately breaks school regulations and appears to find satisfaction in such conduct. He also influences others to be disorderly and disrespectful.

II. TRUSTWORTHINESS:



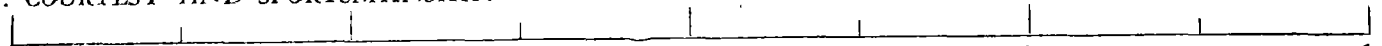
Definitions. 1. "Highest" means that the pupil can be depended on to meet all responsibilities. Does not have to be watched. Resists temptations to waste time, create disorder, or destroy property. Possesses stability of character. 2. "Very Commendable" means a very commendable tendency toward the highest quality. 3. "Satisfactory" means satisfactory in terms of the minimum requirements. 4. "Disappointing" means a disappointing tendency toward the lowest quality. 5. "Lowest" means the pupil must be watched by teachers to insure that school tasks are done. Is easily tempted to waste time, create disorder, or destroy property.

III. COOPERATION WITH OTHERS:



Definitions. 1. "Highest" means that the pupil always attempts to make the school activities a success. Will lead or follow. Volunteers readily for service. Always tries to promote team work. 2. "Very Commendable" means that the pupil exhibits a very commendable tendency toward the highest quality of citizenship. 3. "Satisfactory" means satisfactory in terms of the minimum requirements. 4. "Disappointing" means a disappointing tendency toward the lowest quality. 5. "Lowest" means refusal to do team work in class or school activities. A disturber in group activities. Makes little contribution even when urged.

IV. COURTESY AND SPORTSMANSHIP:



Definitions. 1. "Highest" means that the pupil knows and applies the rules of considerate and courteous treatment of pupils, teachers, caretakers, or visitors. Kindly, cheerful, and helpful in group relationships. 2. "Very Commendable" means a very commendable tendency toward the highest quality. 3. "Satisfactory" means satisfactory in terms of the minimum requirements. 4. "Disappointing" means a disappointing tendency toward the lowest quality. 5. "Lowest" means that the pupil is rude and discourteous in his treatment of pupils and visitors. Shows definite lack of desire to observe the rules of courtesy. A disturber in class.

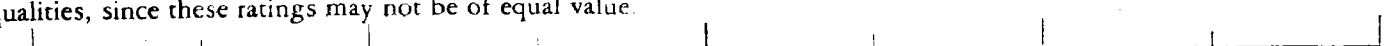
V. LOYALTY TO THE SCHOOL OR CLASS:



Definitions. 1. "Highest" means that the pupil is unusually loyal to group activities. Finds very real satisfaction in any success of the school or class. 2. "Very Commendable" means a very commendable tendency toward the highest quality. 3. "Satisfactory" means satisfactory in terms of the minimum requirements. 4. "Disappointing" means a disappointing tendency toward the lowest quality. 5. "Lowest" means that the pupil is self-centered. Not loyal to group activities. Frequently causes adverse criticism of the group.

GENERAL ESTIMATE OF THE PUPIL'S SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP:

The general estimate of a pupil's citizenship represents the teacher's judgment after considering the pupil in terms of the qualities on the rating card. Teachers do not secure this general estimate by taking an average of the ratings on the different qualities, since these ratings may not be of equal value.



The foregoing estimate of school citizenship is based on the pupil's activities in the following school groups: .....

....Teacher

Remarks: .....

in the perplexing problems involved in training students in effective habits of school citizenship. To obtain the best results, a teacher should study some of these problems before attempting to estimate the quality of a student's citizenship. If a teacher declares that he cannot score students in terms of cooperation, loyalty, trustworthiness, and other items on the card, there is reason to believe that he is not using methods of instruction that involve cooperation by students in helping plan their classwork.

Students should be prepared for the use of a rating card for school citizenship. It is helpful to seek their cooperation in formulating definitions of the qualities possessed by the best type of school citizen. The material on the rating card should be helpful in preparing such definitions. *The Official Handbook of the Boy Scouts of America* will also furnish much valuable material.

As a part of a program of training pupils in citizenship, a school should give definite instruction in matters of courtesy and sportsmanship. A teacher should not be surprised to discover that pupils who are very good citizens in one class are quite unsatisfactory in other groups. It should be remembered that many adults are very good citizens in certain relationships and very unsatisfactory citizens in others. The development of generalized habits, attitudes, and ideals of citizenship that will apply in a great variety of relationships should be emphasized.

After students have been acquainted with the school's policies in scoring citizenship, it would be helpful to ask them to score themselves in terms of the items on the rating card. If this is done, the teacher should compare his estimates with those of each student, especially when a student is low in citizenship, and should offer suggestions for improvement. However, too frequent scoring by students is likely to be valueless or even detrimental. In estimating a student's school citizenship, a teacher should take account of the facts that come within his own observation and experience. The opinions of other teachers should not influence his judgment in

this regard any more than in the marks for scholarship. A principal, however, should consider the estimates reported by other teachers in forming his judgment of the character of a student's citizenship.

If citizenship marks are to be reported to the parents, it is recommended that a letter be sent to all parents early in the semester explaining the plan followed in the school. A copy of the rating card should be enclosed, and parents should be urged to score their children on citizenship in the home. If the school places citizenship marks on the report card, it is recommended that a separate mark be given by each teacher. These marks should not be prepared at a conference of teachers. A teacher should base his estimates on his own experience with the student. A teacher should take an experimental attitude toward estimating school citizenship and should at frequent intervals make an inventory of results.

Changes in reporting progress of students. Report cards are one of the most direct interpretations of the school that patrons are furnished, and in them the educational philosophy of the school is usually given tangible expression.

Recent studies of report cards show a trend away from the purely scholastic marks as the sole measure of student progress. This change is occurring because of the newer emphasis on the development of the student through the study of a given subject. In other words, student-centered rather than subject-centered reports are being prepared by teachers and submitted to parents. The subject mark is no longer the only goal of the student. The newer report cards are designed to show growth in attitudes, habits, and skills, as well as to report command of essential information. There appears to be a tendency to revise high school report cards along the following lines:

1. To make fewer differentiations in marks — often only a three-point scale, such as, Honors, Satisfactory, and Unsatisfactory.

2. To mark character or citizenship qualities as well as subject progress.

3. To give formal marks less frequently.
4. To guide the student to improvement by showing factors of successful performance.

Parents and teachers are jointly interested in the optimum development of a particular child both in and outside the school. When one seeks this goal, routine formalized procedures appear inadequate. Formal marks are rapidly disappearing at elementary school levels because of their incompatibility with modern knowledge of the growth and nurture of children. The first step away has usually been to evaluate a larger variety of outcomes as an indication of a broader conception of objectives. Other solutions have sought to retain a mark, but to award it in terms of the child's capacity for achievement. Another step in modification has been to substitute an informal letter to parents, a letter which attempts to make a constructive report of progress and recommendations based on all the data available to the teachers.

Planning reports on progress of students. A report on a student's schoolwork should tell the parents and the student something that will help the student to continue his growth. The report should express the spirit of the school and be consistent with its basic educational philosophy. In planning a report card, special consideration should be given to its potential contribution to the public relations program.

The aims of reports to be sent to parents may be summarized as follows:[1]

1. To inform parents on the student's school life.
2. To help the student to appraise himself.
3. To help the teacher to study each student.
4. To enable home and school to work together in helping the student.
5. To develop an enlightened public interest in education.

The scope and content of reports to parents may be defined as follows:[2]

[1] *New Developments in Pupil Report Cards*, Educational Research Service, Circular No. 4, 1934. Washington, National Education Association, 1934.
[2] *Ibid.*

1. All phases of the pupil's development should be reported upon.
   a. Intellectual.
      Reports on scholarship should be as objective as possible. Terms used should be clearly defined.
   b. Physical.
      The observance of good health habits and the general health condition of the pupil should be reported.
   c. Social.
      Habits and attitudes should be stated in positive terms, emphasizing desirable practices.
2. Three elements should be recognized and kept distinct, so far as possible:
   a. Native ability of the pupil.
   b. His present achievement.
   c. His growth in achievement; rate of progress.
      It should be definitely stated whether the judgments given are based on the ability of the pupil, the average of the group, the previous record of the pupil, or on some other standard.
3. Advice should be given for the assistance of pupils who are making unsatisfactory progress.
4. School attendance should be reported.
5. Special abilities and interests should be called to the attention of parents.
6. Reports should be so clearly worded that parents and pupils cannot misunderstand them.
7. Special reports, in addition to scheduled reports, should be sent whenever conditions arise, such as unsatisfactory work by a pupil, that make them desirable.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. What are some of the current criticisms of the marking system of the college in which you are now, or were, enrolled?

2. Do you believe that the newer developments in reporting a student's progress represent desirable changes? Justify your opinion.

3. What is your opinion of the value of marks in school citizenship? Why?

4. What should be the mark given to a pupil in geometry who has done all that could be reasonably expected of him?

5. How should moral qualities be considered in the problem of marking?

6. How frequently should examinations be given?

7. What educationally sound arguments can you extract from the debate over exemptions from examinations?

8. To what extent should the wishes of parents be considered in preparing reports of a student's progress?

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DIVISION FIVE

Problems of School Relationships

Chapter XXII. THE PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAM

Purposes of a Public Relations Program

Educators are now realizing more keenly than ever before that the schools need a larger measure of good will, particularly of the kind of good will resulting from an intelligent understanding among citizens of the aims, the scope, the achievements, and the present problems of the school system. There is a growing opinion among educators that ineffective public relations policies are proving very costly to schools, and this conviction is causing a determined effort to meet real issues in the social interpretation of the school.

Need for information service. It is a serious mistake to assume that the general public understands the objectives, the scope, or the achievements of the secondary school. It is also a false assumption that the public appreciates the difficulties faced by many schools in their efforts to provide an appropriate education for all the children of all the people. A well-conceived program of public relations is therefore necessary. The suggestion that the secondary school needed a public relations program was formerly discounted by many schoolmen, and by others it was considered a very undignified and unprofessional notion. To some the idea seemed to mean the giving of publicity to the success of the superintendent or principal for the purpose of securing advancement in salary or position, and to others it appeared an attempt to focus the attention of the patrons on the more superficial aspects of the school in an effort to conceal real weaknesses in the classroom work or management. There was the further objection from others that publicity for the high school represented an effort to copy the methods of the trade schools, the correspondence schools, the business institutes, or other privately controlled institu-

tions which made an appeal to young people to take advantage of school opportunities because of a possible increase in money-earning power.

That the problem of high school publicity is now recognized as an important one for the school administrator is indicated by the number of books and articles on the subject that have appeared in recent years. In all probability, this increased attention to the problem is due in part to the success of the federal government in its publicity programs. The increased attention given to advertising programs by corporations has also affected the thought of school administrators regarding the necessity and value of programs providing for the interpretation of the school to the public.

In a democracy, the citizens must ultimately determine local policy with respect to education. Important questions concerning the scope and nature of public education are being raised continually, and our citizens should be prepared to decide them wisely. They must, therefore, have an understanding of the purposes, the scope, and the achievements of the school.

Some controlling purposes. The selection of desirable aims is a first step in the development of a public relations program. Some of the specific aims might well be:

1. To cause larger numbers of elementary school pupils to plan to enter high school.
2. To induce a greater fraction of the high school students to continue until they are graduated.
3. To inform parents about the high school in order to have their support in the effort to realize these aims, as well as to bring about more cooperation and good will in handling student problems and to prepare the way for changes requiring community support.
4. To create a greater friendliness, a more intelligent understanding, and a more liberal attitude on the part of the public toward the school and its problems.
5. To increase the confidence of the teachers, pupils, parents, and the public in the importance and value of the school work.

6. To guard against harm from attacks by unfriendly interests.

This statement of aims could be still further analyzed to include purposes that are purely local in character. Such analysis is extremely important in selecting the methods to be used in interpreting a school to its community.

Seven Issues Involved in Framing a Public Relations Program

An effective program of public relations cannot be framed unless school authorities are willing to face very frankly such issues as those set forth in the succeeding paragraphs.

Issue one. *What does the public already know about schools and what does the public want to know?* There are few educators who make a systematic study to find out what the people in their community already know about schools. Without such information, however, it is obviously difficult to plan an appropriate program of information. No expert teacher would proceed with a program of classroom instruction without taking account of the knowledge and skills already possessed by the members of the class, but many school officials organize programs for instructing the public without much consideration of the knowledge the public already has. In such instances, it is generally assumed that the public has a marked degree of interest in school finance as well as in the newer developments in education, especially changes relating to health, physical education, and vocational fields. It appears to be taken for granted that the public has little interest in teaching procedures, especially as applied to the older subjects. It is usually believed that the public understands (1) that many children are immeasurably benefited by school attendance, and (2) that many advantages accrue to the community from the maintenance of schools.

It would appear that administrators have concluded that any information relating to the schools is likely to be of interest to some group of patrons, and have therefore assumed that a sufficient variety of information is likely to influence the views of a substantial portion of the citizens of a community. In

all probability, school officials are wasting a considerable amount of time and effort through repeating information that most patrons already have, and at the same time are neglecting to give information that the public wants to receive. We need more systematic studies of what the public knows and what the public wants to know about schools.

Issue two. *What training in public relations should the teacher receive, and by whom should the needed training be given?* It is generally agreed that the teacher is a very important agent of public relations because he has so many intimate contacts with parents. However, apparently very little has been done to make the teacher effective in this respect. It is granted that many teachers are most effective in spite of the neglect of training for participation in the program. Administrators from large school systems usually report that, while school executives have given a considerable degree of thought to their responsibilities for the cultivation of sympathetic attitudes on the part of school patrons, it cannot be said that teachers have recognized their full responsibilities in the field of public relations. These superintendents are inclined to blame the teacher training institutions for a failure to stress interpretation of the school as a part of the teacher's responsibility. They also point out that a few teachers are so tactless, so undiplomatic, and so unsympathetic in their dealings with patrons that the schools suffer from their blunders.

Most teachers appreciate the importance of good will and are therefore tactful and diplomatic in their dealings with patrons. However, the schools are handicapped by the unfortunate attitude of a minority who seem to feel that the rank of teacher gives one the privilege of expressing opinions without regard to the consequences. Three or four such teachers in a staff of 50 can be very destructive in their influence on good will that may be developed by the other members of the staff. It would appear desirable for employing authorities to be more careful to avoid choosing teachers who are not reasonably tactful and diplomatic. It would also seem expedient for school executives to instruct teachers concerning some of the

effective means of winning and holding the confidence of the patrons. It is, of course, granted that teacher training institutions should emphasize the specific contributions that teachers can, and should, make in programs of public relations.

Issue three. *How can pupils be so instructed about the school that they will aid in its interpretation to the public?* Few public agencies desiring the good will of patrons have the advantage that the school enjoys in reaching parents through the children. It does not appear, however, that the teaching profession has made very large use of students as agents for the interpretation of school programs. Not infrequently, graduates of our secondary schools exhibit a gross ignorance of the aims and scope of public education. There are few high schools where the students are given any adequate instruction about the history of their school system or its contributions to our social order. An experienced teacher in the field of social studies confesses that it had never occurred to her to include in her instruction any reference to the aims of our school system, or to the contribution made by the schools to the support of our democratic institutions, or to the losses that might follow a curtailment of the school program. This teacher's confession is probably indicative of the general neglect that characterizes our profession.

It would appear that we are not following a sensible policy when we allow students to leave our schools without an adequate understanding of the background, the purposes, and the contributions of the American school system, and then attempt within a few years to inform these same young people all about the school system through a series of newspaper articles, lectures, and talks. Pupils at all levels, from the kindergarten through the high school, can be interested in certain of the school problems that we frequently refer to citizens for settlement or discussion. It is really quite surprising that we have made so little use of the pupils except to increase interest in the meetings of the parent-teacher associations, to sell tickets for certain school entertainments, and to distribute literature to patrons. Every school system should have a well-

planned program for the instruction of pupils on problems relating to our educational system. If such a program had been followed for the past twenty years, many of the present difficulties that face the schools would be understood much more intelligently by a considerable fraction of our citizens.

Issue four. *Is the school's program helped or hindered by the active participation of teachers, as organized groups, in state as well as local political campaigns?* It is common knowledge that a considerable number of teachers believe in a policy of active participation in political campaigns. The case for such participation usually emphasizes the possibility of an increased public interest in the policies of public education, as well as the chances of securing better educational legislation through such participation. It is also claimed that such participation may stimulate a movement to place political discussion on a higher level than at present, may increase the social-mindedness and civic spirit of teachers, and may tend to develop teachers' professional organizations of greater strength and larger usefulness. It is also argued that such aggressive participation may safeguard the schools against abuse, misrepresentation, or graft by political bosses, and may tend to strengthen governmental policies designed to protect the health, morals, and well-being of children and youth.

Some opponents of active participation of the teaching profession in political campaigns claim that such activity might be strongly resented by large numbers of public-spirited citizens. It is argued that the public might gain the impression that teachers had become a pressure group concerned with selfish aims. It is also claimed that there is grave danger that the profession may become the tool of scheming political demagogues, and that teachers may be tempted to use their classrooms to further the advantage of partisan groups. It is also feared that the schools may become the political football of the partisan groups. Aggressive participation by teachers in partisan politics might, it is apparent, be very helpful from the standpoint of public relations, but there is also the real danger that such participation might prove very costly.

Issue five. *How can the schools keep the good will of certain pressure groups without becoming the tools of these pressure groups?* This is a pressure-group age. At the present time, we have a very large number of organized groups that are concerned with promoting changes or preventing changes. Many of these pressure groups stress economic reform; some are concerned with political issues; and others are primarily interested in problems in the field of character education. It is not surprising that these groups should seek to influence the educational program of the schools, nor is it always easy to resist their claims. It should be recognized that there are pressure groups also among the ranks of educators, representing subject-matter groups, groups of progressives and essentialists, and special groups of supervisory and administrative officials, some of whom want to modify school policies in terms of their special interests.

It is granted that school authorities must take account of public opinion as expressed by these groups, but it is not always easy to distinguish between the unselfish proposals and the selfish ones. It is difficult, furthermore, to avoid the possibility of one group's acquiring a degree of control over the school program that would irritate and annoy some other pressure group. The best policy for school authorities is to insist that pressure groups keep in mind that schools exist to further the educational interests of their students, and all proposals for change must therefore be evaluated in that light. It is, of course, conceded that it is not easy to get citizen pressure groups to accept this viewpoint in their enthusiasm for advancing particular objectives. However, the public should be made more conscious of the fact that the work of schools is frequently handicapped by the guerrilla warfare between groups that is now being carried on in many communities.

Issue six. *How can the financial needs of schools be more effectively explained to citizens?* Much of the present interest of educators in more effective public relations programs is doubtless due to a growing realization that the schools are in severe competition with other governmental agencies for the funds

raised by taxation. This competition for funds is due in part to the recent expansion of governmental service in fields of relief and social service, and in part to the determined efforts to force governmental agencies to operate on lower budgets. There also appears to be considerable difficulty in inducing citizens to evaluate appropriations to schools in terms of the real services rendered by educational agencies. Of late, there has also been a marked tendency to demand services of schools without providing additional funds to finance them.

In recent years, several cities have brought out new types of annual reports designed to give patrons a better picture of the work of the schools and their financial needs. It is quite apparent, however, that our profession needs a greater degree of expertness in explaining financial problems to the rank and file of citizens. It may be that we could anticipate some of the problems in this field, ones that may be faced ten or more years hence, by emphasizing the financial problems of schools in the instruction given in secondary schools and colleges.

Issue seven. *How can a successful attack be made on the prevalent notion that a public relations program is primarily concerned with the protection of the special interests of the teaching profession rather than with safeguarding the interests of children?* Some members of the teaching profession seem to believe that the public thinks of teachers as so unselfish, high-minded, and idealistic that no honest citizen would view with suspicion any proposal that teachers might offer with regard to the schools. Doubtless there is a marked degree of unselfishness in the teaching profession, but it appears that many citizens are strongly suspicious that teachers are as selfish and as much concerned with the protection of their interests as any pressure group might be. There is, hence, a tendency to discredit much that our profession has to say concerning school needs.

It must be granted that much of the effort devoted to public relations involves questions having to do with salaries, tenure, pensions, and teaching loads. Even though these questions may not be urged as of primary importance, a considerable

number of citizens have a suspicion that the drives to secure a longer school year, to raise additional funds for the support of the schools, and to provide funds for the erection of new buildings are in large part intended to advance the special interests of the teaching profession. Many citizens are not convinced that well-paid teachers who have a feeling of security in position, as well as security in old age, render better service than teachers who are paid low salaries and are consequently worried about tenure as well as support in old age.

It is not surprising that the public should be so suspicious, in view of the amount of propaganda that is constantly presented by private enterprise and, even, by governmental agencies. It must also be conceded that our profession has not always stressed student needs in its contacts with the public, and that we are not in agreement on student needs. There is also reason to believe that some teachers appear to be more concerned with protecting vested interests in subject-matter fields and in maintaining the status quo than they are in providing the most effective program of training for their students. As a profession, we need to be more realistic in attacking the problem of creating confidence in the fairness and wisdom of our proposals relating to education.

The Organization of a Public Relations Program

Five steps in a public relations program. In an examination of the literature on advertising, as it pertains to business, one finds that there are five important steps to be considered in the planning and organizing of a campaign of publicity. These steps are: (1) defining the specific aims to be sought, (2) analyzing the field or market to determine the necessity for publicity as well as the character of the groups to be influenced, (3) selecting the facts to be emphasized in the advertising, (4) choosing the methods or mediums to be used in placing and keeping facts before the market, and (5) checking the results to determine the effectiveness of the work. It is not difficult to apply these steps to the development of a program of interpreting the secondary schools to the public.

The principal and public relations. One of the chief duties of the principal is to serve as the school's agent before the public, enlightening and advising the people with respect to the school's undertakings, achievements, and needs. The position of the principal is strategic. His is the middle vantage point between the school on one side and the outside world on the other. He represents one of the institutions which is of most immediate interest to the public.

Public opinion is often influenced by people who have been misinformed. If the principal can come before the group with a statement of the facts in such cases, and can show the people that misinformation is responsible for the criticism, future trouble may be avoided. In like manner, he may build up constructive sentiment regarding the policies and functions of the school.

The question might naturally be asked, "Why should the principal of a large school devote any of his time to outside organizations when there is so much to be done within his school?" And the answer might properly be, "Because it is necessary for his success as a principal." Many failures could properly be attributed to the fact that the principals concerned did not actively participate in the social and civic life of the community. This should not mean that the principal is to take part in these activities solely for his personal glorification. It should be not so much a personal affair as a matter of keeping before the public the program and aims of the school. His participation in these affairs is to the end that he may be of greatest service to the children of the community.

Not only will such participation allow the principal to interpret the school to the community, but it will also make it possible for him to interpret the community to the school. A progressive principal must keep his finger on the public pulse. No person connected with the school system is in as good a position to know school policies and, at the same time, to be in such close personal touch with his community as is the principal. Gossip can often be killed by social contact when the principal has facts at hand. Success in developing and

maintaining community contacts depends upon the principal's being intelligently informed concerning his policies. It is possible for him to create interest in schools, and what they are doing, by discussing problems of community or national importance and their relation to the school program.

Analysis of the field. Advertising authorities remark that many business firms waste much of their advertising through failure to analyze their market properly.

In an analysis of the field to be influenced through high school publicity, one needs the facts on such items as:

1. The number of students completing their elementary or junior high school work who do not signify an intention of entering high school, together with the stated reasons for such decision.
2. The attitude of parents toward the high school work.
3. The vocational and educational plans of the high school students.
4. The amount of elimination in the high school for a period of five years, and the apparent major causes.
5. The common local criticisms of the high school.
6. The extent to which the school reaches the nonresident elementary school graduates living within its sphere of influence.
7. The nationalities represented in the community, foreign languages read and spoken, and the attitude of the leaders of un-Americanized groups toward the high school.
8. The attitude of the churches, the newspapers, the leading labor unions, and the principal store and factory managers toward the high school.

Selection of facts for publicity. The development of a plan for public relations requires the selection of the material to be presented to the different groups comprising the field. These facts may be classified as:

1. News items relating to the social activities of the school. Such items are particularly interesting to the high school student and to the prospective student because of the youthful desire for an active social life.

2. News items concerning the athletic, public speaking, musical, and other special performances of the school. These items appeal both to students and to many parents and public-spirited citizens.

3. News items of the success of graduates. Such items appeal to the ambitious student, create student confidence in the school, and make a very strong appeal to many parents.

4. Well-written, popular accounts of the work that is done in the different departments of the school. The public is interested in knowing what is being done in all special courses, and in being informed about successful features of the work in the regular academic subjects.

5. Understandable statements of the courses offered in the school. The usual printed list of subjects offered has little value, but a very brief explanation of the aim and possible vocational or preprofessional value of the courses has real worth as publicity material.

6. News items concerning the activities and successes of teachers. Such items have value if too frequent mention is not given to a few teachers. A modest amount of this type of publicity is likely to cause the public to think more favorably of the high school faculty, but a large amount is certain to cause unfriendly comment.

7. Facts relating to the value of education, and special articles on the civic importance of liberal support of the schools.

8. Facts concerning school costs, school attendance, growth in enrollment, accounts of special studies of vocational interest, and frank statements of needs. It is no easy task to present such facts in an interesting manner, and the counsel and advice of publicity experts should be sought.

Selection of mediums for school interpretation. The selection of the agencies and mediums to be used in getting the facts before the school's constituency is a most important step. Some of the avenues for school publicity work are:

1. The news, editorial, and advertising sections of the local newspapers.

2. Attractive posters shown in public places.

3. Exhibits in school buildings and downtown centers.

4. Popular bulletins, pamphlets, and school papers.

5. Letters to prospective students, to their parents, and to all students who withdraw.

6. Illustrated lectures and special talks before public audiences, clubs, labor unions, and church societies.

7. Public performances by musical clubs, public speaking societies, dramatic clubs, and athletic teams.

8. Special talks to pupils completing their elementary or junior high school work.

9. Active participation in community affairs by the members of the teaching staff.

The newspapers can give a great amount of publicity under the heading of news, and it is seldom necessary to resort to paid advertisements. Newspaper men say the most generally read local items are those relating to the schools and their activities. This is true because, through the children, more of the people in a given community are interested in the schools than in any other local activity or institution.

The student's contribution. Students are perhaps the best interpreters of the schools. The student is the connecting link between the school and the home. Whatever the spirit of the school may be, the student will interpret it to the home. Besides taking home impressions and oral messages, the student delivers written notices and printed information concerning the school with a promptness that could not be achieved otherwise. Through the student, the principal has even quicker access to the home than by the newspaper. Practically every home in a community can be reached within a few minutes after a message is given.

One of the most important aspects of public relations in dealing with students is commonly neglected, namely, that of informing the students about education and its problems for the sake of future values. These students will be the parents of the next generation. The school that fails to recognize its responsibility for developing in them a sympathetic understanding of public education is losing an invaluable oppor-

tunity to cultivate good will toward the schools of the present and the near future.

Student activities. One of the easiest and most frequently used methods of high school publicity is employment of the extracurricular activities of the students. These activities, especially in recent years, have become prominent in schools of all sizes. High school athletic teams, musical organizations, debating teams, and dramatic undertakings have done much to attract the public attention to the school.

Exhibits. Closely related to the regular extracurricular activities are the school exhibits. When well conducted, these exhibits bring abundant information to parents and pave the way for closer cooperation with patrons. Exhibits are commonly arranged for: (1) annual and special exhibit days at school, (2) downtown show-window displays of school products, (3) demonstration lessons in classrooms, (4) women's and men's club meetings, and (5) programs of motion pictures or slides in the theaters or the school.

The parent-teacher association. The most effective agents in the development of a public relations program are parents, teachers, and students, and one of the most effective single agencies through which this contact may be achieved is the parent-teacher association.

The parent-teacher organization may serve through the medium of personal acquaintance to promulgate facts which both the teachers and the parents need. In most communities, if parents were left to visit the high school at their own initiative, very few would ever get inside the school building. Studies show, furthermore, that few of the homes of school children are visited by teachers when there are no associations to bring parent and teacher together. In meeting and talking with the parents, the teachers may learn many things that will help them to understand the student coming from that home. They may learn the economic conditions of the home, the religious tendencies, and such facts concerning the home life of the student as possibilities of study at home, necessity for the student to work evenings to help support the family, and

opportunities for play or for recreational activities. They may also become acquainted with the parents' plan for the student's future education. Do they wish him to finish high school? Is he going to college? Such facts will help teachers to determine the curriculum that will best meet the student's needs. In return, the parents may see the necessity of prompt and regular attendance at school. They may acquire an understanding of the objectives of classroom instruction that will fit them better to help and encourage the student. They may learn the conditions of the building itself, its instructional facilities, and its recreational and laboratory conveniences. There should be the closest cooperation and the most perfect understanding between the school and home if both are to give their best to the development of the student. Moreover, no parent can be enthusiastic and interested in the school unless he knows the conditions under which it functions.

The parent-teacher association, made up, as it is, of that group of people who are most interested in the school and its welfare, makes an ideal organization in which to promote efforts for school improvement. No major improvement in school conditions is possible until a strong public opinion approves and demands it, and no group can so successfully influence public opinion and public school officials as an enthusiastic group of parents. Perhaps the school needs a new building, additional playground space, additional playground equipment, an athletic field or bleachers, increased financial support which will enable the principal to secure more teachers and to offer a broader curriculum, or similar needs that the public should supply. When needs are shown and parents are convinced that they are urgent, it requires little guidance from the school administrator to secure the needed support.

The teacher's part in developing good will. Every teacher should recognize good will as an indispensable asset to a school and should therefore be concerned with policies that tend to develop it. What are some of the effective policies for cultivating good will for a school? On this issue, there is much difference of opinion.

Some stress the values to be secured through newspaper publicity, while others recommend that the good will of patrons be developed through their attendance at programs, exhibits, demonstrations, and conferences. The use of parent-teacher groups to develop sympathetic understandings is also recommended. One of the most effective ways to cultivate good will, however, depends on the study of the requirements that parents would define for teachers. Such a study is similar to the investigations of business concerns that are seeking to discover the likes and dislikes of customers. Some business firms annually spend large sums in their efforts to discover the trade practices that meet with the approval of patrons. Similar studies should be carried on by the school, and policies should be modified in terms of the findings. On the basis of conferences with local parent-teacher associations, one of the authors reached the conclusion that parents want teachers to:

1. Be sufficiently interested in knowing them as parents to take advantage of opportunities to meet them.

2. Know their children well enough to appreciate virtues as well as faults.

3. Treat their children with dignity and respect. They particularly resent the use of terms of contempt.

4. Inform them concerning any impending crisis in a pupil's school relations before the situation becomes very serious.

5. Give them a reasonable amount of warning concerning any unusual expenditure of money for books, supplies, or social affairs.

6. Emphasize the mastery of certain fundamental skills in reading, writing, and other tool subjects, and emphasize training in effective habits of study.

7. Place special emphasis on instruction in matters of honesty, cooperation, respect for the rights of others, purity of speech, and other desirable qualities of conduct.

8. Give special attention to the protection of the health of their children.

9. Train their children in such a way as to enable them to

make reasonable progress in their school subjects, and be able to diagnose the difficulties of unsuccessful students.

10. Assign home work in such a way that it will arouse the pupil's effort and interest.

11. Develop a spirit of good will and success in the school groups, so that their children will like to go to school.

12. Express a greater degree of confidence in the children than they themselves may seem to possess.

13. Treat them with a marked degree of courtesy and respect when they visit the school.

Parents and teachers mutually helpful. Parents may help students to get the most out of their days of schooling by:

1. Stimulating the students to appreciate the opportunity to secure an education.

2. Picturing the school as a happy, desirable place, rather than as a place students should wish to avoid.

3. Avoiding criticism of teachers or school within the student's hearing and developing in the students habits of cooperation and respect for authority.

4. Helping the school authorities to attract and retain superior men and women in teaching and administrative positions.

5. Encouraging punctuality and regular attendance, not permitting trifles to interfere.

6. Seeing that students are dressed simply, neatly, modestly, and suitably in accordance with the weather.

7. Stressing the value of nourishing food, sufficient rest, less excitement, appreciation of good music, good books, and good times at home and elsewhere in wholesome surroundings.

8. Finding out how much time should be devoted to home work, and seeing that it is done; and providing a quiet place for home study, with good light and ventilation.

9. Showing an interest in the student's schoolwork, athletics, and other activities.

Teachers may help parents in matters pertaining to the welfare of students by:

1. Getting acquainted with the parents outside of school

hours, and thus facilitating freer exchange of opinion relative to the welfare of boys and girls.

2. Acquainting parents with facts concerning the success of their children, or the causes for failure.

3. Making assignments of outside work in such form that parents will not be annoyed by indefinite or impossible assignments of home work.

4. Setting such an example in matters of dress, conduct, and intellectual interests as will make it easier for parents to uphold certain standards and ideals.

5. Stimulating in students the desire to continue in school and to meet high standards in scholarship and citizenship.

6. Winning the confidence of boys and girls to such a degree as to afford the parents genuine help in handling the perplexing problems of adolescence.

Evaluating the Public Relations Program of a School

The need of continuous appraisal. In view of the difficulties of organizing and administering an effective program of public relations, school authorities should be constantly alert to discover elements of weakness or of strength in their practices of social interpretation of the school. School administrators need to be franker in their appraisal of public relations practices, for it is quite apparent that much of the activity is missing the mark. There is also need to develop a greater degree of sensitiveness to trends in public opinion, as well as a larger measure of expertness in interpreting the schools to the community. Frequent checking of a school's practices is therefore strongly urged.

A check list of practices. In order to ensure that a well-planned program is developed for informing the public about its school system, it is desirable to review some practices that might be followed. The following check list of activities furnishes a summary of the practices of many schools:

..... 1. Formulating a brief statement of the educational philosophy of the local school and securing discussion of it by local groups of teachers, parents, and civic leaders.

..... 2. Instructing pupils with reference to the purposes, the scope, and the achievements of the American school system.

..... 3. Placing in each classroom a copy of the Children's Charter (which may be secured from the N.E.A.) and emphasizing the items in the Charter in discussions with pupils and parents.

..... 4. Organizing and disseminating information on school costs expressed in simple terms and emphasizing values that accrue to the child.

..... 5. Supplying factual information to newspapers and to civic groups in order to guard the school against misrepresentation by hostile critics.

..... 6. Inviting committees of civic organizations to become acquainted with the practices and achievements of the school and to offer constructive criticisms.

..... 7. Maintaining a school news column in local newspapers and preparing occasional feature articles.

..... 8. Sponsoring festivals, exhibitions, and pageants that have real value in interpreting the program of the schools.

..... 9. Cooperating with civic organizations in the annual official program arranged for American Education Week.

.....10. Establishing systematic contacts with local service clubs, chambers of commerce, women's clubs, and other civic organizations.

.....11. Giving consistent support to the work of parent-teacher associations and similar groups that promote cooperation between the school and the home.

.....12. Organizing listeners' groups of patrons for the educational radio talks sponsored by the N.E.A. and other educational institutions.

.....13. Developing a new type of report card designed to give more helpful information to the child and the parent, and to interpret the educational program.

.....14. Taking prompt advantage of unfair attacks on the school to place accurate and adequate facts before the community.

.....15. Cultivating the interest of parents by providing a quality of instruction that will merit their respect and by following policies that will develop good will.

Variety desirable in a public relations program. In a circular issued by the educational department of one of the well-known popular magazines, the following statement was made regarding the value of publicity: "He who drives a nail

into a post fastens it at the first stroke of the hammer, but still more firmly with the second stroke, and so fast with the third that it can hardly be pulled out again." The analogy between advertising and driving a nail is obvious, yet the principle is often overlooked by those who have something to explain to the public. A school should provide variety in its program of interpretative practices as a means of ensuring continuous emphasis on its objectives in public relations.

The increasing importance of public relations. Public opinion is one of the most powerful forces in any community. It can promote or hinder efforts to provide adequate educational opportunities for the youth of a community. It can greatly influence the effectiveness of the high school staff. It is common knowledge that the attitude of citizens toward a school may change for reasons lacking validity. Depression, war, and even prosperity, or the activity of an unfriendly pressure group, may change the attitude of the public on education. It is therefore necessary to build substantial support for a high school through service to the youth of the community. No amount of publicity about the hopes and needs of the school will save a school from adverse criticism if its service to youth is of low quality.

In a recent report[1] of the American Association of School Administrators the following pronouncements were made:

> Good schools are the foundation of desirable public relations. Attempting to save a poor system by launching an elaborate public relations program is like trying to put paint on a wet wall.
>
> Public relations are dependent upon recognition of the value of cooperative action and desire for the satisfactions of achieving together.
>
> Silence regarding the responsibilities of the schools in times of rapid social and economic change is a luxury no board of education can afford.
>
> Public relations should point the way to a better world. Although perfection has not yet been attained, the school is recognized as an instrument in building cooperation within the community, the state, the nation, and the world.

With the increase in propaganda, good and bad, citizens have become increasingly suspicious of the claims made by all organ-

[1] *School Boards in Action*. Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. 1946, p. 184.

ized groups including the schools. A successful program of public relations must therefore be carefully planned if substantial support for a school is to be built.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. List the arguments that you would use in seeking to convince a board of education that emphasis should be placed on a well-considered program of public relations for your high school.
2. State what you consider to be the major aims of high school publicity.
3. What are the most valuable agencies for school publicity?
4. Add one or more suggestions to the lists given in the section entitled, "Parents and teachers mutually helpful."
5. Distinguish between "gossipy" news and wholesome school publicity that is informative and constructive in its character.
6. How may the school newspaper aid in keeping the community informed of the program and activities of the school?
7. A city school superintendent instructed his high school teachers not to join any of the local service clubs. What is your opinion of this policy?
8. A high school principal once said, "About all the P.T.A. does in my school is stir up trouble." What opportunities was this principal losing?
9. How can teachers in a high school be involved most effectively in a public relations program?

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Chapter XXIII. THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND STANDARDIZING AGENCIES

Development and Purposes of Standardizing Agencies

A large amount of educational machinery has been developed in the United States chiefly for the purpose of standardizing the secondary school. The elementary school has remained comparatively free from such standardization, and until recently the colleges have enjoyed comparative freedom from the control of accrediting agencies. The development of standardization of secondary schools was in the beginning involved with the problem of college entrance requirements, but more recently has concerned issues defined in state laws.

Early practices. The University of Michigan was the first higher institution in the United States to devise a system of inspection of secondary schools with a view to determining eligibility for approval. This system had its origin in a resolution adopted by the University faculty in 1871 and confirmed by the Board of Regents in the following year. The purpose of this inspection was to determine the ability of schools to prepare their graduates to undertake the first year of work in the University. The plan led to a revolutionary change from the prevailing system of college admissions by examinations to a new system called "admission on diploma." This new plan was destined gradually to replace the older system of admission to college.

Other state universities followed the example and established similar plans of admission that encouraged the development of standardizing agencies for secondary schools. As the various state departments of education grew in strength, some universities shared the work of inspection with state agencies, while others transferred the full responsibility to the state.

The present control of state standardization. Although the state universities greatly influenced the trend of standardization of the secondary schools, the legal authority to inspect schools has generally been retained by the state department of education or a similar agency. In 1873, the state department of public instruction in Indiana established an accrediting system for public high schools. Pupils graduated from an accredited high school were entitled to enter Indiana University. Other states followed the example. At present, most of the state departments of education are responsible for accrediting high schools in their respective states. In most of the states, accrediting is a legal function of the state department. This function carries with it the responsibility for setting up and administering definite standards for classifying high schools. It is in this latter capacity that state departments influence high school organizations, programs of studies, and curriculums.

The regional standardizing agencies. In view of the close relationship between the standardization of secondary schools and college entrance requirements, it is not surprising that regional associations have developed. There are six such associations. In order of founding these are: the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The first regional association, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, was organized in 1885. This, the oldest of the regional associations, is the only one that does not enforce standards for secondary schools and higher institutions. It acts as a standardizing agency only through its discussions of various problems in the field of higher and secondary education.

The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary

Schools, established in 1892, followed the example of the New England Association in emphasizing the importance of conferences as a means of improving school standards. In 1926, however, it took steps to establish standards and to set up machinery for the classification of secondary schools. In 1928, its first list of accredited schools was issued.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was founded as a result of a resolution introduced at the 1894 meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club by a principal of a private secondary school in Michigan. This resolution requested the presidents of the University of Chicago, the University of Michigan, and Northwestern University to call a conference to consider ways and means of establishing closer and more harmonious cooperation and more effective articulation between the high schools and the institutions of higher education in the north central states. The maker of the motion was stimulated to offer it by the example of the New England Association. In response to the resolution, the proposed conference was called in 1895, and the North Central Association was established.

The charter members of the Association were Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The number of states in the North Central Association has since increased to twenty.

The North Central Association was the first to set up standards as a basis for the approval of high schools. These standards were adopted in 1905, and have served to influence the work of the other standardizing agencies in the United States.

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, organized in 1895, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, organized in 1918, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, organized in 1930, have followed policies similar to those of the North Central Association and have exercised a similar influence.

Avowed purposes of regional standardizing agencies. In all the regional associations, the promotion of the welfare

of colleges and secondary schools is defined as the major objective. The objective of the New England Association is the "advancement of the cause of liberal education by the promotion of interests common to colleges and secondary schools." The Middle States Association is concerned with "any and all other questions affecting the welfare of the colleges and schools, or calculated to secure their proper advancement."

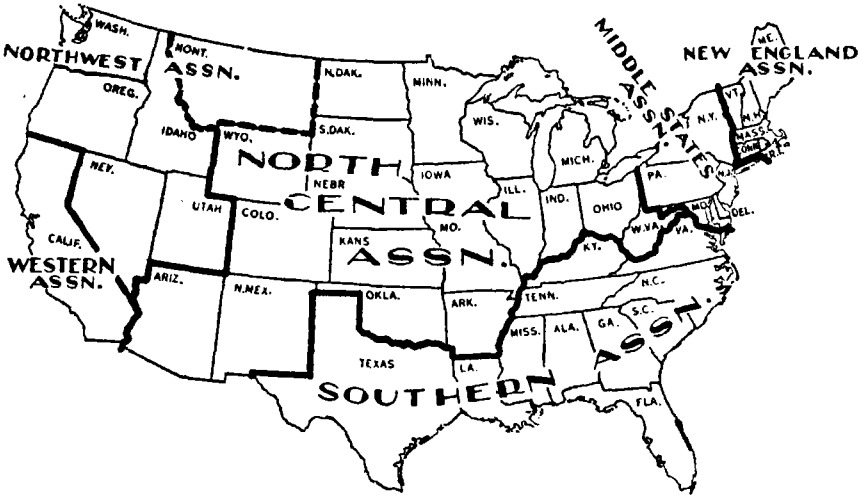


Figure 3. This map shows the territory in which each of the regional associations operates. The only state to have a double affiliation is Montana, which is a member of both the North Central Association and the Northwest Association. (From *School Life*, July 1939.)

The purpose of the Southern Association is "to establish helpful relations between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education within the territory of the association and to consider all subjects that tend to the promotion of interests common to colleges and secondary schools." In the North Central Association, the aim is "to establish closer relations between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education." The Northwest Association states that its purpose is "to foster close cooperation between the secondary and higher schools of the Northwest." The Western Association serves the same general purposes as the other regional agencies.

The Policies of the Largest Regional Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Significant characteristics of the North Central Association. In order to give a better understanding of the aims, organization, and policies of regional standardizing agencies, a brief account of the significant characteristics of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is here given. This is the largest of the six regional organizations and one of the most influential. The purpose of this association in the beginning was to establish and maintain friendly relations and more effective articulation between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education within the north central states. This early aim has continued to be the primary purpose of the association. Since its establishment it has been an influential standardizing agency, not only in the field of secondary education but also in the field of higher education. Its first list of accredited secondary schools was not issued until 1904, nine years after the formation of the association. But, even before that date, it was exercising a directive influence in the affairs of the secondary schools.

The North Central Association is constantly studying its standards with a view to making them conform more nearly to the best practice. In recent years, the association has studied the problems of teacher preparation, pupil load, preparation of the principal, the status of the junior high school, college entrance requirements, and curriculum problems, as well as a number of other perplexing educational problems. These studies have helped the association to avoid the blighting effects of a type of standardization that ignores the results of experience or experimentation. The association has always been careful to avoid setting its standards in such a way as to bring about a dead level of uniformity.

Membership in the North Central Association is voluntary. There is no law that compels a secondary school or a higher institution to join it or to accept its standards. Part of its strength arises from the fact that schools *choose* to accept its

standards; they do not accept them because they are compulsory. In turn, the association enjoys a freedom in dealing with schools because of the voluntary character of its membership.

When schools join the association, they obligate themselves to observe its standards or to forfeit recognition. This obligation was recently clarified by legal process in a suit [1] which Governor William Langer of North Dakota brought in 1938 against the North Central Association and its officers, seeking to restrain them from removing the University and the State Agricultural College of North Dakota from its list of accredited colleges.

The case came before the District Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Illinois. The Association, as defendant, contended, first, that the court had no jurisdiction in the matter as the controversy was one solely between members of voluntary organizations, and second, the privileges of the colleges under the rules of procedure of the Association must be exhausted before any remedy in any court was sought.

In rendering a decision, the court reviewed the facts of the case in some detail and ruled that the court had jurisdiction in the matter, but the claim of the plaintiff for the inclusion of the two schools on the approved list was denied. Part of this very important decision is as follows:

> The North Central Association of Colleges is purely voluntary in character. . . . Voluntary associations have the right to make their own regulations as to admission or expulsion of members and one who becomes a member, by its membership, assents to the Constitution and rules of procedure adopted by such an Association. The Constitution, by-laws and rules, knowingly assented to, become in effect a civil contract between the parties, whereby their rights are fixed and measured. Consequently, in the absence of fraud, collusion, arbitrariness or breach of contract, such as give rise to a civil action, the decisions of such voluntary associations must be accepted in litigation before the court as conclusive, for the members of the organization have made them binding by contract. . . .
>
> In churches, lodges and all other like voluntary associations each person, on becoming a member, either by express stipulation or by

[1] "The Association Sued" (editorial), *North Central Association Quarterly*, XIII (July, 1938), 2–3.

implication, agrees to abide by all rules and regulations adopted by the organization, and courts will not interfere to control the enforcement of by-laws of such associations but will leave them free to enforce their own rules and regulations by such means and with such penalties as they may see proper to adopt for their own government. . . . Consequently such an organization is the judge of its own members, and membership therein is a privilege which may be accorded or withheld and not a right which can be gained independently and enforced. . . . The rules laid down for the government of the members of an association form the measure of their rights in the premises; it is vain to appeal to a constitutional bill of rights, for such bill of rights are intended to protect the citizen against oppression by the government, not to afford protection against one's own agreements. . . .

The evidence discloses no violation of civil rights but merely a decision by the Association that the College is not eligible to membership. There is no evidence to sustain the contention that this decision was arrived at arbitrarily and without substantial evidence to support it. . . . Accordingly the motion for temporary injunction will be denied and temporary restraining order dissolved.

The foregoing decision is highly significant, since it is the first time that the Association's legal status has been established and clarified. By court ruling, the Association is entitled to act in accordance with its constitution, rules, and regulations of procedure, its guiding principle being the stimulation and improvement of educational practices among its member institutions.

The scope of the North Central Association criteria. The criteria for the evaluation of secondary schools in the North Central Association relate to such problems as: (1) instruction and spirit; (2) the school plant, sanitation, and janitorial service; (3) instructional equipment and supplies; (4) the school library and library service; (5) school records; (6) the policies of the board of education, the administration of the school, and its financial support; (7) preparation of the instructional and supervisory staff; (8) the teaching load; (9) the pupil load; and (10) the educational program. Some of these criteria may be summarized as follows:

Buildings. The school plant must be adequate for the program of instruction and must ensure hygienic conditions.

Library. The library must meet the instructional needs of the pupils, and a professionally trained librarian is required in schools enrolling 1,000 or more students.

Requirements of organization. The school year must be at least 36 weeks in length, the recitation periods must provide a minimum of 40 minutes, and sixteen units must be required for graduation.

Qualifications of teachers of academic subjects. All teachers must be college graduates, and supervisory and administrative officers must possess the master's degree. At least 15 hours of professional training are required of teachers of academic subjects, plus a minimum degree of specialization in any teaching field.

The teaching load. The Association recommends the following practices: (1) pupil-teacher ratio, 25 to 1; (2) the number of classes taught by the teacher, five daily; and (3) the total number of pupil-periods per day, 150 per teacher.

Instruction and spirit. The Association defines its views on the standards of instruction and morale as follows: "The efficiency of instruction, the acquired habits of thought and study, the general intellectual and moral tone of a school, and the co-operative attitude of the community are paramount factors, and, therefore, only schools that rank well in these particulars, as evidenced by rigid, thorough-going, sympathetic evaluation, shall be considered eligible for the list of schools approved by the Association."

How a regional association does its work. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools consists of representatives of universities, colleges, teachers colleges, academies, and high schools. In order to have a representative, a school must be on one of the approved lists of the association and must pay the annual fee.

The work of the association is very largely carried on by three standing committees, known as commissions: (1) the commission on secondary schools, (2) the commission on institutions of higher education, and (3) the commission on unit courses and curriculums. These standing committees or

commissions prepare reports which are later submitted to the association for consideration. The annual meeting of the association is really a business meeting of the official representatives of the higher and secondary institutions on the approved list. The decisions of the association have a far-reaching influence because the makers of these decisions are truly representative of the educational interests of the twenty North Central states.

The procedure that the association follows in making up the list of approved secondary schools is designed to reveal adequate facts relative to a school. The first step calls for an application blank which is prepared by a committee of the commission on secondary schools. This blank is changed each year in order to eliminate weaknesses and deficiencies, to avoid collecting unnecessary information, and to ensure prompt introduction of any new type of information that the association feels is needed in its work.

As a second step, these blanks are distributed through the inspectors of the different states. It has been found to be both feasible and desirable to make use of state machinery in securing information relating to secondary schools that are seeking approval.

The third step in the plan for preparing a list of approved secondary schools requires that the reports returned by the schools be reviewed by a state committee consisting of one representative from the state university, one representative of the state department of education, and selected representatives of secondary schools.

As a fourth step, the annual reports from the schools, with the recommendation of the state committee, are submitted for examination to the committees of the commission on secondary schools.

As final steps in the procedure, the recommendations of these committees are submitted successively to the commission on secondary schools, then to the executive committee of the association, and finally to the general association. The association has never granted the commission on secondary

schools the right to make a final decision. The final decision is made by the association, with the right of appeal from this decision to the executive committee.

Some Services of Standardizing Agencies

Standardizing agencies and articulation. It seems to be quite generally assumed that those engaged in the field of high school inspection are trying to secure a degree of standardization that will develop very effective articulation between the secondary schools and the colleges. The truth of this assumption may properly be questioned. It is doubtless true that twenty years ago the emphasis in inspection was on the standardization of courses in the secondary schools in such a way as to ensure the preparation of students to meet the requirements of colleges. But the purposes of inspection now are so radically different from those of an earlier period that it is doubtful whether the work of the agencies of standardization contributes as much as formerly to the promotion of effective articulation.

It may be that the standardizing agencies have gone too far in the direction of indefinite and general requirements. An analysis of the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shows that there are very few requirements stated in exacting terms. The association prescribes a school year of 36 weeks; four years of college training for teachers, with 15 hours of professional training; class periods of a minimum length of 40 minutes; and a minimum of sixteen units for graduation from a four-year high school. A school could meet these minimum standards and be totally unlike a neighboring school that in turn met all of these standards. Students coming from the first school might make ready adjustment to a higher institution, and those coming from the second school might find such adjustment extremely difficult. Likewise, two students from the same school might meet with varying degrees of success in the matter of adjustment, because of differences both in ability and in the results obtained from instruction.

The value of state supervision of high schools. The emphasis in state inspection is now placed on preparation of teachers, matters of equipment, general spirit of the school, community support, and general effectiveness of work. The schools are given much freedom in determining the amount of work to be covered in any of the subjects of study. It is true that some states make recommendations and issue syllabuses that influence greatly the amount of work covered. It is true that the state standardizing agencies have made it increasingly easy for students to transfer from one school to another, and have prompted a willingness to accept the credentials sent by other accredited schools. This does not mean, however, that standardization has guaranteed that students will be given the same quality and quantity of preparation in the different school systems.

The services emphasized through the state supervision of high schools are suggested by the objectives of such supervision. These may be summarized as follows:

1. To instruct educational authorities concerning ideals, standards, and good practices in school organization and management.
2. To educate boards of education with regard to their duties and responsibilities.
3. To raise the level of instruction in high school subjects.
4. To develop more attention to the supervision of classroom instruction.
5. To secure the employment of more college graduates as teachers in high schools.
6. To improve the quality of the care and the upkeep of school buildings.
7. To bring about a better understanding of college requirements.
8. To improve the quality and increase the use of school libraries.
9. To develop a feeling of professional leadership and responsibility on the part of the principals of schools.

10. To stimulate communities to provide modern school buildings.

11. To introduce a thorough system of student records in the high school.

12. To enforce state laws relative to high school matters.

The foregoing purposes point to the fact that these agencies recognize as their major tasks the promotion of more effective articulation of the units in public education and the improvement of instruction. Such purposes lead to the development of many useful services to the secondary schools of a state.

Contributions of regional standardizing agencies. It would be impossible to estimate the impetus which standardizing agencies have given to high schools. By setting up standards of admission to college, by holding up ideals of educational achievement to local communities, they have greatly improved secondary education. These agencies have also aided in the development of more uniform college entrance requirements. The ideal of uniformity in college admission requirements has been championed from the time the first association was organized. As early as 1888, modern-language requirements were discussed in the New England Association. In succeeding years, requirements in other subjects, especially in English, were given frequent attention in the associations of New England and of the Middle States. Out of these discussions of college entrance requirements grew a movement for defining unit courses of study in secondary schools. The early studies attempted to determine which subjects should be required for college admission and the amount of work in each. Now college admission is only one phase of the problem, and the definition of units in the secondary schools is the larger subject for investigation. Several associations have permanent commissions on unit courses and curriculums.

The publication of lists of accredited secondary schools and colleges has been a valuable contribution. The regional associations were not organized as accrediting agencies. However, as study and experience disclosed more and more the

limitations of entrance examinations as determiners of college fitness, the associations began to formulate standards and, on the basis of them, to make up lists of approved schools. Four of the associations now issue such lists of approved institutions, both of secondary and of college grade.

The regional associations have also conducted valuable studies in secondary and higher education. Aside from a great number of discussions and investigations relating to uniform requirements for college admission, college entrance examinations, and the accrediting system, the following items have been recurring subjects for attention by the regional associations: junior high school, junior college, high school library, size of high school classes, private secondary schools, special statistical studies of member schools, vocational education, and standards for the accrediting of secondary schools.

Standardizing agencies have rendered important service in improving educational conditions through standardization of procedure and through wide dissemination of knowledge concerning schools and their practices. Recently, much work has been done in developing standards on a scientific basis and in devising plans whereby schools may be permitted to express their own individuality, adopt new practices, and conduct experimental work without jeopardizing their standing in the associations.

Meeting Current Criticisms of Standardizing Agencies

The criticisms of standardizing agencies. It is the charge of some educational leaders that the standardizing agencies have become real hindrances to progress through their emphasis on standards that have been developed from studies of practices rather than derived through careful experimentation. It is also claimed that the secondary schools are now administered, except in the more backward communities, by individuals who bring to their work highly developed professional knowledge and skill, and that these professionally trained executives may be relied upon to maintain a high quality of instruction in the secondary schools. Should these schools be

hampered in their efforts to improve by quantitative regulations externally imposed? Some go so far as to propose that accrediting agencies should cease to be standardizing agencies and should, instead, become articulating agencies. They would have colleges select students by the use of intelligence and scholastic aptitude tests and on the recommendations of high school principals as to the candidate's character and achievements, rather than on the basis of units and subjects. Some critics would have accrediting agencies foster experimentation and devote most of their efforts to developing a closely articulated school system, offering a curriculum based on individual and social needs.

The national cooperative study of secondary school standards. The stimulus for the organization of a Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards was the increasing dissatisfaction with existing standards for the accrediting of high schools by the different state agencies and by the regional associations. The existing standards were denounced as mechanical, inflexible, traditional, and utterly unscientific. It was granted that much good had resulted from the development of these standards, but it was believed that more valid criteria could be discovered by careful inquiry. The six regional accrediting associations, therefore, agreed in 1933 to undertake a cooperative study of their standards. The funds were provided in part by appropriations from the six regional associations, supplemented by a financial grant from the General Education Board.

This study was designed to appraise the expressed criticisms of the policies of the standardizing agencies, as well as to discover better ways of serving the schools. Its objectives may be summarized in the following questions:

1. What are the characteristics of a good school?
2. What practicable means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives?
3. By what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one?

4. How can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth?

An executive staff for the study was located in Washington, D. C. Two hundred schools, private and public, ranging from small to large and equitably distributed over the country, were selected for intensive study. Each school was called upon to make a large number of detailed reports covering every phase of the school; a representative group of students were given standardized achievement tests; cards of inquiry were mailed to a cross section of the parents and to representative groups of graduates and former students. Finally, a committee of five highly qualified and experienced educators appointed by the headquarters staff of the survey visited each school for three days. This group made a detailed inspection of the administration, the classroom instruction, the physical facilities, the business office, the accounting procedures, and other phases of the school. Later, these men and other staff experts evaluated the written reports which previously had been sent in by the school, and compared them with the personal inspection reports.

From the intensive study of the 200 schools, the evaluative criteria, previously developed and including more than 1,100 check-list items, were revised. Standard tests were given to 17,000 students. Records of 13,000 graduates and 7,000 former students were studied. Judgments of 17,000 students and 7,000 parents were secured. The weights given to various items were determined by the combined judgments of the 200 principals, the 75 inspectors, and the twelve members of the professional staff of the study.

It is believed that the conclusions reached through the Cooperative Study will have a profound influence on the future policies governing the accrediting of schools. Eells, in commenting on the possible outcomes of the Cooperative Study, has urged that the primary function of accrediting by the state or regional association should be stimulation toward continuous growth and improvement. He has elaborated his views in the following statement:

This means that the conception of the state or regional organization as an inspectorial or police agency gives way to one of mutual friendliness, helpfulness, and stimulation to constant improvement of all schools, good or poor. While accreditation for college admission may be based on relatively few factors, stimulation of a school to become a better school makes a much more extensive body of criteria both desirable and necessary. Such stimulation requires attention not only to such factors as may discriminate between the good school and the poor school but constant attention to all factors or elements common to all types of schools, now and in the future. Nothing is more common than essentials. Not all essentials discriminate, but they must not be neglected; rather they, too, must be improved. Mere accreditation is not sufficient. It is simply the first step in a continuous process. In a democracy, a school should not be satisfied with being good; it should strive constantly to become better.[1]

A number of reports of the results of the Cooperative Study have been published. The several regional associations are giving careful consideration to the recommendations of this great study, and it is anticipated that standards more realizable, more equitable, and more significant will result.

An unsolved problem of standardizing agencies. For many years the United States has permitted an underworld of higher education to exist. There are so-called higher institutions that issue credits and diplomas which are not recognized as meeting the requirements for the certificates and the licenses required for nursing, pharmacy, teaching, and other professional services. The degrees from these low-grade institutions are worthless. Some of these colleges possess state charters issued in terms of low requirements. Many of these institutions make misleading but attractive inducements to prospective students. With the recent increase of college students, especially the veterans under the G. I. Bill of Rights, there should be more concern about the protection of students against the claims of shyster or low-grade colleges. Most of the states need to strengthen their laws governing the granting of college charters, as well as strengthen their inspection of institutions that lack adequate accreditation. High school principals should assume greater responsibility for

[1] Walter C. Eells, "Bases for a New Method of Accrediting Secondary Schools," *Educational Record*, XIX, Supplement No. 11 (January, 1938), 114–42.

acquainting students with the standing of colleges. In 1945 the American Council on Education issued a publication [1] giving information regarding 1700 institutions of collegiate level. It is the first time that adequate information regarding the offerings and accredited status of colleges has been available. The standardizing agencies should consider the continued existence of low-grade colleges as an unsolved problem deserving of vigorous attack by organizations of reputable higher institutions.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Name the standardizing agencies that influence policies of the high schools of your state.
2. What advantages accrue to a high school on the list of approved schools of any one of these standardizing agencies?
3. Should the control of accrediting of secondary schools be assigned to a state university or to a state department of education? Why?
4. What favorable or unfavorable comments have you heard regarding any of the standardizing agencies in your state?
5. What gains or losses would accrue to high schools if the state and regional accrediting agencies such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools were to suspend their present activities?

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[1] *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States.* Published by the American Council on Education, 1945.

Chapter XXIV. SECONDARY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE RELATIONS

Preparation for College

In previous chapters, it has been pointed out that secondary schools throughout most of their history have been dominated by the institutions of higher learning. Their curriculum has been organized primarily with a view of preparing pupils for advanced study in the colleges and universities. At first, the requirements of such institutions presented no serious problems of preparation or admission, since articulation of subject matter was one of simple continuity rather than of many units of a greater variety of subjects. In the beginning of secondary education, the studies of the Latin grammar school were designed as preparation for advanced study. The academy and later the high school, with their broader curriculums, were organized partly in protest against the narrow curriculum of the Latin grammar school, but the new subjects were accepted only to a limited degree for college entrance. In time, there came to be a standardized list of subjects conforming to fifteen specified units, which remains the common entrance plan of today.

Probably there should be no serious criticism of the early domination of secondary education by the colleges, as the secondary schools had little, if anything, to offer on their own account. The domination was a natural development under the circumstances. Many of the selected groups who attended the early secondary schools expected to enter a college where similar, but more advanced, studies would be pursued. The continuance of college instruction in some fields, particularly those of language and mathematics, was often hampered by lack of uniform preparation. Naturally, insistence by colleges

on definite requirements in language, mathematics, and other subjects followed, with good results for that period. As the college curriculum expanded, there was an insistence on additional preparation in the new fields of learning.

Current tendencies and influences. The character of secondary education is still determined to a large extent by the requirements and influences of higher institutions, although domination and dictation from these sources are on the wane. The secondary schools are exhibiting a tendency to ignore any demands by the colleges that conflict with what seems best for the largest number of students. Secondary schools have had to face the issue of whether they shall spend the taxpayers' money to build a program of education that is constructive and adapted to the needs and interests of the students enrolled, or whether they shall continue to offer only the college preparatory courses that in the typical secondary school will serve the needs of only a minority group.

The seriousness of this problem has resulted from the vast changes in the structure of society, with the accompanying changes in high school conditions. It has been pointed out that high school enrollment has doubled every 10 years during the present century, that the student population is no longer a homogeneous group, and that the secondary schools must now deal with a multitude of new problems that concern the welfare of all adolescent youth. But in spite of these changes, the problem of preparation for college still exists in practically every high school. It remains pertinent because of the demand of a few parents who expect the local high school to prepare adequately for any college, no matter what the difficulties may be. The many differences in college requirements and modes of entrance, and the varying, rapidly changing demands of the local community, have served to increase the complexity of the general problem. Meanwhile, there has been a tremendous urge for students to attend college. According to a survey of the U. S. Office of Education,[1] the percentage of high school

[1] *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, 1932–1934, p. 13. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 2.

graduates continuing their studies during the period of 1920 to 1930 remained fairly constant. In this decade, slightly more than 30 per cent attended the colleges and universities, and 12 to 14 per cent attended other institutions. From 1930 to 1935, there was a decline in the percentage of high school graduates who attended institutions of higher learning, but since 1935 the percentage has been on the increase. Enrollments in colleges, universities, teachers colleges, and normal schools have grown since 1890 very much more rapidly than the rate of increase in the population of the country.

A major issue in secondary education. The continued emphasis on the college preparatory course, in the face of new conditions which demanded a program of secondary education adapted to the diverse needs and interests of all pupils, precipitated a serious issue. The Committee on Orientation defined this issue as follows: *Shall secondary education be primarily directed toward preparation for advanced studies or shall it be primarily concerned with the value of its own courses, regardless of the pupil's future academic career?* After consideration of all the factors involved in this question, a verdict was rendered in favor of the second alternative. Some phases of the program that was suggested as a remedy will be considered later in this chapter.

The conclusions reached by the Committee on Orientation in making its recommendation on this issue have a direct bearing on the relations of the secondary school and college. The following summary contains the most important of these conclusions:[1]

The experience and knowledge of educators indicate unmistakably that secondary education should be primarily concerned with the value of its own courses. They know perfectly well that the majority of secondary school pupils do not go on to college, but pass directly into society. The responsibility of the school to care for such pupils and prepare them for social usefulness calls for a differentiated curriculum that will show results when these pupils end their education in the

[1] Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education*, pp. 212–56. Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

public schools. Educational psychology, in its shift of emphasis from the subject to the learner, affirms that immediate and assured values are essential to stimulating most pupils to learn. Even the schools' function to integrate socially the mass of pupils that they may all take some useful place in a cooperative social scheme demands that courses yield values significant to all. A great deal of academic material may indeed be needed, but it must produce actual results and have a direct relationship to better living. If secondary education is to be good for all pupils, the college preparatory curriculum as the only, or perhaps even the main, base for the school program is not adequate.

The selection and organization of material for a flexible secondary school curriculum which will have a maximum value for all pupils constitutes a major problem. The secondary school cannot expect colleges and universities to alter to any great extent their entrance requirements before it has developed a new curriculum having proved values. It can then invite, perhaps insist upon, the development of college entrance requirements unencumbered by specific units and frankly recognizing quality of personality, mentality, and habits of work as the most fundamental factors.

Who Should Go to College?

Conflicting opinions. The question of who should go to college has recently become exceedingly pertinent, if not insistent. College and secondary school administrators are concerned as never before with the qualitative and quantitative phases of college admission. There are two rather diametrically opposed theories relative to the question as to who should go to college. Both spring from the beginnings of educational theory and practice as developed in America. The earliest colleges, as privately endowed institutions, assumed the right of determining the methods of selecting students. At the same time, these earliest colleges bore a relation to the general demands of society and manifested a sense of obligation to state and nation. Meanwhile, the obligation of public taxation for initiation and support of educational affairs had been successfully launched as a distinctly new contribution to educational development. This peculiarly American idea had an irresistible potency that eventually carried it through the establishment of the public high school and the state university.

Attitude of privately endowed institutions. Accompanying the rapid development of state universities during the past few decades, there has been gradually less feeling on the part of endowed institutions that they should minister to the ideal of general citizenship service. In some cases, the growth of huge endowments and the concurrent clamor of an oversupply of students have perforce emphasized the more private nature of these institutions. The result has been the pronouncement

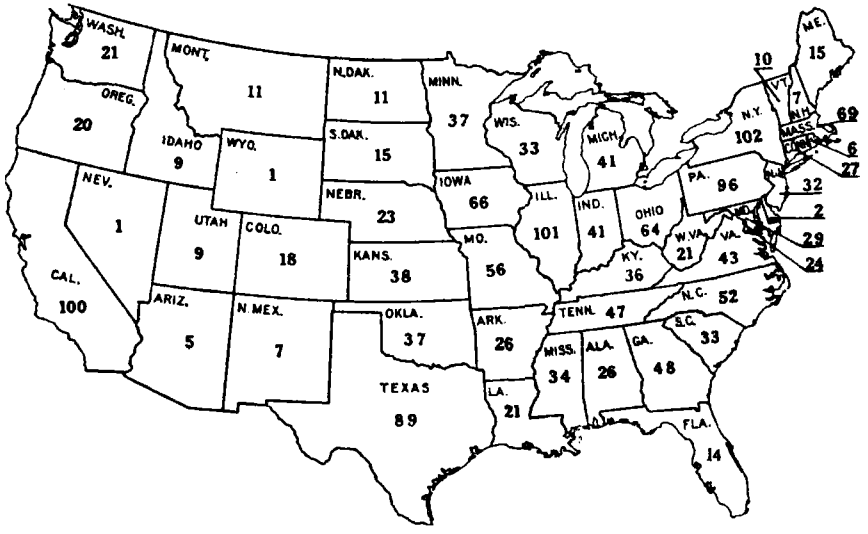


Figure 4. The number of higher institutions of all types — public and private — in each of the states. (From *Education in the United States of America*, p. 43. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1939, Misc. No. 3.)

of a more isolated right and privilege to maintain the peculiarly conceived character of the institution as something apart from the general university function. From this situation, the most significant development is probably the marked emphasis on the quality selection of students and on the privileges of higher education for only those students who, by manifest certainty, will profit by it.

Many of the private institutions have developed particular methods for arriving at quality selection. The fact can be supported that certain private colleges do an admirable job of selecting superior students. Student bodies of these institu-

tions rate highest in ranking determined from the standardized tests of the American Council on Education.

There are many small colleges throughout the country that cannot afford to be distinctly particular in the selection of students. Their chief income is derived from tuition fees; therefore a certain number of students must be obtained. The fact that some of these institutions operate at very low costs enables a considerable number of students to have college experiences which would otherwise be denied them.

That the less difficult entrance requirements of such colleges also increase the opportunities for college attendance is obvious. Who shall say with complete justice that these institutions do not play a truly significant part in the realm of higher education? A survey of the graduates of the little-known colleges gives surprising results in terms of successful leadership and satisfactory adjustment to life.

There are also some private institutions operating within great urban centers which must depend on an income from tuition fees. The extension work and other valuable services which these universities or colleges may give are possible only by reason of large enrollments; accordingly, deciding who should enter is not the restrictive process that it may be elsewhere. Here again, large numbers of youth secure college privileges which otherwise would be unattainable.

President Conant [1] of Harvard has recently discussed the important fact that colleges fail to reach many promising youth who are financially unable to meet college expenses, while in contrast, many youth attend college who are not worthy of the time or cost.

Attitude of state institutions. In direct opposition to the narrower conception of admission held by the private college, state institutions of higher learning have developed on the basis of granting admission to all who meet a general statewide requirement. This requirement cannot well be higher than the secondary schools of the state can reach with comparative ease. The student who is graduated from a local high

[1] American Association of School Administrators, *Official Report*, 1938, p. 122.

school with units in the subjects as specified by the state institution is, in general, entitled to entrance. To provide for youth as full an educational opportunity as possible is a thoroughly ingrained principle of our political and social development. That the doors of the higher institutions of the state should, and must, be open to all those who knock is a principle maintained with no little force.

While it seems relatively easy for a high school graduate to enter a state institution, it is not so simple for him to remain there. It is an accepted practice that a large contingent, often 50 per cent, of the freshman class of a state university will be subtracted from the rolls at the end of the first semester. Although many of these failing students may not be of college caliber, the economic waste and emotional frustration resulting from elimination of so many freshman students is worthy of serious consideration.

The recommendations of a national commission. The National Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in treating this problem in 1918, recommended the same relation between the secondary school and the higher institutions as now almost universally exists between the secondary school and the highest grade of the elementary school. In brief, such relations should carry the advancement of the individual pupil from the elementary to the secondary school, and from the secondary school to the college or university, whenever he has derived what is, for him, the maximum return from the lower school, and whenever there is any reason to believe that he may profit from experience in the higher institution.

The predicament of the secondary school. Although the foregoing discussion has pointed to the existing theories and practices relative to the question of who should go to college, the fact remains that there is no simple or even completely satisfactory solution for the principal of the high school.

Undoubtedly, the modern school realizes that there is a very considerable number of youth who, perforce, must go through high school years, but are quite unsuited for either the college

preparatory courses as now constituted, or for courses in the college as they are now offered. There are also a number of students who have the capacity to go to college, but not the enterprise needed. For such as these, fond parents come to the high school administration to implore, to criticize, and perhaps to threaten. To many parents, the opening of college doors is a long-cherished dream which, at all odds, must come true.

The principal's first and best answer to this question is the most nearly ideal guidance system that it is possible for him and his faculty to set up. Beyond this, the solution seems to rest on the intangibles of circumstance which may not be discernible in advance.

Various Methods of Admission to College

Changing requirements. Requirements for admission to the American college are characterized by constant change and variation. They are in a continuous state of revision and transition. The first subject requirements were restricted to a knowledge of Greek and Latin. Gradually, the list was augmented until, by the year 1866, it had grown to include English grammar, arithmetic, geography, ancient history, algebra, and geometry. Thereafter, other subjects came more rapidly: physical geography, United States history, English composition, English literature, physical science, and modern languages. From 1850 to about 1870 there developed an enlargement of choice through the division of the requirements into separate courses for the A.B. and B.S. degrees. Already changes in the secondary school brought a demand for college opportunity wider than had been afforded for the Bachelor of Arts degree.

Origin of the unit. By 1895, the question of college admissions had become so important by reason of the growth of the high school problem that it was recognized by the appointment of a committee from the National Education Association. In 1899, after prolonged investigation, this committee issued its final report. Its most significant recommendation had to do with the establishment of a certain number of

constants for admission to college and the recognition of a standard unit of work. However, an accepted definition for the unit was not reached until 1909, when the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools adopted the following definition: "A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, consisting approximately of a quarter of a full year's work." Many colleges and a number of educational organizations, including the College Entrance Examination Board, are working under the definition.

Through the influence of a number of regional organizations, the practice of requiring fifteen units for admission to college has become common. The private institutions of the east have held largely to a restriction of the fifteen units within traditional limits, while the state universities and private colleges of the west have tended to a continual expansion of the scope of subjects accepted for entrance.

The changes in social and industrial life have influenced the curriculum of the public high schools more markedly in the west, and the higher institutions in turn have responded to the needs of the high schools. The more democratic conception of the state university has also exerted its influence toward a readier compliance with new demands and obligations than can be easily expected of the older private institutions of the east.

The free-margin plan. As an example of this difference, the west has for some time used free-margin units whereby a student takes ten or twelve units within the usual restrictions during four years in high school and three to six units from any material which is accepted by his high school for graduation credit. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the oldest of the regional associations, has been loath to adopt free-margin units. The free margin varies with the different colleges. The opponents of the free-margin plan argue that many of the new subjects of the high school curriculum which are advanced through the free margin are, as yet, too uncertain in content and method to justify college recognition.

TYPES OF EVIDENCE COLLECTED AND USED IN ADMITTING OR REJECTING COLLEGE STUDENTS

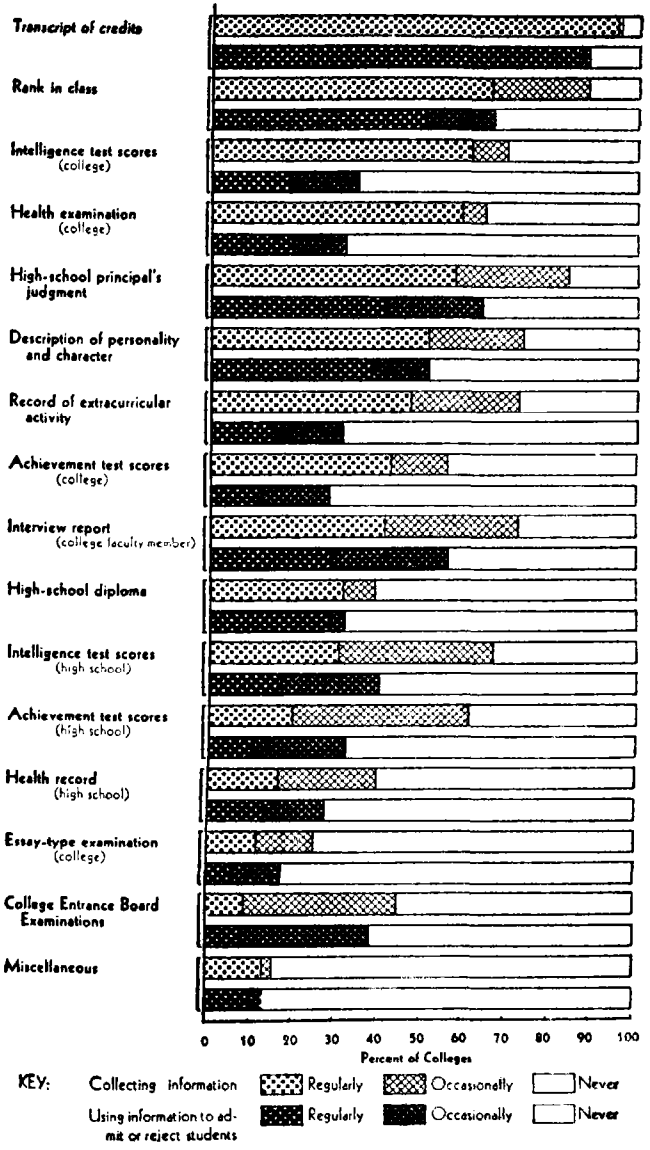


Figure 5. Includes references from pastor, employer, alumni, etc.; general and personality data obtained from sources other than high school; record of health from physician; record of oculist's examination; vaccination record; emotional and personality test results; results of special tests; results of competitive examination for scholarships; cumulative record cards; church relationship; records from previous college in case of transfers; vocational objectives, interests, and experiences; results of state testing program; and standing of the high school concerned.

Other developments. A few private institutions accept the entire number of units on the recommendation of an approved school. Another feature of the arrangement of subject requirements is the presentation of units according to sequence, in which subjects must appear in major sequences of three or more units and minor sequences of two or more units. This plan is based on the importance of the principles of continuity and concentration in learning, and is also an attempt to avoid the waste involved in a scattered offering from many fields.

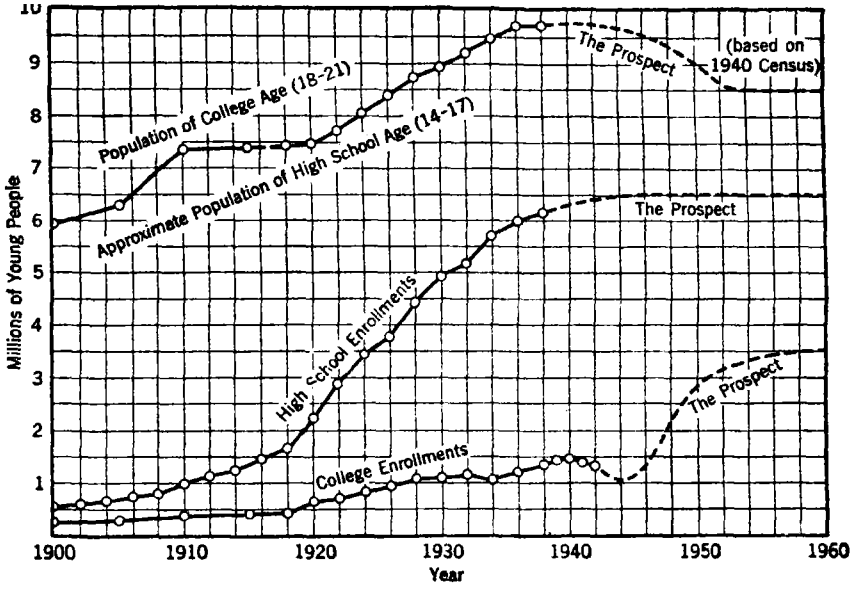
Trends in unit requirements. The number of units of secondary school work which a pupil has earned is generally the quantitative measure for fitness for college. A requirement of not less than fifteen units is almost universal with American colleges and universities.[1] The variation in the requirements of different institutions for the distribution of these fifteen units is very great. According to a recent investigation made by the National Education Association, the average number of specified units in 1930–31 was ten, and in 1936–37 was 9.4. Among the subjects specified for college entrance, English heads the list.

Despite the tendency to free pupils from requirements which are too rigid, the subjects that were most commonly required in 1930–31 were still the subjects required by the largest number of colleges for entrance in 1936–37. The typical pattern is three units of English, two units of mathematics, one unit of social science, one unit of natural science, and two units of foreign language. Under this pattern, the pupil is permitted six elective units in making up his fifteen-unit requirement.

The development of entrance examinations. In addition to the subject-matter requirement in terms of units, there is the problem of method of admission. Until several decades ago, the examination held sway as the one method of admission. At first, the examinations were given quite informally and, for the most part, orally by the respective professors of the various subjects. As enrollment increased, formal written

[1] *From High School to College*, pp. 77–78. Research Division, Bulletin No. 2. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

exercises were necessary, and a definite administrative machinery was required. With the increase in the variation of requirements, the preparatory school found the task of preparation



Actual and prospective changes in college and public high school enrollments, 1900 to 1960, in relation to the population of college or high school age.[1] The curve for high school enrollments includes only public high school students in the last four years — grades nine to twelve in most states — and college enrollments include only students in the "regular" session. The figures for population of college age are only approximately correct for the population of high school age, but very close approximations can be read by taking the college-age population figure at four years later than the year for which the figure is desired.

for a number of different college examinations exceedingly confusing and difficult. The colleges also found that they were developing an increasingly burdensome and unwieldy entrance

[1] From University of Michigan School of Education *Bulletin*, November, 1942. The circles joined by straight lines in this graph represent obtained statistics, and the top dotted line is based on the 1940 Census returns. The other two dotted lines, of course, are conjectural. All statistics for this graph are from the biennial surveys of the U. S. Office of Education, except the dotted Census line and the last four years of college enrollments. The college enrollment figures for 1939 to 1942 were estimated from the *Annual Reports* of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. The biennial surveys and these annual reports show inconsistencies in themselves and with each other, but primary dependence was placed on the Office of Education statistics.

method. The slight tendency toward some standardization and cooperation in the use of units helped to advance the idea of a similar method of handling entrance examinations. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools fostered the idea which came to form in the College Entrance Examination Board, a central agency for preparing examination papers, for determining centers where examinations would be given, for giving the examinations, and for marking the papers. Colleges became members of the Board by application and received, in return, the services of the agency.

The College Entrance Examination Board. It is difficult to overestimate the influence of the Examination Board in the standardization of subject matter and of unit requirements, in the coordination and organization of syllabuses and textual matter, in giving definite goals of accomplishment, in bringing more accuracy into the making and marking of examinations, and in furnishing the preparatory school with a type of instructional measurement. The amazing growth of this Board in influence, in prestige, in the amount of business transacted can be fully ascertained through a study of its interesting yearly reports.

It is probably true that, in the main, the Board has been conservative and that the so-called restricted type of college admission in the east is due largely to the character of the institutions which most fully support the Board. It is interesting to note, however, that from the Board has come the development of the comprehensive plan, and that it has been one of the first to experiment with and use the psychological examination for college entrance. In no case does it restrict the experimentation or the use of diversity in entrance methods of its members. Such large supporters as Harvard and Yale have both worked out peculiar phases of entrance quite apart from the methods of the Board.

The Board operates two plans of examination in each of the subjects accepted for entrance. The new, or comprehensive,

plan permits a restricted selection of four subjects. The new plan is receiving wide acceptance and is used almost exclusively by the major women's colleges of the east. The old plan is still favored by the private preparatory school, largely, it seems, because the old plan lends itself more readily to the tutoring or coaching method of preparation. In connection with the new plan, increasing recognition is given to the school record of the student, and in some cases colleges do not grant permission to take examinations when the school record is not satisfactory.

Lately, the College Board has offered a general aptitude examination in April, especially to aid colleges in determining worthy candidates for scholarships. A most recent development is for the college to accept a high record in this special April examination in lieu of the regular College Board examinations given in June. The Board is also developing new examinations of the comprehensive type to fit the current movement in fusion and integration of subjects.

The women's colleges, in particular, are using certain comprehensive examinations as tryouts for juniors in high school, hoping thereby either to prepare the student better in the senior year for entrance into the college she hopes to attend, or to eliminate the candidate so that she may make other plans for her senior year. In any case, the plan is commendable from the guidance standpoint.

Several institutions have recently perfected examinations of their own for candidates who do not meet the certificate standards. For the most part, their examinations are of the comprehensive type and cover three of four basic subjects. Many higher schools using the certificate method of admission accept units passed through College Board examinations in lieu of certificating marks.

The certificate method. One of the oldest certificating agencies is the New England Certificate Board, which 30 years ago exercised considerable influence along the Atlantic seaboard. It established a central board to which high schools applied for the certificate privilege. Standards other than a

listing of fifteen required units were not often used. The certificating privilege rested almost completely on the college success of the school's graduates. Failure of a single graduate successfully to do his college work often resulted in notice from the respective college that the certificating privilege would be withdrawn. The central board, in turn, would sit to consider the unfavorable report from its college member. Satisfactory work of graduates of the school in question in other colleges might, in the judgment of the board, prevent the complete loss of certification. It has been the practice of the eastern colleges using the certificate system to require a definite certifying mark named by the preparatory school. Usually this mark has been from five to ten points higher than the school's passing mark. The college would not accept units with marks lower than the certifying mark. In the past two decades, the individual variation in the admission methods of eastern colleges has practically nullified the usefulness of this organization as a certificating agency.

Under the leadership of the University of Michigan, the certificate method spread throughout the west and to the south as a result of the conception of public education from the elementary school through the university as a function of the state. In the early stages, the college or state university determined the standards, largely consisting of unit requirements, and left the certificating decision to the respective schools. This method is still followed in a few instances. In the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the certificate system has developed into a mutual agency for creating a comprehensive evaluation of all phases of schoolwork.

Examination versus certificate. In a study made by the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the vote of the high school principals of New England was more than 90 per cent favorable to the certificate scheme. The weakness charged most frequently against the certificate scheme is in relation to the variation in quality of high school work and the irresponsibility of many principals whose facility

in certifying seems amazing. Notwithstanding the often-heard statement of colleges regarding the inaccuracy of high school certificates, it has been established by studies of the college success of certificate students versus students admitted by examinations that the latter do not do as well. This result may be due, however, to the greater care given by the college authorities in the selection of certificate entrants. It should also be pointed out that these studies do not apply to the large state universities where a considerable percentage of students are eliminated as failures at the end of their first semester.

A marked advantage of the certificate method is the absence of the strain and drive incident to the preparation for college entrance examinations. The latter tend to become the be-all and the end-all of the school's instructional program, dominating and restricting the classroom procedure. Many teachers object seriously to what they term an artificial and narrow hindrance to their creative spirit and best effort. The certificate system allows college preparation to be incidental to other functions and objectives of the school. Since the school is judged by results in college entrance examinations, when such examinations are taken by any considerable number of graduates, the school practice is at once controlled and directed by the fear of not giving sufficient time and care to preparation for the examinations.

A marked weakness of the examination method is the opportunity afforded for preparation by the cramming process, for necessarily superficial preparation by tutoring, and for a scheme of entrance to college favorable to the wealthy who are able to obtain as much highly skilled tutoring as is necessary to pass a definite subject examination. Recently, the situation just mentioned has been much improved by the elimination of September examinations by most of the large eastern colleges, the insistence upon the new plan of comprehensive examinations, the new emphasis of the College Entrance Board on questions demanding thought and interpretation, with less of the purely factual question, and the increased use of the psychological test.

Aptitude and psychological tests. All candidates for the examinations of the College Board must now take a scholastic aptitude test which is prepared each year by a number of the most expert psychologists. The College Board has maintained a special commission to study the results and to determine the use of the tests. Many colleges are using the test returns with marked success. The Commission has found a high correlation between the tests, the school record, and the written examinations. The American Council on Education, in Washington, D. C., has worked with a large number of colleges and universities in all parts of the country in the perfection of admission tests as a means of college entrance and placement.

Several institutions have worked out their own psychological tests. These are administered by the local school or by representatives of the college at certain designated centers. Studies by the College Board and other agencies disclose that the certificate method is a better scheme of selection than the old-plan examination, that the aptitude test is better than either the certificate or old-plan examination used alone, and that a combination of the school record, the psychological test, and the comprehensive examination is more effective than any one of these methods used alone.

The selective process. Some higher institutions have established what is called a selective process of college entrance. Various methods are used in this process. The number of entrants is limited according to the physical facilities of the institution. Depending on the margin of unsuccessful candidates, there is a stipulation regarding the candidate's rank in his high school graduation class. This requirement varies from the upper half through the first third, the upper quarter, the upper fifth, or even the upper seventh. Candidates ranking below these levels are either eliminated completely or allowed to try the examination method of entrance. There is a marked tendency to use the examination in the case of doubtful candidates.

The selective process also makes use of the geographical quota with a limited number of candidates acceptable from any

predetermined region. The purpose of this provision is to give the institution a national significance, and to gain advantages assumed to accrue from the mingling of individuals from all the different sections of the country. Candidates who are the immediate offspring or relatives of alumni are given favorable consideration in the selective process. Sentiment, tradition, and knowledge of the family background are sociological items of importance, it is assumed. The selective process also emphasizes a personnel or character rating. The latter has, in fact, developed in some measure as a part of almost every method of college admission. A special form is generally used, asking for specific information concerning the gamut of traits considered important for college success. Many of these blanks are rather formidable in make-up, and require of the answerer not only a considerable amount of time but also an accuracy of knowledge and understanding obtainable only through a careful systematic plan of high school study and recording. The increased burden and responsibility on the high school administrator is exceedingly large. It should be admitted, however, that the personality information now demanded as a part of college admission methods is material that high school teachers and principals should have available for daily use. Although clerical work for the high school teacher and the administrative office has apparently been increased by college demands, the results serve a good purpose and perhaps could not have been so effectively obtained by any other agency.

Admission under the accrediting system. The rise of the state university led to the development of a method of admitting students which is known as the accrediting system. As the state university is regarded as a part of the public school system, special effort has been made to articulate it with the high schools in order that students may experience as little difficulty as possible in passing from the high school to the state university. In 1871, the University of Michigan started this system by admitting students without examination from secondary schools which had been inspected and approved by

representatives of the university. Today, the system of admission on evidence of graduation from high school exists in every state for part or all of the higher institutions. As the system of accrediting secondary schools by state universities and by state departments spread, interest was aroused in organizations of colleges and secondary schools for the consideration of problems of common interest to high schools and institutions of higher learning. The result of this interest was the founding of the regional associations discussed in the preceding chapter.

Recommendation by the principal. A study of the status and trends of college entrance requirements made by Gladfelter [1] shows that an important factor in determining the fitness of the applicant for college is the recommendation of the secondary school principal. The following statements are quoted from Gladfelter's study of the requirements of 146 institutions:

> A new factor in determining the fitness of the applicant for college is the recommendation of the secondary-school principal. None of the previous studies gave much consideration to this requirement. During the past decade, however, colleges have begun to rely on the information which is furnished by the principal concerning the ability and the general habits of the applicant. . . .
>
> The general statements in many catalogues are similar to the point of view taken by Miller, the director of admission for the University of Pennsylvania: "Our experiment at Pennsylvania will serve as evidence that the wiser course for the colleges is to eliminate technical entrance regulations insofar as possible and place the greatest confidence in the well-considered and significant recommendation of the secondary school."

Summarizing the results of the study of status and trends in college entrance requirements, Gladfelter says:

> Probably the simplest classification of the criteria which are generally employed in the selection of the college student is that stated in the Bulletin of Goucher College. It is: (1) amount of preparation, (2) quality of preparation, (3) the indorsement of the secondary school, (4) the score made on a test of scholastic aptitude, and (5) personal qualifications.

[1] Millard E. Gladfelter, "Status and Trends of College-Entrance Requirements," *School Review*, XLV (December, 1937), 737–49.

During the past decade colleges and universities have become more concerned with the intellectual promise and personal qualities of the applicant than with the pattern of subjects completed in the secondary school. The unit and the subject mark as instruments for prediction have given way to such factors as rank in class; sequence in subject fields; and ratings on intelligence, psychological, and achievement tests.

Problems of Articulation

Attempts to improve articulation. Most secondary schools and colleges have some kind of cooperative relationship with one or more agencies carrying on projects and activities designed to improve articulation and integration. Among the groups most active in trying to bring about better articulation of secondary schools and colleges are: (1) the six regional accrediting associations, (2) the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, (3) the American Council on Education, (4) the Progressive Education Association, (5) the College Entrance Examination Board, and (6) the American Association of Junior Colleges. There are also various state and sectional groups of administrators and personnel directors engaged in work on specific problems of articulation in their particular areas. Among the projects carried on by the above-mentioned agencies to improve articulation are inspection of high schools, various reports, a working toward accepted standards, joint conferences to discuss common problems, development of new courses of study, and various joint committees.

Instead of working through some agency of organization, many high schools and colleges use the method of direct cooperation in improving articulation and relationships. Many of the activities carried on by this method are similar to those mentioned above. Probably the most frequent ones are joint conferences, cooperative research studies, discussion and adjustment of entrance requirements, and consideration of guidance programs.

Curriculum articulation. The articulation in curriculum material between the last year of high school and the first year of college is another special problem involving relations between secondary schools and higher institutions. There is

considerable overlapping of content and much duplication of effort. Many high school graduates find themselves repeating work already sufficiently covered; others find that they are seriously beyond their depth in subject matter for which there has been no adequate preparation. The development of the junior college and the influence of its philosophy tend, in some measure, to solve this important and long-neglected problem.

A new curriculum problem is created by the current movement for integration and fusion. How shall units be determined when two or more established units are fused into one course? For example, the core course may include information from many established fields and other areas as well. If the current tendency spreads widely, the colleges and the secondary schools will have to find a workable and mutually satisfactory solution of the new curriculum as meeting college entrance requirements.

The Thirty-Schools Experiment. The eight-year experiment of the Progressive Education Association, and others of a similar nature, should prove especially helpful in resolving the difficulties. The 30 schools in the experiment have tried out a number of different types of curriculum organization and subject content. By arrangement with a large number of colleges, the graduates of the 30 schools were favored prospects for college and were not required to meet the regular restrictions. The study has followed the students not only through the secondary school, but to date through their college work. These students have been as successful in college as students from other schools. This evidence seems to support the belief that it is the quality of the students that counts, rather than the subjects taken.

Transition difficulties. Closely related to the curriculum problem are a number of differences in administrative procedures which make for difficulty of transition from high school to college. There is usually a decided difference in the method of determining and distributing marks. College freshmen often go for an entire semester with little, if any, knowledge of their standing, whereas in high school they generally know

approximately each day, and definitely each month, where they stand in terms of the teacher's marks. The entire scheme of pupil follow-up, though much improved in many institutions, is still quite different from the ever-present high school teacher-student contact. Insufficient attention in some high schools to outlining, note taking, rapid reading, and examination techniques causes maladjustment in college. Many of these difficulties are largely solved by the junior college. However, despite its amazing growth, this new institution can bridge the gap between high school and college for only a portion of the students who go to college. There is great and persistent need for more definite and comprehensive methods of articulation between secondary schools and higher institutions in order that suitable entrance plans and satisfactory transition may be assured.

Junior college. The junior college also carries similar problems of articulation, although on a more mature level. Any adequate consideration of desirable articulation between public schools and colleges should obviously include the junior college.

Those who are administering public junior colleges seem to be strongly convinced that the junior college simplifies the problem of articulation. There is immediately the advantage of a much closer contact. A number of teachers work with corresponding subjects in both units. The high school subject matter and methods of teaching are graded to produce better preparation, and the college teaching is adapted more effectively to the high school preparation. Elements of continuity are stressed. Supervision follows through both units, making the tie-up more effective. Personnel methods and student follow-up work conform more readily to the interests of the students. The social and extracurricular activities are more likely to be normal and under desirable control.

There is a tendency to administer the last two grades of the senior high school and the two grades of the junior college as a complete unit. The new unit, therefore, becomes a thoroughly integrated and unified organization. Under such circumstances, the problems of articulation are comparatively

easy to solve. A variation in this scheme of organization unifies the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades.

Apparently the original tendency to organize the public junior college as a distinct unit is passing. There remains the need of solving the articulatory difficulties between the high schools and the private junior colleges. While this situation presents more variations and obstacles, the leaders of the two units are beginning to appreciate and understand the need for articulation, and the transition from one unit to another is gradually being made more effective.

Junior high school articulation. The rapid development of the junior high school has precipitated the problem of the ninth-grade curriculum. The new curriculum does not provide fully for the standard college entrance units. Failure of the college to grant recognition to some of this new material results in the loss of one or more units, except as they are counted as free electives. In some cases, where students who have come through the junior high school wished to enter restricted colleges, it has been necessary to add the fifth year of preparation. This situation has given rise to the twelve-unit plan of entrance based on the last three years of the secondary school. The North Central Association, the Southern Association, and the Middle States Association have adopted recommendations to the colleges favoring the twelve-unit plan. A number of institutions are now accepting twelve units in cases where junior high schools have operated; otherwise, the fifteen units are required. There is reason to believe that the twelve-unit plan without restrictions will become more generally operative.

Semiannual promotions. Another articulatory problem in college preparation is the one developed by semiannual promotions. Although many institutions affirm that it is possible to enter at the beginning of the second semester, it is most difficult and, with the few exceptions of large municipal universities catering largely to interest in business courses, practice is decidedly opposed to such entrance. Students who are graduated at the end of the first semester of their final school

year, and who intend to enter college, find it necessary to remain in high school the remainder of the year or to drop out for a semester. Such students find it difficult to obtain suitable work and usually prefer to remain in school. The administration, particularly of the middle-sized school, has no little difficulty in placing these students properly during their last semester of work. It is apparent that, as far as college preparatory students are concerned, much of the advantage argued for semiannual promotion is lost. A not inconsiderable number of high schools largely concerned with college preparation have found it desirable to give up the practice. The difficulty could be largely obviated if higher institutions were to adopt definite plans for mid-year entrance.

College Recruiting of High School Graduates

Competition among colleges as affecting high schools. A new and serious problem of the relationship of secondary schools and colleges has grown out of competition among colleges. This competition has become so keen in certain sections that representatives of colleges often use high-pressure methods in recruiting students. The problem was treated at length in a recent report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.[1] A few excerpts from this report will serve to illustrate the seriousness of the problem from the administrative point of view:

> No college can be free from the necessity of competing with other institutions. The means adopted have perforce included some consideration of the relation of the college to the general public, for the typical college, beset on every hand with competition, must vie with its neighbors for public approval. In consequence, it has adopted devices common to other competitive social and economic enterprises. It has changed the nature of its catalogue. It has employed publicity agents. It has pressed its alumni into service as recruiting officers. It has issued neat, and none too modest, printed matter to attract students. Its follow-up system is often very efficient indeed. . . .

[1] Walter A. Jessup, "College Competition and the Student," *Thirty-Second Annual Report* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1937, pp. 3–22.

We are familiar with the inducements offered to promising athletes, but we may be astonished by the fact that drum majors and tuba players now find themselves possessed of special talents with a marketable value in the college field. Jobs and scholarships are dangled before the eyes of impecunious high school pupils. Fraternities and sororities vie in recruiting students who can pay their bills and bring glory (in press notices) to a chapter. The evil thread which runs through the fabric of recruitment devices is the attempt through them to exploit the student. . . .

Not long ago the representative of a college dropped in to visit a high school in a small midwestern city. His purpose was to bring the college to the attention of the pupils of the school. He learned that his was the 83rd visit of a college public relations officer for the very purpose during the school year. . . .

It is from the world of business and industry that colleges adopting these sales methods should learn their dangers. Some of the temptations involved in such a highly competitive situation in education would be clarified by a study of business experience. Many businesses have been ruined by short-sighted practices. Cut rates, rebates, extravagant claims, unfairness in competition have brought to business its own punishment. Just as surely "cutting corners" will ruin a college.

The problem described above has serious implications for both the colleges engaged in the practice of recruiting students by unfair means and the secondary schools whose students are being exploited. The report points out three possible solutions. First, the public could demand that colleges select and retain personnel whose professional ethics are above resorting to such tactics. Second, institutions could establish standards of "fair play" which would involve a code of agreement. The Association of Institutions of Higher Education in Ohio has given serious consideration to such a code. Third, voluntary standardizing agencies could point out the inevitable effect of bad competitive practices among colleges.

The scholarship problem. A current difficulty is the administration of scholarships offered largely by the competing colleges. Chiefly, scholarships are of two kinds: prize scholarships awarded for brilliant records regardless of need, and scholarship grants offered as grants-in-aid. Those purely of the prize variety are relatively simple to handle. Awards are

made usually on the basis of the most superior all-round record. The use of competitive examinations for determining prize scholarships is increasing. Administratively, it is an effective method. The College Entrance Examination Board has developed a special general aptitude test given in April of each year for use in determining scholarships. Many colleges are using this agency.

The grants-in-aid cause the chief trouble. There are no generally accepted standards of making the awards. Students and parents are prone to overemphasize both the need and the honor, while college representatives use the grants as tempting bait to lure either the naïve or the bargain-hunters. The Mid-West Association of College Representatives is attempting to develop a code of practices designed to improve the situation.

The whole problem of scholarships should become a matter of joint consideration by high schools and colleges, to the end that satisfactory standards and agreements may be developed and that worthy results may be assured.

Recruiting versus guidance. A sound solution to the problem of recruiting by colleges would be to substitute guidance for the inducements and high-pressure methods. Systems of genuine college guidance in the secondary schools would tend to make useless the direct contacts of public relations directors of colleges with prospective students. The doubtful practices many colleges attempt to employ in recruiting students would be largely nullified if secondary schools were carrying on a well-planned program for acquainting students with colleges.

Among the methods employed to acquaint students in the high schools with the advantages and limitations of colleges are: (1) special advisers on colleges, (2) placement of college bulletins in the hands of students, (3) home-room conferences on colleges, (4) trips arranged by the schools to college campuses, (5) college days when representatives of colleges attend the secondary school and talk on their respective institutions, (6) clubs whose activities are built around a study of college life, (7) courses in guidance which include informa-

tion about various colleges, and (8) discussion-group programs concerning college life.

A number of schools have found the "college day" to be rather ineffective. There are too many representatives; sometimes too many students and parents. The event becomes a sort of fair, with people running from booth to booth gathering as much college promotional literature as may be available. The air of sales competition is much too pronounced. A leading officer of the American College Representatives told one principal that his Association did not really like the method; yet when he later received an invitation from an organization entirely outside of the high school in that principal's city, he did not hesitate to accept. In this case, the organization charged the colleges for booth space and made a little profit thereby; meanwhile the representatives were able to talk briefly to many parents. This episode demonstrates that eagerness to reach prospective candidates sometimes transcends other considerations.

Improving Secondary School and College Relations

A coordinated program for secondary schools and colleges. Earlier in this chapter, it was pointed out that secondary schools face a great problem in trying to meet the needs of: (1) students whose education will end with high school, and (2) those who expect to attend institutions of higher learning. Concurrently with the needed effort to adjust college entrance requirements, the secondary school must carry out a reorganization of its curriculum offerings. Doubtless, continued and persistent efforts on both fronts would react favorably upon both the college and the secondary school phases of the problem. The Committee on Orientation, whose work has focused the attention of educators upon the seriousness of the problem, recommends the following program to serve as a basis for coordinating the efforts of colleges and secondary schools in solving the problem.[1]

[1] Committee on Orientation, *op. cit.*, pp. 255–56.

1. Consideration of the development and organization of specifically required college preparatory material for only such pupils as qualify for it through exploratory experience and guidance applications.

2. Recognition of the need for the organization of each year of secondary school as valuable for itself in terms of immediate maximum worth.

3. Recognition of the desirability for placing specific materials designed for advanced studies as late in the secondary school course as possible.

4. Concerted effort to place much emphasis upon the final year's scholastic record as the most indicative of college worth.

5. To reveal to teachers, principals, and college faculties the possibility of desirable curriculum modifications: (*a*) assuming complete freedom, and (*b*) within the scope of present college entrance requirements.

6. Agreement to study the effects of the modifications suggested in (5) above.

7. To develop, in collaboration, plans of admission of maximum advantage to both the college and the secondary school.

8. Definite articulatory efforts in behalf of the student passing from the twelfth grade or the junior college to the higher institution.

9. Continued cooperative effort to free the ninth grade of the junior high school from college preparatory specifications.

10. Mutual emphasis upon the discovery of the individual powers of the student as the most significant factor for admission to continued study.

11. Constant effort to interpret youth's problem in the light of the developing and changing world, and to articulate the findings in a manner most conducive to youth's need, as progress is made from one level of education to another.

Suggested guiding principles. The following principles are suggested as guides that should aid in formulating college entrance requirements to promote better articulation between high school and college, and to take care of their common interests:

1. Entrance requirements should be so framed as to promote the interests of the secondary school as well as those of the college.

2. The entrance requirements should be stated in terms of the senior high school, that is, grades ten to twelve.

3. The scholarship requirements for admission should be defined with some exactness in order that high school princi-

pals may clearly understand what groups of students have a reasonable expectancy of success in college work.

4. The citizenship requirements should be emphasized in order that the high school may encourage its students to value a fine quality of citizenship in the high school.

5. The entrance requirements should be defined in such a way as to provide for some recognition of advanced work of high grade done in any academic subjects offered in the first year of college.

6. Attention should be given to defining the range of work offered in the first year of college, and a college should issue a bulletin containing such outlines.

7. Attention should be given to acquainting the schools with the scope and character of placement examinations used in the first year of college.

8. Attention should be given to the development for use in the high schools of personnel record cards which could be transferred to college at the time of the student's entrance.

9. Provision should be made for admission for "doubtful cases" by a combination of a certificate of credits and partial examination in a few subjects, or by some other method, thus relieving the secondary school of the responsibility of judging these cases.

10. The college preparatory function of the secondary school should not be overemphasized to the neglect of its other functions.

11. A college should be allowed freedom to select from the students who have done only fairly satisfactory work in high school such applicants as the college believes have a reasonable chance to succeed in college work.

12. A principal should try to discover the seriousness of purpose of a student desiring admission to college, and should refuse to recommend those who lack the qualities requisite for success.

13. Entrance requirements should be so framed as to allow students some freedom to explore the values in the vocational and special subjects.

14. Provision should be made for a board of admissions of the college to have large freedom to formulate policies governing admissions and to provide for the admission of exceptional students.

The admission of veterans. Many veterans of the Second World War have taken advantage of the educational provisions of the G. I. Bill of Rights. The colleges have received thousands of these veterans, some of whom had never planned on a college career while in high school. The entrance requirements have been modified by many colleges in order to favor the veterans, and a few colleges have accepted veterans who never graduated from high school. Other higher institutions have admitted veterans not graduates of high schools on the results of the General Education Development Test provided by the American Council on Education. In counseling veterans much use has been made of tests, both intelligence and college aptitude tests. Much emphasis has been placed on helping the veteran become oriented to college, and some higher institutions have provided refresher courses for all veterans, both freshmen and upperclassmen. The success of veterans in college work has been most gratifying. In all probability many colleges will review their entrance requirements and personnel policies in terms of their experience with the veterans.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. If college domination of secondary schools was justifiable during the early development of secondary education, is it unjustifiable today?
2. In your opinion, which of the various methods used for determining college entrance is most satisfactory? Why?
3. How many of the "Suggested guiding principles" as presented on pages 541–542 are observed in the entrance requirements of your college?
4. List the various methods that have been employed in attempting to improve articulation of secondary school and college. Which of these methods have proved most successful?
5. Do you believe that it would solve the problem of articulation if our school systems were to be reorganized and the 6-4-4 plan of organization were fully adopted? State reasons for your answer.
6. What desirable methods can be used by the high school to acquaint students with the opportunities and responsibilities of college life?

7. What are some of the problems of orientation and adjustment of students as they enter college?

8. Has your college waived any of the usual entrance requirements in the case of World War veterans?

9. If college enrollments increase as predicted in the graph on page 525, what changes in entrance requirements may be necessary?

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DIVISION SIX

Practices in Small and Large Secondary Schools, and Trends in Secondary Education

Chapter XXV. THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

Prevalence of Small High Schools

The small high school is found in relatively large numbers in all sections of the United States. The distribution of public secondary schools on the basis of enrollment is shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

SIZE OF ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS [1]

Enrollment Groups	1926		1930		1934		1938	
	No. of Schools	*Per Cent of Total*	*No. of Schools*	*Per Cent of Total*	*No. of Schools*	*Per Cent of Total*	*No. of Schools*	*Per Cent of Total*
Fewer than 50	5,742	32.4	5,943	26.7	4,609	19.9	4,015	16.3
51–100	4,810	27.2	6,064	27.3	6,159	26.5	5,712	23.2
101–200	3,220	18.2	4,603	20.7	5,594	24.1	6,407	26.1
201–500	2,181	12.3	3,111	14.0	3,660	15.8	4,832	19.6
501–1000	990	5.6	1,421	6.4	1,740	7.5	1,940	7.9
1001 and more	767	4.3	1,095	4.9	1,451	6.2	1,684	6.9
Total	17,710	100.0	22,237	100.0	23,213	100.0	24,590	100.0

Of the 9,727 high schools enrolling in 1938 fewer than 100 students, 4,015 enrolled fewer than 50 students. If the 6,407 high schools enrolling between 100 and 199 students are added to the 9,727 high schools enrolling fewer than 100 students, the total of 16,134 schools enrolling under 200 students each was 65.6 per cent of all high schools in the country.

[1] Statistics of Public High Schools, 1933–34; 1937–38. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1935; 1940, No. 2, Chapter V.

Slightly more than half of the high schools in the United States have between 50 and 200 pupils enrolled; only one-sixteenth have more than 1,000 pupils enrolled. . . .

It is particularly significant to examine the trends in schools having fewer than 50 pupils. In 1926, of the total number of high schools reporting, 32.4 per cent were in this size group; in 1930, the percentage had dropped to 26.7; and in 1934, it had still further receded to 19.9. The next size group (50–99) has remained nearly stationary over the 8-year period in the percentage columns. . . . All size groups with 100 or more pupils have steadily advanced, the percentage increases being greatest in schools enrolling 500 or more pupils. Apparently, despite the frequent establishment of new schools, the small high schools with fewer than 50 pupils are growing fewer in number from year to year; more and more . . . schools of this size either grow larger or disappear.

Small schools are most frequently of the regular type; 58.3 per cent of the regular schools have an enrollment of fewer than 100 pupils, while only 16.3 per cent of reorganized schools are of this size. On the other hand, 13.5 per cent of the reorganized schools have 1,000 or more pupils, while only 3.3 per cent of the regular schools have so large an enrollment. This remains true despite the fact that extremely large schools are more often than not of the regular type. The median reorganized high school has 266 pupils and the median regular high school 85 pupils.[1]

Causes for development of small schools. As in the early days of American education when great numbers of one-teacher rural schools were created, so, under the impetus of the modern high school movement, there sprang up over the whole nation thousands of small high schools. The small high school problem is, in fact, merely an enlargement and a complication of the older rural-school problem.

The small high school also felt the impetus given to education during and following the World War. The premium placed in the organization of our military forces on advanced training aroused communities to desire better educational opportunities for their boys and girls. This desire to provide their children with high school training, together with development of state plans for aid to districts maintaining high schools,

[1] Carl A. Jessen, *Statistics of Public High Schools*, 1933–34, pp. 5–7. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 2.

led to the establishment of many new small high schools located in small but convenient centers.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Small High Schools

The advantages of small high schools. It is generally agreed that the cultivation, growth, and development of human relationships are the outcomes most highly desired of the secondary school. Mastery of subject matter and acquisition of certain definite habits, skills, and techniques are subordinate to the desirable development of the individual. Consequently, the evidence is not all against the small high school, because it affords many opportunities in this field through the intimate contacts between teachers and pupils.

The advantages of the small high school may be summarized as follows:

1. There is a marked degree of personal recognition of students.
2. There is a close student-teacher contact.
3. There is a more homogeneous group, for racial, industrial, and other differences are largely absent.
4. A larger percentage of students participate in major activities of the school.
5. The reticent student is likely to receive more attention.
6. There is strong school support by the community, since there are few outside attractions.
7. There is an intimate relationship between the home and the school.
8. It is easier to discover the special abilities, aptitudes, and capacities of students.
9. The pupil contracts with school executives are much freer and more frequent.

Disadvantages of the small high school. In spite of the many opportunities in the small high school for development of the individual, the school is under many disadvantages that impair its effectiveness. The impossibility of teachers' specializing to a high degree common in large high schools, low salaries and poorer teachers in many cases, and the necessarily

less diversified curriculum are only a few of these disadvantages. There may be no trained directors of student activities. In many small schools, students have few opportunities to participate in extracurricular activities. There may seldom be meetings of student leaders, or home-room or intramural contests. Usually, little diversity of interests and talent among the teachers is present in small high schools. Thus, the program is restricted, and adjustment to individual needs is made very difficult. There is a limited range of activities for students, and a few leaders are overworked. Then, too, financial support is more limited. In small communities where the tax rate is already high, or where patrons are decidedly economical, the schools have been operated on a minimum of everything. However, some of these conditions do not exist in many of the better small high schools.

The Curriculum in the Small High School

The curricular problems of the small high school. The small high school should not be merely a miniature of the large high school. It is a distinct institution with its own problems and needs. It should not attempt the work of the large high school, nor should it feel that it must measure its success by the accomplishments of the large high school. This is especially true in the matter of courses offered. The small high school cannot hope to offer such a variety of courses. Its curriculum must be limited largely to required courses, and the number of electives must be correspondingly smaller.

Differentiation of curriculum to meet the needs of individuals has become one of the accepted qualifications of the good high school, and in this respect the small high school is handicapped. Small high schools usually have limited curriculums and poorly arranged, ill-balanced courses.

Studies indicate that the curriculum content of rural high schools is designed primarily to prepare students for college. Its program of studies usually contains mostly the older, more traditional college preparatory subjects and to only a

small degree the newer college preparatory work. It has been found that 91 per cent of the rural high school students pursue academic curriculums as compared with 56 per cent of the urban high school population. The emphasis in most of the smaller schools is on languages and mathematics. Ancient and medieval history are rather commonly taught during the first two years, and modern and American history and other social science subjects are taught in the last two years, which are not reached by many of the students. Electives are rare before the third and fourth years.

Approximately one half the students who enter rural high schools never reach the third year, and more than three fourths of those who enter never get as far as the fourth year. Of those who graduate, fewer than one half continue in higher education. Thus, most of the time in high school is spent preparing for a college that is never entered. It is probably true that too little is done, in most small high schools, toward training students for everyday life.

The curricular needs of the small high school. It is proposed that the small high school avoid both the traditional classical and the highly specialized vocational curriculum. The liberal curriculum is recommended. The liberal high school curriculum has as its fundamental purpose the task of giving to every student the proper outlook on life as it exists today. It tries to orient him socially, morally, intellectually, spiritually, and physically so that he can take his place in modern civilization as a helpful person in present-day society. It does not in any way exclude the classical or traditional elements in education; it merely reduces them to their proper places in the whole scheme of high school training. Again, it does not suppose that every boy and girl in the rural high school will go to college and consequently offer only a college preparatory training.

On the other hand, it does assume that proper preparation should be given students who plan to go to college. It also assumes that a certain vocational training of a general nature, with the proper insight into the occupational and vocational

work of the world, is a legitimate and necessary part of every student's high school education. It does not, however, advocate extreme attention to vocational subjects at the expense of general education.

Large numbers of young people from the rural districts will become citizens later in the towns and cities. The cityward drift of the rural population has been considerably checked in recent years, but is still marked, because scientific agriculture and invention are increasing the productive power of men and making it possible for fewer people to be engaged in agricultural pursuits.

The rural high school will of necessity continue to be small. Consequently, it will be able to offer only one curriculum and that with few variables. In the light of the foregoing discussion, it appears that this curriculum must be of such a nature as to result in a liberal, cultural training — one that orients the student to contemporary life.

Some principles of curriculum construction for small high schools. Although educators are not fully in agreement as to what should constitute the curriculum of the small high school, there are certain principles that are basic, and these will be discussed briefly.

Principle I. The fundamental purpose of all high school education is liberal and general in its nature. This does not mean that there is not a place in every high school curriculum for certain types of vocational work or certain broadening and exploratory courses. It does mean that the basic purpose of all high school education is not of a strictly vocational or a trade-training nature.

Principle II. When a high school can offer only one curriculum, this curriculum should be of a general or liberal type with variables bearing on the vocational life of the community. This second principle is, in a way, a corollary of the first one, but it is of enough importance to bear repetition. Of course, the number of variables offered by any high school will be contingent upon the number of faculty members and the condition of buildings and equipment. In some instances, a rather wide

offering of variables might be possible; in others, very few should be offered. But, in any case, the variables should be secondary in consideration and should be worked out in the light of the community life which the school is serving.

Principle III. There is a distinct difference between general or liberal education and the traditional classical education of the past. It is agreed among most schoolmen that the education of the traditional classical high school was nearly worthless for many of the rural high school students. That institution emphasized languages and mathematics all through the four years of high school; ancient, medieval, and American history usually comprised the studies offered in the field of social sciences; and the small amount of natural science offered was presented on a logical basis rather than on a life basis, and was in reality a vest-pocket edition of college courses. Such a procedure prevented meeting the needs of the majority in the group, adapting the work to the varying capacities and interests of the students, or providing needed guidance.

Principle IV. Little differentiation is possible in high schools with faculties consisting of from two to five teachers. Immediately, when one begins to work out a daily schedule offering a number of electives, one meets with difficulties if he has a small faculty. It is a commonly accepted fact in secondary education that the larger the faculty the more variables or electives it is possible for the school to offer.

Principle V. In rural communities where a second and a third curriculum can be offered, these should be home economics and agriculture, in the order mentioned. In the small communities where only one curriculum is offered, the variables usually are offered in these two departments; but when facilities justify additional curriculums, these would render the greatest service in the rural high school.

Supervision in the Small High School

Supervisory problems. In the small school, the superintendent is usually charged with the responsibility for the supervision of instruction. Classroom supervision in smaller

places is generally neglected by superintendents because they are too heavily burdened with administrative, teaching, and clerical duties. Some find that experienced teachers resent supervision, especially from a superintendent with little special training and limited experience. Again, supervision is neglected because certain boards of education are likely to consider periods for supervision as periods for rest and relaxation. The chief cause for neglect, however, is doubtless the fact that many superintendents do not know what to do by way of classroom supervision.

Supervisory policies in the smaller high schools. The major duties of a superintendent of schools in a small system may be roughly classified as administrative, supervisory, and instructional. Classroom supervision in many smaller schools is neglected for reasons given above, but there are certain supervisory policies that a superintendent in a small system can emphasize, even though he has a minimum amount of time and is faced with the above difficulties. A list of these policies should include the following:

1. He should make a daily inspection of the premises, including the basement, the toilets, and the playgrounds.
2. He should see that each classroom is as well heated and ventilated as the system will permit.
3. He should hold teachers' meetings for discussion of instructional problems.
4. He should invite experts from neighboring teacher training institutions or larger school systems to visit his school, to do demonstration teaching, and to discuss problems with his teachers.
5. He should place copies of self-improvement cards in the hands of the teachers with directions for checking their own practices.
6. He should arrange at least once a year for each teacher in the school to spend a full day in visiting the work of a teacher in some neighboring school.
7. He should try to provide teachers with some of the available timesaving drill or practice materials.

8. He should follow plans that would lead to united emphasis by the high school teachers on the training of students in effective habits of study.

9. He should prepare and distribute to the teachers, after each marking of report cards, a summary showing the distribution of marks, together with comments relative to tendencies.

10. He should visit a few comparable schools and report his impression of the work to his teachers.

11. He should try to have as much as five hours a week to spend in the actual visiting of classes in order to get a general impression of the spirit of the classes, to secure illustrations of good and bad practices in classroom management, and to discover superior teaching for special commendation.

12. He should constantly seek to help his teachers to realize that they are engaged in the practice of a profession.

Extracurricular Activities in the Small High School

Problems Involved. The time has come in the administration of the secondary school when the value of properly organized and directed student activities is generally accepted. These activities are receiving more and more attention by those who wish the secondary school to render the greatest possible educational service to the boys and girls. Educators no longer believe that the value of a high school education can be determined merely by measuring the learning that takes place in each of the subjects pursued in the classroom. Full consideration must be given also the activities of students in their school life apart from strictly curricular pursuits.

It is a very serious mistake for small high schools, especially those having fewer than 150 students, to imitate the practices of the large schools in the matter of the number and kinds of student activities. There is a danger of encouraging so many different kinds of activities that the more resourceful students will be overburdened with work unconnected with their regular studies. There is also a danger of placing too heavy a burden on teachers for the supervision and direction of extracurricular activities. Teachers should be expected to sponsor

a reasonable number of these activities, but not so many that their work of classroom instruction must necessarily be neglected.

It should be recognized that in a small school there is danger of emphasizing one kind of student activity, such as dramatics, music, athletics, or public speaking, to the complete neglect of other desirable forms of extracurricular activities. Certain students are thus deprived of the opportunity to participate. There is also a danger of creating the feeling among students, teachers, and parents that success in extracurricular activities is much more important than success in regular classroom work.

Teachers in the small high schools should be employed with the understanding that they will be expected to do a reasonable amount of sponsoring of student activity work other than that directly connected with the curricular subjects which they are to teach.

Participation in any form of the extracurricular activity program should be open to all students on the same basis. No student, however, should be permitted to hold office or have an unusual part in any activity unless he qualifies in terms of the scholarship requirements of the school.

So far as possible, time for student activities should be provided within the school day. The better schools have found it advisable to assign a period during the regular day for meetings of all extracurricular activities.

Whenever student activities take the form of social functions and are to be held in the evening, they should be on Friday evenings, or evenings preceding holidays or vacations, and definite opening and closing hours should be specified. Considerable trouble may be avoided by not allowing any student to leave a party before the closing time unless by special permission from the class or activity sponsor.

Expenses for participants in extracurricular activities should be kept as low as possible. A carefully worked out plan for handling any money to be spent by student groups should be adopted.

It is recommended that credit be given for participation in extracurricular activities only if the school has a policy of granting limited credit toward an extracurricular unit. If this policy is followed, the unit should not be counted as one of the fifteen minimum units required for those expecting to go to college. Few colleges accept extracurricular units for entrance.

Extracurricular advantages of small high schools. As compared with the large high school, there is opportunity in the small high school for:

1. Encouraging a larger percentage of students to participate in the major activities of the school.
2. Securing more easily a strong community support, no doubt very largely because there are fewer outside attractions competing for attention.
3. Obtaining more easily a unified school spirit.
4. A closer relationship between school and community interests on extracurricular matters.
5. Discovering more easily the abilities, aptitudes, and capacities of students in the extracurricular fields.
6. More counsel and guidance work with individuals.
7. More student contact with school executives.
8. A more intimate acquaintance among all the students through the activities program.
9. Developing, proportionately, a greater number of student leaders.

Extracurricular difficulties in small high schools. Many of the smaller high schools meet with difficulty in having:

1. Only a small number of leaders, who are usually overworked.
2. Few men on the faculty for boys' counselors.
3. No trained directors for extracurricular activities.
4. Little diversity of interests and talent for extracurricular work among the students and the faculty.
5. A faculty poorly trained in activity leadership.
6. Poor equipment for extracurricular work.

7. A large turnover in the faculty, disrupting the extracurricular program.

8. A limited extracurricular program, making adjustment to individual needs more difficult.

9. A small group, thus doing away with some of the stimulation that comes from working with large numbers of other people.

Trends in the Development of the Small High School

Organization. The reorganization movement in secondary education, which began first in the larger centers of population, is making rapid headway now in the more sparsely populated areas. The centralized high school, in some form, is usually the result. In some cases, it is the senior high school offering the last three years of work closely coordinated with one or more junior high schools giving the first three years of training; in others it is the five- or six-year undivided secondary school. In any event, it is an effort to provide better secondary education for pupils in rural or village communities.

During the last decade, the development of the five- or six-year undivided high school has been phenomenal. Since the more densely populated areas have already developed secondary education to a rather high degree, the six-year high school, in some form, promises to show more growth than any other type of secondary education. Especially is this true when considered in the light of the great impetus now being given to consolidation of schools, transportation of pupils, and the improvement of the roads and highways of the nation.

Curriculum. Probably no other phase of American education is receiving as much attention today as the curriculum. Nearly every state in the Union has under way, in some form, a state-wide curriculum revision program. The small rural high school ultimately will receive perhaps the greatest benefit from this effort, because it is the most neglected unit of the entire program. The state-wide curriculum work in the commonwealth of Virginia is typical of what is being done over

the country to rejuvenate the narrow, traditional college preparatory curriculum found in the ordinary small high school. By instituting the core curriculum, alternating subjects, combining grades, relating schoolwork to life outside the school, utilizing instructional materials in the community, using extension courses, and guiding pupils effectively, Virginia is demonstrating that the small rural high school can give just as vital an education as is found in the larger centers.

Staff. Since the small high school pays much lower salaries than the schools in the larger centers, it frequently suffers from a poorer quality of personnel and a much higher percentage of turnover. This condition is being remedied rapidly by the growth of consolidation and transportation, and by the movement in many states to pass needed laws concerning salary schedules, tenure of service, provisions for retirement, and old age pensions.

As the unit of administration tends to grow larger from year to year, high schools in rural areas, or village and community high schools, ultimately will receive the same financial consideration as their neighboring schools located in larger centers with greater wealth. The trend toward a minimum salary schedule and the growth of the "state-aid" equalization movement will mean much to the small high school of the future. Ultimately, it should mean the small or rural high school will draw and hold in its services a personnel on a par with that of the larger school.

Administrative positions in the small high school. It is generally believed that the smaller schools have too many administrative officials, with resulting inefficiencies. In some small schools, there are as many different administrative titles as are found in schools of much greater size. On this question, Carrothers has said:

> The "official-position bug" has infested and is now pestering the schools. Even the tiniest school system wants its full quota of officials from the superintendent and the high school principal down to the "directoress of the kindergarten." The disease has been with us for

years, and once panoplied with a full complement of officials no system seems able to divest itself of the dead weight of traditional machinery. It is difficult even to have the question considered as to whether some schools could not be more efficiently, more happily, harmoniously, and economically managed if all the official heads were knocked off except one, that of the chief administrator. . . .

In a small compact school system where, by the very nature of the situation, practically every teacher sees every other teacher every day, it is vastly better for the board of education to choose one competent, well-trained school administrator and then to entrust to him the running of the school, than to try to divide among *several* members of the staff the few necessary administrative duties and the small amount of delegated school authority.[1]

Buildings and equipment. The quality and size of any school plant directly reflect the size of the school area plus the per capita wealth of the school tax district. With the rapid growth of the trend toward the larger tax unit and the great improvement of roads and highways, the buildings, grounds, and equipment in the rural areas are manifesting marked improvement. Larger student bodies and more financial support encourage the development of an enriched curriculum which necessitates well-equipped shops and laboratories, increased library facilities, larger and better playgrounds, and other educational facilities needed for an expanding program.

The small high school and guidance. The small high school cannot provide the expert service in the field of guidance that is available in many larger schools, but does possess certain marked advantages in developing a guidance program. Because of the intimacy of the contacts between teachers and students, the small school can provide guidance that seeks to discover talents, diagnose difficulties, individualize instruction, provide pertinent information, and give needed counsel. The average small school is very favorably situated to emphasize the kind of guidance that involves aiding the pupil to make satisfactory adjustment to his school life and his community surroundings, as well as to aid him in planning

[1] George E. Carrothers, "When Is a Principal Needed?" *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, X (April, 1939), 97–98.

for his life career. The small high school can and should provide a program of guidance that includes such policies and activities as the following:

1. Group students in home rooms or advisory groups so as to ensure intimate and helpful contacts with a teacher.
2. Keep such personnel records as will enable teachers to have essential facts concerning a student's health, home surroundings, school achievement, hobbies, and aptitudes.
3. Gather significant information about a student through tests of intelligence, special aptitudes, personality, and efficiency along specific lines.
4. Diagnose the learning difficulties of a student and plan a program for their correction.
5. Discover and correct deficiencies in training in reading, spelling, arithmetic, and English.
6. Direct participation in the extracurricular activities in such a way as to help a student discover his interests and abilities.
7. Offer a course in occupational information either as a separate course, as a part of the work in community civics, or as a part of an advanced course in the social studies.
8. Arrange occasional conferences between groups of students and representatives of selected occupations.
9. Provide a special collection of books and bulletins relating to the personal problems of youth, including books on occupations and colleges.
10. Stress the exploratory and prevocational values of instruction in agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, commercial courses, and other studies.
11. Encourage students to secure work experiences after school hours and during vacation periods.
12. Arrange for visits to neighboring colleges and industrial concerns by the members of the eleventh and twelfth grades.
13. Sponsor occasional conferences of parents at which guidance problems are discussed by local or outside speakers.
14. Plan to use the services of experts in psychology, guidance, and related problems from neighboring school systems or colleges.

15. Stimulate an interest in guidance problems on the part of local civic groups, luncheon clubs, parent-teachers' clubs, and churches.

16. Stress the viewpoint that every teacher has guidance responsibilities for his students.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. State some of the influences in your state that may lead to an increase or a decrease in the number of small high schools.

2. What provision exists in your state for financial subsidies for small high schools?

3. Which of the advantages claimed in this chapter for the small high school do you believe are generally found?

4. Should the small high school place its major emphasis on the preparation of its graduates for admission to college? State reasons for your answer.

5. If you were granted a free hand by all standardizing agencies, what studies would you offer in a high school of 100 students?

6. Is supervision of instruction as much needed in a small school as in a large school? Justify your opinion.

7. As a principal of a small high school, how comprehensive a program of extracurricular activities would you attempt to develop?

8. Does your state department of education have any special facilities for helping small high schools to meet community problems? If so, what facilities?

9. Propose a curriculum for a small six-year high school of six teachers. Put it in the form of a daily schedule, capitalizing the required subjects. What are its merits? What are its handicaps?

10. Discuss the chief characteristics of a satisfactory lunch period in a small high school which has no cafeteria or lunchroom.

11. Make a list of the chief problems of a transportation program in a small high school.

12. Outline a good plan for financing the extracurricular activities program in a small high school.

13. What are the principal's responsibilities in the maintenance of the building in a small high school?

14. What qualifications do the laws of your state prescribe for public school janitors or custodians? If there are none, prepare a set you can defend.

15. What do you consider the most desirable type of organization for the small high school? Why?

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Chapter XXVI. THE LARGE HIGH SCHOOL

Method of Approach

The purpose of this chapter is to picture the outstanding features and characteristics of the large high school. In an attempt to make the discussion realistic and practical, a number of schools were used for sources of illustrative material. These schools are widely distributed geographically and are believed to be somewhat typical of conditions in the large high school. They should give the student a cross-sectional view of the large high school, its problems, organization, offerings, and physical facilities.

The material contained in this discussion was gathered from a variety of available sources. An analysis was made of the magazine articles and sections in books on education to find out the latest practices in such schools. Other information was gathered from handbooks of large high schools, correspondence with principals, and personal observation.

The three schools most frequently used for detailed illustrative purposes are located at Newton, Massachusetts, and Cicero and Evanston, Illinois. There is no thought that these three are the best examples of what the large high school may or should be. Their selection is due, rather, to the fact that one of the authors of this book has been intimately connected with the administration of each of the three schools. Moreover, the three are decidedly different in their general characters. The Newton High School is an old New England institution whose history and tradition reflect the evolutionary development of American secondary education.

J. Sterling Morton High School at Cicero, Illinois, is a product of the amazing growth of secondary education since 1890. Beginning about 40 years ago with an enrollment of

about 35 students, it now has an enrollment of over 6,000, with additional enrollment in a crippled children's school, a part-time school, a cooperative school, an evening school, and a junior college, making the total more than 8,000 students.

The Evanston Township High School at Evanston, Illinois, established in 1883, now has an enrollment of 2,600 students with a new community college (XIII and XIV grades) of over 300 enrollment. The school has, during most of its existence, operated conservatively as a distinctly college preparatory school. In the past 15 years, however, there has been a gradual increase in vocational and general education opportunities.

Size of High Schools

What makes a high school large. The typical American high school has an enrollment of fewer than 200 students. Relatively speaking, high schools in which 1,000 or more students are enrolled may be classed as large high schools. Although many of the large high schools have become overcrowded, the large high school must not be confused with the crowded high school. Another important fact to keep in mind is that, while the typical high school is small, the typical high school student attends a school with more than 500 students enrolled. The population of the large high school often includes students of almost every kind of nationality, race, economic status, and social background represented in American life. The typical high school is rural rather than urban; but the typical student is urban. Urban high schools constitute less than one tenth of the total number, but they contain almost two thirds of the students. The students in the small high schools are almost always a fairly homogeneous group, owing principally to the fact that they live in rural communities.

The enrollment in almost half the public high schools is 100 or fewer students. In striking contrast, approximately one sixth of the high schools enroll over 500 students, and approximately one twelfth of them enroll over 1,000 students. The total number of schools enrolling fewer than 50 students

is decreasing. Existing high schools are growing larger through consolidation and increase in enrollment, while no extremely small high schools are being established. Other factors which are having an influence on increasing the size of the high schools are provisions for free tuition and transportation for students of high school age, requirements for accrediting by associations and departments of education, and the growth of the reorganization movement.

Desirable size of a high school. A high school justifies itself by the quality of its program, and not by its size. An increase in size is apparently warranted as long as the increase enriches and extends the curriculum and other offerings so that the individual and collective needs of the students are more fully met. Unusual courses designed to meet the interests and needs of certain students, such as horticulture, trigonometry, oil painting, and a fourth-year foreign language, offer difficult cost justification for fewer than fifteen or twenty pupils per class. A teacher of capability, expertly trained in a particular field, cannot ordinarily be obtained for a single class, whereas enough pupils to give that teacher full time in his special field will cost the school no more relatively, perhaps, than any regularly offered subject.

The offering of a single section in any elective course results in conflicts that will prevent some pupils from taking this course. The more sections there are, at least up to the provision of one for each period of the day, the more opportunity for all pupils who desire this particular course.

These are examples of what is meant by the larger school having the opportunity to offer a large variety of courses. This opportunity is even more widely extended in extracurricular activities. There may be one student who cares for chess or for model aircraft building in the small school, but there will be a sufficient number for successful clubs in these interests if the school is large enough.

At what point will size alone no longer tend to amplify the variety of offerings or add unusually equipped teachers to the staff? It is difficult to make a specific estimate which can be

properly verified, since many other factors may be operating in any given situation. From observation, study, and analysis of a number of schools, it may be ventured that, when size alone is considered, the greatest advantage would appear to accrue at some point between an enrollment of 1,500 and that of 2,500 students. In general, it may be maintained that certain disadvantages begin to appear when a school enrolls more than 2,000 students. At the same time, the extension in offerings tends to be merely duplicatory rather than peculiarly different. Therefore, somewhat arbitrarily we are inclined to set an enrollment of 2,000 as about the climax of high school size efficiency.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Large High School

Advantages of the large high school. Instead of just the academic course, the large high school can meet the needs of its students by offering a variety of curriculums. In almost all of the large high schools, the academic, commercial, fine arts, mechanic arts, and home economics curriculums are offered. The range of extracurricular activities in a large high school is also very broad. The health, guidance, and library facilities and all special services are likely to be much better in the large high school than in the small high school.

It is possible, too, for the large high school to make certain economies in administration and plant operation. For example, if a school of 2,000 students were divided into two separate schools in different parts of the city it would be necessary to duplicate all of the facilities of the plant and equipment. While the size element would be smaller, the basic costs would be largely increased. This would be especially true relative to site, gymnasium, auditorium, library, cafeteria, and special rooms. The special facilities would not receive such a high degree of use in the two buildings as in the one. Obviously, costs and usage will favor the large school, at least up to the point where duplicate facilities and provisions begin to operate.

In general, the administrative and teaching personnel of the

large school is better trained and more adequately paid. Also, there are ordinarily better facilities with which to work. The more alert, ambitious, and especially skilled teachers are likely to gravitate from the smaller to the larger schools. For the most part, they believe that their services will be more fully recognized in the larger schools. While there seems little doubt that the past has seen the larger school obtaining the greater share of the unusually good teachers, there is indication that this tendency is lessening and may be completely eliminated in the near future. Federal and state aid and the move for equalization would serve the smaller schools well in this respect.

The differentiated program of the large high school enables it to provide for the individual differences of students. This is particularly true in highly specialized materials. Programs of individual education, correspondence courses, and a reasonably serious effort to make all possible adjustments will enable the small school to cut down the large school's advantage in this respect. The problem of articulation of the high school with the junior high school and the college usually is not as acute in the larger and better organized high schools as in the smaller schools.

The large high school is more likely to escape the troubles caused by the single critic, objector, or powerful antagonist who often dominates the small school district. Likewise, the large school is not so likely to have its aims and work distorted by a rabid sports group or a militant group of crusaders whose particular cause is, for the moment, in the ascendancy.

Disadvantages of the large high school. Perhaps the most serious disadvantage of the large school is the danger of becoming too mechanical in its operation. A frequent criticism leveled at the large high school is that it is an educational factory where students are turned out in mass production. Its bigness keeps students and teachers from close contact, and teachers may never learn the needs and interests of their students. The routine of the school may become mechanical, mere duplication may take the place of adaptation to individual

differences, and the entire work of the school may be handicapped by lack of adequate housing and physical facilities. In some communities, the construction of a new school building, auditorium, or gymnasium, or the replacing of out-of-date equipment involves such a large outlay of capital that facilities remain in use long after they should have been replaced. The single session or half-day school is almost exclusively found in the larger schools.

One of the most serious problems in some large high schools is that of congestion. Traffic jams in the hallways, congestion at assemblies, and confusion at athletic games due to congestion present difficulties that must be offset by careful planning and organization. Congestion may result in laxity in discipline, poor morale for the student body as a whole, and numerous problems characteristic of ineffective organization.

The maintenance of morale is a real problem in the large school. Teachers tend more easily to become artisans in the hurry and pressure of the big school. They know each other slightly, if at all, while the administrator is too often merely the distantly removed representative of a mechanistic system. The cooperative fellowship inspired by intimate and common efforts may be largely lacking.

Thus, the students are also affected not only by lack of desirable faculty relationships, but more especially, perhaps, by their own hurried experience among the crowds of classmates. The most worthy loyalties and the deep meanings, which often seem to be inspired by the intimacy of small groups, seem to suffer under the quick-moving stresses of the large school. The search for such values as those just indicated apparently kindles the substitution of fraternities, sororities, cliques, strange clubs, and other manifestations that often become serious problems in large schools. Such ideas are created, developed, and produce troubles before teachers or administrators know of them.

In a very large high school, an auditorium big enough to accommodate the student body at one time is almost inevitably

too big for effective programs. An auditorium seating over 1,800 almost always requires amplifiers if persons sitting in all sections are to hear the programs. Cafeterias and gymnasiums, too, often are so large that administration is handicapped.

The large school is more likely to suffer from the designs of party bosses, political machines, and corrupt city politics. Its very size favors interference with appointments, purchases, and equipment and building expenditures. The large school may also have a more difficult job winning friends and enlisting the kindly sympathy and understanding of its patrons.

Administrative Organization of Large High Schools

Different kinds of administrative organization. Salient features of the administrative organization of large high schools will be shown by the descriptions of the plans in operation at several institutions. In addition to the three schools already mentioned, the organizations of the Union High School at Phoenix, Arizona, and the Lane Technical High School at Chicago will be outlined, while other schools will be cited for certain features.

Newton High School at Newton, Massachusetts, includes grades ten through twelve and has 2,600 students.[1] The school is a closely articulated part of the general school system, extending from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade, with a superintendent of schools as the chief administrative officer. The board of education is composed of seven members, and all school affairs are under the jurisdiction of the board. The budget is submitted to the city board of aldermen, and appropriations are made by that body. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the high school act as the coordinators of the junior and senior high schools. The department heads of the senior high school act as subject supervisors in the junior high school. The original program of articulation was worked out by an assistant superintendent in charge of secondary education.

[1] Also a junior college of about 500 students, new in 1946.

At Phoenix, Arizona, the chief executive officer is given the title of Superintendent of High Schools (there are three) and President of the Junior College. The Phoenix Union High School and Junior College District is composed of thirteen elementary school districts. Each of the elementary districts has a board of education and a superintendent. The Phoenix Union High School and Junior College Board has no official relation to the elementary districts. Although there is close cooperation between the elementary districts and the high school and junior college district, each is financed separately and is entirely independent. The director of research and guidance and the department heads serve as the chief administrative assistants to the superintendent. The director of research and guidance is the principal of the evening high school and has charge of the assignment of students to classes for the entire school. The department of the high school for colored students has a separate campus with a principal who is responsible to the superintendent. The head of the Arizona Vocational School is known as the director and is responsible directly to the superintendent. All units of the school organization under the authority of the superintendent are closely coordinated. The enrollment of all units totals 10,986.

The head of the Lane Technical High School is the principal, who is recommended by the Chicago superintendent of schools and appointed by the board of education. All high school principals in Chicago are appointed from the personnel of principals in the elementary schools. Before becoming an elementary school principal, an applicant must pass a comprehensive examination. The Lane Technical High School is one of the largest schools of its kind in the country. It has more than 8,000 boys enrolled, and its administrative organization is typical of the 36 secondary schools in the Chicago system. The principal is aided by three assistant principals who are free from all teaching duties, a full-time shop superintendent, an adjustment teacher, and seven administrative assistants whose teaching load is reduced one half. The principal of Lane Technical High School, like the principals of other secondary

schools in the Chicago system, has the help of directors and supervisors in the following subjects: child study, physical and health education, industrial arts, commerce, art, music, expenditures, building research, and playgrounds.

The Evanston Township High School and J. Sterling Morton High School are self-contained units, especially authorized by the state township high school law. Each has its own board of education consisting of five members. The board has power to determine the tax levy, within certain limits, and receives its money directly from the county tax-collecting agencies. There is no legal connection between the boards of education and the city administrations within their districts. In both cases, the township area is larger than any given city or elementary grade district within the township boundaries. The township high school principal, whose legal title is superintendent, is the chief administrative officer and is immediately responsible to the board of education. In both instances, he has the combined responsibilities and duties of the high school principal and the school superintendent as they are generally found in the system of twelve grades. In both schools, the business management, budget control, and all financial affairs are operated entirely through the offices of the respective schools. In both schools, regularly employed administrative assistants act as secretaries of the boards of education.

Other variations in administrative organization. In Illinois, the Deerfield-Shields Township High School District, with more than 1,600 students, presents a variation in its administrative organization in that there are two separate high schools several miles apart, one located in the town of Highland Park and the other in Lake Forest. The two schools are administered by separate superintendents and a single high school board of education. To a large degree, the schools operate as distinct units. Department heads, special officers, and some teachers work in both schools. This organization illustrates an interesting solution of a problem of congestion and duplication of facilities that was solved by building a completely new school rather than extending the old plant.

In Florida, the county superintendent of schools functions as the superintendent of public schools. Several village or city high schools within his county are under his immediate and complete supervision, each having its own principal. If there is one dominant high school in the county, the county superintendent may have his office in the building and, in effect, act as the principal.

Union high schools in California and township high schools in Pennsylvania offer about the same general organization as the Illinois township high schools, except that the California organization ordinarily tends to cover very much larger areas. Some of these cover a large number of villages and small cities. The Newton High School in Massachusetts is unique. It is a part of a unit system that covers an area with eleven different villages.

The Administrative Staff

Newton. The Newton High School principal acts as a general administrator. There is a first assistant, with the title of vice-principal, who operates as a general assistant, with his office in the administration building. Each of the main buildings has a director who exercises general supervision in the building as to the daily usage and conduct of students. There are three curriculum directors, the vice-principal acting for the college preparatory work and especially trained directors being assigned to the business and trade education fields. Each of the three grades has a supervisor who does some teaching, but devotes considerable time to the guidance and supervision of class activities and to individual personnel work.

All of the major work of the school is organized into departments. Work which is of a continuous nature through the six secondary school grades is under the supervision of department heads who operate in both junior and senior high schools. The work of health, physical education, and athletics is organized as a single unit under a supervisor who functions through the entire twelve grades. The music department also operates under the general supervisor of the entire city system.



The New Trier Township High School Swimming Pool.

The business education subjects are organized as a unit under a curriculum director, with chairmen for the major units. The department heads and special supervisors and directors form an advisory council which meets at the direction of the principal.

There are several teachers who are classified as administrative assistants. Two of them are in charge of all attendance problems, several are assigned as counselors for specific phases of educational and vocational guidance, others have charge of assemblies, others are members of a central schedule committee, and still others carry special assignments involving general supervision of the extracurricular activities. There is a full-time guidance assistant and a visiting teacher. Several teachers work on research problems. Research, in general, is controlled from the superintendent's office through his special assistants. The school psychologist is at the command of the high school when necessary. Students are first tested when they enter the grades. Subsequent testing provides a rather comprehensive personal and school history by the time they enter the senior high school.

There is a special personnel office with adequate equipment and clerical help. The chief guidance officer, his assistants, the grade supervisors, the visiting teacher, and the attendance officers have desk space and do the major part of their special work in this general office.

The principal, with the help of his department heads, organizes his yearly budget and submits it to the superintendent for approval. To each school in the system is allocated a definite amount of money on the basis of per capita student enrollment. The principal must arrange his budget accordingly.

While the principal may indicate the expenditures, they are subject to the superintendent's approval, and in all cases the purchasing is done through the central purchasing bureau. The freedom given to principals in the expenditure of their budgets is somewhat unusual in this type of school organization.

All items of business management are cared for through the general business manager, who is a direct assistant to the

superintendent of schools. The care and control of buildings and grounds is under a general supervising engineer who is directly responsible to the superintendent.

Phoenix. At the Phoenix Union High School,[1] the superintendent is the chief administrative officer. There is a director of research and guidance who is also in charge of the testing program and the office of registration. He is assisted by a student counselor, credential secretary, attendance clerks, and various stenographers. His organization is responsible for a considerable amount of the educational and vocational counseling, as well as the research and testing work. With the help of department heads, he is responsible for making students' programs and assigning them to classes.

There is also a business manager who is directly responsible to the superintendent. He has charge of most of the details in the preparation of the annual budget, serves as general purchasing agent, and supervises the maintenance of buildings and grounds. He is assisted by a cashier, a bookkeeper, an accountant and bookstore manager, a warehouse manager, and the personnel of the maintenance staff.

The high school has a dean of boys and a dean of girls who are in general charge of student activities, and who are largely responsible for the program of social guidance. The dean of boys is adviser to the Associated Student Body and the Boys Federation. The dean of girls is adviser to the Girls League. They are chairmen of the men and women home-room teachers, whose groups make up the membership of the Boys Federation and the Girls League.

The high school has a home counselor who gives full time to home visiting and pupil counseling. Another teacher gives half time to home counseling and the remainder to serving as adviser to the board of control of the student body. Each dean has a half-time teacher assistant and a full-time secretary. There are three full-time librarians, two nurses, a cafeteria manager, and a part-time physician.

[1] A recent reorganization divides the district into schools with separate principals but with both closely integrated under the same general plan.

The junior college, while under the same superintendent and board of education, is operated as a separate and distinct unit. It has its own buildings, campus, and instructors. The dean of the college has the same relationship to the superintendent as the principal of the ordinary high school has to his superintendent.

Lane Technical. The head administrative officer at the Lane Technical High School is the principal. Three assistant principals, who devote their entire time to administrative duties, are appointed by the board of education and are paid $400 per year in addition to a regular teaching salary. These officials help with the planning of the program, supervision, and general coordination of the different phases of the school.

In addition to the assistant principals, seven other officials devote half time to administrative duties, which include a great many activities. An attempt is made to apportion the work so that such functions as health, counseling, public relations, conferences, coordination of work of a specialized nature, and supervision will receive the attention of the person best qualified in a particular field. First attention is given to curricular needs, but assistants give considerable time to extracurricular activities, matters of school routine, attendance, and the like.

The administrative office employs a receiving clerk and seven regular stenographers. The shop superintendent and the tool clerk are indispensable members of a staff of a large technical high school. Both positions require considerable technical knowledge as well as administrative ability.

The high school is organized on the basis of departments under the direction of chairmen. Frequent meetings of teachers in each department are held. The principal and his assistants meet with the teachers of every department on an average of once a month. The principal also holds a monthly conference with each department chairman.

Every student is assigned a faculty adviser. The counselor is expected to hold regular meetings with the students assigned to him in accordance with a plan arranged by the administra-

tive assistant in charge. A student retains the same sponsor or adviser throughout the four years of high school. The adjustment teacher, who is a specialist in testing and psychology, devotes her attention to such cases as are referred to her by counselors or teachers.

J. Sterling Morton. The superintendent of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School is the general administrative officer. Generally, there has been a principal or vice-principal who has been rather specifically in charge of the four high school grades. There is a dean of the junior college who is the administrative officer in charge of that section of the school. The extensive trade education department operates under a director whose administrative duties are comparable to those of an assistant principal. There are similar directors for the crippled children's school, the part-time school, and the cooperative school.

There are a number of administrative assistants who do some teaching. The business office operates under a controller who is also the purchasing agent and the secretary of the board of education. There is a chief engineer who is the supervisor of buildings and grounds and of the janitorial service.

There is some departmental organization, differing in character and degree for the various fields of work. The English department is administered through an English committee with a chairman as the chief officer. The work in health, physical education, and athletics is organized as a unit under a director. Music and public speaking have departmental directors. All of these departments are continuous through the ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades. Trade education has its director, and the remaining subject-matter fields are organized somewhat in the usual manner, with chairmen for specific subject divisions.

The annual budget is organized by the superintendent and the controller, for approval by the board of education, and the expenditure is managed by the controller under the supervision of the superintendent. All expenditures are subject to approval by the board of education.

Evanston. The chief administrative officer of the Evanston Township High School is designated as either the principal or the superintendent. He is immediately responsible to the board of education. There is a full-time assistant principal who is the chief supervisor of the daily operation and routine management of the school. The supervisor of buildings and grounds also acts as purchasing agent. A full-time administrative assistant is assigned to guidance and personnel work.

There are twelve large home rooms, each housing about 300 students. Each room has an adjoining office for its director, who is, in reality, an assistant principal for his particular division. To a large degree, these divisions are operated as separate schools. Each has its own staff, to a certain degree, and each has many of its own activities. One of the twelve large home rooms or houses is organized as an experimental division. This unit is called the New School. Another unit houses the Community College.

The general administrative policy is to operate these twelve schools as individual units, with the directors carrying full responsibility for all regular matters of school control. None of these directors teaches more than two periods. Each director has, as an assistant, one teacher who teaches four classes. The directors also carry specific responsibilities for various phases of the administrative program. For example, one is the director of safety education; another is chairman of career information and activities; another is in charge of a social program for girls; one is the director of placement; another is the supervisor of boys' activities; one has charge of class activities, etc.

Other teachers may have specially assigned duties in respect to the home rooms. Several teachers have assignments of an administrative character, such as direction of student activities or direction of speech activities.

Most of the subject-matter groups are under the leadership of chairmen, and there are supplementary chairmen for grade groups within the subject. The work in health, physical education, and athletics is organized as a departmental unit. There

are directors, also, for the music, practical arts, and business curriculums.

The twelve home-room directors, the assistant principal, and the chief administrative assistant form an administration council which meets regularly each week. There is a recorder who is in charge of all records, reports, and statistics.

The budget expenditure is managed by the secretary of the board of education and the purchasing agent, under the supervision of the principal. All expenditures are subject to the approval of the board of education.

Teaching Personnel

Quality of personnel. The larger high schools generally have their choice of the best teaching personnel. Their salaries are usually large enough to attract the best teachers in smaller high schools. Since a teacher in the large school does not have to instruct classes in several fields, he can become efficient in a particular subject; he can also specialize in one phase of extracurricular activities. Other factors that enable large schools to secure teachers of greater experience, training, and ability are their better teaching facilities, cultural advantages, and often the chance afforded the teachers to do advanced graduate work in an urban university.

It is not unusual for the teaching personnel of a large high school to be superior in many respects to that of the average college. On the faculties of some large high schools are many teachers who have rich backgrounds of travel and experience. Some of them are authors of textbooks and magazine articles, and members of professional groups in charge of important experiments. The large high school is likely to have teachers on its faculty from all sections of the country. Most of them have done graduate work in professional subjects, and many hold advanced degrees. Frequently, most of the leading colleges and universities of the country will be represented on the faculty of a large high school. These facts are brought out in the discussions of the teaching personnel of the high schools which follow.

Newton. The high school staff of the Newton High School is made up largely of native New Englanders. There are about 100 staff members from about 50 different higher institutions. About 40 per cent of the teachers are men. There is a state tenure law which operates after a three-year probationary period, and the annual turnover is relatively small. Persistence in the job continues to the compulsory retirement age, 70 years. Each year, from one to three teachers who have served the school 25 to 40 years retire.

Candidates are required to have a college degree and one year of experience. A master's degree and from two to five years of experience are considered highly desirable. Emphasis is placed on professional training, but it is not absolutely required. An arrangement with Harvard University and Boston University provides for apprentice teaching. Especial care is given to the selection of teachers. This has been a policy of long standing and has resulted in a most superior staff of teachers. There are no political appointees. The board of education accepts the nominations of the superintendent. Candidates never apply through any member of the board. Personal interviews are required. Heads of departments, assistant principals, principal, and superintendent all participate in the consideration of candidates. It is a definite policy to visit candidates at work in their respective schools. Often two members of the executive staff cooperate in visiting the candidates.

In recent years the salary schedule has undergone repeated changes. There is a differential between men and women and general and extra maxima. Department heads receive from $200 to $500 additional. Teachers advance to the maxima at varying rates, according to merit. There is sabbatical leave with half pay.

J. Sterling Morton. The high school staff of the J. Sterling Morton High School consists of more than 200 teachers from about 70 colleges and universities. The middle west and the southwest supply the greater number, but there are teachers on the staff from every section of the country. Col-

lege degrees are required. The minimum 15 hours of professional training required by the North Central Association is necessary. One year of experience is required. There is no tenure arrangement, and the turnover is fairly large. The school loses a number of its teachers to the Chicago system. The staff has strong professional interests, and a large proportion have advanced degrees. Heads of departments give some assistance in the selection of teachers. The salary schedule has regular increments, allowances for advanced degrees and administrative assignments, and other details quite in accordance with the typical schedule.

Evanston. The high school staff of the Evanston Township High School represents a wide distribution of members from various parts of the country. There are 136 teachers who have studied in more than 70 different higher institutions. More than 50 per cent are men. The number of teachers from eastern institutions is noticeably large. The turnover is practically nil. Few teachers are lost through promotion to other institutions. While there is no tenure rule, as such, persistence in service is marked. A large number hold advanced degrees, and all have considerably exceeded the requirement of 15 hours of professional training.

Candidates for regular positions must present the master's degree and at least two years of experience. Some opportunity is given for apprentice teaching through assistantships. Also, there are several internships for neophytes who teach part time and work for advanced degrees. This is considered the school's contribution to the problems of recruitment and required experience. Particular care is given to the selection of teachers. Personal interviews and classroom visits are considered necessary. The administration has complete freedom in the selection of all personnel. The board of education consistently ratifies the nominations presented.

A salary schedule generally conforms to accepted schedule principles. Beginning salaries are determined according to the training and experience of the appointee and the inducement necessary. The basic increment is $100 annually, but, in

general, this sum has been doubled during the past several years. Extras and special adjustments from $50 to $200 additional have been voted during the inflationary period. Median training is somewhat above the master's degree and there are several teachers with higher degrees. There is a dependency differential and differentials for degrees above the A.B. Following the war emergency, houses for returned faculty members were erected on the school campus.

Lane Technical. The Lane Technical High School has a teaching staff of 282 members. Teachers are appointed from a list of applicants who have passed oral and written examinations in a major subject and several related minor subjects. The principal may ask for the assignment of a teacher from a particular list if he has a vacancy in that special subject. He has a choice of the highest man or woman on the list. The teachers are listed, following their examinations, in the order of average marks in all the subjects.

Faculty Meetings

Newton. At the Newton High School, faculty meetings come regularly, once a month, with special meetings called occasionally. Departmental meetings also occur at regular monthly intervals. The general meetings deal with social, welfare, and professional problems of the faculty group and of the school at large. From time to time, certain problems are made into extended projects covering a year or more of research, study, and discussion before a definite procedure is worked out. Much attention is given to the social aspects of the faculty meetings; teas, luncheons, dinners, and special parties occur each year. The faculty presents a full-length dramatic production each year.

J. Sterling Morton. At the J. Sterling Morton High School there is no regular program of faculty meetings. It is practically impossible to bring the large membership together. The school day extends from 7:20 to 6:00, and evening school follows at 7:30. At no time in the day is there more than a

mere majority of the staff present in the building. This same condition makes general department meetings as difficult. Much of the activity ordinarily carried forward through faculty meetings must, of necessity, be accomplished by committees.

Evanston. The Evanston High School faculty meetings correspond somewhat to the Newton program. Much work is done through special committees and departmental meetings. Standing committees, such as the Committee on the Curriculum, are commissioned by the general faculty. Special committees do research on certain projects and report to the general group. A standing committee on faculty welfare reports to the entire faculty group from time to time. There are a number of social affairs, and most meetings have a social period immediately preceding the meeting proper. There is a faculty budget; and local, state, and national dues, among other items, are covered for all members of the staff through this very effective arrangement.

Phoenix. At the Phoenix Union High School, the various units of the school hold separate faculty meetings regularly throughout the school year. The teachers of all units are called together two or three times during the year to consider matters of general interest. The regular meetings, held on an average of once a month, are supplemented by conferences of administrative assistants and department heads, and by meetings of the teachers of the different departments.

Lane Technical. The schedule of activities for each term at the Lane Technical High School provides for a number of different kinds of group meetings within the faculty. The meetings in which the principal participates include: (1) one or more meetings with departmental heads each month, (2) one or more meetings with the teachers in each department each month, and (3) one meeting with the whole faculty each month. The principal states that, in his estimation, the plan most effective in a high school the size of Lane Technical is the departmental meetings.

Physical Facilities of Large Schools

Usual characteristics. In the large high school, the following characteristics of physical facilities may be considered fairly general:

1. There are often several average-size buildings or wings, rather than one huge structure housing all parts of the school.
2. Except in large cities where space is not available, buildings are seldom constructed more than three or four stories high.
3. The large high school has many special facilities and conveniences that smaller schools cannot afford.
4. Buildings of the larger high schools are often better planned to meet the needs of the school program, and can be adapted more easily to changes.
5. Special provisions for instructional facilities, such as study halls, laboratories, shops, visual education, and rooms devoted to music, dramatics, and school activities, are characteristic of the large high school.
6. The facilities devoted to noninstructional activities and the miscellaneous services and equipment are usually extensive.
7. The administration and upkeep of the building and other physical facilities are usually in charge of competent personnel.

The following descriptions should give a clearer picture of the physical plants of the large high schools, although these descriptions must be given without much detail.

Newton. The Newton High School physical plant consists of four buildings: (1) an academic building, which also houses a large central library; (2) an administrative building, with central offices, auditorium, gymnasiums, health unit, and cafeteria; (3) a technical, practical arts, and fine arts building, with laboratories and shops; and (4) an auxiliary gymnasium which also supplies indoor track and field space. There are some 30 acres of grounds, with a concrete stadium and an athletic field for boys and girls.

The attractive auditorium is equipped with an especially

large and completely appointed theatrical stage. The seating capacity was limited to one half of the number of students, since a larger hall would have involved many debatable features. A huge steel curtain, however, opens at the back of the stage to make available a large adjacent gymnasium area which is often used when additional space is necessary.

A large gymnasium space ordinarily operates in four separate units, but folding door partitions make the entire space available as a single unit when necessary. The cafeteria seats about 1,000, and is especially designed for rapid and effective service. The library will seat about 150 students at one time. The three main buildings are connected by two-way underground tunnels for use during inclement weather. A large number of classrooms have portable furniture. The laboratories, science equipment, and shops are especially adequate and distinctive.

Evanston. The physical plant of the Evanston Township High School is exceptionally good. The entire plant has been recently built, the oldest unit having been completed in 1924. The grounds and adjacent fields cover 65 acres.

The original unit conformed to the T design; but the additions have gradually closed about the central stem until the general design is a great square with two large quadrangular light courts on each side of the central stem. The gymnasiums, cafeteria, and special facilities occupy the extension wings, and the academic sections are located in the central positions. The light courts are unusually large and excellently landscaped. One of the courts has an open cloister running the length of one side. The physical education, music, cafeteria, library, and laboratory units are special features. For physical education and health purposes, there are offices, special rooms, health unit, handball courts, and five gymnasiums. The cafeteria is a separate wing of three floors, with a single kitchen on the first floor. This wing also houses special facilities for social activities, with two large rooms especially planned for such purposes. The cafeteria is treated with acoustical material and fitted with specially designed equipment.

A large wooden building, to the rear of the main building, furnishes a rifle range with twenty firing points, and a large drill space for the cadet corps. Separate buildings afford shop facilities.

J. Sterling Morton. The J. Sterling Morton Township High School covers compactly a large city block. An adjacent block of the same size inadequately provides space for physical education and athletics. The original building has, through necessity, received a series of hastily built additions, and there is a resulting lack of conformity to any specific type or plan. Rapid increases in the enrollment have forced the erection of some temporary structures. A large auditorium seating about 2,800, with a combined gymnasium and stage adding seating facilities for 1,000 more, is the outstanding feature of the physical plant.

Roosevelt. The plant of the Roosevelt High School at Seattle, Washington, consists of a main building which centers around the auditorium, and the annex which is built around the gymnasium. The building is an example of a superior style of architecture, is fronted by a large lawn, is three stories in height, and is adequate to accommodate 2,600 students.

Some of the strategic centers of the building are the following:

1. The administrative office is left of front entrance.
2. The boys' adviser's office is adjacent to the boys' gymnasium.
3. The girls' adviser's office is to the right of front entrance.
4. The nurse's room is next to the office of girls' adviser.
5. The book room is opposite the library on the second floor.
6. The ticket office is in the front hall, to the left of auditorium.

Connelly Trade. The description of the building of the C. B. Connelly Trade School of Pittsburgh is taken from the student handbook. It shows the provisions in physical facilities which must be made in a large trade high school.

The school consists of an academic and a shop building and is designed to accommodate 1600 boys. It has all the elements necessary for conducting a complete trade school; an auditorium with a seating capacity of over 800; a cafeteria to accommodate 750; a gymnasium, a swimming pool, and five lecture rooms. The building is of fireproof construction and is modern in every respect. . . .

Upon entering the school at the main entrance, which is the one where the flagpole is located, we find on our left the commercial art room and the main floor of the auditorium. To the right of the entrance is the gymnasium and dressing rooms. Going up the stairs at the rear of the entrance we arrive on the first floor of the building.

After arriving at the top of the stairs from the main entrance, we are on the first floor with the office to our left and the balcony of the auditorium at the end of the hall. A right turn at the end of the hall takes us into the shop building.

Passing out into the shop corridor we find on the left the telephone and radio shop and the sheet metal shop, while on the right is the electrical laboratory, surface wiring shop, carpentry, mill room, elementary electricity, and auto mechanics motor department. Directly ahead at the end of the hall is the machine shop. To the left is a pair of stairs leading to the bricklaying and plastering, auto beginners, and welding shops. To the right of the machine shop is the foundry. Ahead of us in the corner is the plumbing shop. On the right side of this corridor is the auto electric department, auto service department, cabinet, pattern, concealed wiring, and electric power equipment shops. On the left side is the wood finishing shop, supply room, and demonstration room. Going through the door ahead of us we return to the academic building.

Going to the second floor of this building we find the composing and monotype and press rooms to our right. To the left is the library, a class room, and the testing laboratory. Across from this room is a demonstration room, print storage room, related printing, related arts, and bindery room.

The third and fourth floors are academic class rooms with the exception of rooms 400 and 404 which are the trade drafting rooms, and 313 which is the custodian's room. On the fifth floor is the cafeteria.

Wyandotte. In 1934, the entire building plant at the Wyandotte High School in Kansas City, Kansas, was destroyed by fire. It was determined to plan and construct a plant in the light of the needs of the community and the most modern ideas on plant facilities. The following discussion of

the planning, construction, and equipment of this building was written by the principal of the school.[1]

Two things, only, were determined. A number of years before, a beautiful 28 acre site had been purchased, and dedicated as a new location for a high school building, if and when the board of education decided to erect one. A second item was that of the total cost, which was announced almost arbitrarily by the board as $2,000,000.

Other aspects of the problem to be studied and determined before our architects were to be satisfied may be grouped under four heads: physical, equipment, functional, and curriculum.

In considering the physical aspect of the whole situation, quite naturally the most important question would be the size and pupil capacity of the building and various departments. The number of rooms required in each department, as well as total pupil capacity, were determined by enrollment statistics extending over a period of ten years preceding. The building was designed to accommodate a working enrollment of 3,000 pupils, with 2,750 expected the first year. In science, eleven laboratories were provided. Ten of these are assigned with eight in full-time use. Shops were provided for woodworking, general metal, printing, electricity, auto mechanics, and mechanical drawing. Regularly scheduled to be used six periods daily, all shops are filled except two periods in the metal shop and three in one of the two mechanical drawing rooms.

The space for home-living courses provided two cooking laboratories and two sewing rooms. Two additional rooms were assigned this department for general classroom purposes. Vocal and instrumental music must be so placed that they do not disturb other departments. This was accomplished by locating them on a top floor near the gymnasium wing. With art and mechanical drawing a northeast light was provided, and the speech and dramatic quarters were located near the two auditoriums. Journalism is placed with the English department, but it is provided with a city telephone and easy access to the print shop.

The library was the cause of considerable concern. Usually a library is planned to seat one-tenth of the enrollment. However, because of the three fine study halls not far removed and a conference room available, we compromised with a seating capacity of 190 in the main library. Parenthetically, one sees so many school library rooms ruined by an attempt to use some multiple of the standard classroom. These are invariably too narrow and present an overcrowded appearance. The

[1] J. F. Wellemeyer, "The Challenge of a New School," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXI (November, 1937), 1-7.

library should always be centrally located and specially designed; not provided as an afterthought.

The size of the auditorium was a problem. In a large high school, it is practically impossible to accommodate the entire student body at one time without making the room too large for fine programs and dramatic performances. Our auditorium seats 1,800; the acoustics are so perfect that no amplification of sound is ever necessary and the appointments are very artistic and beautiful. We reluctantly, but of necessity, gave up the idea of assembling the entire student body. The auditorium is in a separate wing and has an outside entrance with facilities for cutting off the remainder of the building. A beautiful recital hall seating 250 persons with a fully-equipped stage accommodates smaller meetings.

For physical education, we have provided separate gymnasiums for girls and for boys with their respective dressing and shower rooms, a swimming pool, a corrective room, and a health unit. Here again, seating capacity for spectators reared its ugly head. Right or wrong, we plan to seat 2,000, with some extension possible, if it becomes imperative. The boys' gymnasium, where public spectators are to be admitted, also occupies a separate wing with separate street entrance.

The cafeteria occupies central location on the ground floor. There are two large dining rooms with a capacity of 500 each, a separate entrance from outside, and complete isolation from the school both as to location and sound. Our three study halls seat 150 each and are in direct corridor line opposite the library. The administrative offices are in the center of the building, with all offices grouped together. Our plan also included the complete landscaping of the 21 acre tract. All playground, recreation, and parking facilities are under unit control.

Very closely associated with the general physical aspect was that of equipment for the new building. In planning equipment, certain matters of general policy are often involved. We believed that best results could be obtained by promoting classroom unity and independence in the installation of equipment. For this reason, the laboratory storerooms were large, fully provided for with shelving, drawers, etc., and invariably opened from within the classroom. The departmental teachers were asked to submit drawings of the classroom equipment set-up, including storerooms, shelving, and closets, as well as furniture. Standard furniture is to be found only in the academic classrooms, and even here certain items like wall maps and charts are absolutely determined by the subject to be taught.

Teachers' desks are uniform throughout the building. After long consideration, we decided against loose chairs and in favor of a pedestal desk fastened to the floor in practically all academic rooms. This

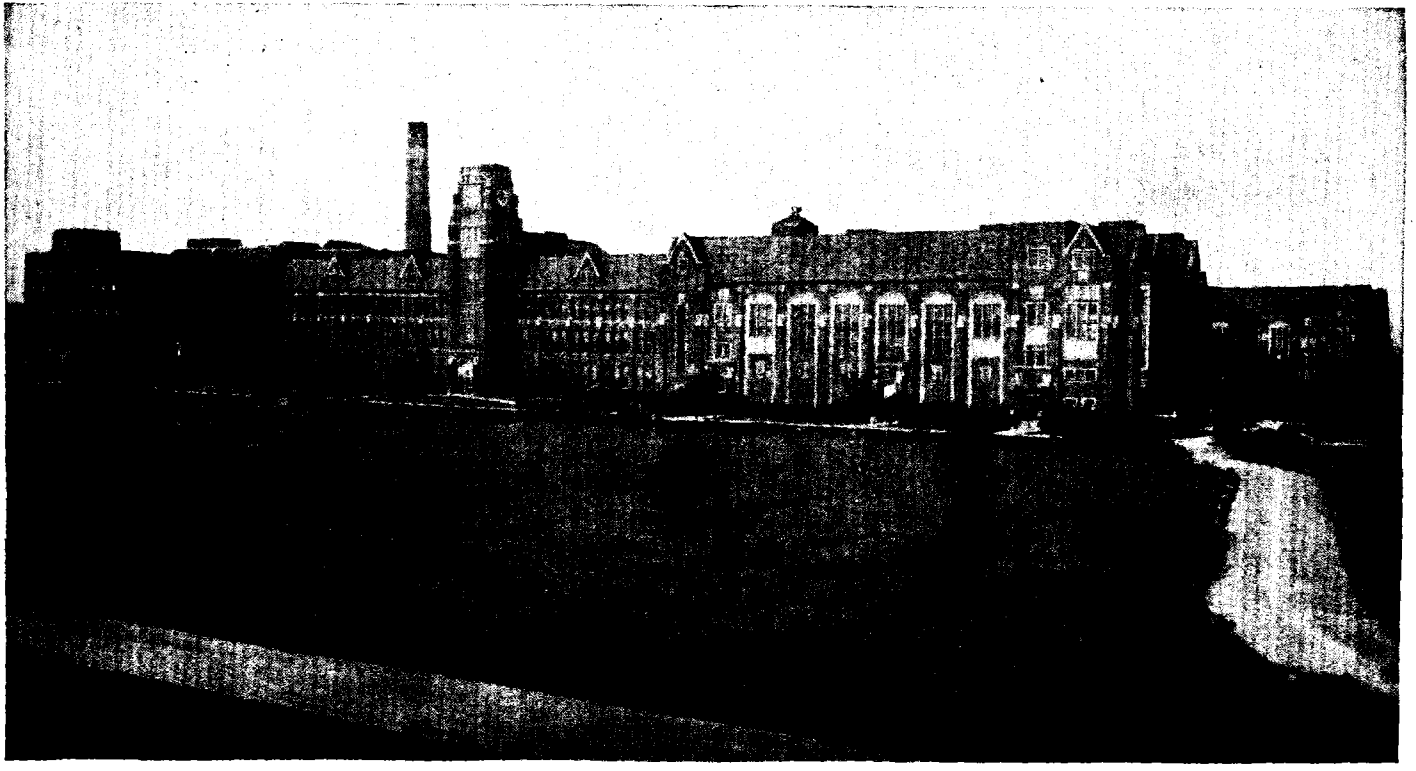
naturally called for maple flooring in these rooms. In the physics and chemistry room, one finds an interesting example of an attempt to promote class unity. In each case, the room is long, with laboratory tables and storeroom at one end and class recitation equipment and teacher's demonstration table at the other. All other laboratories have one-way tables and supply the dual purpose very well. In all special rooms where chairs are used, these are uniform and are finished in walnut color which is uniform for furniture of every kind. This holds true for the cafeteria, auditorium, and office.

Lane Technical. The huge plant of the Lane Technical High School has nearly 200 different rooms in which instructional activities are carried on. There are 24 drawing rooms, 20 laboratories, 56 shops, and many other types of space. The auditorium seats 2,200. There are three gymnasiums, the largest seating more than 1,000. A single cafeteria seats about 1,200. There are two large chorus rooms and one room each for band and orchestra. The library is two stories high. Among the varieties of shops is an unusually complete printing establishment with editorial offices, composing room, linotype, monotype, and a special press room. There is also an aeronautical shop and a special automobile driver training laboratory.

The Daily Schedule of the Large High School

Some factors to consider. It is of the utmost importance that a large high school have a well-planned daily schedule to serve as an effective instrument for putting into execution the aims and functions of the educational system. It is absolutely necessary that conflicts be avoided if confusion and disorganization are to be eliminated. Congestion, which is probably the most difficult problem the principal of the large high school must deal with, can be solved to a great extent by developing a schedule properly adapted to actual conditions.

Among the factors that must be considered in making the daily schedule are the school curriculums, the teaching personnel, the individual needs of pupils, and the building and other physical facilities. These matters are treated in some detail in Chapter VII.



Lane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois.

The daily schedules of large high schools are usually more or less standardized, that is, they are continued from year to year, with a minimum of change and adaptation. Unless some phase of the school plant, the student population, or the teaching or administrative personnel undergoes a great change, there is little need for changing their fundamental character. In general, the changes in a large high school are gradual enough so that large adaptations in the daily schedule are seldom demanded.

Newton. The high school possesses a rather distinctive schedule, with six rotating blocks. Periods, with the exception of the lunch periods, are 60 minutes in length. The lunch periods are interlocking. The school day extends from 8:30 to 2:15. Most classes meet four times a week. The first hour on Wednesdays is free for assemblies. Other extracurricular activities work on a regular schedule from 2:15 to 5:00. The rotating-block feature reduces the students' free study periods to a relatively small number. There is supervised study, but not according to mechanical arrangement.

A schedule committee under the direction of the vice-principal plans and operates the schedule. The schedule is finished and pupils are assigned before the committee leaves in June. The fact that there is no summer school reduces schedule difficulty. The reorganization at the end of the first semester is slight.

Evanston. The daily schedule extends from 8:30 to 3:00 and consists of eight periods. A ninth period is scheduled for special help. The full school day ends at 5:00. Probably the most unusual feature of the schedule is the extensive use of the alternating-day plan for subjects meeting less than five times per week. Double-period subjects also use this plan, with a single period one day, a double period the next, and so on. Three full periods are given to lunch. There are many pupils in study periods, and much is made of the opportunity for study given in the large home rooms. This arrangement removes the usual difficulty of study hall assignment, as each student returns to his home room during his free periods.

The schedule is made and administered under the direction of the assistant principal. Assistance is given by specially selected teachers. The school is reorganized at the end of the first semester. The reorganization does not interfere with the regular schedule through the last day of the semester. A large summer school with varied offerings adds to the task of the September schedule, since many student assignments and some classes may not be determined until its conclusion in August.

J. Sterling Morton. The high school schedule is unusual, but largely by reason of its hours. The day extends from 7:20 to 6:00, and consists of sixteen periods. The entire plant is in operation during this time. Students are grouped in plant units. The first unit finishes most of its day's work before lunch and is dismissed; another unit follows. Students come and go regularly each period after the fourth. This practice reduces what would otherwise be a large study hall demand. There are five full periods for lunch, extending from about 11:00 to 2:00. However, this schedule is simpler than might be supposed. The master schedule is prepared by the office staff. The entire enrollment is divided into adviser groups. The advisers make out the program of each of their advisees from the master schedule. An office secretary adjusts the numbers and balances the sections during the summer vacation. Until recently, each section was segregated according to ability. Classification quotients were determined well in advance, and the advisers were equipped with this information before they were assigned advisees.

Phoenix. The Phoenix Union High School schedule begins at 8:15 and extends until 4:30. There are eight periods in the day, plus combination lunch and activity periods. A period is 50 minutes in length, with 5 minutes allowed between classes. There are two lunch periods of 25 minutes each, from 11:15 to 12:20, and from 12:25 to 12:50. These two periods are also made to serve as activity periods. With the exception of a few major activities, such as the school newspaper, the student board of control, and debating, all extracurricular groups use

one of the lunch periods or conduct their activities during after-school hours. Athletic practice is held after 3:40.

The director of research and guidance directs the scheduling, classification, and programming of students, and has charge of the organization and administration of classes. The counselor works in conjunction with the director of research and guidance, assisting him with matters pertaining to the daily schedule. No provision is made in the daily schedule for home-room meetings.

Grosse Point. The high school at Grosse Point, Michigan, has a daily schedule somewhat typical of a large high school. The day begins with a home-room period lasting from 8:25 until 8:40, when the first regular class period begins. Classes are 40 minutes in length, with 5 minutes between classes. As both the junior and the senior high schools use the same cafeteria, the junior high school lunch period is held between 11:15 and 12:00, at the time the senior grades are having their fourth-period classes. From 12:05 to 12:45, while the junior high school students are having their fourth-period classes, the senior high school lunch period is held. The eighth period in the day, from 3:30 to 4:15, is for special help, conferences, sports, clubs, and other extracurricular activities. Determining the size of the schedule each year is a very difficult problem. As the mobility of population is unusually marked, new adjustments are constantly needed in order to accommodate the student body.

The Curriculum of the Large High School

Characteristics of the curriculum. Among the characteristics that distinguish the curriculum offerings of the large high school, perhaps the most outstanding ones are the following:

1. The large high school offers a number of curriculums. The word "curriculum" is used here to indicate a schematic arrangement of courses designed for a particular group of pupils.

2. The large high school, owing to its size and extensive

physical facilities, makes provision for new curriculum offerings, such as consumer education, conservation, safety, character education, and visual education.

3. It is possible for the large high school to bring about a reasonably close correlation between its offering and the aims and functions of secondary education.

4. The curriculum is flexible and adaptable rather than rigid.

5. The curriculum of the large school can differentiate its offerings in order to meet the diverse interests and needs of its students.

Newton. The high school offers four curriculums: business preparatory, college preparatory, trade preparatory, and general. The college preparatory has restricted, scientific or technical, and general groupings. The business preparatory curriculum carries specialization opportunities in the stenographic, clerical, bookkeeping, business machines, and general business fields. The trade curriculum includes specialized courses in mechanics, carpentry, drafting, electricity, machine shop, metalworking, printing, and so on. The general group includes the fine arts, metal arts, and home arts.

All curriculums are set up chiefly to provide convenient and efficient guidance. Every possible degree of flexibility is maintained. Special adjustments and combinations of subjects from several different curriculum groupings are constantly being worked out to fit pupil needs.

Three-year constants are English and physical education. Community civics and general science are ninth-grade constants. United States history is an eleventh-grade constant required for graduation. A few subjects are required as constants within certain definite curriculums, but most subjects are listed as variables.

The school has about 200 students taking College Board examinations each year, and their record of success is superlative.

J. Sterling Morton. The curriculums in this high school are: stenographic, secretarial, clerical and business training,

industrial and vocational, and college preparatory. English is required for four years. Vocations and civics are constants in all ninth-grade work. Either general science or physiology must be taken in the ninth year. Other constants are limited to the different curriculums. The list of variables is especially large, and includes such unusual subjects as Polish and Bohemian.

A two-year curriculum is offered in business subjects to meet the needs of students who are unable to remain in school four years. This curriculum carries a heavy enrollment. Some students transfer to a four-year curriculum at the end of the two-year period.

All students who enroll in the vocational department must take the ninth-grade constants, plus one exploratory course in shopwork. The second-year students may select a definite trade to be followed the remaining three years, or choose a general industrial arts course which allows any two of the regular academic subjects each of the remaining three years. In the trade courses, all academic work except English is definitely correlated with the shopwork.

Eight vocational specializations are offered: printing, auto mechanics, pattern-making, drafting, electrical mechanics, machine-shop practice, building trades, and woodworking.

Evanston. The curriculums in the high school are arranged under two main headings: college preparatory, and general with specialized opportunities. The college preparatory curriculums are formed according to major subjects and sequence, such as foreign language, social studies, and science, the latter including mathematics. There is a special curriculum to prepare students for eastern colleges that require College Board examinations. Some Smith-Hughes courses are offered also.

Under the specialized opportunities are fine arts, practical arts, business, and clerical and stenographic studies. Within both main divisions, a large degree of flexibility is allowed. The curriculum design is for the purpose of clarity and guidance, and to give proper emphasis to desirable sequences. Whenever they seem advisable, special combination programs

are worked out as a means of meeting individual pupil needs.

English is a four-year requirement. Health and physical education are required for four years. United States history is required in one of the last two years. These are all of the general constants. Other requirements are determined by the sequence of majors in the various curriculums. A cadet corps is organized as a unit in physical education, and may be followed for four years as an alternative to physical education classes. The corps is under the general supervision of the director of physical education.

The school was one of the first in the country to organize safety education: (1) as a unit in civics; (2) as a course in practical driving with dual-controlled car; and (3) as a student activity, with safety council, traffic patrols, and traffic court.

A civics orientation course has been especially developed through continual experiment. The fine arts course carries through four years. Activities in music, physical education, and athletics are extensive. Speech re-education has been a valuable part of the school's program for a number of years.

A staff Educational Planning Committee is actively at work on curriculum problems.

Phoenix. The offerings of the high school are divided into twenty-one curriculums. This organization is the result of the work of a faculty committee appointed to make a special study of the curriculum offerings. The curriculums were adopted after this committee had made an investigation of: (1) what the leading high schools of the country were doing, and (2) the requirements for entrance at the leading colleges and universities. The requirements and possible electives for each of the four years' work in all curriculums are listed in the bulletin of information of the high school. The twenty-one curriculums are: general curriculum, high school graduation, liberal arts I, liberal arts II, literary, scientific, premedical, preengineering, law and government, social service, home-

making, agriculture-college preparatory, agriculture-vocational, secretarial, accounting, clerical, general business, art, music, and vocational shop.

The minimum requirements for graduation from the high school include: English, three units; social science, two units (one unit must be American history, and one half unit civics); and a laboratory science, one unit. Seventeen units are required for graduation, fifteen of which shall be solids (necessary for college entrance), two additional subjects to be selected from physical or military training, music, or other auxiliary subjects. A unit means a year's work in a class that meets five times a week for 50 minutes a day and requires 40 minutes' outside preparation.

Lane Technical. The offerings in the high school are undergoing distinct changes at the time of the writing of this book. There is a core curriculum required in all the high schools of Chicago. In accordance with this requirement, every pupil takes the following courses: three years of English, one year of general science, one year of civics and history, one year of music, one year of art, and four years of physical education. All courses meet five periods each week with the exception of physical education, which is held two or three periods per week. In addition to these required courses, a student must take enough work to make sixteen units in four years, grouping the courses in such a way that there will be certain sequences.

To be admitted to the high school, a student must desire a technical, commercial art, or music sequence. The technical course includes three years of shop and two years of drawing. Beyond the requirements set up by the board of education for graduation from any Chicago high school and the requirements set up for a particular curriculum at Lane Technical, one can see that a student has some latitude in selecting courses in line with his particular interest. Before 1937, there were definite courses for specializing in some one type of work. Very few electives were allowed. A new plan has been adopted permitting students more electives.

Methods of Instruction

Efficiency of instruction. The procedures and methods of classroom instruction in the large comprehensive high school may be rather easily adapted to meet any particular situations which may arise. The variety of offerings, the extensive facilities, provisions for individual differences of students, skill of teaching personnel, and many other characteristics of the large high school make possible the use of the particular method which seems most suitable. Testing, experimentation, remedial work, correlation of different devices, and fusion of materials can be used to make instruction more effective. The provision which many large high schools have for supervision enables teachers to secure expert help in adapting methods and procedures to particular courses or groups of students. Another advantage of the large high school is that its entire program can be so coordinated that the results of different methods and instructional procedures may be compared and evaluated.

Newton. High school instruction is carefully planned by the department and group leaders, and more specifically by the individual teacher. The school has its own plan-book forms, and each teacher has his plan book constantly available. Whatever latitude seems desirable is arranged between the subject supervisor and the teacher. Many experimental ventures are made.

The social studies make much use of the socialized method; many of their rooms are equipped with tables and chairs. Some of the classes in English are similarly conducted. Much variety is used in the presentation of subject matter. Teachers are alert to the use of all the well-known devices, and utilize considerable enrichment material. There are classes in every department using, to some extent, projects and units of work. Attempts are made to capitalize the particular skill and interest of each teacher.

Extended use is made of achievement tests for placement and for mastery. Monthly tests are given regularly, many being of the objective type. A marking-period examination is

given every two months. A final, general examination in each subject is required of every student at the end of the year.

There is large extension of the English curriculum into the life of the school, applied work is emphasized in the business courses, and the social studies are utilized as a laboratory for school life. The trade education is organized on an eight-hour basis. Academic or informational material is correlated by the shop teachers.

J. Sterling Morton. Classroom procedure in this high school illustrates much variety, and almost every type of established procedure may be found. Experimental methods, procedures, and devices are often tried out. Departmental committees and chairmen organize the work to be covered, which is laid out in rather specific detail Each section is tested with a group test each month, and this practice necessitates carefully planned and executed procedure. The sections of like grade and subject are rated each month according to standing in the group test. Standardized tests of all types are used to an unusual degree. Each department also develops its own achievement tests which, to a large extent, determine the students' marks. There are no final semester or yearly examinations.

Most of the classroom work is well scaled to the ability and interests of the students. A real attempt is made to adapt materials to students' needs and capacities. The industrial characteristics of the community are thoroughly and extensively reflected in the classroom content and application. Classroom procedure and the extracurricular activities have harmonious relations, and in some instances are unusually well correlated. The trade education is especially well organized and functions through placement and follow-up. In general service to its students and to the school as a whole, the printing department is outstanding.

Evanston. The courses of study in the high school are planned by the departments, and are covered through the careful daily planning of the individual teacher. Regular plan books are required. Teachers, however, have much latitude in

presentations. Department chairmen supervise with the aid of committees and grade or course chairmen.

A special schedule of long examinations operates once per year. Monthly tests are used extensively. Unusually wide use is made of supplementary and enrichment material. Adequate manifolding facilities enable every teacher to have whatever mimeographed material may seem justified.

The school's experimental unit makes a special effort to develop new approaches to the learning process. Other teachers and departments also are continually trying out new methods and materials. For example, there is an experimental orientation course for seniors who do not expect to enter college. There is another experiment in the fusion of English and history.

Serious attempts are made to meet student needs and interests on every front, as witnessed not only by the experimentation mentioned but also by courses in personal typewriting, personal bookkeeping, gardening and flower culture, remedial reading, theatrical costume and design, speech re-education, and a variety of courses in English and mathematics.

As the school has been dominantly college preparatory in its work, classroom procedure has followed the best methods for such preparation. Such classes have been kept relatively small, and a large amount of drill and individual work has been done. The efficacy of this procedure has been amply demonstrated in the college success of the school's graduates.

The curriculum in English is extended through many contacts in the school as a whole. The social studies are also extending their activities and applications into general integration within the school and the community and a constantly increasing number of students participate in all social activities. Health, play, and recreation programs are much emphasized.

There is a faculty committee on integration of major activities. Another faculty committee, on "curriculum problems," considers means of improving instructional methods and appoints subcommittees to develop plans and make recommendations.

Phoenix. Each department of the high school has a course of study that has been developed over a period of years. The courses are divided into units which are made the basis of instruction in the classroom. The English and social studies departments have experimented extensively with what is known as the contract plan, and have had considerable success with fusion courses and integration of subject matter. Emphasis is placed on mastery of subject matter rather than the doing of a specified amount of work. The director of research has carried on a definite experiment in determining what size of class is most effective when certain methods are used in different courses.

Lane Technical. All teachers in the high school use some form of the laboratory or supervised study technique of teaching. The type of training offered by the school demands that the instruction be, to a large degree, individual.

Providing for Individual Differences

Methods used. The problems of providing for the individual differences in students have increased so tremendously in recent years that there has been a widespread attempt to discover solutions. Not long ago, the students enrolled in high schools of all sizes were a fairly homogeneous group. Today, the high school population, particularly in large high schools, represents every element in American society.

In the main, four general methods have been proposed and experimented with as means of providing for individual differences. The first of these is to provide a separate or segregated school for the students of exceptionally low ability, and also another specialized school for those of exceptionally high ability. To date this idea has not met with much approval from the public or from practical school administrators.

The second method is that of the homogeneous grouping of all students. There are many problems and obstacles to overcome in applying this method, and it has met with disfavor in many communities. It requires administrative organization and planning before it can be put into operation. Many

of the large high schools which have tried homogeneous grouping seem to have had doubtful results.

The third method does not require the separation of pupils on the basis of ability, but rather an adaptation of the teaching method to the individuals within the group. This unit or contract plan of teaching, which can be adapted to individual differences in both small and large high schools, has been used in many places. The plan has also been used in classes formed on the basis of homogeneous grouping. Its chief advantage is that it does not require any special administrative organization, but can be installed by the individual teacher without serious change in content of courses. It does, however, involve unusually able and extensive supervision, especially when first introduced, as teachers will need some time to become proficient in the use of the plan.

The fourth method is a combination of two or more of the methods given, or some usage of parts of each. The variations are marked. Principals who are particularly interested in keeping an even keel and making the most practical use of "what is good" in any theory are likely to head schools illustrative of the fourth method.

For the large high school, the problem of adapting the program to the individual differences of students is one of constant difficulty. Much experimentation and research are needed to determine what procedure is best. Perhaps some new method will have to be found before the problem is completely solved. What is being done in certain schools to provide for individual differences should be particularly helpful to schools seeking approaches to the problem.

Newton. The high school does not, in the main, classify students according to ability. All information necessary to such classification is available, but is used for guidance purposes. There are, however, two interesting extremes in segregation. Wherever possible, superior pupils are placed in honor sections which contain from five to ten more students than the average section, and from ten to fifteen more than the slow or special sections. The honor sections are given much en-

richment material. The slow sections, made up of those students whose records indicate the need for specialized treatment, are kept as small as possible. Minimum skills and habits are emphasized. In some cases, a section will require two years to complete the work of a normal year.

Additional treatment is provided for retarded students who have failed properly to meet the entrance conditions to high school. These students are graded and given special programs. Most of the academic work is met through individualized procedures. Much of the program is handwork and play.

J. Sterling Morton. This high school offers one of the best examples of a large school which formerly attempted the segregation of all pupils according to ability. Ratings were determined through tests given to the students by the Morton Bureau of Testing when they were in the eighth grade. They were sectioned according to classification-age, which extended as far into the upper years of the high school as the number of sections in a single subject would allow. If there were twenty sections in ninth-grade English, one section would contain the students of lowest ability and another would contain those of highest ability, while the remaining eighteen sections would include various gradations of the students at intermediate ability levels. The proper adjustment of methods and material to the low sections was most difficult, especially since the content in all sections of each subject was measured and the mastery rated by the same achievement test. Classes were uniformly large, which increased the difficulty. Recently, the plan has been largely adjusted both as to variation and flexibility.

Evanston. The high school has a few sections of superior pupils in certain courses. The main purpose is to give opportunity for bright students to travel at a faster pace, thus affording them time to take courses other than the requirements of college preparation. In mathematics, some sections complete a year's work in half a year, but receive a full unit of credit. There are also slow sections which use materials especially adapted for them. Any segregating that is done

proceeds along these lines. The students of the great middle group do not, at present, seem to have especial need for segregation. Much is done in the adjustment of individual programs in order to meet the ability of certain students. Much attention is given to provision for the natural segregation that occurs by reason of special interests, skills, talents, and particular needs.

Phoenix. The high school segregates the students on the basis of ability. The different groups are called X, Y, and Z classes. The different departments have worked out courses of study according to the varying abilities of pupils.

Lane Technical. The high school students are not divided on the basis of ability. The problem works itself out in a natural way, as the interests of students seem to guide them into the particular courses where they will be most successful. The adjustment teacher, a specialist on testing and psychology, works on special problems regarding adjustment of courses and material to ability of students when counselor or teachers refer such problems to her.

Guidance and Personnel Work of the Large High School

Guidance emphasized. The character of the student population in the large high school emphasizes the great need of a program of guidance and personnel work to help students make decisions and adjustments in accordance with their abilities and interests. The guidance work in high schools is of two kinds. Educational guidance is designed to help students become orientated to school life and make better adjustments to their social environment, while vocational guidance is intended to help them select suitable occupations and plan to prepare themselves for the kind of work selected.

A monograph of the National Survey of Secondary Education contains case studies of ten outstanding guidance systems,[1] found principally in larger cities and larger schools. The small high school has done comparatively little in the de-

[1] W. C. Reavis, *Programs of Guidance.* U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 14.

velopment of guidance and personnel work. The investigations in guidance made by Kefauver and Davis [1] reveal that the great need is for some means of evaluating the programs that schools have developed.

The illustrative accounts of guidance and personnel work in certain high schools show how guidance is carried on in large high schools.

J. Sterling Morton. Guidance in the J. Sterling Morton High School is basically organized through the small home-room classes, each a cross section of the four grades of the school, which form intimate guidance groups meeting for 15 minutes each day. Practically every teacher in the school has one of these advisory groups. They are segregated according to sex, women teachers carrying the assignments for the girls, and the men teachers for the boys. The adviser holds his group throughout their high school careers. The problems of the group are the problems of the adviser, who is expected to take care of his group in all their relations to the school. Behavior problems, for instance, are referred to him for record and control.

There is a central placement bureau, with a director in charge, which is chiefly concerned with finding jobs for students. The director has a full-time assistant and clerical help. The truant officers and visiting nurses also work from this office.

The industrial nature of the contributing population results in heavy student mortality and in many demands for part-time work. There are many cases of irregular attendance, and much follow-up work with the homes is necessary. The bureau officers are also available for special consultation and give much time to such work.

Evanston. In the Evanston Township High School, too, the home-room organization serves as the base for guidance. The home-room director has, in fact, always operated largely as a chief adviser of his group. In handling problem cases, his relationship has been one of particular responsibility and

[1] Grayson Kefauver and Albert M. Davis, "Investigations in Guidance," *Occupations*, XII (November, 1933), 17–25.

concern. In general, he has also carried on most, if not all, of the customary duties of the group adviser in any system. Since the director carries only a small teaching load, however, the school can provide an unusually liberal allowance of adviser's time for guidance. The effective location of this officer has been capitalized. He remains as the director of guidance for his group, handles the problem cases, and follows up the work of a number of teacher-advisers assigned to his room.

Each teacher-adviser has a small group of students. One day each week the home-room period of 30 minutes is assigned to the advisers. The student groups may be sent to the advisers' rooms for this period. The adviser may also arrange interviews during any home-room period of the week, or the ninth period, as may be necessary.

The advisers are responsible for adequate personnel information concerning each of their advisees. Organized suggestions and information are sent out from the office relative to interviews and guidance procedures. Important or difficult problems are carried by the adviser to the home-room director. The folder system is used, and all of the information concerning any pupil is on file in his folder in the office of the home-room director. A two-year personnel cumulative record card is used. Personnel rating cards are also returned from each teacher. Special rating and self-analysis forms are used for all college preparatory students. If necessary, a complete diagnosis of the problem student is made through contact with the home, the school health officer, the psychological clinic, and others.

There is additionally a director of counseling and research with two full-time assistants and several clerks operating in a centralized guidance suite. This is the coordinating office for all guidance and testing and for guidance relationships with the grade schools. An extensive testing program, including a service of about thirty hours for complete individualized testing, is maintained. Many specialized projects and guidance activities, including a coordinated career club plan for over 1,500 pupil members, emanate from this central office.

One director gives much attention to career conference and information. Special meetings, lectures, and conferences are part of the plan.

Phoenix. The function of the student adjustment and personnel department in the Phoenix Union High School is to help students solve their health, financial, social, and educational problems. The chairman of this department is the superintendent, and students are urged to confer with him at any time on any problem. The director of research and guidance is in charge of the part of the program which relates to educational plans and schedules of students. He also has charge of classification of students.

The counselor works with the director of research and guidance, assisting him in all guidance activities. Her chief function is to see that every student is placed in the courses, in the section, and with the teacher where he will be able to work most effectively, and where he will be the happiest in his schoolwork. One of her main duties is to confer with failing students and to discover what factors have been responsible for failure.

The function of the dean of boys is to help boys in solving their problems and making the most of school experiences in every way possible. He is in direct charge of all interests and activities of boys, except athletics. He assists boys with all types of problems, advising them as to conduct, clubs, and social and financial problems. In like manner, the dean of girls helps girls with their problems.

The duties of the attendance counselor and health coordinator are to help students who have attendance problems. He spends his afternoons visiting homes and conferring with students and parents in an effort to improve attendance and make educational accomplishment more effective. The adviser of the Associated Student Body confers with students on matters of citizenship rating.

Lane Technical. Each student who enters Lane Technical High School is assigned a faculty sponsor, who serves a particular group during the entire four years. He becomes the



Airplane view of buildings and grounds of the Union High School, Phoenix, Arizona.

guidance officer of his group, and is responsible for helping the different students with their problems. Many of the guidance activities are carried out at group meetings where general discussion is conducted on problems common to several members of the group. The faculty sponsors receive help in matters of guidance from administrative assistants and homeroom teachers.

Extracurricular Activities in Large High Schools

Scope of extracurricular activities. The program of extracurricular activities is determined to a great extent by the size of the school and the variety of student interests that must be served. The theory is that most extracurricular activities should grow naturally out of the interests of students. Among the curricular offerings formerly classified as extracurricular are journalism, public speaking, debating, and dramatic art. These and many other subjects started as extracurricular, but are now accepted as a regular part of the curriculum. The line of demarcation which formerly separated the curriculum from the extracurriculum seems to be fading away as more and more schools give curricular recognition to activities that were formerly considered extracurricular. Perhaps this tendency is particularly apparent in the large high school.

Students from urban districts have more leisure time. There are more temptations and hazards to be thwarted in such districts. The facilities and the teachers offer more variety in extracurricular activities. Extensive programs of student activity are the result. Indications of the extent and character of these are given by the illustrative schools.

Newton. There is a rather complete and elaborate extracurricular organization in the Newton High School. A general body, called the Newton High School Associates, is a holding corporation for all of the extracurricular life of the school. Its governing bodies consist of a board of faculty control and a student legislature. The first is appointive by the principal. The second is elective, with two students from each home room. The latter is the chief legislative body and, as such,

provides the legislative control for all extracurricular life. All clubs and other organizations are chartered by the legislature.

The department of social studies is responsible for the functioning of student participation in school government, and furnishes the faculty advisers for the civic relationships. The head of the department is parliamentarian to the legislature and uses his office to instruct in civic routine. The student civics board handles traffic, grounds, and cafeteria problems, and manages a general election for all the offices connected with the general association.

There is a central treasury with a bonded faculty treasurer. The legislature controls the general fund of this treasury, and obtains its revenue by percentage tax upon all financial operations. Faculty sponsors and student treasurers are responsible to the central treasury.

All departments have clubs, and there are many special clubs and organizations. A weekly paper, a literary magazine, a school handbook, and a yearbook are published. There are a number of dramatic organizations and the usual music organizations. Intramural and interscholastic sports are especially strong. Four school teams play separate schedules in football and baseball. There are two such teams each in swimming, ice-hockey, basketball, and both indoor and outdoor track. There are also teams in squash, tennis, and golf. Girls' athletics consist of intramural and play-day activities.

A definite schedule is set up for the extracurricular activities. Some school time is given to them, but most organizations meet after the regular schedule is over. The schedule of extracurricular activities is made out in October. There is a definite scheme of participative control, with larger opportunities for the able students. A faculty member holds the office of executive secretary of the general association, and he is the general supervisor, the coordinator, and the principal's representative in all phases of the extracurricular activities.

J. Sterling Morton. The extent and variation of student activities in this high school is unusually large. There is no central organization or control save that of the principal's

office. Each activity gains its permission to organize from the principal; a faculty sponsor is appointed and the organization is on its way. Intramural and interscholastic athletics are strongly organized. There are teams in football, baseball, basketball, swimming, track, boxing, wrestling, fencing, tumbling, tennis, hockey, golf, and cross-country running, with two teams in the major sports. There are many musical organizations, choruses, clubs, bands, orchestras, and ensembles of various kinds, practically all of which meet during the school day. Service clubs of several kinds are especially strong, subject clubs are numerous, and there are many public-speaking and dramatic activities.

Each activity competes for its place in the sun. The student interest is keen and participation is wide. The faculty interest is large and the cooperation excellent. There is no schedule of extracurricular activities and no scheme of limiting participation. Each organization finances itself, but is required to deposit in the school bank. Spontaneity and reality are strong and vital factors in the extracurricular life.

Evanston. Extracurricular activities have been slow to appear in the Evanston Township High School. The conservative nature of the school for many years and the unusually rich opportunities offered by outside agencies have tended to produce this slow development. Until recent years, much of the time of Evanston students was taken by a large number of active church, club, and other organizations. The facilities and direction offered by many of these were quite unusual in extent and character.

In the past fifteen years, the character of both city and school has changed markedly. Meanwhile, an extensive student activity program has developed. The calendar of scheduled events covers two pages in the school handbook. Each home room has an organization of student officers and a home-room council. Each home room also sends two delegates to a central council which is thus representative of the entire school. Each home room has a safety officer, and a school safety council is comprised of the home-room safety officers. There is a

traffic court and a traffic patrol. The home rooms organize many assemblies of their own under direction of their own organization. One period or more a week is given to such activity.

There are a number of departmental and special activity clubs, several dramatic organizations, and extensive musical activities. The publications include a weekly newspaper, a literary quarterly, an original poetry anthology, a handbook, and a senior classbook. Intramural and interscholastic athletics are strongly developed. Four teams are maintained in the major sports. Intramural teams are organized in baseball, basketball, track, swimming, tennis, softball, golf, boxing, wrestling, soccer, volleyball, and handball. The girls play hockey, archery, softball, quoit tennis, and captain ball. The girls participate in play-days rather than in interscholastic competition. A large number of ping-pong tables provide for simple recreation during lunch hours and after school. Chess, checkers, and other games are played also.

An appointive faculty committee on student activities is the source of regulation and control. The secretary of this committee is also the general secretary and supervisor for the extracurricular activities. There is a central treasury with a faculty treasurer and a board of control appointed from the general committee.

Phoenix. The usual extracurricular organizations characteristic of large high schools are to be found in the Phoenix Union High School. At the head of the program of activities is the Student Board of Control and the Associated Student Body. The various athletic, social, and club activities are carried on under the leadership of the Board of Control. The officials of the school delegate a certain amount of governing authority to this group which, in turn, issues charters to clubs, coordinates the work of different groups, and stimulates interest in different activities and projects. The home room is used largely as a unit for the organization of many of the activities.

Assemblies are held at two-week intervals. Special assemblies are held for the student body elections, inauguration of

officers, and in honor of the seniors. A number of special plays, and four traditional ones, are held during the school year. A historical pageant in which almost all of the students participate is another traditional activity which is held annually.

Lane Technical. The extracurricular activities of Lane Technical High School are, insofar as the faculty can make them, the result of the demands of students. Whenever a new group starts an activity, it is assigned a faculty adviser. There is no period during the day set aside for activities. Almost all extracurricular activities hold their meetings after school hours. In addition to the intramural and athletic activities, there are over 50 clubs that function regularly.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Make a list of the *major* differences and similarities of the high schools described in this chapter.
2. Do you agree with all the statements made in the discussion of the topic entitled, "What makes a high school large?" Why or why not?
3. What are the most important advantages and disadvantages of the large high school?
4. Should the large high school seek to standardize its classroom procedures or should it seek wide variety of treatment? Give arguments.
5. What plan of faculty meetings seems to be most successful in the large high school?
6. What are some of the problems in large high schools that should be considered by the entire faculty?
7. Evaluate the procedure used in planning the Wyandotte high school.
8. If you were directing the planning of a large high school under similar conditions, what variations in procedure would you use?
9. What factors may cause congestion in a large high school?
10. How can the schedule of a large high school be planned to avoid congestion or crowding?
11. What factors should determine the size of the high school auditorium?
12. What are the desirable characteristics of the curriculum of a large high school?

13. Contrast the curriculum of a large high school with that of a small high school.

14. Search out and discuss examples of large schools which vary in important respects from those described in this chapter.

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Chapter XXVII. THE EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION; THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The extension of local public education beyond the twelfth year of the high school has long been a matter of educational concern. Its development has been somewhat corollary to the growth of the junior high school and the junior college.

As early as 1920 the junior college was recognized officially as an integral part of secondary education. It was about this time that the National Association of Secondary School Principals set up a junior college division and began the recognition of junior college problems as regular sections of its annual convention.

The junior college movement has been gaining impetus for the past twenty-five years. It is now one of the most significant educational developments of our time. No account of the secondary school would be complete without some consideration of the junior college, as this newest unit in American education is certain to continue to influence the policies and practices of the high school.

Historical background. The first junior college in the United States was organized in 1901 at Joliet, Illinois. For many years before there had been discussion in educational circles of the possibility of offering instruction of elementary college courses in high school. As early as 1895 the East Side High School of Saginaw, Michigan, was providing freshman college work in Latin, English, history, and mathematics. Many other high schools offered similar instruction. The first state law permitting junior college work was passed in California in 1907. This law provided that:

> The board of trustees of any city, district, union, joint union or county high school may prescribe postgraduate courses of study for the

graduates of such high school, or other high schools, which courses of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses.

In 1910 the first public junior college in California was opened at Fresno. The influence of California on the junior college movement has been unusually great. However, public and private junior colleges are to be found in most of the states.

The growth of the junior college movement. In the years immediately preceding World War II there were 213 public junior colleges with a total enrollment of 82,701 students and 305 private junior colleges which enrolled 39,610 students. Thus, about two in every five junior colleges were at that time public institutions and these enrolled about two in every three junior college students. These statistics did not include normal schools, commercial schools, professional schools, emergency junior colleges, university branch schools, and university lower divisions. At that time a number of states had established what was called emergency junior colleges and during the latter years of the depression many high schools extended their offerings to include postgraduate work of a junior college status. A few freshman colleges were so established. But most of these disappeared with the coming of the war.

California was the exception. Here there was a real growth of the junior college concept and a development that more than held its own during the war years. California was unique, too, in its 6–4–4 plan with the XI, XII, XIII, and XIV grades organized as a four-year college. Much of this growth was inspired by a courageous belief in universal education and achieved through state financial support.

The G. I. provisions for education gave a tremendous push to junior colleges. It was obvious, at once, that existing colleges, both two-year and four-year, would be quite unable to take care of the rush of new entrants to college. Meanwhile the enrollment of girls in higher education increased about 20 per cent between 1941 and 1943. There was also a distinct upgrading in the desire of high school graduates to enter college. All the factors had combined by 1945 to overwhelm

all existing higher institutions and to indicate that the high-water mark of college applications had not been reached.

Under the impact of this overwhelming demand localities everywhere began to explore the possibilities for creating new opportunities for college attendance. These were additional to the almost unbelievable stretching of facilities by all existing institutions. Many large high schools found it not too difficult to discover space and equipment and even faculty. The staff problem was helped by returning veterans who were former staff members and in many instances it was possible to retain those who had substituted for the returning veterans.

Groups of small high schools within small suburban areas, as the Westchester area of New York, developed a jointly operated junior college utilizing available school space at some central point. In several instances large urban universities were affiliated with such projects, as New York University was with the Westchester project.

In a number of the states, particularly in the midwest, the state universities worked out a series of freshman college extension centers in conjunction with strategically located high schools. To these the universities gave certain aid and supervision through their extension departments. There were other instances of the establishment by the universities of branch freshman colleges and branch junior colleges.

It rapidly became apparent that new systems of higher education would develop out of these temporary and emergency conditions with not only two-year junior college branches but four-year branches as well. It soon became equally evident that large high school emergency colleges and extension centers would, in certain instances, grow into locally established and supported junior colleges.

Postwar enrollments. The American Association of Junior Colleges made a survey of enrollment in 1946 and found the following facts about enrollment growth:

Answers from 444 junior colleges disclosed that in early 1946 the median percentage of change for coeducational institutions, and for the men's group, had been a 100 per cent increase over

the enrollment for the preceding year. For the women's junior colleges, the only group which ran at full capacity during the war years, there was a 10 per cent increase for the same period. This group had, in fact, increased its enrollment 10 per cent above an already full capacity.

Three junior colleges had increased their enrollment 1,000 per cent or more, while an additional 13 colleges had increases of from 500 to 800 per cent.

There were 77 new junior colleges in the year 1946. Of these, 56 were public and 21 were private institutions. California contributed the largest number, 10, and New York was next with 8 new junior colleges. Oklahoma reopened 9 war-closed junior colleges and opened 3 new ones.

The largest enrollment among the new institutions was the John Muir Junior College, Pasadena, California, which opened in September, 1946, with 2,253 students and about 1,000 war veterans.

At the close of 1946 there were 650 junior colleges, which is more than a 100 per cent increase over the pre-war number. Enrollments in these colleges, as of October 15, 1946, totaled about 350,000 students with men numbering about 240,000 and women about 110,000. Of these approximately 150,000 were veterans.

The figures above were taken from the December 21, 1946, edition of *School and Society;* the annual report of attendance in American universities and colleges by Raymond Walters, president of the University of Cincinnati. This same report indicates that, in respect to enrollment, a truly new era has begun for American higher education. The record actually broke all expectations, with 1,331,138 full-time students including 714,477 veterans enrolled in 668 approved universities and four-year-course colleges throughout the United States. The junior college enrollments given in an earlier paragraph are additional.

There are, too, several hundred other institutions not included in this report. It would be no exaggeration to estimate the national total to be well over two million students in higher

institutions, with over half of these veterans. The United States Office of Education, *Statistical Circular*, November 20, 1946, offered "estimates based on samplings from '333 carefully selected institutions' made in October, 1946, which totaled 2,078,095 students including 1,080,396 veterans in 1,749 institutions, of which 468 were listed as junior colleges and 105 as Negro institutions."

It is especially interesting to point out that this report gives the following information on 83 independent teachers colleges: in 1945 the attendance had dropped to 41,982 students, a decrease of 47 per cent as compared with these same colleges in 1939. In October of 1946 attendance had risen to 90,270, an increase of 14 per cent more than in 1939. It is fair to assume that since much of the new enrollment is composed of veterans it will not necessarily reduce the shortage of teachers. Generally there was an increase in the percentage of education students at the large universities over that of 1939.

Some types of junior colleges. Junior colleges may be classified as publicly controlled or privately controlled. The privately controlled junior colleges may be classified as (1) a federal junior college, such as the Canal Zone Junior College at Balboa Heights, (2) a state branch junior college, which is a unit of some state-supported higher institution, (3) a state independent junior college, which is controlled by a state board, (4) a district junior college, which is maintained by a single district or a combination of districts, and (5) a local or a municipal junior college, which is usually a part of a city school system.

Because of the variety of types of junior colleges, it is not possible to generalize. This chapter will be largely concerned with the publicly supported junior colleges, especially the local or municipal ones.

Purposes of the public junior college. A clear and concise statement of the purposes or objectives of the public junior college has been given by Walter Crosby Eells, former executive-secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges in his study of *American Junior Colleges:*

Many junior colleges, especially the smaller institutions, confine their work almost exclusively to courses of study designed primarily to prepare students for upper division work in the universities. A few, mainly state-controlled junior colleges, are definitely organized as terminal institutions, aiming to prepare students by means of a two-year course for positions of immediate usefulness to society, particularly in the so-called semiprofessional fields. With increasing frequency, however, junior colleges are recognizing an obligation to perform both of these functions at the same time, as well as other types of services.

In his doctoral dissertation (Stanford University, 1926), F. W. Thomas first systematically determined the functions of the junior college and established the terminology which has been rather generally accepted in later discussions. After detailed analysis he concluded that there are four basic functions which may be defined and characterized as follows:

1. *Popularizing function.* To give the advantage of college education of a general nature to secondary school graduates who could not otherwise secure it for geographical or economic reasons; and to give similar benefits to mature residents of the community.

2. *Preparatory function.* To give two years of work locally, equivalent to that given in the freshman and sophomore years of standard universities, which will adequately prepare students for upper division specialization in the university.

3. *Terminal function.* To give specific preparation by vocational courses for occupations on the semiprofessional level, qualifying students who finish them for immediate places in specific life occupations; and to give general education for citizenship for other students who cannot continue their formal education beyond the junior college.

4. *Guidance function.* To take a scientific interest in the individual traits and abilities and in the personal welfare of the students, in training him to think, in helping him to organize his studies effectively, in making his college experience profitable to him to an optimum degree, and in assisting him to fit into his place after leaving the junior college, whether in a higher educational institution or in a life occupation.

The issue of placement; secondary or higher education. From the beginning the question "Is the junior college an upward extension of the high school or the lower unit of higher education?" has been persistently asked. There is still much disagreement over the authoritative answer. State departments of education and state laws have tended to indicate that the junior college is a part of the public secondary

school, but professional accrediting agencies have placed the junior college under the jurisdiction of their commissions on higher education.

The United States Office of Education, the American Council on Education, and the American Association of University Professors have all given the junior college a place as a part of higher education. At the present it would seem that the prevailing practice is to classify the junior college as an institution of higher education.

It remains necessary, however, to point out that in recent years there has been an increasing tendency to think of and to plan for the extension upward of secondary education as the XIII and XIV grades of secondary education. Increasingly, too, a broader interpretation of secondary education, as covering all general education beyond grade VII, has been developing.

The next few years may bring a rather conclusive answer favorable to the junior college as an integral part of the secondary school system. Much will depend upon the interpretation placed by state universities and state legislatures upon the currently proposed extensions of the junior college as a part of the state educational system. Much, too, will rest upon the degree of acceptance given to such interpretations of the extension of secondary education as those offered in *Education for All American Youth.*

It is possible that many of the G. I. veterans will discover that the typical liberal arts curriculum, which they have sought so assiduously, will not open the doors of unlimited opportunity as they have expected. An oversale of the liberal arts, should it develop, will react to a more careful analysis of course offerings in respect to ability and purpose and, in general, would place a larger emphasis upon terminal education.

Accreditation of junior colleges. Few units in American education have received more attention from accrediting agencies than the junior college. The fact that the first junior colleges duplicated the standardized college curriculum led at once to the expectation of student transfer with full accredita-

tion. The typical practice has been for the junior college to seek immediate approval and accreditation from the state university and the state department of public education in the state in which it is located. An approved relationship with these state educational authorities would, in general, assume the admission and transfer of credits to other higher institutions within the state and to many higher institutions outside the state.

An approved relationship with the state educational department and university has involved an agreement upon certain standards with visits of inspection to the new junior college by designated representatives from the state and university offices. Reports of inspections, received usually by a university committee on advanced standing, have largely determined the policies of accreditation.

It seems that Kentucky was the first state to prepare a list of standards for the junior college, and a formal statement of accreditation was established in 1906.

The regional accrediting agencies, such as the North Central Association of Junior Colleges, adopted a list of standards for the recognition and accreditation of junior colleges.

The first effect of accreditation was to bring prestige and position to the junior college which were naturally items of primary importance in the early days of the institution. No doubt accreditation has had much to do with gaining support for junior college expenditures and in lifting the standards of instruction and achievement. There are some who think that the concern over accreditation has also contributed largely to curriculum restrictions and to an unqualified acceptance of the dominant philosophy and practice of the typical liberal arts senior college.

An interesting observation on accreditation policies points out the emphasis which has been made on the separation of the junior college from the high school. Lists of standards, for example, recommend the segregation of junior college students in separate buildings or at least in separate parts of the same building; also separate libraries, laboratories, and other facilities.

Recently there has been a tendency in support of the close

articulation of high schools and junior colleges. This is most pronounced in the new organization of the XI, XII, XIII, and XIV grades. There seems to be evidence that state departments of education have favored the close association of high school and junior college and in practice their reports and inspectional routines have encouraged such an interpretation.

State laws also carry requirements which affect accreditation. Most of these laws make the junior college a part of the local school district, require approval by some state agency, establish a minimum population or high school enrollment (as 5,000 population or 500 in high school), and specify a curriculum in advance of or beyond the four-year high school.

Some issues in junior college education. An immediate issue in a number of states is whether a state or a local system of junior colleges should be developed. Until the present enrollment emergency in higher education the decision was strongly favorable to the localized junior college. Now that something must be done, and hastily, it is obvious enough that only a few of the large cities or wealthier communities can properly meet the need for the junior college. In the latter case there is some development. Meanwhile California has shown the way, and there is much indication that many states will either set up state junior colleges linked with the state system of higher education or by state aid will encourage localities to meet the need.

No doubt the issue will be reduced by something of a compromise in a number of instances; in others by development of one of the alternatives. The next few years should develop a fairly conclusive answer to the present dilemma.

According to some interpreters the basic issue in the collegiate world is between the aristocrats and the democrats. The democrat asserts that each person must be educated to the maximum point that his native ability will permit and affirms that universal suffrage implies universal education. Thus college education should be designed for all.

The position of the aristocrat is, of course, the opposite at every point. At best this issue is an academic one and, in practical form, it would appear that it is being resolved in favor of

the democrats. Other issues more pertinent, perhaps, have been named as follows: (1) Is the purpose of the junior college liberal or vocational; general or specialized? (2) Should certain general subjects be required or optional? (3) Should a chief purpose be intellectual discipline or the education of the whole person? (4) Should college curriculums be designed for those of abstract intelligence or for all those who wish to enter? (5) Should course selection be dependent upon tested suitability or should all courses be open to free election? (6) Should the public junior college become a community institution or a separate and restricted academic organization? (7) Should the junior college divorce itself as completely as possible from the standard college or work for a close affiliation? (8) Should the junior college curriculum be highly functional or mainly cultural?

Some special problems. Among many problems may be listed a few: (1) The proportion of general and specialized courses for students who are continuing in advanced studies. (2) The same problem of the proportion of general and specialized content in terminal courses. (3) The length and credit values of terminal courses. (4) The character and length of associated non-credit courses. (5) What kind of new terminal courses should become standardized offerings including adult education? (6) What relationships should be established with the typical evening schools? (7) What is the place, if any, of selective social clubs in the junior college? (8) What fees are legitimate or necessary? (9) How is the public relations problem any different in junior college from that in the high school? (10) How does the problem of improving instruction compare with the high school situation? (11) What specialized building and equipment problems do the junior colleges face? (12) What is the minimum desirable enrollment for a junior college? (13) What effect does a tuition charge have on the proportion which junior college enrollment is of high school enrollment?

There is not space in this necessarily limited treatment of the junior college to attempt adequate answers to the questions

above and to others which are perhaps equally important. These questions should offer the student practical suggestions for purposeful reading in the references which are completely devoted to the junior college.

The curricular offerings of the junior college. In many junior colleges the curriculums offered include the first two years of liberal arts work, professional courses in such fields as engineering, nursing, business and teaching, as well as a variety of terminal or semiprofessional courses. The scope of offerings in any junior college will of course be determined by the objectives, but the latter, it seems, are often determined by either tradition or accident. Since most of the junior colleges are controlled by the aims of a liberal arts college, the curricular offerings are those of the first two years of the standardized liberal arts college. To an increasing extent the publicly supported junior colleges are recognizing objectives calling for courses relating to broad fields of occupational interests.

The need for new and additional provisions of occupational courses is strongly presented in Bulletin 1946, No. 18, *Vocational Education of College Grade*, published by the Office of Education and available through the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. This same source also gives brief descriptions of higher institutions now offering vocational education. Among these are such interesting examples as the New York State Technical Institutes, the North Dakota State School of Science, Tuskegee Institute, Stephens College, and a number of terminal vocational programs in colleges and universities.

This trend toward more occupational courses has developed concern of much interest to students of the junior college as to the proportion of general and vocational education in terminal curriculums. A study of the American Association of Junior Colleges[1] offers the following table of the percentage distribution of general and vocational education in terminal curriculums.

[1] Reynolds, James W., "Certain Junior College Curriculum Problems," *Junior College Journal*, December, 1946, Vol. XVII, No. 4, Washington, American Association of Junior Colleges.

Curriculums	*Number of Courses Reported*	*Mean Percentage of Courses*	
		General Education	*Vocational Education*
General cultural	52	76.0	24.0
Public service	46	59.0	41.0
Home economics	32	52.0	48.0
Journalism	14	59.7	49.3
Fine arts	46	47.8	52.2
Health service	25	43.2	56.8
Agriculture	17	38.2	61.8
Business	255	37.8	62.2
Engineering and technology	101	30.8	69.2
Miscellaneous	6	21.7	78.3
All courses	594	47.8	52.2

As Mr. Reynolds points out, these data indicate that such questions as the following need further study: Why do the schools reporting assign approximately one-fourth of the general curriculum to vocational education? What justification, if any, is there for the disparity in the percentage distribution of general and vocational education for the several classifications? How much of the percentage distribution of the various curriculums represent duplication of material used in high school? The table indicates that all non-vocational courses were considered to be general education. Is this a reasonable assumption?

This same study also reported that of 110 public junior colleges replying, 27.3 per cent were planning to add terminal occupational curriculums during the school year 1946–47. Of 76 private institutions replying, 15.8 per cent were intending to add similar curriculums.

This small bit of research taken from a somewhat larger study is chiefly significant, perhaps, as an indication of the present uncertainty of direction which exists in the junior college curriculum. Follow-up studies in the next few years should bring a much clearer perspective of curricular structure.

Only additional maturity of the junior college movement apparently will resolve this curriculum problem of general education: What kind and how much? It seems to be widely

recognized that this is the concern immediately of greatest import. The agreement ends, however, in the posing of the problem. There is much divergence in the organized curriculum approach to the problem, more than can be set forth properly within the limitations of this volume. (See references on general education at the end of this chapter.)

The diversity of approach will be illustrated, in part, and also some indication of the various attempts at curriculum organization will be offered by the few case examples which will follow in the next topic.

The first public junior college. Joliet Junior College is the oldest existing public junior college in the United States. It has been offering college work to the youth of Joliet since the year 1901. Many of Joliet's doctors, dentists, lawyers, business executives, and men and women engaged in other professional and industrial activities are graduates of the Joliet Junior College.

The college started with an enrollment of 21. This number increased to 30 in 1905, to 61 in 1910, to 76 in 1915, to 254 in 1920, to 340 in 1940, and to 631 in 1946. (By 1925 there were 4 public junior colleges in Illinois with a total enrollment of 2,433 students and 7 private junior colleges with a total enrollment of 379 students.)

Mr. C. E. Spicer, an assistant superintendent in 1901, writes:

> Junior Colleges are, today, "established," "organized," "decreed"; but in those days, they "grew," if they developed at all. And they grew because of a *real public need*. . . . I have said "a real public need," and in our case that need was economic in its nature, distinctly so. There was nothing in the nature of "local pride," "desire to outdo other communities," nor even, perhaps, "educational vision," that motivated this expansion. The ample cause was a strong undercurrent of public dissatisfaction because our young men, graduates of the then new high school, could not convert their training in the high school into employment and monetary returns.

Entrance requirements are identical with those of the University of Illinois. A psychological test and a physical examination are also required. Tuition is free, but there is a basic fee of $35

per semester plus matriculation, activity, laboratory, and shop fees. Sixty semester hours exclusive of physical training are required for graduation from all curriculums.

The following curriculums are offered: liberal arts and sciences, pre-commercial and general business, pre-education, pre-medical, pre-dental, pre-legal, chemistry and chemical engineering, electrical engineering, civil engineering, pre-physical education, pre-journalism, pre-nursing, and nurses' training course. A variety of courses are also offered in evening school and summer school.

The college has encouraged extracurricular activities of many types and there is wide participation.

The college has been distinguished during the past forty-six years for its work in pre-professional training. It is now seriously considering provisions for offerings in terminal courses of a technical and vocational nature, courses which will equip graduates to enter immediately into industry and business. It is believed that extension of the curriculum will depend largely upon the advent of state support. Proposed legislation is for a state grant of $100 per student in public junior colleges.

One of the older municipal junior colleges. The Junior College of Grand Rapids, Michigan, was established in 1914, the first public junior college to be organized in Michigan. Some characteristics of this junior college are presented here:

The Grand Rapids Junior College is a vital part of the educational system of Grand Rapids and the state of Michigan. It is controlled by the Grand Rapids Board of Education and conducted by a President and a faculty of forty-five members.

The Grand Rapids Junior College has been continuously accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools since 1917.

The purpose of the college is threefold; to offer the first two years of general university work and the work required of those who plan to enter the professional schools, such as those of law, medicine, dentistry, and engineering; to offer terminal courses in a variety of departments of junior college grade; and to offer training in special subjects to those who have no intention of completing an entire curriculum. The college offers students the opportunity to continue their education beyond the

high school at a smaller expense than would be required at a college or university located in another city; and it brings students, through smaller classes than the university can of necessity allow, into close and more individual touch with their instructors.

A new community junior college. An interesting experiment in the junior college field was initiated at Evanston, Illinois, in 1946. The Evanston Township High School staff, through its postwar planning committees, had been working on the possibility of establishing a community institute as set forth in *Education for All American Youth.*

By 1945 it was clear enough that there would be an imperative and overwhelming educational obligation in respect to returning veterans; it was equally evident that many of these veterans would be too old for a suitable return to the high school which they had left; that a much larger number would desire a try at the liberal arts college; and that a smaller number probably would desire short, intensive, and highly specialized courses of a terminal nature.

It was also clear that the existing college facilities could not by any stretch of the possible space and equipment provide for the number of veterans who would be eligible and who would deserve an opportunity to try for the higher education they so much desired.

The city of Evanston and the Township High School had already set up a guidance center for veterans. An unusually ample testing service soon disclosed that there would be more than enough capable veterans who wanted and could qualify for liberal arts college work. This compelling fact forced the school staff to change, it was hoped temporarily, the plan for the community institute, with its design for generalized functional culture and short intensive specialized courses, and substitute instead, as its major immediate purpose, the preparation of beginning college students for the continuance of advanced college studies. It was agreed that as much of the community institute idea was to be salvaged as possible by thoroughgoing counseling and by offering such extension courses as veterans would accept.

The staff believed that the traditional liberal arts courses which veterans felt they must take called for superior mental ability of the abstract intelligence type. The fact, too, that the majority of the applying veterans were tenaciously of the opinion that they would continue in college to become eventually candidates for professional careers accentuated the need and justification for a proper screening.

Accordingly, a comprehensive individualized testing of six to ten hours, accompanied by one to three interviews, including a careful survey of high school and other achievement and performance records, was made a required part of the admission program.

Under this system less than half of the applicants were admitted to the liberal arts advanced study program. Those who did not qualify properly for advanced studies were given two options. They could select the non-academic terminal courses, again if all the evidence supported such choice, or they could select special tryout non-credit courses offered in the adult education evening school. Sufficiently successful performance in these courses could win a probationary trial, in a succeeding semester, in the credit courses.

The chief attempt was to operate, as thoroughly as seemed possible, a truly effective counseling procedure based upon comprehensive testing, and a personnel bureau, properly staffed, was put in operation all through the year.

That these methods were reasonably effective in respect to those who were pursuing advanced studies was indicated by almost no mortality by the end of the year and no failures that were due primarily to lack of ability in performance. Generally, in public junior colleges for this same year, there was a mortality in similar courses of from 25 to 50 per cent, but it must be hastily said that in practically all of the new public junior colleges which were surveyed candidates had been admitted, with little or no screening, largely upon the mere proof of graduation from high school. In Evanston there was considerable mortality, although less than might have been expected, in the specialized and non-credit courses, heaviest naturally enough in the latter.

Under these circumstances the main curriculum trend in the new college became that of the typical junior college whose chief purpose traditionally has been to transfer its two-year product to the senior college or university.

Additionally, the other generally accepted purposes of the junior college were not ignored and beyond these was the endeavor to develop gradually and effectively, under the broad objectives of the community college, the desirable extension of secondary education on the basis of the XIII and XIV grades which United States Commissioner of Education, John W. Studebaker, calls "the missing link in our schools," and which he defines as follows:

> We need a school to give every American youth an opportunity to get both the cultural and the vocational background he needs for a fair start in life. High school has not given them enough . . . it is the job for a higher school, a school in which the high school would be extended to bridge the gap between the general studies of the earlier years and the beginning specializations of vocational, technical and professional education.

The Evanston staff believes that there is an increasing recognition that modern society is demanding a more mature and a better-prepared person than can be satisfactorily produced at the end of the twelfth grade.

This means that a large proportion of 17-year-old youth have not learned sufficiently well the basic skills which modern living requires. It means that continued education is necessary to give the additional knowledge, applications, and maturity which reasonably satisfactory citizenship demands.

The Evanston plan, which is of course merely typical of many such plans, means too that there is to be an increasingly larger provision for and participation in adult education activities. In Evanston the scope and detail of adult education as linked with the school have been increasing for some time. It is now considered to be a part of the over-all community college or institute design, and the purpose is to integrate ever more the relationships between the day, late afternoon, and evening schedules.

A city junior college. The San Diego, California, junior college program first took official form in 1938, when it was recognized that the supplementing of offerings in discreet agencies might lead to needless duplication. Accordingly, a Senior High-Junior College Coordinating Council was formed, with a Director of Junior College Activities as chairman and coordinator. Included on the committee were: five senior high school principals, vocational school principal, state college center principal, continuation school principal, director of vocational education, director of adult education, evening high school principal, director of guidance, assistant of schools, assistant to the superintendent of schools, instructional coordinator, business manager, superintendent of schools.

Among the duties of the committee are: first, a continuous review of philosophy and practices in secondary education, especially in the tenth through the fourteenth years; and second, decisions regarding the general nature of the junior college and recommendations regarding the type and location of new junior college curriculums. Three schools were officially constituted centers of the program and the nature of their service agreed upon by the committee.

Vocational center. The junior college division of this school provides training opportunities for post-high-school individuals who wish to prepare for vocations on a technical, skilled, and semi-skilled level. This center offers the student development of skills and technical knowledges required in business and industrial occupations. He may also qualify as a candidate for the Associate in Arts degree (two-year curriculum) or a Certificate of Completion (one-year curriculum or less). Training is designed for those who do not intend to continue formal collegiate instruction beyond the junior college.

The objectives are:

1. To prepare individuals for job placement in specific technical, skilled, and semi-skilled occupations (trade and industrial, public service, business and distributive).

2. To continue instruction in the fundamental areas of personal living, physical and mental health, socio-civic efficiency, and ideals and culture of American life which will bring about efficient economic and social adjustment.

3. To provide sufficient guidance service, with facilities for self-analysis, testing, selections, placement and follow-up for all in terms of their individual capacities and interests.

The school year is twelve months in length and is divided into five equal terms. Students may enter at the close of either of the regular high-school semesters, or at any time during the year.

Adult education center. This center provides an opportunity for adults eighteen years of age or over, who are employed in the daytime, to take regular lower division college work at night. Work at this center is designed for four groups of students:

a. Those who desire two years of general college education leading to an Associate in Arts degree.

b. Those who plan to continue on in third-year work, and who hope eventually to earn a Bachelor of Arts degree.

c. Those who feel the need of broadening their general educational backgrounds for their work.

d. Those who are interested in special training in specific fields on the collegiate level of value in their present or future occupations.

State college center. The junior college division maintained in the center at the San Diego State College endeavors to serve young people who, while in attendance at high school, had not planned seriously for college entrance, but who now wish to further their education. Students who have no clearly defined vocational objectives, those whose objectives require further academic preparation, and those who wish to develop more cultural background may be admitted to this center. The program has the following characteristics:

a. It attempts to meet the needs of students, through personal conference and through courses especially planned to help them recognize, analyze, and solve their problems as students, as citizens, and as members of families.

b. It gives vocational help, but its primary purpose is not vocational training. Both the guidance program and the courses of study are designed to help the students plan their occupational careers.

c. It is two years in length and upon its successful completion the degree of Associate in Arts is awarded.

The emphasis in each course is on practical application and meeting the interests of the students, with the confident expectation that students will develop more thoroughly those understandings, attitudes, and skills common to adults who are to live effectively in American democracy.

The foregoing purposes and functions are subject to criticism and review at each monthly meeting of the committee. As a matter of fact, substantial modifications have been made every year that the plan has been in effect. For instance, the city program is terminal in character for the most part, while the state college emphasizes the pre-professional and academic curriculums leading to a degree. General education offerings were weak in the city program, while trade and industrial vocational courses were entirely lacking in the regular college. Consequently the city curriculums tended to attract those who could not qualify for the regular degree curriculums of the college. Gradually this defect has been overcome by a liberal exchange of facilities, by making it convenient for a student to carry part of his classwork in each of the centers, and by an exchange evaluation of credits in each center.

A union district junior college. The staff of the college submits the following statement: The Phoenix, Arizona, Junior College offers courses in the commercial field in addition to the first two years of regular college liberal arts, and the college is ready to make every possible adjustment in order to serve veterans in the best possible way. The Phoenix Junior College has recently made arrangements with the Phoenix Technical School by which students of the college may do their Liberal Arts and related subjects on the college campus and take the following courses on the Phoenix Technical School campus for college credit on the terminal basis: automotive service, building trades,

commercial dressmaking, electrical trades, plumbing, radio, refrigeration, sheet-metal, aircraft, arc and acetylene welding, supervisory and foremanship training, time and motion study, and visual aids equipment.

Pilot and flight instructor. The Junior College has also organized the Department of Aeronautical Arts and Sciences to prepare students for commercial pilot and flight instructor work, aircraft and engine mechanics, airport control tower operation, airway radio, meteorology and navigation, and airport management. The equipment at the Technical School will be used in connection with the above college course.

The Phoenix Junior College, with five years of experience in the civil aeronautics administration civilian pilot training and war training service programs, is in a position to offer thoroughly trained teaching personnel and excellent aeronautical training equipment — a fine aeronautical educational program — to the returning veterans. Since October, 1939, aeronautical ground-school courses leading to the several Civil Aeronautical Administration Pilot Certificates of Competency, have been made available to regularly enrolled college students and to citizens of the community. The college has also maintained an Aeronautical Extension Ground School at Sky Harbor Airport, and in collaboration with the three fixed-base operators — Southwest Airways, Inc., Sky Harbor Air Service, Inc., and Marsh and Franklin — has provided special ground-school courses leading to the private pilot certificate.

These courses were given in evening classes, held at the airport and on the college campus. They were taught by regular college staff members, with the aim constantly in mind of raising the standards of aeronautical training rather than merely preparing for the Civil Aeronautics Administration examinations.

It has seemed desirable to the Aviation Committee of the Phoenix Union High Schools and Junior College to initiate a program of flight-experience training to be given in conjunction with the several high school aeronautical courses and certain of the courses included in the curriculum of aeronautical arts and sciences in the Junior College. This flight experience

would not be a repetition of the usual four or six hours of a flight-training course, but would be rather a laboratory course in the practical operation of the airplane with no attempt to teach the art and technique of flying. For those desiring to learn to fly, the usual flight-training courses would, of course, be available. This program is in line with national trends in aviation education.

Vacuum tube phenomena instruction. The college, for years, has maintained courses in theory and application of vacuum tube phenomena. To stimulate interest, the Short Wave Radio Club, Sigma Omega Rho, was organized in 1934, and the amateur station license W6KVE was issued by the Federal Communications Commission. This station was active until December 7, 1941. In the winter of 1938, it was one of the communication links between Arizona and southern California during the period of a flood. With the cessation of hostilities, the activities of Sigma Omega Rho were resumed. In line with the great advances made in the science of electronics and radar during the war, experimental work is being carried on at present so that teaching personnel will be trained and equipment available to carry on effectively the work in electronics in the light of new developments. Veterans will be able to secure training in code practice, theory, and application of radio and electronics, including micro-waves, theory and application of sound equipment, and recording.

Junior engineer instruction. In addition to the above, the Phoenix Junior College has for many years maintained excellent courses for the preparation of junior engineers. The College Engineering Department offers the first two years of work for civil, electrical, mechanical, and mining engineering, in addition to the terminal engineering previously indicated, which prepares for entrance into the junior year of a four-year engineering college.

Peace officers instruction. The Junior College authorities are working on a course for the training of peace officers. The police department of the city of Phoenix, the sheriff's office of Maricopa County, and the state highway patrol officials are

cooperating in the construction of the course of study. This course will probably be of interest to a considerable number of returning veterans.

Cooperative training courses. At the request of the Luke Greenway Post of the American Legion, a cooperative training program has been developed which started in September at the Phoenix Junior College. Any veteran who is receiving assistance either under Public Law No. 16 or No. 346 will be permitted, at the discretion of the medical adviser of the college, the vocational adviser of the Veterans Administration, the dean of the college, and the director of cooperative training, to work a maximum of fifteen hours a week in certain approved governmental agencies, banks, industrial plants, and merchandising businesses.

Summer employment in the various departments of government is being planned. Standard scales of wages are now being developed for banking, merchandising, engineering, and manufacturing. Likewise, a schedule of high school and college credit granted for approved work is being developed in such subjects as engineering work, social work, statistics, and governmental accounting. Three semester hours of credit will be given for three hundred hours of approved cooperative work. The director of cooperative training will confer with the various department directors who supervise the students' work, so that fruitful educational experience will result from the employment.

The junior college in a four-year liberal arts college. It is the practice of many liberal arts colleges, and teachers colleges also, to differentiate between the work of the first two years and that of the last two years. The first two years are designated as the lower division or junior college. It is during these first two years that general education is stressed and presumably completed, and the student prepared to enter the senior college for his program of concentration and early specialization. In many cases the senior college program is built around majors and minors and related fields of learning.

In the lower division, or junior college, after the requirements for general education are met, the balance of the remain-

ing time may be devoted to terminal courses or to courses that are directly related to the major or minor fields the student will choose in the senior college. Such a plan permits some vocational training to be pursued by those who expect to leave college on completion of the junior college work. It also affords considerable opportunity for some exploratory courses of a broadening and finding nature to be taken while yet in the junior college or lower division.

The chief functions of such an arrangement are to round out general education, to prepare those who expect to go on to senior college for specialized training, and to provide a modicum of terminal training for those who find it necessary to leave school at the end of their junior college experience.

The lower division, designated the junior college at George Peabody College for Teachers, is a good illustration of this type of organization. In this teachers college the professional training begins at the senior college level. This leaves the junior college, or lower division, free for general education and such terminal courses as the student may choose.

During the freshman year at Peabody each student takes English, a social science course, and a natural science course. These three courses running throughout the year constitute about two-thirds of a student's load. Through a counseling program those heading into some one of the professions are channeled into the proper courses leading in that direction.

Rather rich offerings are available in the departments of fine and industrial arts, music, home economics, and business education. Again through the proper counseling students inclined in that direction are guided into these fields of endeavor which serve both the broadening and finding function, as well as the terminal function of the junior college.

Through some such scheme as that described above, the junior college, organized as the lower division of a four-year liberal arts college, serves most of the functions claimed for the services of the junior college. They are, namely, rounding out and completing general education, serving the isthmian function between secondary and higher education; and making

available terminal courses through a well-conceived guidance program.

The outlook for the junior college. In all probability the number of junior colleges will increase considerably in the years ahead. Some junior college authorities have predicted that in the next quarter-century the junior college will have a growth comparable to that which the secondary school enjoyed during the twenty-five years that preceded World War II. It is argued that this growth will be the inevitable result of social and educational programs. For example, President George D. Stoddard of the University of Illinois in 1946 predicted an increase in college enrollment of 2,000 per cent comparable to the growth of high schools during the past fifty years. He said in part: "To attend college has become the normal expectation for young persons of reasonable skill and endurance; not to go, in the future, may call for explanations all around." Explaining the values involved, he continued, "We cannot afford to overlook the universal, non-vocational demands of life today. In a democracy, much is demanded of every citizen, regardless of his IQ. It is easy to dig a trench, and hard to understand your family; easy to run a truck, and hard to pick a wife, a political candidate, or a place to live."

He warned, however, that "high talent must not be submerged in mass education; democracy has need of the best. There must not be a leveling down. There can be a leveling up — we need it — we should stop building artificial ceilings over the heads of bright youth" (quoted from *The Daily Illini*).

This argument for a greatly increased growth of the junior college is strengthened by the current belief that society, in the near future, will be certain to see that those youth who are thought to be capable of doing college work successfully should be assured of the opportunity. This would mean, at the lowest estimate, probably 25 per cent of the nearly 7,000,000 youth now in high school. On this basis, at least 1,500,000 more students would eventually enter college than are now enrolled. Undoubtedly a sizable per cent of the approximately 3,000,000

youth of high school age not now in school would be capable of entering college under the expected favorable circumstances which will carry them through the twelfth grade. It would seem fair to assume that these favorable circumstances will appear in the next few years.

If about 70 per cent of the youth of high school age were in high school in 1939 it would seem not too unreasonable to suspect that in twenty-five years or less 70 per cent or more of the youth between eighteen and twenty-two years of age might well be enrolled in education beyond the XII grade. Moreover, it should be remembered that by 1960 the high birth rates of the war period will reach the junior college years.

All of the varying estimates, scaled down to the most conservative terms, point to the necessity for a greatly increased junior college system. It will mean more schools and larger schools, organized for localities, for areas, for regions; and other schools, too, planned as parts of state systems of higher education.

In curricular development it is thought that the trend will increasingly reflect that the junior college is primarily a terminal institution whose courses are determined by values which accrue so far forth.

The weight of opinion indicates that the predominant junior college of the future will be a public institution supported by state and local funds. This does not mean necessarily that private junior colleges will be fewer in number than at present or of any less significance in educational place. Undoubtedly private institutions will increase in number and in enrollment, but not at an equal rate with the public institutions.

Enthusiasts believe that the 6–4–4 plan will emerge as the main organizational trend of the future with the 7–8–9–10 grades as the lower high school and the 11–12–13–14 grades as the higher secondary school or four-year junior college.

There seems to be a concerted opinion that a two-year extension beyond the twelfth grade, whatever the name — junior college, community college, or XIII and XIV grades — will be primarily a community institution linked closely to the social

milieu from which it springs, in purpose, in form, and in function.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Does your state have laws authorizing the establishment of public junior colleges? If so, summarize the major provisions.
2. What provision is made in the laws of your state for the establishment and control of non-public junior colleges?
3. Are public junior colleges in your state considered an upward extension of the high school? On what evidence do you justify your opinion?
4. What evidence or facts should be considered by a community that is debating the establishment of a public junior college?
5. Should students in a public junior college be required to pay tuition? Why?
6. How much emphasis should be placed on occupational training in a public junior college enrolling five hundred students?
7. Is there any demand in your state for the establishment of more junior colleges? If so, why?
8. Do you favor the 6–4–4 plan of organization of public education? Justify your opinion.

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Chapter XXVIII. IMPENDING CHANGES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Why Changes in Secondary Education Are Imperative

Present secondary schools are the result of gradual modifications, during the past 300 years, to meet changing demands made on the schools. The near future will bring many other changes, also required to adapt the schools to the demands they are expected to meet. These changes will involve the curriculum, administrative organization, the scope of secondary education, the teaching staff, and research and measurement.

The increasing secondary school population. In Chapter III, it was pointed out that between 1890 and 1930 the number of students enrolled in secondary schools doubled every ten years, and that since 1930 the increase has been even more rapid. At the present time, about 70 per cent of the boys and girls of ages fourteen to seventeen are regularly enrolled in public and private secondary schools. The total is estimated at more than 6,000,000. America is now committed to the ideal of universal secondary education. Before this ideal can be realized, provisions must be made for the nearly 30 per cent of boys and girls of secondary school age who are not enrolled.

The secondary schools are now serving almost one third more students than their facilities were originally designed to accommodate. It is necessary to remember that most of the schools, as now organized, were designed educationally for the particular needs and abilities of about 25 to 30 per cent of the present enrollment. It is obvious that the program must change greatly to improve the effectiveness of the education

provided to the 70 per cent now enrolled. As it is reasonable to believe that the population of secondary schools will continue to increase, it would seem that perhaps even greater change might be necessary, until the remaining out-of-school 30 per cent is largely absorbed. The forerunners of the secondary schools of today — the Latin grammar school and the academy — disappeared because they did not change to meet the needs of a changing society. The increase in the population of secondary schools is just one of the many forces at work in society which forecast the further essential changes in the fundamental character of secondary education.

Changes in the character of the secondary school population. Accompanying the expansion in numbers has been a corresponding broadening of the range of student abilities, needs, and interests. The population of the typical high school of today is so diverse that boys and girls from homes at all levels in the social-economic scale are represented. There are students of almost every nationality, race, religion, economic status, and social and cultural background. As secondary education becomes more nearly universal, more students of inferior intelligence are enrolled, with a resulting shift in the general academic ability. Some educational leaders say that a student must have an I.Q. of at least 110 to be successful in the average conventional high school, and approximately 80 per cent of boys and girls make a score of less than that. As the secondary school population grows, the educational program must be adapted to meet the needs of all. Continued failure on the part of a large number of students results in maladjustments, and may lead to serious social consequences. Another change in the population of secondary schools is resulting from the tendency to raise the compulsory attendance age to eighteen years. This will force the schools to make some provision for students who have been out of school for some time and for meeting the needs of the students now enrolled for a longer period of time.

Trends in population indicate that the character of the secondary school population will continue to alter in the future

as in the past. Owing to the decrease in immigration, foreign types may gradually disappear and the population become more nearly homogeneous in this respect. The fact that the higher birth rate among Negroes is offset by a higher death rate would seem to indicate that there will be no great change in the proportion of colored and white students who will attend the schools of the near future, except as the health of the Negro is improved. Since the birth rate among the families of the lower economic levels is relatively high, children from these families may predominate during the next high school generation. If secondary education is to meet the needs of society as they are affected by population shifts in the future, it must be in a constant state of transformation.

New social needs call for adaptations. Secondary education of the future, therefore, may have little resemblance to its present form. Change has always been the outstanding characteristic of American society. If the high school is to be an integral part of a dynamic society, it must meet new responsibilities as they arise. In this respect, it has lagged behind many other social institutions. The unemployment of youth, which promises to become a permanent condition in American society, has given to secondary schools the responsibility of adapting their program to the needs of a greater number and variety of students.

Social, economic, and political problems of today offer a more direct challenge to secondary education than ever before. Educators throughout the country have raised a cry for the secondary schools to improve their training in practical citizenship, and to bring their programs closer to the realities and problems of modern life. Among the new courses being emphasized are those dealing with social living, family relationships, thrift and wise purchasing, conservation, and safety. The proportion of crime among young persons, the unwise use of leisure time, problems of marriage and sex, physical and mental health, and the like indicate some of the problems secondary schools must consider when reorganizing their programs to meet present and probable future needs.

Many of the social needs that call for changes in the character of secondary education are local, but the majority of them are fairly common for the country as a whole. The secondary school, as during recent years, may continue to be forced to assume more and more of the responsibilities that formerly belonged to the home and the church.

Implications of recent studies in secondary education. Following, and in some instances influenced by, the National Survey of Secondary Education which was completed in 1932, several significant studies and investigations dealing with secondary education have been made. Almost all states have carried on programs of curriculum study and revision. A number of states have sponsored studies of other phases of secondary education. Extensive research investigations have been made of secondary school standards, and of relations of secondary schools with institutions of higher learning.

The North Central Association and other accrediting associations have appointed commissions to make special investigations. The regional associations' cooperative study of 200 secondary schools of various types, sizes, and locations was designed to ascertain the most significant factors in the measurement of the quality of a secondary school, and is particularly interesting as an excellent example of modern cooperative endeavor. Many reports of this project have already been published,[1] and recommendations have been made. The accrediting system of the six regional accrediting associations may be, in the future, largely affected by these recommendations.

The widely commended report, *Education for All American Youth*, already referred to, seems to promise the most significant and far-reaching results of all of the modern studies and reports.

The eight-year study of new programs by thirty schools under the auspices of the former Progressive Education Association has created considerable interest and discussion.

The American Youth Commission of the American Council

[1] Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940.

on Education made a nation-wide investigation and survey designed to serve as the basis for a program for the care and education of youth. One of the principles adopted by the Commission emphasizes the necessity of building new curriculums in the schools, the organization of the educational system to meet modern needs, and the demand for the creation of appropriate agencies for less formal training than that now usually afforded in the schools.

The 1938 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators [1] is based on a study of the educational needs of today's youth. It advocates that secondary schools develop a dynamic and life-centered curriculum that would emphasize personal relationships, creative citizenship, and education for leisure. Three of the needs on which it lays particular stress are: (1) the adjustment and guidance of pupils in the regular school day, (2) the school's responsibility for the adjustment and guidance of out-of-school youth, and (3) unifying and coordinating the influences affecting youth.

The purpose of the reports of the Committee on Orientation [2] was to clarify the issues, and to define the functions, of secondary education in order to develop a sound and workable philosophy to guide secondary education in adapting itself to modern conditions. This report points the way to the modification and improvement of the secondary schools in accordance with the present needs of youth, the needs of the country, and the resources that are, or may be made, available. The Committee on Orientation recognized the importance of a third report to follow the first, on the issues, and the second, on the functions, of secondary education. Upon its recommendation and that of the Committee on Planning, the National Department of Secondary-School Principals appointed a

[1] American Association of School Administrators, Sixteenth Yearbook, *Youth Education Today*. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

[2] Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education*. Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

[3] Committee on Orientation, *Functions of Secondary Education*. Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 64. Washington, National Education Association, 1937.

national Committee on Implementation. This Committee has sought out the practices in secondary education which best illustrated the implementation of the issues and functions, and it has set up experimental ventures to aid in curriculum improvement to meet the new demands.

A bulletin issued by the U. S. Office of Education [1] recognizes the need for research in secondary education. The publication suggests a wide range of problems and topics in secondary education on which research, experimentation, and study are needed to find the best procedures for schools to follow in changing their programs. It points out many things that secondary schools are attempting to do which are entirely unsatisfactory. Among the fields in which additional studies are needed to indicate the most effective procedures to be adopted are: (1) horizontal organization of secondary education, (2) secondary school population, (3) reorganization, (4) smaller secondary schools, (5) secondary education for Negroes, (6) district organization, (7) laws and regulations, (8) articulation of high school and college, (9) administration and supervision, (10) selection and promotion of teachers, (11) individual differences, (12) evaluation, (13) guidance, (14) interpreting the secondary school to the public, (15) the library, (16) the extracurriculum, and (17) improvement of the curriculum.

Lengthening the secondary school course. Various plans of organization for the secondary school course have been tried. According to the U. S. Office of Education, about 30 per cent of the high schools are reorganized, that is, have changed from the conventional organization consisting of four years of high school directly extended beyond the eight years of elementary school. One of the plans which seems to be gaining in favor is the 6–4–4 type of organization, consisting of six years of elementary school and two four-year units on the secondary level. The plan has been rather widely adopted in California.

[1] Carl A. Jessen, *Needed Research in Secondary Education.* U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 28

A report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association condemns the 8–4 plan and advocates that the 6–4–4 plan be developed on a nation-wide scale to take the place of the 8–4 and 6–3–3 plans which are used in most school systems.[1] Accounts of at least two school systems where the 6–4–4 plan has been installed, and has proved successful, have been published.[2]

Whether the 6–4–4 plan is adopted on a wide scale, or some other suitable plan of organization is found, the secondary school student will probably remain in school long enough in the future for him to receive the education most suited to his individual needs. In many instances, this may be until the age of 21 years. The result of the extension of the compulsory school age will probably be that all students will remain in school until the age of eighteen. The high school of the future will seek to offer that type of training which will qualify its students to participate effectively in both adolescent and adult life. The length of the school course, and the age at which the majority of students will finish the course, will be determined largely by the time required to prepare them for effective citizenship and by the ability of society to offer suitable employment.

Changes in the size of the high school. The improvement of transportation facilities for students, provision of free tuition, and the establishment of dormitories have made it possible for secondary education to be made available to students whose homes are in remote and thinly populated areas, without establishing additional small high schools. Consequently, no extremely small high schools are being established at present, and the process of consolidating the smaller ones is continuing. The number of small high schools is being reduced, and those which still remain are being improved.

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, National Education Association, 1938.

[2] John A. Sexson, "A New Type of Secondary School," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (February, 1938), 1–11; also E. F. Farner, "A 6–4–4 Plan in Operation," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (April, 1938), 25–28.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The time is approaching when the common school program will provide opportunities beginning with nursery school or kindergarten and continuing through the junior college.

Many communities are now organizing their school system in three major units. The first includes nursery school, kindergarten and the first six years of the common school program; the second a four-year program of continued general education; and the third a four-year unit, with differentiation of courses in line with the vocational outlook of boys and girls enrolled.

Youth who complete their full-time education by the end of high school as well as those who go on to college, will spend a considerable part of their time in "general education." All should be given opportunities leading to better understanding of social, economic, and governmental problems.

Vocational education should be thought of as an integral part of the program made available for young people. The complete separation of vocational education from general education as now organized is not justified.

Throughout adult life education is a continuous process, whether viewed from the standpoint of social need or of individual development. The development of program of adult education is a matter of fundamental policy.

ADAPTED FROM
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The small high schools have in the past looked uncritically to the larger high schools for guidance in administrative and instructional practices. Fortunately, they are now beginning to realize that their problems cannot all be solved by imitating the practices of larger schools. Another significant development in the small high school is in the method of organizing subject matter. In the majority of small high schools, the classes are also small. The curriculum is principally academic. Through the reorganization of subject matter, chiefly by means of fusion and integration of subjects, it is possible to adjust better the problem of class size, and to include much more significant material in the curriculum.

Organization of the Secondary School Curriculum

Relationship of general and vocational education. Despite the attention that the curriculum has received in the numerous attempts to improve secondary education, many problems still remain unsolved. There are two problems, or perhaps it is more accurate to say two phases of one problem, that are causing much confusion and lack of progress. These may be stated as follows: (1) How can the secondary school meet the need for both general education and vocational education? and (2) What should be the relationship between general education and vocational education?

It is readily admitted in educational circles that both the general and the vocational training which secondary schools provide are inadequate for present-day needs. This weakness is explained by pointing out that until comparatively recently the secondary schools were rather exclusive schools designed to prepare a few young persons for advanced study. Two obstacles stand in the way of immediate change to meet the new demands. First, most of the teachers and administrators in the secondary schools have received an education that was more specialized than general. Second, it is difficult to determine exactly what ought to be included in general education above the elementary school level.

The Committee on Orientation has stated its belief that there should be no conflict between general and vocational education.[1] There has not been an adequate understanding of the relationship between vocational and general education. The academic courses have been in reality vocational for those who are preparing to enter the professions.

The trend emphasizes more general education for everyone, and at the same time some specific vocational education for everyone. The proper relation of one to the other is a real problem which clearly faces school administrators, and its solution will undoubtedly produce noticeable changes in the future.

New curriculum areas and integration. The curriculum of secondary education has been broadened in recent years to include many fields of information which formerly were not regarded as within its scope. In trying to improve the experiences of the students, various attempts at fusion and integration of curriculum content have been made.

Among the areas of human experience that have been introduced into the curriculum are: (1) new phases of the social studies, (2) mental and physical aspects of health, (3) character and personality, (4) thrift and consumer education, (5) safety education, (6) conservation education, and (7) speech and hearing re-education, (8) re-education of exceptional children, (9) radio education, (10) work experience. A few examples of special courses with which schools have experimented in recent years will show the tendency to relate new materials to movements already recognized as major elements in present-day society. Some of these courses are: (1) contemporary problems in American life, (2) improvement of the community, (3) consumer mathematics, (4) human relations, (5) home and family life, and (6) cooperation in a democratic society.

[1] *Issues of Secondary Education*, Issue V; and *Functions of Secondary Education*, Function VI; Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

Integrated courses in social studies and English are proving successful in secondary schools. There have been many attempts, successful and unsuccessful, to integrate the subject matter of various courses. According to the Committee on Orientation, the traditional method of organizing school experiences into subjects, such as history or science, is not the most desirable method of curriculum organization. In the opinion of the Committee, the secondary school should "arrange and present experiences in fundamental categories directly related to the performance of such functions of secondary schools in our democracy as increasing the ability and desire better to meet socio-civic, economic, health, leisure-time, vocational, and pre-professional problems and situations." [1]

There have been many proposals as to how the curriculum of the secondary school should be organized and presented. It is argued by some that almost everything of a traditional nature should be abolished. It has been suggested from time to time that the entire content and organization of the curriculum of secondary schools should be completely changed, and that all experiences should be fused into practical departments under such headings as health, leisure, vocations, home participation, and citizenship.

The changing emphasis in the curriculum. This topic is closely related to the preceding one. New ways to organize the curriculum, as well as new content material, are tried out in schools because it is believed that they will result in more effective education. Present-day problems are causing educators to examine the offerings of the secondary schools as never before. They recognize that many offerings are ineffective for a large number of their students.

In the discussion dealing with the lengthening of the high school course, it was stated that the high school of the future would probably retain students until they were prepared to take their place in social life as efficient citizens. This statement is substantiated by the tendency in secondary schools

[1] *Issues of Secondary Education*, Issue VII; *op. cit.*

to emphasize successful adjustment and learning how to live as well as how to make a living, rather than merely the acquisition of units of credit.

The Civilian Conservation Corps has illustrated an important lesson by demonstrating that instruction can be made more effective by relating it very closely to the job and to leisure-time activities. The tendency to give extracurricular activities recognition by including them in the curriculum is another phase of the effort to get away from too much formality and tradition in curriculum content and method.

Adaptation of curriculum to needs and interests. The organization of the curriculum, both as to content and method, is dependent on the determination of the present and probable future needs and interests of students. This task requires continuous investigation and adaptation. Needs and interests change as people alter their modes of living.

The first task of the school is to find out and to classify the needs and interests of students. The second step is to organize its program in such a way that these interests and needs are served. This requires not only changes in curriculum content and method, but also new types of equipment. The effectiveness of the school in this respect must be judged on the basis of how well students take their places in a democratic society. The third step is for the schools to improve their guidance programs.

Opportunity for young people to work on their own problems. The proposal that boys and girls be given an opportunity in their high school course to work on the problems that concern their own welfare is very old, but it has received little consideration by those who have been responsible for planning the curriculum. Recently, an increasing number of schools have given students a share in planning the curriculum, in determining the content and method of certain courses, and in participating in a cooperative attack on certain problems. In Pennsylvania, the State Association of Principals invites student leaders to attend its meetings and work on special problems. Through a series of conferences, which

have been attended by both principals and students, many important policies have been adopted for the secondary schools of Pennsylvania. The principals recognize that the students can make an important contribution, especially to the solution of problems closely related to their own interests. The American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education has frequently emphasized the idea that youth problems can be solved only through the cooperation of youth and adults. The Commission maintains that the problems of youth are so interwoven with the problems of society as a whole that they cannot be segregated, and that it is of the utmost importance that youth have the right kind of attitude toward the solution of common problems.

In an address delivered at the 1938 convention of the American Association of School Administrators, John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, said:

> One way to solve the vexing youth problem of today might be to put it up to the young people themselves as a subject of high school study. Let the young people in the course gather all the documents being issued on the . . . *Youth* problem with all of its ramifications, and study and discuss this literature. Then let them reach decisions on what can be done to change and vitalize the school curriculum to which they have been subjected. Let them appraise the facilities of the community for youth in recreational, vocational, and other fields. At the close of the course, they might get out a report with recommendations. It would be the social, economic, and political approach to their own problems: unemployment, social security, and many others. And there are some schools already at work in such programs. It is fair to assume that there will be more.

Changes in Administrative Organization

Articulation. The problem of articulation of administrative units in the school system has not been clearly recognized until recently. Where the 6–3–3 plan is in operation, there is the problem of bridging the gap between the sixth grade and junior high school, between junior and senior high schools, and between senior high school and college. Whether the 6–3–3, the 8–4, or the 6–4–4 type of organization is used, the

problem of articulating the different administrative units exists. Inarticulation results in inefficiency and much overlapping of effort.

Several important agencies and professional organizations are now giving attention to the problem of articulating administrative units. The chief difficulty seems to be that of agreeing on what the elementary school, the junior high school, the senior high school, and the college should try to accomplish. The different units have been set up for administrative convenience, without sufficient attention being given to the program of education as a whole. It is likely that some important changes will result in the next few years from the attention that the problem is receiving.

One of the major problems seems to be articulation between senior high school and college. Commissions are at work on this problem as it applies to the conditions in special localities, and for the nation as a whole. The cooperative study previously referred to should influence changes in the immediate future. Colleges and universities, which formerly dominated and dictated the program of secondary education, are coming to take a broader view of the problem and to cooperate in bringing about such modifications as seem best.

Modifications in physical facilities. Many of the impending changes in secondary education are retarded by inadequate physical facilities. The best energies of the administrative personnel are often taken up in efforts to make available facilities serve the program as it exists, while insufficient attention is given to making adaptations and changes in the program to meet the needs of students.

Chapter VII lists six factors that make it imperative that secondary schools expand and improve their physical facilities in the immediate future. The physical facilities should be improved proportionally to the remainder of the program. Much has been learned in recent years about school buildings, equipment, and the administration of physical facilities. This knowledge may greatly change the high school of the future.

In many of the newer school buildings, indirect lighting and

air-conditioned heating systems have been installed. Insulated roofs and walls are used increasingly, and soundproofing is installed where finances permit, especially in cafeterias and music rooms. Radio and motion picture apparatus are part of the equipment of the newer schools. Desk tops adjust upward like artists' easels to prevent eyestrain and improve posture. School seats are adjustable or form-fitting. There are more swimming pools with water chemically and light treated. The sizes of the classrooms are adjusted to the type of subjects for which they are to be used. The buildings and equipment are planned to serve the educational program of the community.

While all these changes are likely to become general in the near future, it is also reasonable to assume that changes in plant and equipment may go very much further. New building materials may affect to a considerable degree both the design and structure of school buildings.

Provision for more cooperative work in learning. The administrative organization of the high school of the future will make more provision for cooperative group projects for students. This will include many new aspects of school life. Already, projects of much educational value are being carried out in connection with: (1) classroom work, (2) clubs and other extracurricular activities, and (3) the management of auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, study halls, and corridors. However, many secondary schools have overlooked the educational possibilities of such work.

As most of the goals of education are group goals, to be achieved through cooperative rather than individual effort, the changes in administrative organization of secondary schools will increasingly emphasize group cooperation. In planning his program, the modern administrator will make provision for student participation in the control and management of many different kinds of activities.

Provision for guidance and individual differences. The guidance and personnel work in secondary schools have been making genuine progress. Administrators can plan their pro-

grams in the future in accordance with sound principles. Alterations in the administration and techniques of guidance are highly probable.

Guidance in many high schools can be greatly improved. Although, in general, the small high school has done comparatively little in this field, it has certain advantages over the large school in making a guidance program effective. The small enrollment makes easily possible a purposeful, personal relationship between student and teacher and between teacher and parents. This relationship can be the basis for a program of individual guidance for every student in the school.

Some of the impending changes in the program of guidance are:

1. More efficiency in such fact-finding phases as diagnoses of student needs, habits, interests, and behavior.
2. Remedial work and re-education in helping students make suitable adjustments and remedy unsatisfactory habits and attitudes.
3. Installing more workable systems of keeping records and making reports.
4. Organization of the program in such a way that responsibility will be fixed for the members of the staff, with some person at the head of the guidance work in the school.
5. The development of methods of evaluating the guidance and personnel work of the school. This will involve a system of follow-up to find out how effective the training is after the student leaves school.

Closely connected with the guidance program is the problem of providing for individual differences. Little attention was given to it until recent years, but specialists in guidance, tests and measurements, administration, supervision, and curriculum are now working on it. The problem of providing for the diverse needs, interests, and abilities of high school boys and girls can no longer be ignored, and changes must be made in the schools as such specialists determine suitable procedures.

The extracurricular program. It is difficult to predict what administrative changes may take place in the extracurricu-

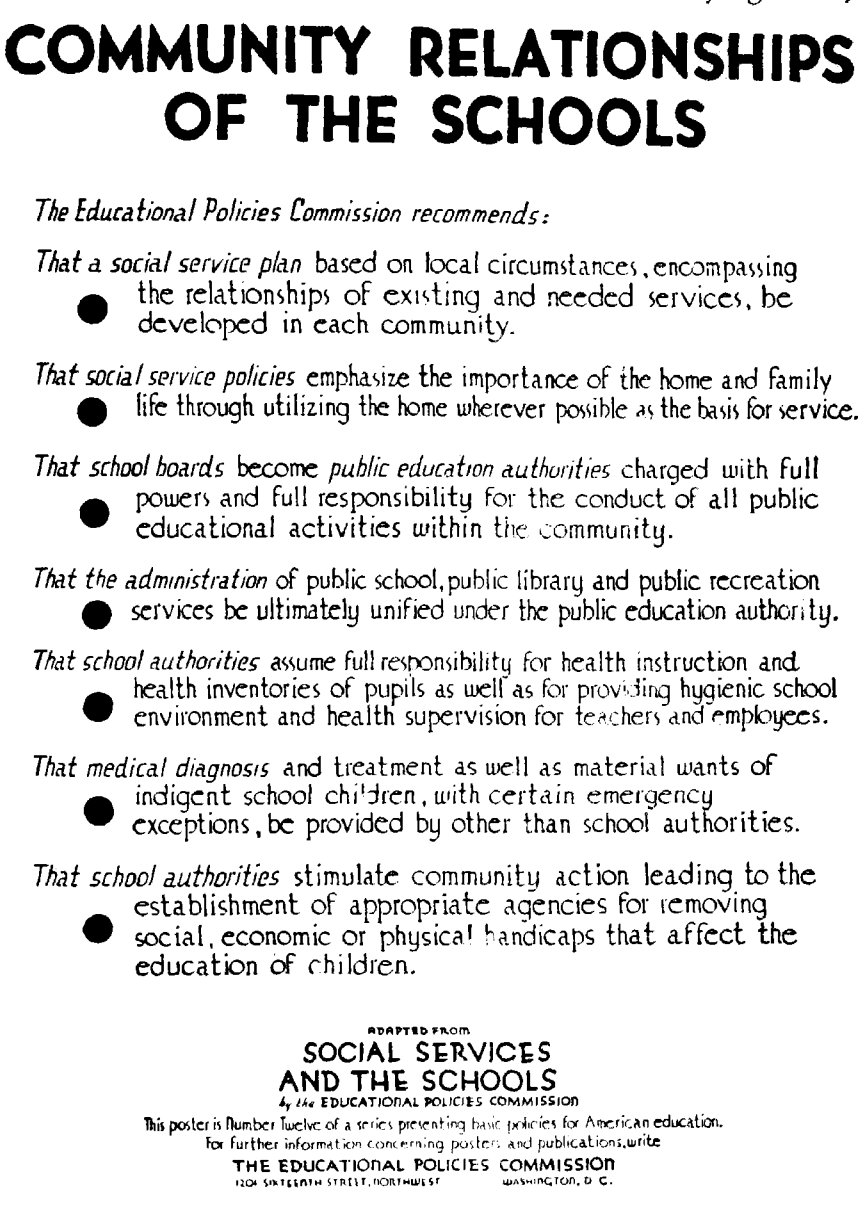
lar program. Two trends are evident: (1) to include in the curriculum more and more of the activities formerly classed as extracurricular, and (2) to give more emphasis to "social education," which has been one of the chief functions of extracurricular activities in the past. Just what their nature will be is difficult to foresee, but it is obvious that changes are destined to take place.

Even though almost all school activities are brought within the scope of the curriculum, there will still exist the student organizations, which seem to offer great opportunity for social education. In these groups, students develop cooperation, leadership, responsibility, interests, and attitudes. They provide opportunities for realistic social living that are not found in other school situations. Student participation in school government and control is one type of student organization that offers unlimited opportunities for developing cooperation and mutual understanding between students and faculty. Schools of all types are experimenting with some sort of school government organization for students, and this movement should have a wholesome influence on secondary education. The practices of certain of the national organizations representing high school students must undergo certain changes during the next few years or receive the disapproval of educators. These organizations for the most part are not in themselves sufficiently democratic. Too often, they tend to be dictatorial and to dominate from the top down. Some of them are in danger, perhaps, of becoming propaganda agencies, or of merely existing for the sake of the national organization structure, rather than because of service given to students.

Enriching and Extending Secondary Education

Coordination of school and community life. The need is recognized for finding ways in which boys and girls can participate more largely in the life of the community while they are still enrolled in school. The secondary schools are doing more and more to connect their programs closely with the life of the community, in order that students may take

part in social and civic affairs. Many school projects and activities have a direct connection with community agencies,



resources, and problems. Social studies classes, in particular, can find a wealth of illustrative material by studying local conditions. There are numerous examples of students taking

part in political affairs, exerting their efforts in helping to bring about some community improvement or reform, and serving their communities in other ways. The schools of the future will encourage such initiative on the part of young people, and will endeavor to link their activities with those of the community.

The coordinating function of the modern secondary school is discussed at length by Grizzell in a recent article.[1] He indicates that the secondary school of the future will be the agency for coordinating all the educational resources of the community — health, recreational, occupational, civic, social, and cultural. Surveys will be made of these resources. A board will be set up to represent the different agencies and serve as an advisory group to the school administrator. The program of the high school will be organized in such a way as to coordinate the efforts of all the groups.

Closer articulation of secondary schools and semieducational agencies. The semieducational agencies include such organizations as the Boy Scouts of America, the Girl Scouts, Allied Youth, the Y.M.C.A., and the Y.W.C.A., which are nation-wide in their scope. These agencies seem to be serving an important function in our society, and their efforts should be closely articulated with the secondary schools in order that overlapping of efforts, confusion, inefficiency, and waste may be eliminated as much as possible. Broad policies to govern the relationship of all agencies and methods of achieving closer articulation may be outlined, but in general the problem is one of local cooperation. It should be pointed out that many who enthusiastically advocate the school's taking over the community services apparently have not considered sufficiently the problem of the professional personnel of the semieducational agencies. As long as the policy contemplates coordination rather than absorption, the problem is not difficult. The trend, theoretically, however, is for the school to engage in the same type of activity

[1] E. D. Grizzell, "The Coordinating Function of the Modern Secondary School," *Department of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, XXII (January, 1938), 1–11.

as the semieducational organizations. Application of this theory to any extensive degree means, in the end, either duplication, rivalry, or absorption.

Extending education. Under this caption National Camp of Life Camps, Inc., publishes a regular periodical devoted to the educational values of camping. In recent years interest in this extension of educational activity has increased markedly and a number of school systems now operate school camps. Undoubtedly the Civilian Conservation Corps had some influence upon this movement. National Camp poses the basic issues as: (1) What is the place of outdoor and camping experience in American education? (2) How can camping and outdoor education be integrated into teacher education? (3) How can public support for camping and outdoor education be developed so it can be extended to more American youth?

There seems to be a growing support for the belief that there is a need for children to have outdoor learning experiences; also that the natural setting of the camp can provide desirable learning experiences which are not now included in most regular school programs.

Criteria for determining values, safeguards to insure desirable operations, adequate training of teacher-counselors, and methods of obtaining financial support are some of the problems as yet not sufficiently solved.

Other extensions. Other ways in which the high school is being supplemented are through evening and part-time schools and correspondence instruction. Evening and part-time schools are particularly prominent in cities where a number of pupils have found employment before completing their courses. For the most part, these schools emphasize vocational training. According to the National Conference on Supervised Correspondence Study, twelve states gave official recognition in 1936 to supervised correspondence study. This means of extending secondary education has proved effective mostly in states where lack of good roads, thinly populated areas, and financial limitations are great handicaps to the program.

The armed services in World War II seemingly gave a real

boost to correspondence study through their USAFI which continued education for unbelievable thousands of service men. Evening schools and small high schools have been quite successful, it seems, with the administration of correspondence courses, acting as agents and supervisors for commercial and for university correspondence schools.

Nonacademic education. One of the unique and important possibilities for continued or supplementary secondary education is that proposed by the Committee on Orientation.[1] Certainly there is a type of youth in considerable numbers who will not, or may not, profit by any of the customary or experimental forms of secondary education. These are youth who lack those abilities and interests that may be met, to some satisfactory degree, by types of education that are largely influenced by intellectual processes. It would appear that a totally different effort must be made if these youths are to be reached. Obviously, local districts alone will not be able to meet this problem. The solution seems to be in state financial support and supervision, with definite local cooperative relationships.

The Teaching Staff of the Secondary School of the Future

Professional and academic training. The teacher training institutions usually wait until the schools demand certain types of training before modifying their programs. The changes that have already taken place, and others that are inevitable, demand that the person who expects to qualify for a teaching position in a modern secondary school meet much higher professional and academic standards than in the past. Formerly, there was not much demand for colleges and universities to train teachers in supervision, curriculum development, guidance, visual education, safety, or other special phases of secondary education which have recently come into

[1] Committee on Orientation, *Issues of Secondary Education*, Issues I and II. Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59. Washington, National Education Association, 1936.

See also B. L. Dodds, *That All May Learn*. National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 85. Washington, National Education Association, 1939.

prominence. Now, institutions are offering training in these fields in response to the demands of secondary schools.

Progress in secondary education is retarded because colleges and universities do not study the tendencies within schools and plan their programs accordingly. Both the professional and the academic training of secondary school teachers for modernized schools will differ in several important ways from the education a teacher now receives. Probably, some of these are as follows:

1. General education will be emphasized rather than much specialization.
2. The teacher training curriculum will give advance consideration to the trends in secondary education.
3. Increased emphasis will be placed on personality, social education, and understanding of contemporary life.
4. The most promising graduates of high schools will be more definitely sought by teacher training institutions (increased scholarship opportunity and higher salary levels will be of specific aid).
5. The program of studies which prospective teachers pursue will have more unity and continuity than at present.
6. Teacher training institutions will be forced to improve their methods of instruction.

The student as the center of the teacher's interest. The student, environment, personality of the teacher, subject matter, and method are major elements in the teaching situation. In the past, subject matter and method have been given most of the attention. If a prospective teacher has been able to master a few academic principles of psychology, a few courses in methods, and a little history of education, his professional training has been called complete. Today, the emphasis is shifting until he must have a broad general education and must understand boys and girls. The movement to require apprenticeship in teaching is growing rapidly, and has many possibilities. The teacher of the future will be required to know adolescents from first-hand experience. A laboratory demonstration school will be standard equipment required of every

teacher training institution of future years. A welcome change will be the more careful and thoroughgoing application within these experimental laboratories of newly discovered theories and practices.

Training in guidance and curriculum development. The emphasis that secondary schools are placing on guidance and on adapting the curriculum to contemporary and changing life makes it of the greatest importance that teachers have particular training for these tasks. Teachers must first of all understand adolescents, but they should also know what constitutes a good curriculum, how the curriculum should be organized, and how to guide the student so that he will derive the maximum benefit from his school experiences.

Both guidance and curriculum construction have developed until the movements are nation-wide. They have both reached the point where schools can carry them on in a cooperative and systematic way, and teacher training institutions can train teachers to carry on the work efficiently. Both guidance and the curriculum in secondary schools are certain to be modified in the future, as better techniques and materials are discovered as the result of experimentation, research, and practice.

Evaluation of teaching success. Much information is available on the methods and procedures used in selecting teachers, but there are few criteria to use in evaluating the success of a teacher after she has been employed. The development of such criteria would be most helpful to administrators in eliminating inefficient teachers, in helping teachers to improve procedures, and in reconstructing teacher training courses. Discussing this problem, Schorling said:

> Additional study of present practices in locating, selecting, and appointing teachers may not be needed, but it seems evident that studies to ascertain the best criteria for predicting the future success of inexperienced teachers and for appraising the work of teachers already in service should be undertaken by some educational agency. Several questions need to be answered. Among these are: (1) What constitutes teaching success? (2) How may future success of inexperienced teachers be predicted? (3) How may the success of teachers

in service be measured? When these questions are answered the problem of teacher selection will be well on its way to solution.[1]

Under the new trend toward democracy in administration, perhaps teachers will be willing and able to help in the removal of the weaklings among them, and to assume direct responsibility for the improvement of weak teachers who may become satisfactory teachers. That teachers must, and will, become more interested in the professionalization of their jobs may be assumed. The large number of candidates in training, and the inevitably keen competition, will probably force improvement in methods of evaluating success in teaching.

Coordination in teaching effort. This is largely a problem of helping teachers to find out their own strong and weak points, and of showing them how to profit by the successful practices of fellow teachers. In every school, there will be certain teachers who are more efficient in one phase of work than in others. It is the task of the administrator to coordinate the efforts of his staff. If the efforts of teachers are to be utilized and not misspent, the principal must see that such adjustments are made as are needed to capitalize on the particularly strong points of teachers and to minimize the weak and inefficient points. Such practice has made little progress. Increased emphasis on cooperative endeavor should do much in the near future to coordinate teaching effort more effectively.

Research and Evaluation in the Modern Secondary School

Making educational progress planned rather than accidental. Much of the educational progress of the past has been accidental rather than planned. This has been especially true of the organization of education, its financial support, and its relation to social problems. Today, there is being developed a more scientific attitude toward education, and attempts are

[1] Raleigh Schorling, "A Plan for Selecting the Candidates for Teacher Training and Certification," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, V (January, 1934), 51–53.

being made to plan educational progress in accordance with a sound and workable philosophy.

The agency that is giving leadership to this movement on a national scale is the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. Some of the pronouncements of the Commission are summarized in posters reproduced in this chapter and in other chapters of this book. The work of the Policies Commission is being supplemented by that of departments of the National Education Association, regional accrediting associations, state teachers organizations, and other agencies and organizations. In the past so few school administrators and teachers have participated in this planning that it has had little influence on school practices. The need seems to be for more general interest among the rank and file of school people, in order to stimulate individual schools to make investigations and to plan their programs in accordance with their findings.

The Committee on Planning, of the N.E.A. Department of Secondary-School Principals, represents a national attempt to make progress in secondary education through planned ideas and activities, rather than through leaving possible development to chance. This committee has especially recognized the necessity of gaining wide participation in the understanding of problems and the planning of solutions. The committee has undertaken an experiment with discussion groups as a means of stimulating the planning of educational progress. Through a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the program has been financed for a two-year period. Groups of administrators have been organized in every state as specific agencies for attacking the problems of the profession on the basis of extensive participation. The results expected of this experiment in planning educational projects have been outlined by the chairman of the Committee on Planning as follows:

> Such a program in which various groups over the country will be working on common problems which demand the united action of all for solution, as well as on problems which are local in character and can be solved through the efforts of individual groups, should con-

tribute to: (1) a wider understanding of the larger problems of secondary education and of basic principles by which they may be solved; (2) new experimentation and investigation in secondary education; (3) immediate as well as ultimate influence on school procedures; (4) a sense of solidarity, strength, and mutual helpfulness resulting from the fact that a large number of groups are working at the same time on the same problems; and (5) greater participation of the rank and file of the profession, which is essential to cooperative endeavor.[1]

In further demonstration of the group discussion method as applied to the problems of secondary education, there has been prepared a manual entitled *Talking It Through*,[2] which offers a number of techniques illustrative of the various phases of the idea.

Problems for research in secondary education. The U. S. Office of Education bulletin on *Needed Research in Secondary Education* states:

> The greatest need in educational research at the secondary level is for evaluation of present and projected procedures. Obviously, evaluation may and does come through study of practices. Obviously, also, it may come through experimentation under which modifications and controlled conditions are introduced in the practices to render the study more significant. There is a sort of three-way level suggested here, the first level being a study of results of practices in any and all schools as found, the next being a study of outcomes of practices in schools selected for their outstanding qualities, and the third a study of educational effects under experimental conditions set up especially for the purpose of testing theory.[3]

This bulletin also indicates the need for more cooperative research projects such as those now being conducted under the auspices of the N.E.A. Department of Secondary-School Principals, the Progressive Education Association, the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, and the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.

[1] Francis L. Bacon, "Improving Education through Discussion Groups," *Education Digest*, III (October, 1937), 36–38.

[2] Francis L. Bacon, *Talking It Through*. Committee on Planning, Department of Secondary-School Principals. Washington, National Education Association, 1937.

[3] Carl A. Jessen, *Needed Research in Secondary Education*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 28.

It points out that, while many experiments are under way, few of them are comprehensive enough in character to serve as a guide in the modification of important practices. It lists the different areas in secondary education where investigation and research are especially needed. These include some aspect of almost every important element of secondary education. The obstacles in the way of these studies and experiments are lack of financial resources and of cooperative agencies for carrying on the work. The work of the Committee on Planning and of the Implementation Commission [1] of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is designed to make possible research investigations sufficiently comprehensive to meet one of the major obstacles mentioned. Much of the progress of secondary education in the future will come through experiments and research into the effectiveness of practices, procedures, and policies. In addition to the large coordinated programs, many individual schools probably will have under way programs of experimentation designed to increase their all-around efficiency.

Appraising secondary education. In the past, there have been few valid methods of evaluating and appraising the work of secondary education. Various kinds of tests of subject matter have been devised, and gradual progress is being made in developing effective means of evaluating student growth in habits, attitudes, ideals, and character. The emphasis now is on tests to show aptitudes, weaknesses, and special interests. There is also a tendency to use follow-up procedures to find out how much of what the student learns in school is carried over into out-of-school life and adult life.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. List the factors indicating that important changes will be made in secondary education during the next five or ten years.

2. What do you think should be the relationship of general and vocational education in the curriculum of the modern high school?

[1] *Research Studies.* Implementation Commission, National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Washington, National Education Association.

3. How does the curriculum influence the kind of building and facilities needed?

4. Make a list of the probable characteristics of the high school building of the future.

5. Give illustrations which show that cooperation is gradually taking the place of competition in secondary schools.

6. Discuss the two most significant changes that small high schools can make to improve their programs in the immediate future.

7. What are the special educational needs of the gifted student? Of the underprivileged student?

8. How can secondary education be connected more closely with the life of the community?

9. What trends are noticeable in the education of teachers for secondary schools?

10. Why must the high school of the future give more attention to mental health? What other phases of health education are likely to be emphasized?

11. What are the possibilities of student organizations for training in social education?

12. Do you believe that in the future more staff members in secondary schools will devote a large part of their time to research and experimentation? Why or why not?

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