Department of Education Library
Central Institute of Education
University of Delhi
Delhi - 110007

DULS - LIBRARY

Elementary Education Resource Library
(RSPEE-MACESE)
Department of Education (C.I.E.)
University of Delhi

Cl No
Ac No Date of release of loan

This book should be returned on or before the date last stamped below
An overdue charge of Rs 5/- will be charged for each day the book is kept overtime

18 FEB 2010	

Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools

By

HARL R. DOUGLASS

Director, College of Education, University of Colorado

REVISED EDITION

GINN AND COMPANY

BOSTON · NEW YORK · CHICAGO · ATLANTA · DALLAS · COLUMBUS
SAN FRANCISCO · TORONTO · LONDON

COPYRIGHT, 1945, BY GINN AND COMPANY
COPYRIGHT, 1932, BY GINN AND COMPANY

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

445.3

The Athenæum Press
GINN AND COMPANY · PROPRIETORS · BOSTON · U.S.A.

To

ZANNA MAE DOUGLASS

the Best of Companions

at Work or at Play

Preface

Since the day of Ezekiel Cheever and the Latin Grammar School, the administration of secondary schools has become vastly more complex and technical. Until the beginning of the present century, the high school was occupied largely in the selection and preparation of boys and girls for college. The better secondary school of today is attempting a much broader program. It is undertaking to supplement its curricular opportunities with a comprehensive program of extra-curricular activities involving problems of organization and administration almost as complex and important as those of the curriculum itself. It is attempting to meet the problem of the greatly widened range of abilities and interests of its pupil personnel with procedures and devices aimed at the adjustment of instruction to such differences. It is undertaking to render badly needed and very important service in educational, vocational, social, civic, and health guidance. The growth of new and improved methods of instruction has resulted in further complicating the task of organization and administration.

This greatly increased complexity of the functions and problems of secondary education, accompanied by the development of the professional school administrator and of research in school administration, has (especially in the last twenty-five years) resulted in producing a great body of principles, procedures, and practices relative to the organization and management of high schools. In addition, the development of instruments of measurement has vastly increased the possibilities of administrative procedures; and, stimulated largely by these developments, administrators and students of administration have developed procedures of child-accounting, to which have been added similar devices for accounting for funds, supplies, and equipment.

Much of the literature dealing with these newer techniques and procedures exists only in periodical and monograph form or in unpublished theses, some of it is to be found in books related to administration of schools both elementary and secondary and some in the yearbooks and proceedings of the meet-

ings of various organizations of school men. It is one of the objectives of this volume to bring together within the covers of one book the most useful of this material. An attempt has been made to utilize as far as possible the results of the increasing but still discouragingly small amount of data yielded by scientific research. Frequent reference will be made to such material. The author, realizing that as yet only a small portion of the problem of administration has been solved by objective researches, has sensed the futility of confining the contents to the results of research. Nor has it seemed useful to burden the reader with a large number of tabular materials for the purpose of depicting the current conditions and practices in various parts of the country and in various classes or sizes of schools. Instead, the major emphasis has been placed upon what seems the consensus of the best modern practice, found most effective by progressive administrators and experts in the various phases of school administration.

The author has had in mind the problems of administration of junior, senior, and regular four-year high schools, especially schools of not more than a thousand pupils. While in the main he has attempted to keep in mind the principal and his responsibilities, he has realized that, in all but the largest schools, the city superintendent of schools plays a prominent part in the administration of the secondary school, in the smallest districts being in fact high-school principal. In the many instances throughout the book where the word "principal" is used, it should be taken to mean whoever has administrative responsibility for the secondary high school, whether superintendent or principal, or both.

Because of the abundance of material now available relative to problems of organization and administration, it has seemed wise, in the interests of a more than superficial treatment of the many problems of high-school administration, to limit the present volume to the discussion of problems of adminstration and to omit treatment of those of supervision. Materials relative to the history, functions, and other nontechnical phases of secondary education are omitted or referred to only incidentally

and briefly on occasions where some correlation of practice with theoretical or general considerations seems necessary.

As the reader proceeds through the discussions in this volume, it will repeatedly occur to him that the responsibilities and techniques are far more complicated than those employed in schools with which he has had experience and acquaintance. That is to be expected. The beginning principal may feel at times that the practices and policies outlined are too complicated or progressive to be practical. It will be unfortunate if he chooses between, on the one hand, a rationalization which will satisfy him with procedures no longer the best available, and, on the other, an attempt to "set the crooked world straight" immediately by launching out to employ at once all the new procedures in complete form. It is to be hoped that instead he will visualize the possibilities of the new procedures for his particular school and move toward a safe and gradual transition to the newer modes, making thoroughness and sound development his guiding principles rather than haste and superficiality.

The volume is offered as a concise description of modern useful practices in organizing and administering secondary schools, based as far as possible upon careful studies. For the benefit of the reader who wishes to specialize in any one or more problems, a bibliography for each chapter is given at the end of the book.

The author is indebted to individuals and organizations too numerous to mention here, even should he be able to identify all of them. He is heavily indebted to the thousands of superintendents, principals, and teachers who, as students in his classes at the Universities of Oregon, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Southern California, Pennsylvania, Leland Stanford, Jr., North Carolina, and Colorado, have furnished, in class discussion and in written papers and reports, many ideas, practices, and criticisms, and to those administrators whose secondary schools he has visited.

In this revision the author is indebted for suggestions to the following: M. D. Alcorn, San Diego State College; Edgar M. Draper, University of Washington; Walter C. Reusser, University of Wyoming; Grayson N. Kefauver, Stanford University;

Frederick J. Weersing, University of Southern California; F. A. *Balyeat, University of Oklahoma; H. G. Hotz, University of* Arkansas; Harry K. Newburn, University of Iowa; William R. Smithey, University of Virginia; S. E. T. Lund, University of Tennessee; Arnold E. Joyal, University of Maryland; Charles W. Boardman, University of Minnesota; M. H. Willing, University of Wisconsin; Arthur C. Cross and Calvin Greider, University of Colorado.

The author wishes to express gratitude to the authors and publishers listed below who granted permission to quote from their publications: C. F. Allen, R. D. Allen, W. A. Cook, Ellwood P. Cubberly, Edgar M. Draper, E. D. Grizzell, H. C. McKown, W. C. Reavis, Ward G. Reeder, A. C. Roberts, Joseph Roemer, Elmer H. Wilds, and Robert Woellner, *The American Educational Digest*, The Century Company, *The Educational Outlook*, D. C. Heath and Company, Houghton Mifflin Company. Laidlaw Brothers, The Macmillan Company, University of Chicago Press, Warwick and York, C. F. Williams and Sons, United States Office of Education, James A. Sheldon, Gertrude Sears, *School and Society*, Floyd W. Reeves, B. F. Pittenger, National Association of Secondary School Principals, *The Nation's Schools*, Ward I. Miller, Leonard V. Koos, Louis M. Klein, Educational Policies Commission, J. B. Edmonson, American Book Company, *The School Review*, and J. R. Shannon.

He is also indebted to Dr. Hazel E. Taylor of the Bureau of Educational Research and Service of the University of Colorado, whose assistance on the revision in locating materials, editing, and typing went far beyond ordinary technical service.

HARL R. DOUGLASS

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO

Contents

CHAPTER PAGE

I. TYPES OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION 3

The Secondary School of Today, 3 · Junior and Senior High Schools, 6 · The Junior College, 9 · Small and Consolidated Schools, 12 · Specialized and Comprehensive High Schools, 14 · Extension Secondary Schools, 16 · Work-Study Plans, 21

II. HOUSING THE HIGH SCHOOL 25

Determining Housing Needs, 25 · The Building and Provisions for Instructional Space, 30 · Provisions for Non-instructional Space, 37 · Miscellaneous Features, 40

III. ORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM 51

The Problem of Curriculum Construction, 51 · The Program of Studies, 55 · Principles of Curriculum Organization, 60 · Types of Curriculum Organization, 66 · Development of Courses of Study and Selection of Textbooks, 69 · Typical Curricula of Modern Junior and Senior High Schools, 72

IV. SELECTING THE STAFF 75

Determining Staff Needs, 75 · Standards for the Selection of Secondary-School Teachers, 82 · Selecting the Staff· Procedure and Machinery, 88 · Collecting Data concerning Applicants, 90

V. ASSIGNING THE STAFF 106

The Teacher's Load, or Assignment, 106 · Measuring the Teacher's Load, 112 · Equalizing and Reducing the Load, 119

VI. CONSTRUCTING THE SCHOOL SCHEDULE 127

Gathering the Preliminary Information, 128 · The Mosaic Method, 136 · The Block Method, 142 · The "Individual Pupil," or "Yardstick," Method, 148 Putting the Schedule into Operation, 149

VII. ORGANIZING AND IMPROVING THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM 154

Guidance in the High School, 154 · Educational Guidance and Registration, 161 · Guidance for the Next Higher School, 166 · Guidance in Adjusting to a New School Unit, 173 · Vocational Guidance, 174

Contents

CHAPTER PAGE

VIII. ORGANIZING AND IMPROVING THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM (Continued) 183

Personnel Organization: The Director of Guidance, 183 · The Vocational Counselor, 184 · The Dean of Girls and the Dean of Boys, 189 · Home-Room, or Group, Advisers, 192 · The Principal as Counselor, 197 · The Teacher as Counselor, 199 · The Use of Tests, Check Lists, and Inventories, 201 · Forms and Records, 204

IX. ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS 208

Place of Student Organizations in Secondary Education, 208 Dangers and Limitations of Activities, 214 · The Program of Activities, 219 · Encouraging General Participation, 226

X. ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS (Continued) 234

Regulation of Pupil Participation, 234 · Activity Meetings, 242 Supervision of Activities, 245 · The School Assembly as a Special Problem, 251 · The Administration of Interscholastic Athletics, 255 · The Home Room, 257 · Summary of Fundamental Principles, 261

XI. DISCIPLINE AND CITIZENSHIP AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEM 265

Objectives of Discipline, 265 · Agencies of Disciplinary Guidance: Positive, 269 · Agencies of Disciplinary Guidance. Negative, 272 · Relations to Teachers and Parents, 279 · Common Practices, 283 · Discipline and Mental Hygiene, 283

XII. PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL 286

Fields of Activity of Pupil Participation in Government and Management, 286 · Values and Limitations of Different Forms of Pupil Participation in Government, 291 · The Organization of Pupil Government, 297 · Minor Forms of Student Government, 306

CHAPTER PAGE

XIII. PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION RELATED TO INSTRUCTION — STIMULATING AND DIRECTING PUPILS' STUDY 311

Incentives to Scholarship and Criteria for Judging Incentives, 311 · The Honor Society, 317 · Marks and Credits as Incentives, 323 · Supervising Pupils' Study and Teaching how to Study, 327

XIV. PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION RELATED TO INSTRUCTION: ABILITY GROUPING AND PREVENTION OF FAILURE 340

Ability Grouping, 340 · Prevention of Failure, 346 · Other Means of Adjusting to the Individual, 355

XV. THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS OFFICE 363

Office and Equipment, 363 · Clerical Help, 371 · Records and Statistics which should be kept in the Principal's Office, 373 · Distribution of the Principal's Time, 378 · Office Relations, 381 · Opening and Closing of the School Year, 383

XVI PERSONNEL RECORDS AND RELATED PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION 387

The Purposes and Organization of Accounting, 387 · Registration and Enrollment, 391 · Educational-Achievement Accounting Marks, Test-Scores, and Reports of Marks and Scores, 394 Permanent Records and Reports of Pupils' Achievement, 403

XVII. PERSONNEL RECORDS AND RELATED PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION (Continued) 413

Attendance and Tardiness, 413 · Building Traffic, 424 · Health Accounting, 426 · Physical Education, 433 · Concerning Staff Records, 435

XVIII. BUSINESS ACCOUNTING AND ADMINISTRATION . . . 437

The High-School Budget and its Administration, 439 · Storage and Accounting of Supplies and Equipment, 445 · Library-Accounting and Related Administrative Problems, 449 Financial Accounting, 452 Pupil Supplies and Free Textbooks, 460 · The Principal's Annual Report, 462

Contents

CHAPTER PAGE

XIX. SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE BUILDING 464

Supervision related to Safety, 464 · Supervision of Student Traffic, 466 · Supervision of Students' Automobiles, 468 Supervision of the Lunch Room, 470 · Supervision of Janitorial Service, 474 · Repairs and Replacements, 482 · Community Uses of the Building, 484

XX. UTILIZING COMMUNITY DATA AND RELATIONSHIPS 487

Surveying the Local Community, 487 The Principal and his Community Affiliations, 494 · The Parent-Teacher Association as a Key Organization, 499 · Alumni Organizations and Contacts with Parents, 503 · Commencement Exercises as Public Relations, 505

XXI. HIGH-SCHOOL PUBLICITY 508

Values, Purposes, and Types of High-School Publicity, 508 Publicity through the Personnel of the School, 511 · Exhibits as a Means of Publicity, 514 Newspaper Publicity, 517 · Publications within the School, 531

XXII. THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL 539

The Development of the Principalship, 539 · The Outlook of the Beginning Principal, 547 · The Principal and his Professional Growth, 551

XXIII. STAFF RELATIONSHIPS 569

Types of Organization, 569 · Democratic Administration, 572 · Practices in Democratic School Administration, 579 · Pupil and Parent Participation, 584 Relationship of Principal to Board, Superintendent, and Assistant Principal, 586 Assisting and Improving the Staff, 589

XXIV. RELATIONSHIPS TO HIGHER INSTITUTIONS, ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS, AND STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION 598

Traditional College-Secondary-School Relationships, 598 · College Entrance Requirements, 602 · Guidance for College, 606 · Accrediting Associations, 610 · State Departments of Education, 615 · Articulation of High School and College, 617

BIBLIOGRAPHY 621

INDEX 653

ORGANIZATION

AND ADMINISTRATION

OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I

Types of Secondary-School Organization

1. THE SECONDARY SCHOOL OF TODAY

Predecessors of Our High School. The first secondary school in America was quite a different institution from our modern high school. It was an ungraded school for boys of from nine to sixteen years of age. The curriculum was almost entirely Latin and Greek. Its purpose was to prepare for college, principally for the study of the ministry. It was a small school, with rarely more than two teachers, usually only one—a man. It was supported not by public taxes, but by tuition and by gifts. Learning was entirely authoritarian; discipline was stern; there were no extra-curricular activities; the atmosphere was religious. It flourished principally in New England in the colonial period.

Toward the middle of the nineteenth century, there was a growing dissatisfaction with the narrow, classical curriculum of the Latin Grammar School. Leaders and parents began to demand a more practical school; and by 1825, seventy-five years after the establishment of Franklin's academy in Philadelphia, the academy was the typical American secondary school.

First taking its students at the age of twelve for a three-year course, then later at the age of fourteen for four years, it enrolled girls as well as boys, usually in separate schools, though more and more it became a coeducational institution. Its curriculum came to include history, geography, mathematics, science, music, art, navigation, surveying, bookkeeping, and other practical subjects. Like the Latin Grammar School, it was not supported by taxes, but principally by tuition and gifts. It spread very fast and far after 1800; and by 1850 there were at least 4000 academies scattered throughout what was then

the United States—principally in states east of the Mississippi River, though Missouri had at that time more than a hundred.

The methods of instruction were still authoritarian, discipline stern but more rational, and the teachers principally men. Gradually types of extra-curricular activities began to appear, principally forensic, musical, and journalistic.

The Public High School. The high school is our own institution. No other country has secondary schools like our high school, though in England, in Russia, in Japan, and in Latin-American countries the secondary schools are becoming more like ours—even with respect to the principal unique characteristics of the high school. These unique characteristics may be stated thus: (1) It is an all-purpose institution for all the children of all the people, whereas elsewhere separate schools have been established for those wishing a classical curriculum and those seeking vocational instruction, for those of the upper classes, and for handicapped boys and girls. (2) It is free and tax-supported rather than supported by fees. (3) It is coeducational, both as to pupils and as to staff.

The high school differed from the academy principally in its sources of support and in the agencies of its control. Beginning to be established in number about 1840, it has spread and grown most rapidly since 1870, when it became obvious that it and not the academy was destined to be our typical secondary school. By reason of its being free, as well as its somewhat practical curriculum and a growing faith of the people in education, its enrollment doubled every ten years from 1870 through 1930 and increased about 70 per cent between 1930 and 1940. Less than 10 per cent attend privately supported schools.

Particularly since 1900, certain noteworthy trends have become conspicuous: (1) Schools have grown in size until the typical school, for twenty years, has been one of from 75 to 250 pupils, the median enrollment in recent years being about 120 pupils. (2) Extra-curricular activities have increased in variety and emphasis, particularly competitive interscholastic activities, headed by athletics. (3) The curriculum has increased in variety of subjects, particularly in the field of voca-

tional subjects; and the elective system has developed to extremes. (4) Teaching procedures have become more democratic and socialized. (5) Much more attention has been paid to the individual, his capacities, interests, and probable future needs. (6) Students remain in high school much longer than formerly, and fewer of them are failed in their subjects.

Perhaps most important of all developments is the fact that the high-school student body of today is almost a random sample of all young people, with all their variations in interests and potentialities. Of very great significance to the curriculum-maker is the fact that the high-school students of today will go into every occupation, and into every walk, level, and scale of the American life of tomorrow; and preparation for such living must be contemplated and planned for.

It should be obvious that the duties of the school administrator of today are much more varied and complex than those of his predecessor. Not only must he organize and administer a much larger and more complex institution, but he must also be responsible for (1) extra-curricular activities, (2) guidance programs, and (3) public relations.

Types of Modern Secondary Schools. Today there is no standard type of secondary school. The four-year secondary school of 1850 to 1920 has given way to a variety of types: a three-year or four-year junior high school, a six-year junior-senior high school, a four-year junior college, a three-year senior high school, and other variations. There are two-year and five-year schools; evening schools, vocational high schools, and comprehensive schools; boarding schools and day schools: coeducational and noncoeducational schools.

Let us hope that there will never again be a "standard" type, but that in each community there will be operated the type, or indeed the types, which minister best to its needs and conform best to its geography and educational philosophy, and which will be modifiable as needs and conditions change. It is one of the important responsibilities of the administrator to think through the problem of what type or types best fit the community in which he is the educational leader.

2. JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Principals and superintendents contemplating the establishment of a junior high school should become familiar with the material that may be found in such books as those by Briggs, Smith, and Koos on the junior high school in general, and by Touton and Struthers on junior-high-school organization and administration. Publications relative to the junior high school and its curriculum by state departments of education and city school systems should be discussed and utilized in planning the new unit, as should articles on various aspects of the junior high school in recent issues of *The School Review*, *The Elementary School Journal*, *The Clearing House*, and other journals.

Inquiries should be made concerning well organized and administered junior and senior high schools, and visits made to the best of those within reasonable distance.

Coöperative Study of Reorganization by the Staff. Those of the staff who will constitute the faculty of the new junior unit should be familiar with the theory and underlying principles and details of practice involved. They should be encouraged to attend summer school or extension courses relating to the junior high school. Committees should be appointed to investigate different aspects of reorganization; for example, articulation with the senior high school and with the elementary school, junior-high-school student organizations and activities, educational and vocational guidance, provisions for individual differences, means of effecting gradual transition, and the reorganization of subject matter in the various departments of instruction. A series of meetings and conferences should be held during the year preceding the establishment of the school, the purpose of which will be the complete orientation of the faculty and administration in the junior-high-school purposes and practices. In such a series of meetings, lectures and discussions on the junior-high-school movement should precede reports of the various committees just mentioned.

In selecting the principal and faculty for the new type of

unit, more than ordinary care should be exercised. In addition to the conventional qualifications, special fitness, training, and experience for the junior-high-school procedure should be emphasized. The success of the school reorganization will depend largely upon getting a favorable start. The fashions set in the beginning years are likely to determine in great measure the procedures in that particular school and the concepts of junior-high-school education held by the staff and the community.

The Senior High School. The modification of the high school resulting in a three-year senior high school is not so thoroughgoing a reorganization and therefore does not require such careful and detailed orientation and planning. Yet because of obvious relationships between the two units which will be involved, such as those centering around adjustments of curricula, courses of study, and credits, at least the principal of the senior school should participate in the preliminary meetings and become thoroughly familiar with the theory and objectives of the new school and with what the reorganization will mean for his own school. The fact that in many school systems serious problems of articulation have followed the adoption of the 6–3–3 plan argues for this precaution.

The Six-Year Secondary School. The very large majority of districts maintaining high schools should not establish separate junior and senior high schools, but, rather, a combined junior-senior high school. At first the movement for reorganization was spoken of as the 6–6 plan, and only later as the 6–3–3 plan. Almost two thirds of the more than 5000 reorganized schools are organized as six-year schools.

The six-year school is without doubt more advantageous for the smaller system. Schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils above Grade 6 are not likely to find the 6–3–3 plan best adapted. The combination junior-senior school plan of organization permits the following material economies:

1. The common use of equipment of special departments which would be in use but a portion of the day if separate schools were maintained: household-arts rooms and related equipment, and rooms and equipment for instruction in music, art, and science.

2. The common use of certain expensive rooms and equipment: the gymnasium, the swimming pool, the auditorium, the library, and the administrative offices.

3. The economy realized in the construction of one large building instead of two smaller ones.

In addition, there are many important educational advantages, among them being the following:

1. The employment of one highly paid and well-trained high-school principal who will be able to devote all his time or a very large part of it to administrative and supervisory duties, rather than two less well-paid officials who spend a major share of their day in instructional duties.

2. The more complete departmentalization of the teaching staff, the members of which, if separate schools were established, would be required to teach two or more subjects.

3. Better articulation between the two schools:

a. A more complete articulation of the subject matter in the two divisions owing to the fact that members of the teaching staff of the various departments serve in both divisions.

b. Easier arrangements for students who are ready for some tenth-grade subjects to go ahead with them while carrying ninth-grade subjects. This problem has proved an annoying one in schools organized on the 6–3–3 plan.

4. The elimination of the necessity for transfer from one school to another at the end of the ninth grade and the consequent encouragement for students to continue in high school after the completion of the junior division.

5. The possibility of making available for average junior-high-school pupils almost certain not to graduate from high school, senior-high-school vocational, industrial, and household-arts courses.

The Six-Year Plan in Larger Districts. Even in much larger systems it is likely that the advantages of the six-year schools more than offset their disadvantages, though unquestionably the relative desirability of this plan decreases with the size of the school. A majority of the high schools in Cleveland, Ohio, are six-year schools. Though they were established there as a temporary expedient, Principal Whitney of the Collinwood

High School believes that the question may be properly raised whether they should not become the standard type of organization. In Minneapolis, Minnesota, five of the eight high schools are six-year junior-senior units, and in a number of other larger cities one or more six-year schools may be found. In many cities of lesser size the six-year organization has been employed for years. With the increasing feeling that senior high schools of several thousand students are not wise and with the growing appreciation of the need for better articulation between the junior and senior schools, the combination secondary school is likely to continue to receive more favorable attention in the larger cities.

3. THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Junior-College Organization. The tendency to regard the work of the first two years of the liberal college as secondary education has grown so rapidly within recent years that the more than 450 junior colleges, public and private, now existing bid fair to increase to several times that number within the next few decades. The continuing increase in the percentage of young people going to college is operating to make a reduction in the numbers of first-year and second-year students in state universities and the large endowed and private institutions more desirable. The rapid increase of college students will also make more feasible the establishment of junior colleges, since larger numbers of prospective students for such institutions will be found within the bounds of reasonably small areas adjacent to school districts contemplating the establishment of junior colleges.

However, owing to the smaller percentages of the population attending and the increased cost of instruction in junior colleges as compared with that in high schools, the former institution as a local enterprise is subject to limitations as to establishment which do not apply in nearly so great a degree to the establishment of high schools. To warrant establishment of a junior college, the following conditions should obtain:

1. A prospective student body of sufficient size to permit the economical and effective maintenance of a variety of curricular offerings compatible with the purposes of the junior college.

2. Sources of revenue which will provide sufficient revenue for the maintenance of an effective institution with a reasonable burden upon taxpayers.

3. The lack of adequate junior-college facilities within or in close proximity to the district or districts concerned.

Number of Prospective Students. Judging from data as to costs per student in public junior colleges,[1] it is probably not advisable to establish two-year public junior colleges which will enroll fewer than 125 or 150 students. Not only are institutions of smaller size uneconomical in costs, but they do not permit a desirable variety of curricular offerings and a desirable specialization in the teaching staff. For these reasons the decision to establish a junior college should be made only after a careful survey has been made which will furnish very accurate and reliable estimates as to the number of students who would probably attend such an institution after it is established. Ordinarily, under average conditions with respect to the tendency of high-school graduates to go to local junior colleges and the proximity of other college facilities, it is probably questionable to establish a junior college in districts of fewer than 15,000 population and with fewer than 700 or 800 pupils enrolled in Grades 9–12 inclusive. Of the junior-college districts studied by Holy, the ratio of students attending junior college to those enrolled in the high school was one in six. The ratio of students attending junior college to the enrollment in high school and to the population of the district varies so widely from community to community, and the influence of neighboring colleges, tuition rates, and other factors likely to determine what proportion of pupils going to college would attend the local junior college, is so much a matter of the given local situation that only a detailed local survey will throw

[1] L. V. Koos, *The Junior-College Movement*, p 394. $108 is given as the median cost per pupil of five institutions of from 100 to 200 students, and $168 for nine institutions of fewer than 100 students.

much light on what would be the probable enrollment if a junior college were established.

Property Valuation of Proposed District. The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the American Council of Education agree on a minimum operating income of $20,000. To produce $20,000 from a property tax on $10,000,000 assessed valuation (California required minimum) would involve a two-mill tax. A two-mill tax for the maintenance of a junior college should be regarded as a maximum if not actually excessive burden for that purpose. With those things in mind it is probably unwise to establish a junior college in districts in which the valuation is less than $15,000,000, unless material state aid may be obtained or material income from tuition of nonresident students may be counted on for a considerable period of years.

Owing to local community pride, jealousies, and commercial interests, and the natural ambition of school administrators to develop their school systems, there is becoming evident a regrettable tendency to establish small, weak junior colleges in smaller cities and towns. Excessive tax rates, starvation of the lower schools, and inferior junior-college facilities are likely to follow. After costly experimentation many of such institutions will eventually be abandoned when the state and regional accrediting associations formulate standards which these "boom" institutions cannot meet.

The 6-4-4 Secondary-School Type of Organization. It seems quite apparent that the two-year junior college as a separate unit will not prove completely satisfactory in several particulars. In all but the largest schools adequate departmentalization will be difficult, if not impossible. Plans for a saving of time by the more capable students will be difficult to administer in so short a period. Complete articulation, including elimination of curriculum overlapping and repetition, between the senior high school and the two-year junior college will not be readily realized.

Where the junior college is a part of a single system providing elementary and secondary education, a more reasonable organization is possible; namely, a four-year junior high school comprising Grades 7, 8, 9, and 10 and a four-year senior-high-school junior college, including Grades 11, 12, 13, and 14. Frequently leading students of secondary education and school administration have expressed themselves as favoring and predicting such reorganization. Several city districts have already been reorganized on this basis, and for several years a number of private junior colleges have been organized as four-year institutions. Where this plan of organization is employed, a smaller number of students of the thirteenth and fourteenth grades is required for an economical and effective junior college.

4. SMALL AND CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

The typical high school is a small school. More than a fourth of all high schools enroll fewer than 50 pupils. The median enrollment is slightly less than 100 pupils. The great number of such small schools is not the result of a conviction that small schools are desirable, but of the preference for small high schools rather than for no high school in those sections of the country where larger high schools are impossible, owing to the sparseness of population and the lack of good roads which can be kept open the year round.

In addition, the continuance of so many small schools may be attributed to certain other causes. Local pride often stands in the way of closing a small, inefficient, unattractive high school and providing transportation of pupils to a large school with better plant, staff, equipment, curriculum offerings, and social opportunities. Board members and merchants and some parents oppose the closing of the local school. It is not encouraging to note that also among the opponents of this form of improving educational opportunities for rural and village boys and girls, there often may be found principals and superintendents. The former would usually be compelled to seek

new positions, and the latter would have only an elementary school and in many cases a reduced salary. Usually, however, school administrators have either assisted in bringing about the improvement or at least have not opposed it. The movement toward consolidation was materially checked by the war because of the difficulty of obtaining new school busses.

Limitations of the Small School. There are many reasons why it is logical to conclude that the small high school is less effective than the larger school. Chief among these are the following:

1. The period of training of the teaching staff is on the average less than that of the teachers in larger schools.
2. Teachers in the smaller schools are less experienced and include a very small percentage of men teachers.
3. The teaching load of teachers in small schools is greater than that of teachers in larger schools as judged by
   a. The number of classes taught daily.
   b. The number of different daily preparations.
   c. The number of different subjects taught.
   d. The number of subjects taught in fields in which the teacher is poorly trained.
4. The plan and equipment are inferior.
   a. Gymnasiums and auditoriums are inadequate or lacking.
   b. Science, shop, and library equipment is inferior.
5. The curricular offerings are meager and afford less opportunity for exploration and for satisfying different pupil needs and interests, being confined largely to a nucleus of academic, college-preparatory subjects.
6. The opportunities for extra-curricular activities are more limited owing to lack of numbers of pupils and inadequacy of financial support.
7. The cost of instruction per pupil is greater than in larger schools.

In addition to these items, the general tone and dignity of the larger school are usually more desirable, as are the opportunities for the contacts which stimulate personal and social development.

The Consolidated School. Because of the recognition of the limitations of the smaller school, a very steady swing toward

replacing small schools with larger consolidated schools has been noticeable during the past three decades. With the continued development of good roads, which because of the almost universal use of the automobile has gone forward beyond the wildest dreams of the most hopeful "good roads" booster of a quarter of a century ago, the opportunities for consolidation have increased markedly.

Every principal or superintendent of schools in districts maintaining high schools of less than 50 or 60 pupils should carefully survey the possibilities of improving secondary education for the boys and girls of his district by means of consolidation with neighboring districts or high schools. To effect consolidation requires a very high type of leadership, since it runs so quickly afoul of local pride, intercommunity jealousies, and noneducational interests. Certainly no worthy administrator can discourage, much less oppose, a practical proposal for consolidation because of the possibility of his losing his position.

Transportation. As suggested in connection with the discussion of the junior high school as a possibility for the smaller community, in many small districts it is quite probable that the best interests of the pupils would be served by transporting them for one or more years to larger schools close by. In the latter schools they receive instruction in subjects which may not be economically offered in the local school.

5. SPECIALIZED AND COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOLS

Development of Specialized High Schools. With the development of large city school systems (especially as the great tide of increasing high-school enrollments set in after 1890) many city school systems, finding it necessary to maintain not one or two but several high schools, thought it desirable to designate one or more of these as special types of schools, emphasizing certain types of curricula and catering to the needs of specialized groups of students. Though the most prominent of

the early specialized institutions was the manual-training high school, others which came to be equally or more numerous are the high school of commerce, the high school of industrial arts for boys, the polytechnic high school, and the girls' high school, in which household arts and commercial courses were emphasized.

Only the larger city districts are large enough to make practical the establishment of such specialized high schools. To school officials of other districts the problem is one of academic interest only.

Arguments in Favor of the Comprehensive School. The tendency to establish specialized high schools has met with vigorous opposition. It is maintained that the establishment of these

1. Tends to break down the spirit and practice of democracy in American secondary education.
2. Tends to lessen the value of cultural training by concentrating on narrow, technical, bread-and-butter types of training.
3. Does not serve the needs of pupils as represented, because students usually attend the nearest high school without reference to its adaptability to their needs.
4. Develops economic class consciousness.
5. Emphasizes vocational education disproportionately and prepares more workers in certain vocational pursuits than industry and commerce will absorb.
6. Hastens a premature choice of vocation and the decision as to education beyond the high school.
7. Weakens the vocational departments in the comprehensive, general, or academic high schools

Claims Made in Favor of the Specialized High School. Very plausible arguments in favor of the specialized high school have also been advanced. Among them are the following:

1. Students electing vocational curricula in the comprehensive high schools become class conscious and are often discriminated against socially by students electing college-preparatory curricula.
2. Because the foregoing is true, many students elect general or college-preparatory curricula, though their real interests and needs demand vocational curricula.

3. The administration of most comprehensive schools is neither sympathetic toward programs of vocational education nor informed concerning them, and as a result the realization of most effective programs of vocational education is extremely difficult to achieve.

4. It is much easier to develop a desirable vocational morale in the specialized high school.

5. By concentrating vocational preparation for a city in specialized high schools, it is possible to provide adequate, if not exceptional, equipment and instruction, with less duplication and at not excessive cost.

While it is not possible to show which practice is preferable, the tendency toward the specialized high school has been checked somewhat in recent years. School officials should give the matter most careful study before committing themselves to a specialized high school. Not only is the practice a doubtful one, but, granting that it is desirable, the location of the specialized high school and the selection of the vocations in which instruction is to be given in the light of the probable absorption of those trained are problems which demand a most careful and painstaking survey by people well trained in the technique of that type of activity.

6. EXTENSION SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Various types of provision of secondary education for part-time students or at times other than in the regular academic school day and year have developed and continue to increase. School officials are confronted with the question of whether their particular school should make one or more such provisions: the evening or night high school, the summer high school, or the part-time high school.

The Summer High School. From time to time there has been discussion of the "year-round high school." In some cities a "summer" quarter has been established similar to that to be found in many universities. These have not been numerous, and in almost every instance have been abandoned in favor of a shorter term. The typical summer high school operates

from six to eight weeks. Studies by Bush and by Hoffman show that approximately half the cities of from 25,000 to 100,000 and approximately two thirds of the cities of over 100,000 population maintain one or more summer high schools. The attendance is never as great as in the regular academic term, but varies from 3 to 34 per cent of the regular enrollment, in a majority of schools ranging from 10 to 20 per cent.

Administrative Practices. Though administrative practices in summer high schools vary, the following appear to be representative:

1. *Offerings:* special courses for repeaters, special courses for bright students wishing to graduate in less than four years, sections of regular high-school courses, and special vocational courses.
2. *Hours in session:* four hours daily, five mornings a week.
3. *Number of subjects taken by each student:* two.
4. *Credits granted:* one semester credit for each course pursued at double normal rate for eight weeks.
5. *Staff:* regular staff of academic year.
6. *Length of class period:* 60 minutes or 90 minutes.

The Need for the Summer High School. In spite of the apparent logic of the argument for the year-round use of the school plant, the summer high school has not proved very popular, as shown by the percentages of pupils attending its session. Parents and pupils have come to think in terms of the school year of nine or ten months. The whole system of secondary-school credits and requirements for graduation and college entrance has been formalized on the basis of the nine or ten months' year. Children are reluctant to forego the summer vacation. Many parents and teachers believe not only that students who have enjoyed a summer vacation will accomplish better school work during the regular year but also that the summer vacation offers opportunity for experiences in nonschool activities which are truly educational and which cannot be duplicated in school. The belief is common also that the summer-school attendance is not conducive to the best health of the pupils.

Yet certain arguments favoring the summer school may be noted. A very great percentage of high-school pupils are not vocationally employed a large part of the summer. Child-labor laws, labor-union regulations, the development of industrial and commercial life in ways which place a premium upon maturity, and the development of machinery to perform simple mechanical labors formerly performed by children have materially lessened the opportunities for vacation employment. Again, the increased enrollment in high school of children of lower levels of ability is resulting in a high percentage of failures, necessitating extra attendance for repeaters, who, if they are to complete high school in the conventional four years, must make up the failed courses. In spite of the fact that summer sessions may not be expected to enroll more than 15 per cent or 20 per cent of the regular-term enrollment, the provision of summer classes for repeaters and ambitious students who would otherwise be idle is no doubt desirable, not only in large cities but in smaller ones as well. There is very little additional cost for housing. The additional salary earned by teachers in the summer schools contributes something to making teaching more than a seasonal occupation.

The Evening, or Night, High School. The evening, or night, school may be called a secondary school only by a liberal interpretation of the term. It is really, to a very large extent, a school for adults, comparable in that respect to the evening continuation schools or the evening folk high schools of certain European countries. The very large majority of students in most evening schools are beyond high-school age, and many of them are not interested in earning school credits. The courses of instruction are, in the main, not the typical secondary-school offerings, but are especially organized vocational or home-making subjects or courses in Americanization—the three R's and civics.

Instruction in such schools is usually given on three evenings a week. The instructors in academic, commercial, and household-arts courses are drawn largely from the faculties of the day schools, and instructors in other technical subjects are

often master workmen in the appropriate fields, especially in the vocational courses for adults in the larger cities. Little or no tuition is charged. The offerings include instruction in various academic and semi-academic subjects, in Americanization, and in various vocational fields, such as manual training, household arts, commercial subjects of a wide variety, plumbing, laundering, bookbinding, electrical science and arts, gas-engines and automobile-repairing, aëronautics, dressmaking, domestic science, millinery, telegraphy, mining, engineering, nursing, tin-sheet metal working, mechanical drawing, and architecture.

The Need for an Evening High School. Very logical arguments may be advanced against evening courses for young people of high-school age. Such schools assist boys and girls to rationalize unwisely their withdrawal from day high school. A relatively small percentage of younger students enrolling for such courses complete them, and a very small percentage continue year after year until graduated from high school. Few, indeed, possess the physical strength, intellectual alertness, and moral stamina to do satisfactory work in the evening following a full day of labor. The testimony of teachers in such schools is rather uniform in that the progress made in evening courses is, on the average, distinctly inferior to that made in the day-school courses. In this respect the evening school is unlike the summer school, concerning which instructors agree that progress made is quite comparable to that made in the regular term.

The evening school as a school for adults should be fostered. There is no good reason why formal public education should cease with the withdrawal from full-time attendance at elementary or secondary schools. Vocational instruction of many types can best be given only after definite vocational choice and experience have been attained. The decrease in the length of the working day is making adult education a possibility not previously existing. Certain progressive European countries have moved rapidly to make the most of the new opportunity; for example, the Danish folk high schools and the German eve-

ning adult schools. Adult education in this country is a rapidly growing concept and movement. Until it has developed into a separate division of public education, it will be a ward of the administration of the high schools.

Part-Time Secondary Education. Educational practice in the United States has until recently been unique in that pupils attend either for full time or not at all. Continuation—or part-time—education in this country is yet in its infancy, is not widespread, and, it is to be hoped, is far from final in organization and administration. No sound reason has been advanced for our "all or none" practice. In fact, cogent arguments may be readily advanced in favor of continued part-time attendance by a far greater number of students than those who go through high school, and of curtailing the sweeping annual increase of full-time high-school students. Some of these may be summarized here:

1. It is desirable to present to young people, before they sever their contacts with public education, many things which may not be well taught before the age at which the majority of children usually withdraw from school. In fact, one of the problems of curriculum construction in the junior high school and the early part of the senior high school is the determination of what subject matter may be taught in these grades which would not be better taught in more advanced grades. Children in these grades are too immature to assimilate much material it would be desirable for them to study in the fields of American history, elementary economics, civics, sociology, and business practice. Vocational education is not completely practical, since few students have been able to make any vocational decisions, and, were that not true, they would be too young to enter employment in the vocation studied upon completion of any reasonably short vocational courses.

2. Children at these ages are not able to see the significance and the value of studying many of the things which could be taught to them much more effectively when the pupils are approaching adult responsibilities.

3. There are many evidences of the need for continued guidance—vocational, moral, civic, and domestic—for young men and women beyond the age at which most children withdraw from school. Aside from the educational progress resulting directly from the formal class-

work, the value of continued contacts with the school and its wholesome influence, with teachers and principals, with fellow students and student activities, is not to be minimized. Considered as an experiment in the prevention of social waste and as a substitute for the institutions of punishment into which an alarmingly increasing percentage of young people are drifting, part-time continuation education until the ages of eighteen and nineteen seems an inviting enterprise. The opportunities for vocational guidance in full-time junior or senior high school seem relatively small when they are compared with those of school departments of young people continuing school contacts through the first few years of vocational life. It seems quite reasonable that it is desirable for the school to maintain its contacts with all young people until they are safely settled and adjusted in the out-of-school world.

7. WORK-STUDY PLANS

"Coöperative," or "Distributed Occupations," Programs. Increasing recognition of the fallacy of the "all or none" practice with respect to school attendance and increasing recognition of the educational value of purposeful adult-world work in the environment of growing young people and of the fact of the disappearance of opportunities for work-experience have combined to bring about a very great and nation-wide extension of work-study programs. In nine Southern states, the number of schools in which "Coöperative," or "Distributed Occupations," programs are to be found more than quadrupled in the period between 1935 and 1938 and without doubt has more than doubled again since that time.[1]

Important features of better types of "Coöperative," or "Distributed Occupations," programs are

1. Approximately one third of the youth's day (when not asleep) is spent at work, one third in study, and one third in play and personal activities. In some instances, one youngster of a pair is on a job one week and at school the next week, the other youngster alternating.

[1]Harl R. Douglass and Alonzo D. Kornegay, "Diversified Occupation Plans in the Schools of the Southeast," *The High School Journal* (April, 1941), Vol. XXIV, pp. 177–183.

2. There is a four-sided agreement between employer, student, school, and parent.

3. The student is given opportunities to learn the job or business, as well as to work at it.

4. The student is paid a wage slightly less than the prevailing rate of pay for such work in the community.

5. The student is as responsible in every way as if he had been employed in the conventional out-of-school manner.

6. The school provides supervision of both student and employer, guiding the student toward the best attitude toward his work and employer, rating the student, and guiding the employer away from the exploitation of his apprentice.

7. The parent understands and approves the whole arrangement, is kept informed by the school's coördinator, and is urged to assist the coördinator in developing good work attitudes on the part of the student.

8. The student's educational program is not entirely directly related to his work but includes education for citizenship, in science, and probably in English and mathematics, at least in some years.

9. The student carries three subjects at school and is graduated in five years, or in four years if the school is large enough to provide instruction twelve months in the year.

Fields of Occupational Experience. Douglass and Kornegay found that in 173 schools in the nine Southeastern states studied, the following occupations were represented in the programs in four or more schools: retail selling, auto mechanics, radio repair, electrician, printing, general office work, grocery business, practical nursing, beauty culture, machinist, secretary, service-station operation, undertaking and embalming, textiles, dentistry, meat-cutting, body-repair pharmacy, department-store work, banking, carpenter, dry cleaning, theater work, dry-goods dealer, cabinetmaking, movie projection, library work, stenographic work, bookkeeping, plumbing, mechanical welding, window-decorator, hardware work, stock work, general newspaper work, wholesale dealer, shoe repair, men's clothing salesman, variety-store operation, electrical repair, baking, drafting, photography, refrigerator dealer, newsreporter, shipping clerk, auto-accessories dealer, sheet-metal

work, show-card making, florist, telephone-operator, restaurant work, radio broadcasting, radio-station technician, architect drafting, ladies' ready-to-wear dealer, insurance salesman.

Altogether, 193 different occupations were represented in the 173 schools. Grouped into broad classifications, they fell largely into the following types of occupations:

1. Retail selling
2. Mechanical, building, and electrical trades
3. Industries and factories
4. Assisting in personal service—nursing, beauty culture
5. Wholesale businesses
6. Bookkeeping, typing, secretarial work—stores, banks, etc.
7. Assistants to professional men—doctors, dentists, etc.
8. Printing and newspaper work

The Coördinator. In very small schools, that is, those with fewer than 100 students, the superintendent is usually the coordinator, as is the principal or superintendent in schools of from 100 to 200 students. In schools with more than 250 to 500 students, a teacher of vocational subjects or the director of guidance (in some instances, an athletic coach) should have half of his school day allotted to the work of coördination, supervision, and conference. As the size of the school and the number of students involved in the program increase, the amount of time given to work as coördinator should increase, so that in schools of more than 1000 students at least one coordinator should give full time to the work, or two part-time coördinators, one man and one woman, should each give at least half time.

During periods of man-power shortage, as during war or in boom times, the opportunities for establishing work-study programs are more favorable and should be developed energetically.

The Responsibility of Planning Secondary-School Organization. The problem of planning the most effective organization of secondary-education units for a given community is not as simple as it once was. There are hundreds of districts in which

the "high school" is the conventional four-year, full-time school for no reason other than the fact that it was established when it was the universal type of institution, and the issue has never been raised as to whether the interests of the community might not be better served by a reorganization or extensions involving other types of schools. Those responsible for the organization of secondary education should acquaint themselves with the different types of secondary schools and should attempt to approach the study of the local needs of their districts with a perspective not warped by tradition and the prevailing type of organization.

Problems and Exercises

1. Summarize the results of investigations of the extent to which the junior high school is achieving the advantages claimed for it.

2. Select a county with which you are familiar, and on a map of that county show where junior and senior high schools should probably be located.

3. Select a city or village district with which you are familiar and show what housing changes would enable the schools to be organized on the 6–3–3, 6–6, or 6–4–4 plan.

4. Outline briefly a plan for educating the teaching staff and the community to the junior-high-school idea.

5. Survey a selected city as the possible location for a junior college, taking into consideration the criteria mentioned in the text.

6. After reviewing the arguments, do you favor specialized schools or comprehensive high schools in large cities? Why?

7. Obtain data from some summer high school and compare with the summary of representative practices given in the text.

8. Outline a plan for an evening high school for a city with which you are familiar, making suggestions as to curricula, time and length of sessions, selection and payment of staff, and recruiting of students.

9. Prepare a paper of 500 words on "The Future of Part-Time Secondary Education in the United States."

10. Prepare a list of the limitations and advantages of coöperative (or part-time) high schools.

11. Prepare a list of the limitations of small high schools.

12. When does a high school become too large, if ever? Give reasons.

II

Housing the High School

1. DETERMINING HOUSING NEEDS

The Problem of Planning High-School Housing. The effective housing of a modern high school has become a complicated problem. Because of the complex nature of the program of studies offered in the high school of today, the planning of a modern high-school building presents to the principal, superintendent, and architect a task much more involved than was the case a few decades ago. It is much more than a question of so many standard classrooms, an assembly room, a principal's office, and heating and toilet facilities. The modern secondary-school building includes auditoriums, study halls, libraries, gymnasiums, administrative offices, and special rooms and arrangements for instruction in science, sewing, cooking, typewriting, manual and industrial arts of various kinds, and physical education.

The planning of these units and their location within the building to conform best to the educational program of the particular school and its future needs constitutes more than a problem of architecture. The coöperative services of an architect and someone in close touch with the educational program and needs of the school are required.

There are three types of situations requiring the erection of a high-school building or an addition to one already in use. They are (1) newly organized districts with no housing for their high schools, (2) districts in which the high-school buildings have become unsafe or unfitted for high-school purposes, and (3) districts in which the high-school building is overcrowded. In each instance a careful survey of the needs for housing should be conducted.

Estimating the Prospective High-School Population for Schools just being Established.[1] For the district in which no high school has been previously maintained, the survey is more difficult

[1]Most properly this should be done as a part of a unified building-program study for the entire school system.

than in the second and third situations. There are less reliable data available. It must be determined how many students will attend the new high school and how this number will increase within the next few years. Three classes of students must be included in the calculation: those residing in the district who have been attending high school in other districts; those who have not been attending high school, but who would attend if there were one in the district, and those who would attend from neighboring districts. Ordinarily data concerning the first group are available from the records of the superintendent or school clerk or from those of the county superintendent of schools. Data regarding the second group must, under any circumstances, be merely guesses. Estimates of numbers of pupils falling in the third group depend upon the laws and regulations obtaining in the state with respect to the tuition and transportation of nonresident students. In states where districts that do not maintain high schools contract with others that do for the tuition of students residing within the district who wish to attend high school, estimates may be obtained from contracting boards of education of the neighboring districts. In states in which nonresident high-school students individually select the school they attend, serviceable estimates may be made based upon the interviews with students and school officials of the neighboring districts. Districts not previously maintaining high schools are usually units with relatively small high-school populations, ordinarily not over 100, and these estimates may be made fairly accurately and without excessive expenditure of effort and time.

In districts where a high school has been maintained but where the building is no longer safe, is overcrowded, or cannot be adapted to the educational program (that is, in which new housing is needed), the prediction may be made with more accuracy. The enrollments of the school for years past should be available and estimates based on these may be made.

Estimating the Increase in High-School Enrollment. In planning school buildings allowance for increase in enrollments in future years must be made. This may be based upon the

estimated increase in population in the district within recent years, and it will be influenced by prospects for greater or less increase in years to come. Some allowance must be made also for increases in the percentage of population attending high school, which may be counted on to increase slowly but surely. If the district happens to be a city district, certain of the methods described in the following paragraphs may be useful.

Estimates of increase in population within the next few years often may be obtained from the research department of public-utility corporations, such as telephone, gas, water, light, and power companies. An estimate based upon all such data available should be utilized. The increase in high-school enrollment may be calculated from the increase in population by employment of the ratio of high-school enrollment to population at present, allowing for a slight increase in the percentage of population attending high school in the years covered by the prediction.

The predicted future high-school population may be modified, as may seem necessary, to conform to influences which seem most reasonable in the community; for example, the closing of mills or industries, the recent location of new shops or industries, the imminent establishment of high schools in neighboring districts, or a change in the nature of the population. A more detailed discussion of the methods employed to forecast future high-school enrollment for a given district is not appropriate here.

Estimating and Utilizing the Capacity of Present Housing. In determining the extent of the need for additional housing, consideration must be given to the extent to which present facilities are being employed to maximum capacity with educational efficiency. The writer, together with a colleague, was recently asked to make a building and a financial survey of a small-town district maintaining a high school of about 325 students. The principal and the superintendent reported the building to be crowded and exhibited such evidence as French classes being conducted in a physics laboratory, and a small

Latin class in the library. Upon investigation it was found that the building should house approximately 400 students with little crowding or danger to instructional efficiency. The sources of waste were found to be as follows:

1. Small classes because of semi-annual promotions—midyear classes.
2. Small classes in advanced years of instruction in foreign languages.
3. The failure to offer certain subjects only in alternate years.
4. The use of the large cooking laboratory for but two periods during the day, for one class of seven students.
5. The use of a large sewing room for but two periods a day.
6. The organization of the school day on a seven-period basis, requiring approximately 15 per cent more classrooms than if an eight-period basis were used.

In view of the fact that housing is an important item in high-school costs, being usually from 30 per cent to 35 per cent of the total cost, it is not only ethical but an evidence of good management to utilize available facilities to the maximum consistent with instructional efficiency before urging additional housing. Lewis, Engelhardt and Steel, and Morphet have shown that the percentage of utilization of many buildings is fairly low, and they furnish techniques for measuring the percentage of utilization.

Estimating the Housing required for Given School Enrollments. To determine the room required to house a high school of more than 500 or 600 students, Packer's room formula may be used to advantage. Adjusted to a weekly basis, the formula is as follows:

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

Calculations should be made separately for different types of rooms. Classes in a number of subjects (for example, English, mathematics, history and social studies, and foreign

ment, which should be taken into consideration when the building is being planned. Built-in electrical conduits, gas and water leads, and waste channels in the floor and walls are more economical and forestall unattractive installations as afterthoughts. With these things in mind the principal should seek the advice and assistance of his department heads and teachers, who should be asked to make thorough investigations of their respective problems; especially in the smaller schools the principal should seek advice and suggestions, as well as assistance in checking plans, from qualified teachers or experts in these fields outside his own school.

3. PROVISIONS FOR NON-INSTRUCTIONAL SPACE

Administrative Offices. With the development of the high-school principalship, the expansion of his responsibilities, and the development of programs of guidance and activities, the planning of administrative offices has come to receive much greater attention than formerly. A popular and useful plan provides for a central office and waiting room divided by a counter, with a private office on either side to be occupied by superintendent and principal, principal and vice principal, or principal and teachers, or special supervisors. A lavatory and a built-in fireproof safe for records and valuables are essential features.

The administrative suite in all larger schools should include an office for student officers and committees. This room should adjoin the principal's office. One room may be so planned as to serve such a purpose and also as a "board of education" meeting room. The effectiveness of high-school administration is influenced to an appreciable degree by the convenience and dignity of the administrative offices. Economies should be made in other directions—in white-stone trimming, in elaborate fire walls, and even in the size of the auditorium—before being practiced in connection with administrative offices.[1]

[1]A more detailed discussion of the principal's office and equipment is given in Chapter XV.

The Lunch Room. Recently constructed high-school buildings provide much more convenient and attractive lunch rooms than formerly were considered necessary. More and more children are eating their lunches at school, and the lunch room or cafeteria in a high school of any size is a necessity. For convenience of service, maximum safety, economy in plumbing, and the avoidance of congestion during the lunch hour, as well as for the utilization of space not adapted to instructional purposes, the lunch room may be assigned to the ground floor. In small schools, as a means of economizing in equipment, it may be best to have the lunch room combined with the food laboratory or located adjacent to it. It should be so planned as to be of ample size and to be attractive. School children should have a place in which to eat their lunches in comfort and some privacy, if they so desire. One or more small dining alcoves found in many schools are useful for meetings of committees of faculty and of pupils.

Teachers' Rooms. If boards of education and school patrons could be brought to appreciate the value of such provisions in terms of increased efficiency of the teaching staff, office space and desk and filing equipment would be provided for every teacher. Economy of building space forbids the exclusive assignment of a room to each teacher as combination office and classroom, desirable as that practice is for some reasons. In lieu of that, office space where each teacher may work effectively should be available. Since the teacher is engaged in the classroom approximately two thirds of the time spent in school, several teachers may be assigned to the same office and even to the same desk if adequate drawer and filing space is available. In larger schools a number of small offices for teachers should be provided—probably one for every half-dozen teachers—and should be assigned by departments. In small schools one such room for men teachers and one for women teachers, or in small schools one for all teachers, will suffice.

In addition there should be in the larger school one or more teachers' rooms for each sex, and in the smallest schools, one for both sexes for committee meetings or for conversation and

relaxation at odd times during the day. Many schools have made this provision; and teachers are almost unanimous in their approval of it, both as a convenience and as a device for promoting teaching efficiency. The teachers' offices may, with this provision, be kept places of quiet for work which demands concentration.

The Janitor's Room. Every building should provide a room for the janitorial employees, the desirable size of such a room depending upon the number of such employees In addition to a small workshop and receiving room, the room should provide a lavatory, a convenient place for changing from street clothes to work clothes, and lockers for the safekeeping of clothes and personal effects. Since the janitor's room is most likely to be located in the basement, an effort should be made to compensate for its location by making it otherwise attractive. It should be provided with at least a buzzer, preferably a telephone or a speaking tube, connected with the administrative offices.

Corridors and Stairways. Corridors should be so planned as to provide ample room for traffic in both directions, with no wasted space. This means corridors of varying widths. Those which will serve as main thoroughfares should be wider, from ten to fourteen feet, depending upon the size of the school; those in remote wings of the buildings and on upper floors may be from eight to ten feet. If any economy in construction may thereby be effected, the corridors on the upper floors may well be narrower than those on the lower floors. If corridors are flanked on both sides by rooms,—that is, if they are closed corridors,—they should be open at both ends, and provisions be made for "borrowed" light by means of windows along the top of the partitions separating the classrooms from the corridors. Recesses for the placement of sculptural decora[illegible], and and slots near the ceiling for hanging pictures should rooms. vided, at least in the main corridors. Drinking f[illegible]k days should be recessed and so located as to be convenie[illegible]s are not resulting in unnecessarily congested hallway traff[illegible] cellent location for a fountain is at the outside [illegible]uld be fire- corridor turn. [illegible]crete—and

Stairways, which for the sake of safety should be in two runs, should be located close to exits so as to minimize hall traffic. Sloping runways as a substitute for stairways add little if anything to safety and definitely affect the problem of orderly passing of pupils. The width of stairways need not be over five feet—enough to accommodate two rows of students easily. More stairways, rather than greater width, should be provided, both for the purpose of safety and for simplifying the problems of management of traffic. Stairways and corridors should only in very small buildings exceed 20 per cent of the floor space.

4. MISCELLANEOUS FEATURES

Lockers and Coatrooms. The problem of storage and the safekeeping of the wraps, hats, caps, books, and supplies of high-school pupils, like many other problems of high-school management, seems never to come to a final solution. Thefts, real and imagined, cause high-school principals and parents many irritating moments. Among the plans and provisions found to be successful in a number of schools are the following:

1. *The Coatroom.* The coatroom may be an ordinary unused classroom or, better still, a room of any shape which, because of lack of sufficient light or proper proportions, is not suitable as a classroom, and in which are placed small lockers and racks and hooks. Provision is made for locking the room immediately after the convening of first-period classes and unlocking it just before dismissal of the last-period classes at noon and in the afternoon. Pupils needing their coats, wraps, or hats at other times are accompanied to the room by an attendant from the office. Books are either carried by the student in a book bag or a portfolio or are placed in small drawer lockers pro- by the school.

e *Large-locker Plan.* More expensive but more desirable is sion of large lockers 12 by 12 by 72 inches with a shelf for hat for each student, in which may be stored all wraps, oks when not in use. These lockers should be built into the halls, rather than placed in rows in a room. Less med and supervision is facilitated. Although the plac-

ing of lockers along the walls requires little more space and is only slightly less expensive, it is considerably less attractive. If lockers are so placed, those with a slanting top, making storage on top of them impossible, should be purchased. Care should be taken to distribute the lockers in such a way as not to produce congestion. Double tiers of lockers are not preferable to wider distribution, even if it is necessary to place lockers on the upper floors for some pupils. Experience has shown that the purchase of combination locks which can be reset (that is, the combination changed) readily will eliminate much waste of time on the part of both pupil and office assistants resulting from loss or misplacement of keys. If locks are to be used, standard high-grade locks should be furnished by the school so that but one pupil will possess a key for each lock and that there will be in the possession of the principal one or more master keys to all lockers.

Hygienic Features. Since hygienic and safety features of high-school buildings differ but slightly from those of school buildings in general, little reference will be made to them here. As far as possible, lighting should be provided from one side and the windows should be banked closely together toward the back of the room, extending to within a foot of the ceiling. Window space amounting to not less than 20 per cent (preferably 25 per cent) of the area of floor space should be provided in all classrooms. Means of heating and ventilation may be left to the wisdom of competent architects. Automatic control of a high-grade type is extremely desirable and possible for all buildings. In warm climates a combination heating and ventilating system of the plenum type is most satisfactory; in cold climates direct radiation in the room is almost necessary. Whatever type of heating is installed, as a matter of economy provision should be made for heating the auditorium, the gymnasium, the administrative and teachers' offices, and possibly the library, separately without heating the classrooms. Electric lighting should be provided for use on very dark days and in the evening. Built-in vacuum-cleaning systems are not essential to easy, economical, or sanitary cleaning.

Safety Features. All stairways and corridors should be fireproof—constructed of steel frame or reënforced concrete—and

fireproofed from the remainder of the building, as should the heating plant, unless it is housed separately. Panic bolts should be employed on all outside doors and on those of the auditorium and gymnasium. All doors should swing outward. Stairways and corridors should be provided in sufficient number to permit the maximum capacity of the building to make an exit in not more than three minutes in an orderly walk. No dead-end corridors of any length should be included, and no doors at the end of any corridor should be capable of being locked in such a way as to prevent ready exit from the building at any time. Fire escapes should be made unnecessary by adequate provision for stairways, which should be flanked on both sides by hand rails. Risers should not be more than approximately from 6 to 7 inches in height, and treads should be from 10 to 11 inches in width. Stairways should be located close to exits and should lead directly to them. Space under stairways should not be used for closets. In additions, as well as in new buildings, changes in floor levels requiring steps in corridors should be avoided. Fire hose with sufficiently large water leads should be located on each floor of the building, and in large buildings, at more than one place on each floor. Steam and hot-water boilers should be installed and should be so equipped as to cause the least possible risk from explosion. Useful rules and suggestions on this point may be obtained from the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, 29 West 39th Street, New York City.

Fire-alarm systems should be provided for, involving gongs which can be heard in every room in the building. In large high schools in which no telephone system is installed, alarm boxes with glass cases should be distributed throughout the building. Fire hose should be planned for and recesses for fire-extinguishers should be provided.

Interior Finish and Flooring. If wainscoting is not employed in corridors and classrooms, the lower part of the walls up to 36 inches above the floor should be a darker hue than the remainder of the walls, or all the wall should be tinted gray or buff. A smooth, white wall, particularly the lower part, is

certain to become discolored after a few months of occupancy. An alternative plan is to treat the walls with a material which permits washing. Battleship linoleum laid over a good wood floor should be provided wherever possible. If it is of good quality and properly laid, it will outlast oak or maple. Where linoleum is used a cheaper wood may be employed as a base. As a sanitary floor it is distinctly superior. Its outstanding quality lies in the atmosphere of quiet and study that it gives to the entire building. In any event it should be laid in the library, halls, and study halls.

Special High-School Equipment. Certain equipment peculiarly essential to the most effective management of a high school should be planned before the building plans are made, since in many instances conduits or other accessories may be most satisfactorily and economically laid in while the building is being constructed. Among these is the master clock and program system, which should be automatic and capable of carrying more than one program. It should control the clocks in the auditorium, library, and study halls. Either lights or small buzzers connected with the program clock should be located in each room in the building, including toilet rooms, or bells should be located at strategic points so that they may be heard through the building.

Many high-school buildings recently constructed contain local telephone systems. These save much time spent in traveling about the building with necessary messages to teachers and pupils. They also permit teachers to report promptly to the central office information which should come to the immediate attention of the principal or the janitor. In new buildings of some size wiring for such a system should be placed in the walls for future installation if desired; one telephone should be placed on each floor of small buildings, and several telephones should be properly distributed on each floor in large buildings.

High-School Seating. A problem closely associated with that of high-school housing is that of the provision of seating for the various rooms. Various types of seating for classrooms and

other units are recommended by one or more students of high-school administration and teaching methods.

What constitutes the most desirable type of seating for classroom depends upon the spirit and method of classroom teaching. Socialized class discussions are best carried on in rooms furnished with movable chairs with tablet arms or shelves; laboratory and project teaching of several types place a premium upon group-work tables and movable chairs. When the traditional recitation method is employed, the fixed individual desk and seat possess the advantage of always being placed in order and of eliminating much of the "disciplining" necessary when movable chairs are employed. Perhaps in schools of medium and larger size two or three types of seating facilities should be provided for, thus permitting teachers and classes to be assigned to rooms in which the type of seating is adapted to the spirit and method of instruction.

In high schools different pupils occupy the desks at different periods in the day; hence adjustable chairs or desks do not seem sufficiently desirable in high schools to warrant their additional cost. In six-year high schools desks of two sizes will permit the adaptation of seating to the wide variations in height among the heterogeneous student body.

In auditoriums which are not to be used as study halls or gymnasiums, the rows of auditorium chairs similar to the less expensive ones found in moving-picture theaters are most satisfactory. Certain makes of these are so constructed as to be readily fitted with tablet arms which may be folded down and out of the way when not in use. The placing of these on every other chair in the best-lighted section of the auditorium is useful in schools forced to use the auditorium for study-hall purposes. A type of convertible chair-desk very well adapted for this purpose has been briefly described elsewhere in this chapter.

It is impossible to obtain agreement upon what constitutes the best type of seating in libraries. The use of small tables, usually 3 by 5 feet, and ordinary chairs to seat six pupils to a unit is most widely suggested. In a great many school libraries

ordinary school desks may be found. No pupil is then required to face the light, and order is more easily maintained. In a number of schools tables approximately 2½ by 10 feet, seating eight pupils—four on each side and none at the ends—are used and are found very satisfactory. The tables are placed so that no student faces the light. This placement of tables in rows of two each, end to end, in a room 28 feet in width enables the ready passage to and from the entrances to the room.

Furnishing and Equipment. For the best varieties of furniture and seating for science laboratories, shops, kitchens, commercial rooms, and special rooms reference should be made to articles, bulletins, or books treating the topic in detail, a number of which are mentioned in the bibliography near the end of this volume. In view of the results of recent experimentation upon the relative merits of individual laboratory instruction and demonstration or group laboratory methods, administrators should be conservative in expending large sums of money for duplicates of expensive laboratory apparatus.

The superintendent, principal, supervisor, or teacher responsible for suggestions in connection with the planning of new buildings, alterations, or additions, or for the purchase of furniture or other equipment, should study the recent issues of journals specializing in school building and equipment.

Problems and Exercises

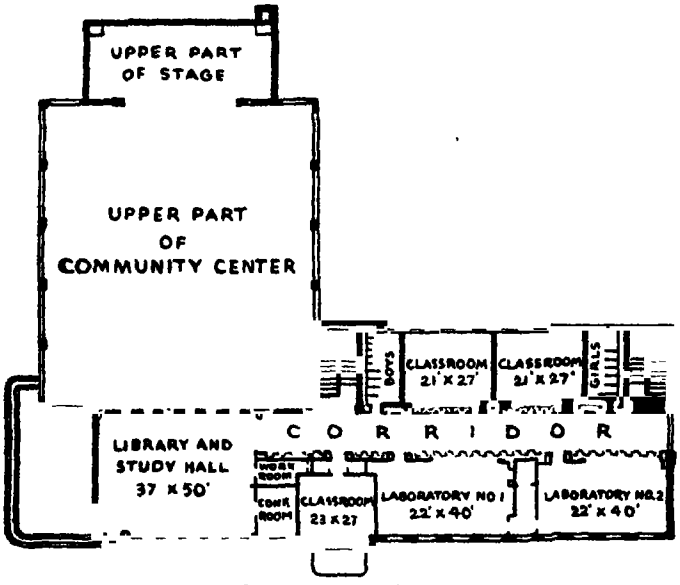
1. Obtain the needed data from some high-school district and list the room requirements of the school.

2. Obtain a schedule of some high school, data on enrollment in each class section, and a list with dimensions of the different types of rooms. From these estimate the extent to which the building is utilized.

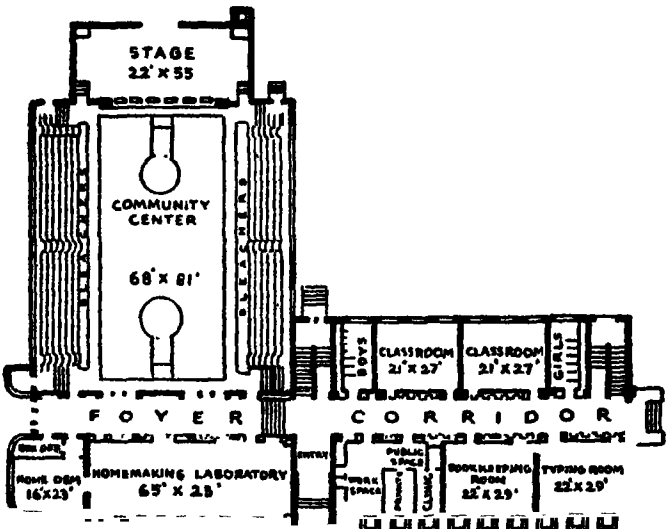
3. Visit some high school in the vicinity and evaluate its location and site on the basis of the points discussed in this chapter.

4. From plans published in several issues of the *American School Board Journal* note the locations of various types of housing space.

5. Visit some high-school building and check up on the items suggested as desirable for classrooms.



SECOND-FLOOR PLAN

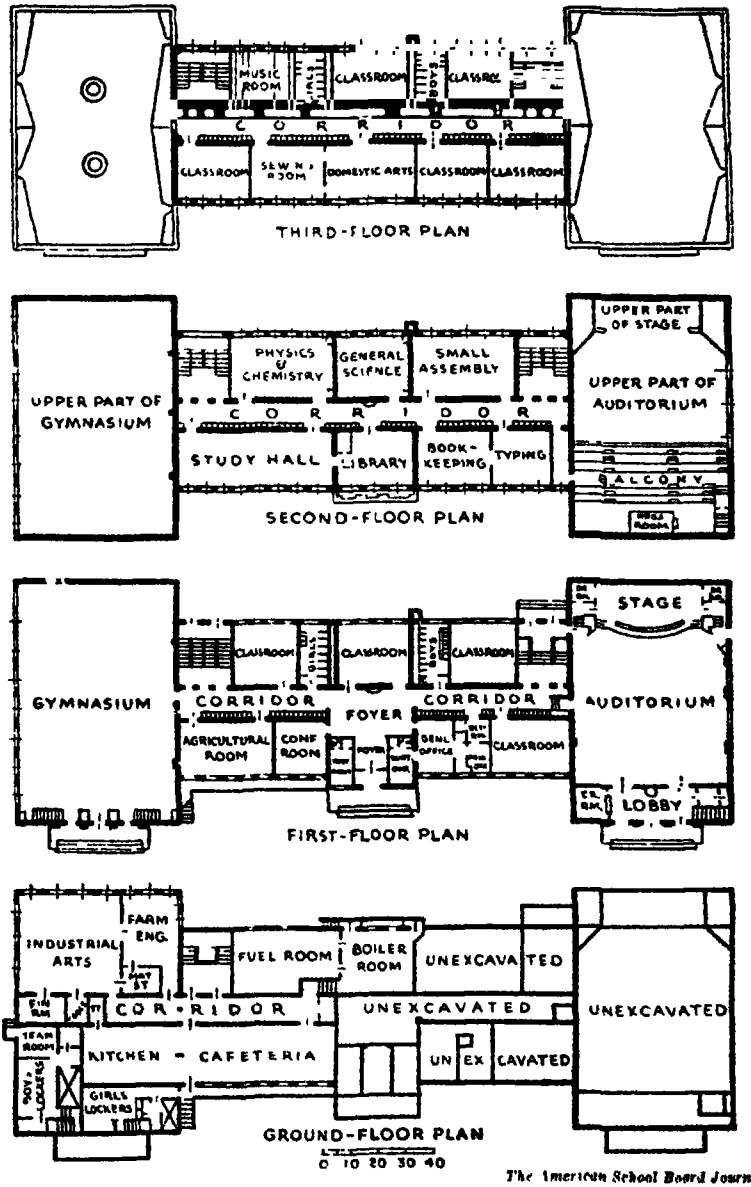


FIRST-FLOOR PLAN

The American School Board Journal

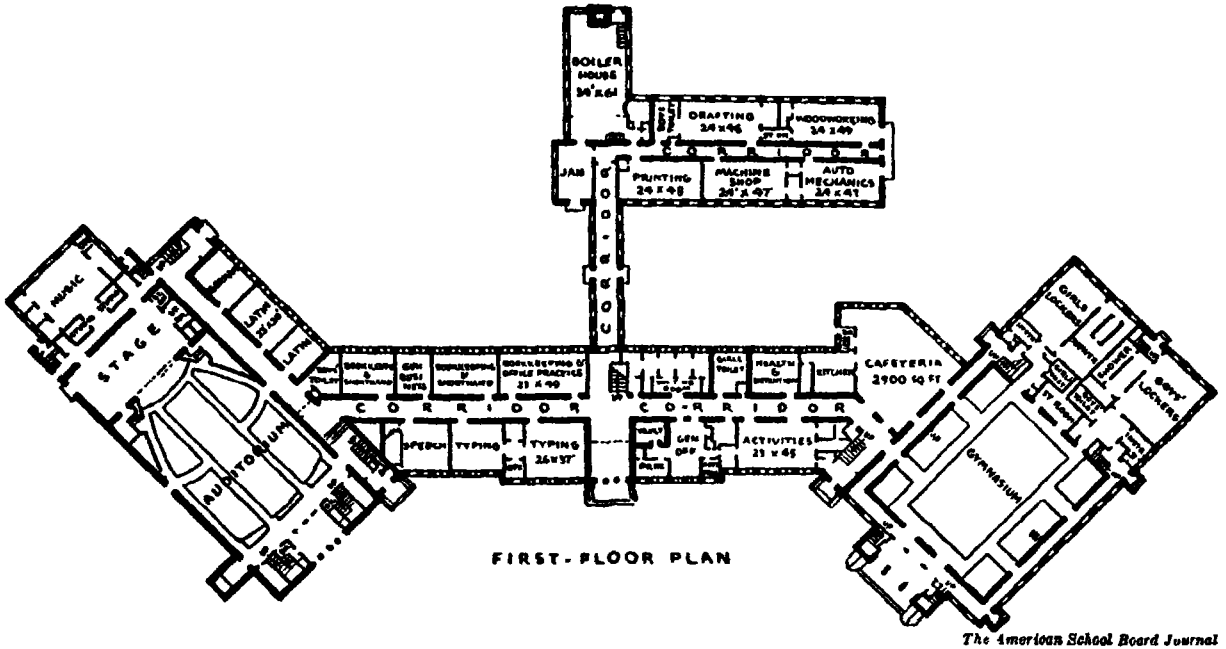
Washington Community High School, Washington, Illinois

Housing the High School



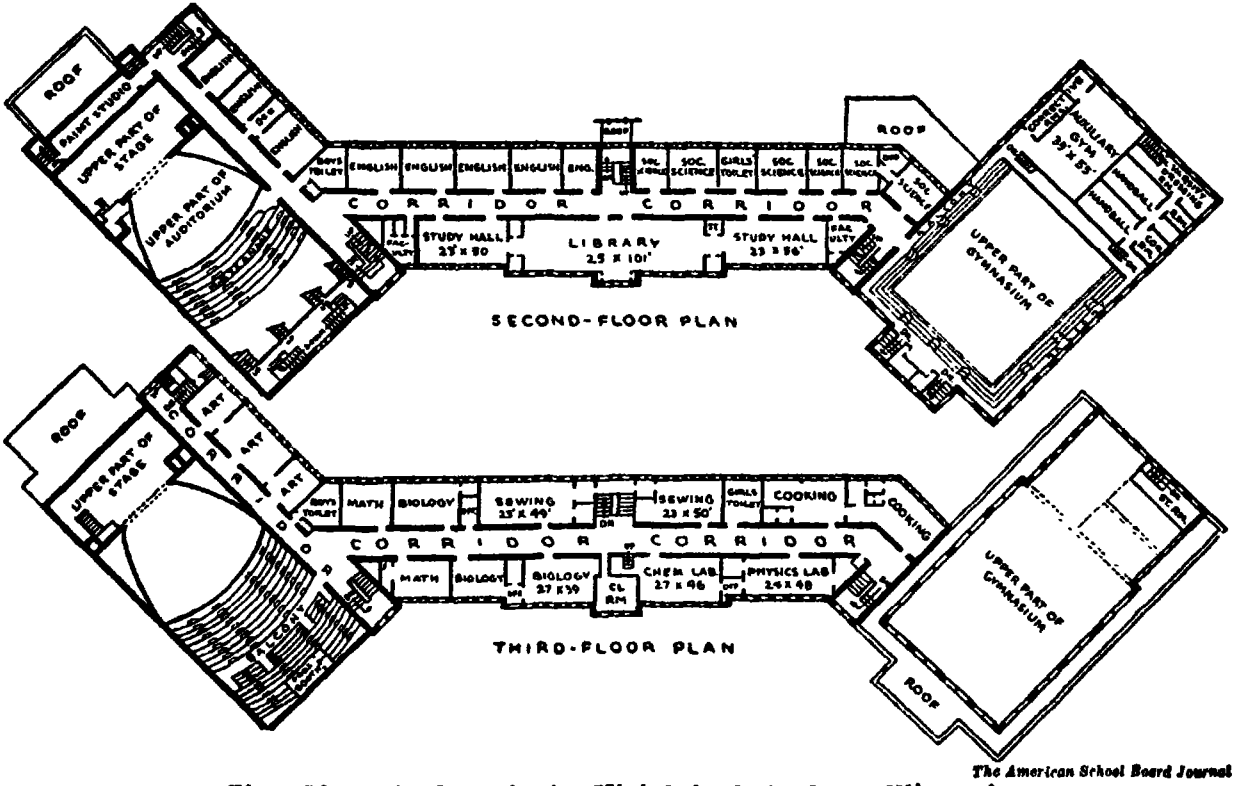
The American School Board Journal

Floor Plans, Hillsboro Junior-Senior High School, Hillsboro, Ohio



The American School Board Journal

Floor Plans, Appleton Senior High School, Appleton, Wisconsin



The American School Board Journal

Floor Plans, Appleton Senior High School, Appleton, Wisconsin

6. From plans published in the *American School Board Journal* or the *Nation's Schools* check the seating capacity of the library in several buildings in terms of the probable enrollment housed in the buildings.

7. Note in several floor plans the arrangement of auditoriums and gymnasiums.

8. Draw for a school of given size floor plans for the administrative offices.

9. In some high-school building which you can visit check the defects in halls and stairways.

10. Study the advertisements of companies handling different types of lockers and decide upon a type you would recommend.

11. Make a list of all the building standards you can think of relating to health and safety.

12. Study the advertisements of companies selling seating suitable for high schools. Classify a number of variety of seats and desks as to types and list the advantages and limitations of each type.

13. Select one type of special room (for example, the physics laboratory) and plan a layout of built-in conveniences, cabinets, fixtures, and furniture.

14. For a given high-school district of your selection think through the way in which you would proceed to estimate the high-school enrollment for the next ten years, noting the various types of data that you would probably be able to employ.

15. Draw a rough sketch of the floor plans of (*a*) a rural six-year high school for 250 students; (*b*) a four-year high school of 350 students; (*c*) a junior high school of 500 students.

III

Organizing the Curriculum

1. THE PROBLEM OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

Location of Authority for Curriculum Construction. The ultimate legal authority for determining what subjects shall be taught in the schools and how they shall be organized lies with the legislatures of the various states, it being one of those powers not expressly allotted to the Federal government and therefore reserved to the states. In some instances the state legislature has exercised that authority directly. In a number of states laws have been passed requiring instruction in certain subjects in the high school, for example, in physical education and in the history of the United States. In many states powers have been delegated to the state superintendent or to the department of public instruction. Under such provisions departments of education have issued state courses of study and have set up requirements in the way of subjects which may or must be offered and of subjects the completion of which is required for graduation from public high schools of the state. In a number of states approval for state aid or approval for recognition as accredited schools is contingent upon meeting such curriculum requirements.

For the very large part, however, the authority for selecting and organizing the materials of instruction is delegated to local boards of education. Boards of education in turn, by express resolution or by convention, have transferred the initiative for developing courses of study and arranging programs of studies and curricula to their professional executive officers, the superintendents and principals of the schools, reserving to themselves the prerogative of review and final approval or rejection of the recommendations.

The Two Phases of Curriculum Construction and Organization. There are two rather distinct phases of the task of selecting and arranging materials of instruction: first, the selection and

arrangement of subjects within curricula, or curricula organization; second, the selection and arrangement of materials within the course of study of a subject, or course-of-study construction.

The details of practice in course-of-study construction belonging, as they do, in a discussion of the supervision of instruction, will not be discussed further in this volume. The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to the modern principles and practices of curricula organization.

Curriculum Terminology. Before taking up the discussion of curricula organization, it will be useful to assign definite meanings to certain terms to be employed. Confusion has resulted in discussions of curriculum and course-of-study construction because of the looseness with which the terms involved have been used.

Program of Studies. The list by years of all high-school courses of instruction (for example, physics and algebra) offered for study in a given school without reference to grouping into curricula.

Curriculum. The systematic arrangement of a number of courses into a unit group for differentiated groups of pupils; for example, the college-preparatory and the stenographic curricula.

Course of Study. The arrangement of the detailed materials of instruction within a given unit of a subject: for example, the course of study in first-semester or in first-year algebra.

Schedule of Classes. A time schedule of all sections of pupils organized as units of instruction, showing the days, hours, and place of meeting and usually the names of the instructors.

Constant. A course which is required of all pupils no matter what curriculum is elected.

Variable or Curriculum Prescription Constant. A course not required of all pupils in the school, but required of all pupils in a given curriculum; for example, algebra in the college-preparatory curriculum.

Limited Elective. Any one of two or more subjects, not all of which are required of all pupils of the school or of a given curriculum, but one of which must be elected by the pupil.

Free Elective. A subject not required of a pupil in the curriculum which he is following.

School Subject. Any one of the organized bodies of subject matter for instruction; for example, history, typewriting.

Class Period. The time spent in one meeting of a class section for instruction; for example, a forty-five-minute period.

Subject Class or Section. A group of pupils meeting regularly as a unit for instruction.

School Class or Grade. The pupils of a given stage of advancement toward graduation; for example, the senior class, the 10A class, or the low-ninth group.

Mark (not grade). The teacher's estimate of the progress or quality of the work of the pupil.

Year Unit of Credit. The credit allowed toward graduation for the successful completion of the course of study for a subject in which the section meets throughout the school year five periods a week of from 40 to 60 minutes, with outside preparation.

Integrated Curriculum. A curriculum in which several fields—for example, English, history, art, science, and mathematics—are organized around topics, areas, or problems which involve all the subjects.

Core-Curriculum. The required part of the curriculum which is integrated or closely correlated.

Broad Fields Curriculum. A curriculum in which various relatively homogeneous subjects are unified—for example, the social studies.

When these terms are used in the senses indicated above, much confusion in thinking and speaking of curriculum and course-of-study problems will be avoided.

As an introduction to the discussion of the administrative aspects of curriculum organization, the following brief summary of a philosophy of the place of subject matter in learning and teaching is offered.

Instructional Materials or Activities in the Scheme of Education. Education as a process may be formulated as being the interaction between the human nervous system and the stimuli to human activity, mental or physical, which operate to condition the future thinking or conduct of the individual. Ordinarily we think of education as being confined to such results of interaction as influence future thinking and conduct in such a way as to tend to produce a desirable type of individual; for example, a good citizen, trained to contribute his maximum

to the world's goods and capable of enjoying life in ways not inimical to the well-being and happiness of others. Anything that will cause an individual to do, think, or feel in any way likely to stimulate or control future thought or action in a desirable way should be considered as possible material for education. Not only are books included, but also pictures, objects, the words of teachers and classmates, magazines, laboratory materials and exercises, animals, machines, newspapers, things seen, felt, smelled, or heard on field trips, journeys or excursions, and many other types of stimuli.

The school does not exist for the purpose of teaching certain organized fields of knowledge, such as algebra, history, and biology. It does serve, it is true, to preserve for future generations the learning of the past and the present; but that is incidental. There are many other ways in which that worthy objective might be effectively accomplished. Subjects belong in the school curriculum only by virtue of their usefulness in contributing to the aims of the school. It happens that the organized bodies of knowledge have been employed as school subjects and that they have rendered service as such. This, however, should be regarded as a coincidence or as an expediency rather than as a permanent solution of the question of what shall be the subject matter of education.

Much waste has resulted from the failure to select from and rearrange adequately the bodies of learning. Much material of relatively small educational value has occupied time and place in school programs, automatically excluding other material of greater value which did not constitute a part of one of the great organized bodies of knowledge. Those who have to do with the organization of subjects and materials of high-school instruction must keep before them the fundamental principle that all proposed materials of instruction or school activities must be considered on the basis of their probable contribution in terms of pupil growth to the aims and functions of secondary education.

Two Types of Educational School Experience. We may think of school situations which serve to stimulate educative pupil

experiences as being of two types. One of these, the curricular, consists in the subjects of instruction. The other is that which we call extra-curricular, or student, activities. Each type may be employed to produce such control or influence growth and changes in the nervous system of pupils as will make for health, citizenship, vocational effectiveness, worthy home membership, and worthy enjoyment of leisure.

In this chapter will be treated the organization of the semester or year units of curricular instructional materials. In Chapters IX and X will be found discussions of the place, organization, and administration of "student activities."

Phases of the Problem of Curricular Organization. The organization of the subjects of study for a given school may be considered as possessing two somewhat distinct phases:

1. Determining what shall be the offerings of the school—the program of studies.
2. Arranging the studies into unitary groups consisting of constants, curriculum variables, and free electives to fit the needs of groups of pupils—the curricula.

The remainder of this chapter will be given over to the discussion of principles and practices related to these two phases of curriculum organization.

2. THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

In determining what the offering for a given school should be, several considerations must be carefully examined in their relation to local curriculum problems. Among them are the following, each of which will be briefly considered in turn:

1. The limitations imposed by superior authority—by state laws and by state departments of public instruction.
2. The requirements for entrance to institutions of higher education to which graduates of the local high school go.
3. The relation of the program of studies to the aims of secondary education.
4. The relation of the program of studies to the size of the school and the cost of instruction.

5. The available housing and equipment.
6. The peculiar needs and interests of the pupils and of the local community.
7. The pressure of special groups of citizens and lay groups.
8. The professional ambitions of the local teaching staff.

The Limitations imposed by Superior Authority. Unless he is already familiar with them, the principal or superintendent responsible for the program of studies should acquaint himself with the types of information indicated by the following questions:

1. What subjects of instruction are required by state law of all public high schools of the class in which the school concerned falls?
2. What subjects are required by the state department of education (1) for approval or as a condition to accrediting the school; (2) for desired state aid?
3. What limitations are imposed by state law or by the state department of public instruction upon the range, or variety, of subjects which may be offered?
4. What provisions, if any, are made, by law or by regulation of the state office, concerning the years in which instruction in one or more designated subjects is to be given?

Ordinarily such information may be readily obtained. In every state laws affecting public schools are collected and published, usually by the state department of public instruction. In most states, the state commissioner or superintendent of public instruction issues some sort of manual or "course of study" in which are stated the requirements of the state department for approval or for financial aid. These manuals are obtainable upon request. In many states suggested programs of studies are given in such publications. As a means of facilitating administrative convenience and preventing confusion and waste to pupils transferring from one high school to another in the state, it is wise to follow the programs and curricula suggested in the state manuals or courses except in those instances where it is clearly desirable to depart from such suggestions. It should be one of the first acts of a newly elected principal or superintendent, unless he is fully familiar

with these things, to write to the state office requesting whatever information of this nature may be available in printed or mimeographed form, and to study this material carefully in its relation to the local school and curriculum problems.

Entrance Requirements. It is desirable to offer in every senior high school or traditional four-year high school such studies as will enable those pupils selecting their subjects of study with that end in view to enter any one of the institutions of higher education to which a considerable percentage of the high-school graduates are likely to go. A study should be made that will show which institutions these are, and statements of entrance requirements should be obtained from them and examined carefully. Occasionally (especially in the Eastern states) the requirements of the college will be so detailed that the smaller schools can offer all the subjects required only by providing instruction for very small sections. For small schools to attempt to cater to the peculiarities of those institutions at a great increase in the cost of instruction per capita is of course not reasonable or sound policy.

Relation to Objectives of Secondary Education. Every program of studies should provide opportunities for a definite and large contribution in the direction of every major objective of secondary education: health, vocational efficiency, good citizenship, worthy home membership, and worthy use of leisure. Opportunity for exploration of interests and aptitudes should be provided. Briefly, this means that instruction should be offered in at least the following: written and oral English, literature, the history of our own country, American government and citizenship, physical education, general science, biology, art, music, household arts, elementary mathematics (beyond arithmetic), the beginnings of a foreign language, and industrial and commercial subjects as warranted by the size of the school.

Relation to Size of School and Cost of Instruction. Two important items of the cost of high-school facilities, amounting to approximately 90 per cent of the total cost, are teachers' salaries and housing. The number of teachers and the num-

ber of rooms required are in direct proportion to the number of sections organized for instruction. A small section contributes approximately as much to costs as a section containing several times as many pupils. In small schools teachers' salaries are low, teaching loads are heavy, and the cost of instruction per pupil is high. The chief cause lies in the large number of small, uneconomical sections existing in small schools.

It should be recognized that the small high school is a compromise between effective organization and conditions which make larger schools impossible, and that small schools should not attempt to duplicate the varied program of larger schools. In schools of 100 pupils or less, but one foreign language should be offered. Third-year and fourth-year courses in physics, chemistry, mathematics, and foreign languages should be offered only in alternate years. Sections in which no more than five or six pupils enroll should ordinarily be canceled.

Available Housing and Equipment. It is obvious that instruction in those subjects requiring special housing or equipment (for example, typewriting, household arts, manual arts, etc.) may not be offered in schools in which no such housing or equipment is provided. Before requesting the provision of expensive housing or equipment, the school administrator should carefully study the need for adding the proposed study or studies to the program of offerings, including the probable demand for it over a period of years.

The Peculiar Needs of the Local Community. The program of studies will vary with the nature of the community which it serves. While it is easy to overestimate the extent to which communities of the same size differ in such a manner and degree as to call for different programs of studies, one must not neglect that factor entirely. Courses in agriculture meet the needs of pupils in rural high schools and stimulate interest in scientific farming even among the adults of the community. In districts in which a large part of the population is made up of workers in factories, mills, or shops, commercial and industrial courses should be offered even in the smaller schools to meet the needs of the many boys and girls not going to

college. In such communities there is less need for foreign languages and higher mathematics and greater need for courses in household and manual arts.

The Limitations imposed by Local Lay Opinion. In introducing changes in the program of studies the probable reaction of the patrons of the school should be forecast as accurately as possible. Those changes which are likely to evoke widespread or spirited protest should be introduced carefully and only after some progress has been made in bringing about an appreciation of the proposed changes. The principal must work with his community, not against it. Nothing in this caution, however, should warrant the *laissez-faire*, or "let well enough alone," policy which characterizes the timid or unprogressive administration.

While the high-school administrator should be careful not to antagonize patrons unduly, he should resist the efforts of groups representing special interests to introduce into the local school studies for which there is not a real need. The offering of Swedish, Italian, or other foreign languages in many high schools has been brought about by the pressure of local people desirous of preserving their Old World languages and ideals. In view of the fact that it is an object of American secondary education to reduce social and cultural differences of racial and national inheritance rather than preserve them, such concessions are undesirable. Concession to such groups is particularly unfortunate when it results in small, expensive sections in foreign languages.

Similarly, the administrator must be prepared to resist the influence of other special groups of parents or citizens, patriotic societies, or other organizations whose interests do not permit them to see the problem in its proper light and whose enthusiasm leads them to interfere unwisely in the determination of what shall constitute the program of studies.

The Local Teaching Staff. The administrator must be on his guard to handle diplomatically but firmly the natural ambitions of department heads and teachers to expand their departments unwisely. Naturally, but sometimes unfortu-

nately, the most capable teacher or department head is also most persuasive, insistent, and devoted to the development of his department to what seems to him adequate dimensions. Such keen interest on the part of teachers and department heads is commendable, but the program-maker must not lose sight of the needs of the school as a whole. He cannot afford to be influenced unduly by his aides, who cannot see the problem in large.

Suggestive programs of studies for schools of different sizes are furnished in the examples of curricula given at the close of this chapter.

We now turn to the problem of giving to the program of studies a curriculum organization.

3. PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

No one student will study all the subjects offered. The offerings of the schools should be grouped into units on the basis of the needs of groups of pupils.

Fundamental Principles of Curricula Organization. There are certain principles which appear to underlie the organization of high-school curricula and with which the principal or the superintendent should be familiar. These principles will be considered here.

1. *Each curriculum should include instruction contributing to each of the general aims of secondary education relating to health, citizenship, vocation, avocation, and home life.* This should be true even of the college-preparatory curriculum, since there is no assurance that all those who elect that curriculum will go to college or that those who do go will pursue studies which will round out the accomplishment of the several aims. Every curriculum should provide instruction contributory to the development of information, habits, and ideals which make for health, to the development of information, habits, skills, attitudes, and tastes which make for social cooperation and good will in politics, business, and social life; to the development of information, abilities, and attitudes

which make for a fortunate vocational choice and for vocational success; to the development of satisfying and harmless avocational interests, ideals, and tastes; and to the development of information, habits, ideals, and tastes which make for effective participation in home-life activities.

2. *Each curriculum should provide opportunities for exploration, through material also worth while for other purposes, of the possible interests and capacities of each pupil.* For all but those of least ability and promise for completing high school it should provide some instruction in, and introduction to, the major fields of learning, even to the fields of foreign languages and mathematics beyond arithmetic. It should also provide for the termination of study, after the first year, of each of those fields not necessary for other purposes, by any student whose interests and abilities do not seem to warrant continued pursuance of that study; for example, mathematics, foreign language, any vocational field, music, and art.

3. *Each curriculum should make a definite contribution to the integrative function of secondary education.* Required study of certain subjects, such as American history, literature, and civics, will operate to give the next generation a feeling of unity and cultural kinship, a realization of common ideals and interests—bonds that go to develop in it a group consciousness and to render it a sufficiently homogeneous and like-minded group to guarantee social solidarity.

4. *Each curriculum should be so organized that the portion completed by any student withdrawing from school will not be dependent in any large way for realization of its values upon the study of that portion of the curriculum to which he is not likely to be exposed.* In the accomplishment of this objective it seems desirable in the larger schools, in which provision will be made for the proper differentiation of students, to provide special one-year and two-year curricula for students who in all probability, as judged by age, the economic status of parent, previous school marks and record, and intelligence, will not remain to graduate. The principle also suggests the desirability of placing early in the curricula subjects of instruc-

tion whose chief value lies in preparation for subjects to come later. On the other hand, nothing in the application of this principle is intended to discourage the requiring of students to pursue at least one or two fields of learning for two or three years in sequence. The added value in studying a subject for a second year that accrues from the advantage of the background laid by the completion of the first year is often considerable, as in the case of European history, to say nothing of the impossibility of mastering some subjects in less than three or more years, as in the case of a foreign language.

5. *Subjects of great value to large numbers of students should be placed early in the curricula.* Realization of the validity of this principle accounts largely for the introduction into the upper years of the elementary school and into the junior high school of instruction in American history, which, without question, might be studied to much more advantage several years later, when the pupil has arrived at a maturity that will enable him to understand much more of the political, economic, and cultural development of this country and of the problems of modern American life than is possible for children of twelve and thirteen years of age. Until such time as the very large majority of young people continue public-school education as far as the eleventh and twelfth grades, the importance of all citizens' having studied the development and ideals of their native country will dictate the placement of the study of United States history in such grades as will insure its study by practically all young people. The same principle suggests the advisability of introducing biology before physics and chemistry and of introducing certain phases of all these still earlier in the form of general science. Likewise it is desirable to place some study of civics, political and social, earlier in the curricula than is consistent with the possibility of a complete mastery of these subjects.

6. *The placement of courses in curricula should also be guided by the maturity of the pupils.* This principle must be taken into consideration along with the one just preceding. Though the latter is highly important, it should, of course, not be car-

ried to such extreme application as the introduction of courses before the maturity of the pupils will permit of any reasonable understanding. To be practical, subject matter must be so adapted to the age, interests, vocabulary, and ability of the students for whom it is intended that it will actually stimulate the anticipated reaction. Pupil experiences resulting from contact with subject matter vary with two important factors: the nature of the subject matter and the nature of the individual. The same subject matter will not only produce different reactions in different pupils but also in the same pupil at different ages. The results are analogous to what takes place in an experiment in chemistry in which an acid poured from a beaker into a number of test tubes containing different solutions will produce a different precipitate in each. The curriculum-maker must at all times keep his "audience" in mind.

7. *Courses should be assigned year placement in the curricula in relation to the needs which they are intended to serve.* Courses which are especially calculated to serve needs that will not be experienced for some years to come should not be placed early in the high-school curricula. For example, courses in typing and shorthand intended to prepare pupils for positions as stenographers should not be placed in the early years of the high school. Those who withdraw from school at the age of fifteen or sixteen find it difficult to obtain positions as stenographers at so early an age. For those who continue and graduate, such courses will be of most value if given in the year or two years immediately preceding graduation.

Likewise, distinctly college-preparatory courses will serve their purposes if they are placed in the last two or three years of high school. Foreign languages and mathematics, intended as preparation for college, if taken by pupils in the ninth and tenth grades, are not only certain to be less well learned than when studied in the eleventh or twelfth grade, but will be forgotten in large part before the pupil has need in college or university for the outcomes of such instruction. By postponing instruction in these subjects not only will it be possible to offer more extensive courses, and the work completed be almost

certain to be of a higher order and be retained to a greater degree until the time of need, but the enrollment in such courses will inevitably be more completely restricted to those going on to college.

Certain other advantages of this plan may be noted here. Pupils preparing for college could then carry abreast through all the grades all the three core subjects—English, science, and history and social studies—or at least two of them. It is also certain that a smaller percentage of pupils would be retarded or eliminated in Grades 9 and 10, the years in which the percentage of failures in mathematics and foreign languages is high in most schools. In the New Jersey state educational survey and other investigations furnishing data on the relative numbers of failures in various subjects, the percentages of failures in foreign languages and in mathematics were found to be materially higher than those in all other subjects, in some cases several times higher.

8. *Constants should be confined to those subjects for which a certain and important need may be predicted for all pupils.* The number of constants in the curriculum organization of a school should include only a relatively small number of subjects, the outcomes of instruction in which all pupils need or the welfare of society demands, regardless of what occupation the pupil may follow, or whether or not he completes high school, or whether or not he attends college or university. The subjects upon which there is common agreement as falling in this category are English composition and literature through the eleventh or the twelfth grade, American history, and courses in elementary social science, such as community civics and geography. It seems quite probable that within a few years one year of instruction in general science or biology will be generally thought a desirable constant.

9. *The ratio of constants to variables or electives should decrease from the seventh grade through the twelfth.* Beginning in the seventh grade with the introduction of limited electives—perhaps election between household arts and manual arts and a foreign language as an extra subject—the number

of electives should progress through the high school until by the time the pupil has reached the twelfth grade less than half his studies should be "constants."

Since with increased maturity increased specialization is desirable, the proportion of variables in the different curricula should increase in number almost as rapidly as the proportion of constants decreases.

10. *Each curriculum should be sufficiently flexible to provide for differences in interests between pupils permitting them to carry forward some fields not necessarily germane to the chief objective of the curriculum.* No curriculum should demand the entire time of pupils for the study of constants and curriculum prescriptions. For example, sufficient electives should be provided in a vocational course to permit students to continue exploration or the study of a field of special interest; for example, foreign languages, music, art, mathematics, or history. In other words, with the possible exception of the seventh and eighth grades, in every year of every curriculum there should be some provision for free electives, for perhaps not less than six or eight hours a week.

11. *The curriculum or curricula of the various units of secondary education should be articulated with each other and with that of the elementary school.* Care should be taken that overlapping and duplication are reduced to a minimum, an amount which is held to be desirable for necessary review, emphasis, or a different approach or point of view. This phase of the principle should be applied particularly to courses in American history in the junior and senior high schools, to general science and later science courses, and to literature in Grades 7 and 8 and in Grades 9–12 inclusive. Year placement of subjects in curricula should also be planned with a view to articulation not only in this sense, but with respect to a gradual transition in the nature of the subject matter and with a view to combining all the courses of the curriculum into a sequential and unified whole.

The Application of Underlying Principles. No set program of studies or curriculum organization can be safely set up for

schools of any given class or size. Variations in minor details, at least, if not in greater degree, should be expected from school to school. Yet with an adequate understanding and application of such fundamental principles as those included in the foregoing paragraphs, curricular organizations for schools of similar size and conditions will be very similar.

The very large part of curriculum maladjustment in schools may be traced to violations of one or more of these principles. The principal who undertakes the task of curriculum organization with little or no regard to such fundamental considerations is more confident than wise. More likely than not his work will appear very simple and will consist largely in pencil-and-paper shuffling round of subjects with a view to producing a combination that will be expedient and that will represent conventional practice. If he is not familiar with such principles and the underlying considerations, he will not realize how futile and amateurish his efforts have been.

4. TYPES OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

Stem Electives and Multiple Curricula. The two principal types of curriculum organization are the "stem elective" and the "multiple" types. The former plan provides for a core of constants to be supplemented to the extent of a full program with electives chosen by the student under the supervision of his adviser; the latter plan involves more than one curriculum, each possessing its own core of constants and curriculum prescriptions and, in addition, possible electives. In the multiple-curricula plan the core of constants includes the constants for all curricula (for example, English and physical education) and, in addition, variables required in the particular curriculum. For example, a college-preparatory curriculum may include the groups of studies given at the top of the next page.

Plans of Differentiating Multiple Curricula. Three plans for differentiating the curricula which make up a multiple-curricular organization have been commonly employed. These may be designated as the "subject matter" or "major" plan, the

College-Preparatory Curriculum

CONSTANTS	
English	3 units
American history and civics	1 unit
Physical education	4 years
CURRICULUM PRESCRIPTIONS	
Algebra	1 unit
Geometry	1 unit
European history	1 unit
LIMITED ELECTIVES	
Physics or chemistry or biology	1 unit
French or Latin or Spanish	2 units
FREE ELECTIVES	
All other subjects included in the program of studies, vocational subjects not to exceed 3 units.	

"occupational" or "objective" plan, and the combination plan, which is a mixture of the previous two.

The first may be illustrated by the following curricula differentiated in the state high-school course of study for a certain Western state: English, mathematics, scientific, foreign-language, household-arts, and industrial-arts curricula. The second plan is followed in a city high school of approximately 1200 pupils in the Middle West, which offers college-preparatory, household-arts, business, stenographic, accounting, general, plumbing, and industrial-arts curricula. Curricula illustrative of the combination type offered in another high school are scientific, classical, general, commercial, industrial, fine-arts, and household-arts.

It seems quite reasonable that the best grouping of subjects for pupils is on the basis of their future plans rather than on the basis of the divisions of subject matter; that is, on the basis of objectives rather than on the basis of means. There seems to be no good reason why students of high-school age should be encouraged, much less compelled, to specialize in any one of the logical divisions of learning rather than to

coördinate materials from the various divisions of learning toward future probable needs.

The Single, or Stem-Elective, Organization versus the Multiple-Type Organization. In junior high schools the number of electives is so small and the advisability of definite vocational training is so doubtful that the single stem-elective type of curriculum is best adapted, and practice has been almost uniform in that respect, though many schools employ as a hang-over from the old 8–4 plan of organization the multiple type for ninth-grade students. Especially does the stem-elective type of organization seem best in the small junior high school and in the junior high school where careful guidance is provided at registration time.

The single stem-elective curriculum is also best adapted for the small four-year high school, let us say of fewer than 100 or 150 students. As a matter of fact, in a great many high schools of greater enrollment, perhaps in a majority of them, multiple curricula are practically advisory and suggestive only, students changing curricula from year to year and the administration of the curriculum during registration time being anything but rigid. However, though many exceptions are permitted upon petition, even under these conditions the multiple type is useful in larger schools for advisory purposes and in encouraging students to steer in some definite direction rather than to select subjects on the basis of trivial considerations and without reference to any thought of their probable future needs. To accomplish this end, it would seem advisable to discontinue the "general" curriculum and to provide two or more types of college-preparatory curricula based on the needs in preparation for different divisions of higher education, perhaps including a general college-preparatory curriculum in which much use of the limited elective idea is made.

The Mixed Plan of Curriculum Organization. In some institutions, particularly junior high schools, the single stem-elective curriculum is employed through one or two grades, after which the courses offered are arranged in different curricula. In junior schools, the graduates of which will enter

senior high schools, where the multiple plan of curriculum organization obtains, the mixed plan, introducing several curricula into the ninth grade to correspond to those in the senior school or schools, may be advisable. This is particularly true if adequate guidance service is furnished in the junior school, since the future senior-high-school pupil may make his selection among the curricula offered in the senior school under the guidance and with the help of those who have had two years in which to come to know him. It also contributes toward reducing the gap between the ninth and tenth grades.

In a few large junior high schools a curriculum for the average pupil of limited academic ability is provided extending through the tenth grade. This plan has much to commend it, operating, as it does, to make special vocational provision for this type of pupil and to prevent his going on to the senior high school to fail and be eliminated. Such a curriculum would include special courses in English, including literature adapted to his needs; modified mathematics; applied general science extended through the tenth grade and including many of the simpler and more useful principles and applications of physics, chemistry, and biology; shop work and business training for boys; and office training and household arts for girls. The curriculum usually begins with minor deviations from the typical curriculum in the eighth grade, but still permits transfer to other curricula in the ninth grade. In the ninth grade the curriculum is definitely adapted to the needs of those who will not go into senior high school, and the tenth grade is largely vocational.

5. DEVELOPMENT OF COURSES OF STUDY AND SELECTION OF TEXTBOOKS

Types of Courses of Study. In a few states, high schools are required to follow, in general, state courses of study for the various subjects. In almost all states there are state courses of study for the various subjects available. Some of these are excellent and, where used, give valuable direction to local

schools and teachers. The high-school administrator should develop and keep up to date a library of publications of the better state and city courses of study and see to it that his staff knows what may be found in them.

In the past two decades there has occurred more course-of-study construction by teachers and supervisors, working cooperatively, than in all the previous decades of American secondary education. Much of the product has been amateurish, and the main reliance has remained upon textbooks. Yet, in their efforts to write courses of study, teachers have grown in their thinking about the purposes of their subjects and the relations of their subjects to the aims of education and the nature of children, in independence in the selection and arrangement of instructional materials, and in teaching procedures.

Course-of-Study Trends. Prominent among the trends in secondary-school courses of study and curricula may be mentioned the following:

1. A tendency to replace many isolated subjects of instruction with

a. Broad fields: for example, social studies instead of history, economics, social problems; and general mathematics, general science, etc.

b. A core-curriculum: the combining of two or more subjects into a required broad core, usually English and the social studies, sometimes also including guidance.

c. An integrated or unified curriculum: in which several subjects, all but a few special subjects, are combined into one unified curriculum and taught around life areas or life problems—for example, transportation and home living.

2. A tendency toward *general*, or *common*, education instead of specialized education; a tendency toward more emphasis upon instruction on the common needs of life, health, citizenship, leisure, home living, and less emphasis upon preparation for college or a particular vocation; to emphasize basic principles, skills, information, concepts, and attitudes applicable to a larger number of vocations, as opposed to those useful in a smaller number.

3. A tendency to give more attention to the applications of mathe-

matics, science, social studies, etc., in life today, in the local community, and in national affairs that concern us, and less attention to "pure" or abstract principles or skills.

4. A tendency to provide curricular opportunity to stimulate the abler youngsters and likewise provide suitable materials for the less able, less verbal, more prosaic minds; and which will cater to such a wide variety of interests as to challenge almost every individual in the class.

Selection of Textbooks. In the last analysis, with the great majority of teachers, the textbook is a potent determinant of what and how they will teach. The high-school administrator should, therefore, do his part to see that the selection of textbooks is thoughtfully and painstakingly done. The following steps have been suggested by Edmonson[1] for use in high schools:

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.).

[1] J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, pp 395-396. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

(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.

Among criteria for selecting textbooks which teachers should develop with the aid of the principal are

1. The appeal to students—illustrative material, style of writing, challenge.

2. The adaptation of style, vocabulary, and content to the capacities and background of students with whom the textbooks will be used

3. The probable effectiveness of the materials with respect to the principal objective of the course.

4. The accuracy of the content of the text.

5. Mechanical qualities, such as size of type, quality of paper, and stitching and binding.

6. TYPICAL CURRICULA OF MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

By way of illustration of modern practice in curriculum organization, typical well-balanced curricula are shown on the pages following. Boldface type indicates constants; italic type indicates limited or preferred electives; and free electives are shown in ordinary type.

Curriculum Organization for a Small Junior High School

Seventh Grade	Periods	Eighth Grade	Periods	Ninth Grade	Periods
English	7	English	7	English	5
History	5	History	5	Community civics	5
Geography	5	Mathematics	5	*Mathematics*	5
Mathematics	5	Elementary science and vocational study	5	*Art or music*	2
Manual training or home economics	3	*Art or music*	2	Music or art	2
Art	2	*Manual training or home economics*	3	Manual training or home economics	5
Music	2	Physical education	2	Physical education	2
Physical education	2	Music or art	2	*Elementary science*	5
				Foreign language	5
				Shop work	5

Note. Normal programs involve from 29 to 31 hours a week

Typical Modern Curriculum Organization for Small and Medium-Sized High Schools

Seventh Grade	Periods	Eighth Grade	Periods
English	5	English	5
Geography	5	American history	5
Physiology	5	General science	5
Mathematics	5	Mathematics	5
Shop or home economics	3	*Shop or home economics*	3
Physical education	3	Physical education	3
Art	2	*Art*	2
Music	2	*Music*	2
Foreign language	5	Foreign language	5

Ninth Grade	Periods	Tenth Grade	Periods
English	5	English	5
Community civics and state history	5	World history	5
General science	5	Biology	5
Mathematics	5	Mathematics	5
Foreign language	5	Foreign language	5
Physical education	2	Physical education	2
Home economics	5	Home economics	5
Shop work	5	Shop work	5
Art	2	*Art*	2
Music	2	*Music*	2

Eleventh Grade	Periods	Twelfth Grade	Periods
English *	5	English *	5
American history *	5	Social studies *	5
Physics *	5	Foreign language *	5
Mathematics *	5	Physical education	2
Foreign language *	5	Typing	5
Physical education	2	Secretarial science	5
Typing	5	Senior mathematics *	5
Shorthand	5	Shop work	5
Shop work	5	Art	2
Art	2	Music	2
Music	2		

Student programs range from 28 to 33 periods a week in Grades 7 and 8, and from 22 to 29 hours a week in Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. In small schools, subjects starred should be offered only in alternate years; shop work, art,

and music each might well be given in four sections—one for each of the seventh and eighth grades, one for the ninth and tenth grades, and one for the eleventh and twelfth grades.

The first three years of the program above constitute a typical modern program for the junior high school, the latter three years for the senior high school, and the last four years for the conventional four-year high school.

Problems and Exercises

1. Write out a list of one or more meanings in which each of the following terms is used incorrectly: curriculum, course of study, grade, program of studies, class.

2. What are some of the unfortunate results which have their origin in the fact that textbooks or organized bodies of knowledge have been taken for courses of study?

3. Cite an example of violation of each of the fundamental principles of curricula organization.

4. How serious do you regard the duplication between elementary-school and secondary-school curricula and courses of study?

5. To those principles mentioned in this chapter add a principle underlying good curriculum practice and make a case against one of those offered.

6. Take as an example a curriculum or the curricula of some secondary school, apply to it the principles mentioned, and decide to what extent it conforms to the principles.

7. What should determine what subjects ought to be designated as "variables" or "constants" peculiar to a given curriculum?

8. List by years a program of studies suitable for a rural four-year high school of 75 students; for a city junior high school of 1200 students; for a junior college of 250 students.

9. Investigate and determine in what way curricula, or courses of study, are determined in some one state by law or by prescription of the state department of education.

10. Map out a curricular organization showing constants, variables, and limited and free electives for a four-year high school of 250 pupils.

IV
Selecting the Staff

1. DETERMINING STAFF NEEDS

The Instructional Staff. Having decided upon the type and form of organization of the secondary-school unit or units and upon what shall constitute the program of studies, one may turn to the problems of determining how many and what types of teachers and other members of the staff will be needed to staff the school and of selecting them.

To do these things it is necessary first to estimate the number of sections in each of the subjects to be offered for which it will be necessary to obtain teachers, and secondly to determine the standards as to the teaching load that will be observed in assigning teachers. Let us consider the first of these preliminary steps. The means of estimating the number of sections which are likely to be required to provide for the pupils registered in the various subjects are quite different in the school already in operation from those available in case the school is a new one just being established.

In the former situation, if a spring preregistration is provided for early enough in the season,[1] it is possible to obtain fairly reliable data from the registration of students for the various subjects. These figures being known, it is only necessary to decide upon the size of sections in order to determine the probable number of sections that will be required. If no preregistration is employed, or if the spring preregistration for the following semester is not taken sufficiently early, the probable numbers of registrations in the various subjects may be estimated from registrations of previous years, modified according to certain facts or very probable influences. For example, from the enrollment in first-year French, Latin, typewriting, algebra, or household arts, there may be determined fairly closely the probable enrollment of the second year in any of these subjects by taking into consideration the relative regis-

[1]See Chapter XVI, "Personnel Records and Related Problems."

trations in second-year and first-year classes in these fields, respectively, for previous years. The basis for further refinements of estimates may be available in the form of changes in requirements for graduation or in constants in various curricula and of reports from instructors as to whether the percentage going on will be normal, less than normal, or greater than normal. Heads of departments may be utilized to gather this information and to make estimates for their respective departments. These estimates should be checked by the principal, and compensations made for tendencies on the part of teachers or department heads to overestimate the probable needs (if the principal knows such tendencies to exist) and for influences that will affect enrollment in the various departments which have not been considered by the teachers or the department heads. Often a change in the personnel of the teaching staff concerned will influence enrollments in a given department. Sometimes, especially in small schools, the purchase of new equipment or the requirements of a course will influence enrollments. The introduction of new subjects or elimination of old ones, changes in year-placement of subjects, and unusual proportions of the sexes in one or more classes also may usually be counted on to influence registrations.

Very close estimates can be made, though with somewhat less accuracy, even in schools which are just being established. One source of data is the enrollment in the various subjects in neighboring schools of about the same size and offering about the same program of studies. In connection with these, too. known influences peculiar to the particular district may be taken into consideration. Of this type of data are the likely greater or less percentages of college-preparatory or vocational students in the particular district.

The number of teachers employed should be such that the ratio of pupils to full-time teachers or the equivalent thereto should not exceed 30 pupils to each full-time teacher.[1] Should

[1]The maximum set by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, the Association of Secondary Colleges and Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States.

the ratio run much below 25 pupils to each teacher, an abnormally high cost per pupil is certain to result unless cheap teachers are employed, and therefore a careful survey should be made to ascertain the causes of the low ratio. Among the most likely is the development of a program of studies too ambitious for the size of the school.

In schools already established the next step to be taken is that of assigning the members of the staff who will remain as members of the staff for the coming year, thus determining the sections to be provided for by additions to the staff.

A tentative assignment of sections and activities to the positions to be filled should be worked out as an aid in selecting the best-qualified teachers for the work to be assigned them. Although first consideration may be given to the curricular needs, the importance of providing in the completed staff advisers and supervisors of the various extra-curricular activities and organizations which it is desired to carry on is not to be neglected. Assignments of duties to positions should be tentative and permit of other combinations in case desirable candidates are found who do not fit into the tentative assignments. However, in such modifications care should be exercised to see that the positions that are to be filled last do not involve combinations for which it is difficult to find qualified candidates,—for example, manual training, English, and supervision of glee clubs; or physics, French, and supervision of journalistic activities.

The Administrative and Supervisory Staff. The administrative and supervisory staffs of secondary schools vary from a principal teaching a full day in a small school and devoting a few hours weekly to administrative and supervisory duties to quite elaborate staffs, including various combinations of vice-principals, heads of departments, directors of athletics, directors of activities, psychologists, vocational counselors, registrars, deans of girls, deans of boys, and sometimes others giving part or full time to their special duties. Without doubt most schools need more members of the staff who give part or full time to the duties of these positions than are now provided.

The employment of such workers is a wise investment; but the idea is new, and boards of education are generally conservative and sensitive to the criticisms of their constituency. In most districts a fallacious idea of what constitutes economy is a powerful influence in setting the limits to expenditures of public funds for education.

It is somewhat premature and rather dogmatic to prescribe what should constitute the administrative and supervisory staff of a school of a given size. Here, again, many varying factors operate to prevent uniformity, but reasonable standards can be set for a well-balanced and reasonably well-supported school.

What may be regarded as adequate staffs for the modern administration and supervision of high schools of different sizes are shown in Table I, which represents ideal rather than common practice. Staffs of few schools of these sizes are as comprehensive as the recommendations shown there. The lack of a more complete development may be attributed very largely to the following factors:

1. The comparatively recent development of large high schools.
2. The comparatively short time that extra-curricular activities have occupied a prominent place in educational theory and procedure.
3. The comparatively short time that educational and vocational guidance have occupied a prominent place in educational theory and procedure.
4. The recency of the development of the concept of increased responsibility of the school for non-intellectual development of boys and girls, including health and moral education.
5. The rapid development within a few years of the possibilities of usefulness of a school psychologist.
6. The great influx into high school of boys and girls who constitute teaching, disciplinary, and other types of problems—children from homes of low social or moral status, who a few years ago would not have gone to high school at all.
7. The recent rapid increase of scientific and technical knowledge concerning the duties which attach to the various newly developed functions.

Table I. Suggested Staffing of a Modern High School[1]

Position	Schools of 1500 or More	Schools of 800–1500	Schools of 300–800	Schools of 100–300	Schools of 25–100
Principal	1	1	$\frac{4}{5}$–1	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{3}{4}$
Vice-principal (instruction) or	$\frac{1}{2}$–2	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	...	...
Vice-principal (office routine)	$\frac{1}{2}$–2	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	...	...
Director of activities	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	...	...
Director of guidance	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	...	...
Psychologist	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{3}{4}$	...	...	...	...
Dean of boys	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	...	...
Dean of girls	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Director of health and physical education	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	...
Librarian	1–2	1	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{2}{3}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Director of athletics	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	...	...	...
Heads of departments or special supervisors (6–10)	$\frac{3}{4}$–$\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	...	...
Attendance supervisor	$\frac{3}{4}$–1	$\frac{1}{2}$–$\frac{2}{3}$	...	...	...
Total administrative and supervisory staff	4–12	3–5	2–4	1–2	$\frac{3}{4}$–1
Office clerks	3–5	2–3	1–2	$\frac{1}{2}$–1	$\frac{1}{4}$–$\frac{1}{2}$

Since all these developments are largely contributions of the last quarter of a century, they have yet to establish themselves in school organization and administration. Some administrators are skeptical, a few are relatively professionally ignorant, some are willing to let well enough alone, many others are unable to convince boards of education that money should be provided for the proper performance of these functions, and many others are making headway, gradually but surely, toward a more complete staff.

The relative number of schools in which specialized positions are provided for are shown in Table II, which is based upon data of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

The table shows that the typical administrative and supervisory staff had, in addition to the principal and clerical assist-

[1]Entries denote the proportions of a full-time official which should be available for the position in question In schools of small or medium size various combinations of duties may be centered in one individual—for example, the psychologist and director of guidance; and in the director of health and the director of athletics.

Table II. Percentages of Secondary Schools with the Different Types of Administrative and Supervisory Officers[1]

Position	Over 100,000	30,000-100,000	10,000-30,000	5,000-10,000	East	M W	South	W	Combined
Number of schools	108	82	111	67	127	132	63	46	368
Assistant principals	69	48	46	51	57	51	57	48	54
Counselors or advisers									
General	18	12	4	2	4	11	3	28	9
Boys	7	1	—	—	1	2	2	9	2
Girls	7	1	1	5	2	3	3	11	4
Deans									
General	9	—	1		2	1	5	9	3
Boys	1	6	4	3	1	6	3	9	4
Girls	13	20	20	22	11	24	18	24	18
Directors of attendance	2	2	2	3	2	3	—	4	2
Directors of extra-curriculum	1	2	—	—	—	—	3	2	1
Directors of guidance	3	5	3	3	6	4	—	—	3
Directors of cafeterias or lunch rooms	2	2	1	5	2	1	3	7	2
Doctors	—	1	2	2	1	2	—	—	1
Heads of departments	39	37	35	34	44	25	41	44	36
Nurses	1	2	4	3	3	2	2	4	3
Registrars	3	1	2	—	—	2	3	4	2
Subject supervisors	17	42	64	45	52	39	38	26	42
Visiting teachers	5	1	—	—	1	3	—	2	2
Others	5	6	4	6	2	6	3	11	5

ants, an average of 4.3 members. The administrative staff in secondary schools located in cities of 100,000 or over averaged about 5 members, whereas in cities of 5000–10,000 it averaged only 3.1 members. The number increases with the population of the cities in which the schools are located. Administrative staffs in schools in the eastern and western regions averaged about 4.7 members, as compared with an average of approximately 3.7 in the Middle West. The typical staff, exclusive of the principal and clerical assistants, is made up of 4 to 5 members. In about one half of the schools there is an assistant principal; in about one fourth there are deans of boys and girls; in about one third there are heads of departments.

[1]Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr, and Roy O. Billett, *Administration and Supervision*, United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 11, p. 36.

In Table III is shown the relative frequency with which certain nonteaching staff members were found in 68 larger schools in the North Central area.

Table III. Functionaries reported as Available for Guidance Duties in Sixty-eight Secondary Schools[1]

Functionary	Number of Schools	Functionary	Number of Schools
Principal	68	Dean of boys	18
Home-room teachers	55	Classroom teachers	17
Assistant principal	39	Part-time psychiatrist	15
Dean of girls	32	Trained counselor	14
Part-time physician	31	Part-time dentist	13
Part-time nurse	27	Director of research	6
Full-time nurse	24	Full-time physician	6
Director of guidance	20	Full time dentist	2

Director of vocational guidance, chairman of advisers, case worker, teacher of guidance for boys, teacher of guidance for girls, advisers of girls, 1 each in six schools

It is evident that the number and the nature of the administrative and supervisory personnel of high schools will vary with the extent to which communities have been educated to provide specialized members on the high-school staff to perform improved specialized types of service. The number and the nature of such agents will also vary, as they should, with the size of the school. As the school becomes larger the number may be increased and greater specialization may be effected with less and less per-pupil cost. In the smaller schools two or more types of specialized service must, for reasons of economy, be performed by one person. In the smallest schools these specialized activities will be performed by the high-school principal or by members of the teaching staff as part-time responsibilities.

Before entering into a discussion of the sources of prospective teachers or of the techniques of gathering data regarding their qualifications and selection, a consideration of standards which should be entertained in judging the fitness of candidates for different types of positions is in order.

[1]Paul B. Jacobson and William C. Reavis, *Duties of School Principals*, p. 139. Prentice-Hall, Inc, 1942

2. STANDARDS FOR THE SELECTION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Standards for Positions in Junior High Schools. 1. *Academic Training.* Not less than three school years, and preferably four, of college training should be required of junior-high-school teachers. Adequate academic preparation in the field to be taught must be insisted upon. Teachers of history should have had courses above a high-school level in American history, in political science, in economics, and in sociology. Teachers of English should have had courses in written and oral English and in English and American literature. Teachers of science should have had courses in biology, in physics, and in chemistry either in high school or in college, and preferably also a course in geology or physiography. Teachers of geography should have had courses above a high-school grade in geography or geology and preferably a course in economic or industrial geography. In these fields the *minimum* of college training in the field taught or related fields as indicated above should be in the neighborhood of eighteen or twenty semester hours. Teachers of foreign languages should have had at least the equivalent of three years of college instruction in the language taught. They should be able to speak the language taught with accuracy of pronunciation and some fluency. Teachers of mathematics should have had at least two years of high-school mathematics and college courses in algebra and trigonometry or their equivalent. Similar standards should be observed in selecting teachers of art, music, physical education, household arts, and shop.

2. *Professional Training.* It is not too much to insist upon a minimum of 24 semester hours of work in education and educational psychology, including psychology of learning, secondary education, junior-high-school theory and practice, general methods of teaching, practice teaching, and methods of teaching some one subject field. Other things being equal, teachers who have had courses in educational and vocational

guidance and in the theory and management of extra-curricular activities should be readily preferred.

It is not argued that individual teachers may not be successful with less than the minimum outlined above; but it is certain that a staff composed largely of teachers with less preparation is more than likely to do an inferior or medium order of teaching and that, other things being equal, teachers possessing this training will be superior to those who do not possess it. The fact that the junior high school is a recent development, with new aims, functions, and practices, demands that the staff be selected with much attention to professional preparation—more in quantity and of a more specific nature than that thought necessary for teachers in the seventh and eighth grades. It is quite probable that the relative failure of many junior high schools to measure up to expectations may be traced to the lack of mastery of the theory and practices of the new institution on the part of principal and teaching staff.

3. *Sex.* It is also desirable that a higher percentage of men be employed on the staff of the junior high school than obtains in the upper grades of the elementary school—as a fair working minimum not less than one teacher in three should be a man.

4. *Age.* There is no evidence to indicate that any given age is most desirable for effective service in the junior high school. It is obvious that the staff should not be composed largely of very young people or of superannuated men and women.

5. *Experience.* Unfortunate practices have operated to bring into the junior high school, in larger numbers than is desirable, teachers of two types as to experience: younger teachers gaining the experience supposed to qualify them for positions in the senior high school, and mature men and women of long elementary-school experience, whom it is desired to "promote" to better positions. Fortunately an increasing number of districts have definitely set up the policy of not training junior-high-school teachers in the elementary school, and in many there has been a reduction of the high percentage of teachers with long elementary-school experience and little

special preparation for junior-high-school work who were assigned positions in the junior high school when the seventh and eighth grades were removed from the elementary schools.

6. *Personality.* One of the most potent qualifications making for success in junior-high-school teaching is the possession of traits of personality and abilities peculiarly adapting their owners to work with boys and girls of from twelve to sixteen. Among these (very desirable in the junior high school, yet very difficult to measure or to recognize except in teachers in service) are patience with immaturity in scholarship, the love of young people of the ages concerned, masterfulness in management, and a sense of human values as differentiated from subject-matter values.

Standards for Positions in Senior High Schools or Four-Year High Schools. 1. *Academic Preparation.* It is becoming evident that more than four years of college or university study are needed for the complete preparation of teachers for secondary schools. As rapidly as possible those having to do with the selection of teachers should come to require at least one year of work beyond the four-year course leading to the bachelor's degree. In addition to bringing about more effective preparation of teachers, such a requirement will operate to reduce materially the large number of men and women who enter teaching only temporarily, are not professionally interested in their calling, and cannot be counted upon to continue to make professional growth. Instructors in European secondary schools generally have the equivalent of from two to four years of training beyond the equivalent of our B.A. or B.S. degree. High-school teaching in this country can never hope to attain a truly professional status until at least some training beyond the bachelor's degree is demanded and the door thereby closed to the great army of transients who now occupy teaching positions in high schools.

Not only should teachers be selected who possess adequate margins of scholarship in the fields in which they will teach, but the pattern of the subjects taken in those fields should be appropriate. For example, not only should one who is to teach

English have had from 40 to 60 quarter hours in the field, but the courses taken should have included work in speech and American literature and should have included a course in Shakespeare and at least several in modern literature; not only should a teacher of the social studies have had from 45 to 70 quarter hours of college study in the field, but should have studied government, economics, sociology, American history, and the history of the ancient, medieval, and modern world, with emphasis upon modern world history.

2. *Professional Training.* The need for special professional preparation is probably not so great as in the case of junior-high-school teachers, but the amount which may be considered a reasonable standard is greater than that possessed by the lower 50 per cent of high-school teachers throughout the United States today: namely, less than fifteen semester hours. Excepting the course in junior-high-school theory and procedure, the most useful courses are those listed on pages 81–83 for junior-high-school teachers.

3. *General Culture.* In addition to the special academic and professional education it is desirable that the high-school teacher possess intellectual, cultural, and social interests, and enthusiasms, and culture. He should be interested and informed in current history—political, economic, and social—and in recent developments in industry, science, and inventions. He should be a well-read individual who follows the affairs of the world, not a purveyor of specialized subject matter the relationship of which to the world today he is unable to understand because of his narrow academic interests and experience.

4. *Sex.* Foreign observers of American secondary education almost invariably comment on what they term an unfortunate predominance of women teachers. Secondary-school staffs in leading foreign countries are composed almost entirely of men. It is asserted that men are by nature and experience better qualified to teach courses in science, history, and social studies, that they are equally qualified to teach English, foreign languages, and mathematics, and that their influence in the devel-

opment of desirable traits of character and personality, particularly in boys, is needed in secondary schools. Many also maintain that men are much more interested in their work as a profession and permit outside interests to interfere much less in the discharge of their duties and in their professional advancement. With these things in mind, the better high schools throughout the country are attempting to keep on their staffs a minimum of 50 per cent of male teachers.

5. *Age.* As stated in the discussion of standards for junior-high-school teachers, it is a safe policy to take care that the staff is not composed in large part either of very young teachers or of superannuated teachers.

6. *Experience.* Frequently candidates for positions in large high schools are required to have had two years of experience. If salaries are distinctly above the average, this requirement is probably justified from the point of view of the interests of the local school, however desirable it might be to have all beginning teachers get their first two or three years of experience in larger schools, where better supervision is usually to be had and where a more complete departmentalization exists. If salaries are not sufficient to attract the better type of experienced teacher, such a standard operates to bar the more promising novice in favor of mediocre or inferior experienced teachers. Experience in a junior high school is not likely to prove of great preparatory value, and the effect of a policy of promoting the better junior-high-school teachers to the senior high school is not desirable when viewed from the standpoint of the welfare of the lower school.

7. *Personality.* In selecting senior-high-school teachers as well as teachers for other units of the school system, preference must be given to those whose traits of personality are such as to make for their success in the positions. Prominent among such traits are poise and emotional balance, patience, cheerfulness, energy, enthusiasm, willingness to coöperate, ability to get on with other people,—pupils, patrons, colleagues, and professional superiors,—moral stability, ideals of fairness, good personal appearance, manners, and voice, and general intelli-

gence. The last-named trait enters into a number of the others. Studies made by competent investigators as to the usefulness of various criteria of teaching success, including age, amount of experience, amount of professional training, trade tests, and pictures, show that intelligence-test scores correlate more highly than any other single criterion with teaching success, and that intelligence is a much more valid criterion for predicting success for high-school teachers than for elementary-school teachers.

Standards for Junior-College Teachers. Qualifications for instructors in junior colleges are somewhat different from those acceptable for high-school teachers and those for college and university teachers. The bachelor's degree is still generally regarded as a minimum of formal training for high-school teachers, and three years of graduate study, culminating in the degree of Ph.D., as the standard for college and university teachers. Junior-college teaching requires more formal training than the bachelor's degree, and does not necessarily demand interest or ability in original research work or the detailed specialization required for the doctorate of philosophy. The junior-college teacher should possess from one to three years of graduate training, including intensive training in the field or fields he is expected to teach. Unlike the prevailing standards for college and university teachers, his preparation should also include a definite professional training equivalent to that for high-school teachers and somewhat similar to it. A number of institutions are providing especially for such training, and a special degree (Ed.D.: Doctor of Education) has been provided in some universities to denote a type of training similar to that for the degree of Ph.D. with the exception that much less emphasis is placed upon the ability to do research. Such curricula and degrees are usually intended (as at Stanford University) for two types of candidates: school administrators, supervisors, and normal-school teachers; and teachers in junior colleges or small colleges.

For the present the minimum academic requirement for teachers of academic subjects should be the master's degree.

There is a real danger where the junior college is established as a part of the local secondary-school unit (as no doubt the majority of junior colleges will eventually be) that the instruction may be more similar to high-school teaching than to collegiate work. The employment of properly trained teachers with high intellectual interests will go far to check that tendency.

As yet very little is known in a scientific way as to what the relations of age and experience are to success in teaching in this type of secondary school. The outstanding qualities upon which all authorities seem agreed are scholarship and interest in and aptitude for classroom teaching. Wider ranges of academic training and less specialized and advanced training are desirable as compared to the conventional preparation for college or university teaching.

3. SELECTING THE STAFF: PROCEDURE AND MACHINERY

Who Shall Select High-School Teachers? Within recent years superintendents of schools have been engaged in educating local boards of education to the point of view that all teachers should be selected by the professional head of the schools and not by lay boards, on the ground that he is more competent to discharge that responsibility and that his authority should parallel his responsibility. If he is to be held responsible for the results obtained by his teachers, he should have a free hand in selecting them.

In all but the smaller schools the same arguments apply to some extent to the proposal that the high-school principal should participate in the selection of instructors and heads of departments for his school, and the principal should in turn consult with his department heads. Except in the very large school systems in which teachers are employed by the dozen for various departments, and in small districts in which the superintendent is in reality also the high-school principal, there is very little to be said for the practice so widely followed, of retaining the selection of high-school teachers completely

in the hands of the superintendent of schools. Not only are the principal and the department head much more closely in touch with the needs of the school and better able to decide just what training and type of personality are most desirable for a given vacancy, but it is also sound business policy to coördinate authority with responsibility.

Procedure. The matter of selecting the staff should not be left until late spring. The principal should be ready early in February with recommendations regarding the present staff. At this time, or even earlier if necessary because of earlier dates for formulating the budget for the coming year, he should have thought through the personnel needs for the coming year and have organized his data and arguments for contemplated additions to the staff. Instructors who are to be retained should receive contracts early in March, thus allowing them from two to four weeks for consideration. When this ample time is provided, the failure to return the signed contract should be equivalent to resignation. By April 1, or soon thereafter, the principal should have a fairly accurate idea as to who of the present staff may be counted on for the coming year. If the advance registration is taken about this time, the need for new teachers may be fairly closely estimated and the principal and superintendent can begin the search for good prospects.

Although as a matter of centralization in organization, it is probably desirable that all applications pass through the office of the superintendent, there is no reason why the principal should not take some initiative in looking for superior candidates and encouraging them to make application. Those making personal application should be referred to the principal for interviews and their papers referred to him for evaluation.

In discussing vacancies with all candidates care should be taken to emphasize that no encouragement in interviews or correspondence may go farther than the willingness of the principal to recommend to the superintendent and the board of education. In fairness to candidates those not likely to be employed should be advised to continue their efforts to find satisfactory positions elsewhere. The contents of a confiden-

tial recommendation, favorable or unfavorable, should not be revealed or hinted at.

Seeking Teachers the Better Policy. It is rather generally agreed that it is better policy to seek good teachers for positions than to confine the selection to those who apply. Many excellent teachers do not apply for positions. Those applying for positions in a large number of schools are more than likely to include a disproportionate percentage of mediocre or inferior candidates who are not valued in the schools in which they teach. The wide-awake principal or superintendent will be constantly on the lookout for superior teachers—making inquiries, noting contributions and papers of progressive teachers in local and state associations and in educational journals, and visiting other schools and the appointment bureaus of institutions which train secondary-school teachers.

Perhaps the most reliable means of uncovering a small number of excellent prospects is to inspect better teachers in other schools. However, the lack of time and funds to carry on this search, combined with the reluctance of some school officials to encourage representatives of other schools to visit their schools with a view to employing their better teachers, operates to restrict the employment of this otherwise useful method. Nevertheless there should be no question about the propriety of visiting the classrooms of teachers who have made application, assuming, of course, that the consent of the teacher visited has been obtained.

4. COLLECTING DATA CONCERNING APPLICANTS

Data Desired regarding Prospective Teachers. The most frequently desired and most useful information regarding prospective candidates may be summarized as follows:

1. Education: amount, subjects of specialization, professional certificate; participation in extra-curricular activities.
2. Experience: amount, nature, character of success, dates, and places; including supervision or coaching "activities."
3. Scholarship.

4. Ability to maintain orderly classroom conditions.
5. Teaching ability.
6. Character.
7. Personal appearance.
8. General success in school and community.
9. Coöperation and loyalty.
10. Age.
11. Health and freedom from physical defects.
12. Marital status.
13. Height and weight.
14. Tact and ability to get on with pupils and parents.
15. Special weaknesses likely to affect teaching efficiency.
16. Social qualities.
17. Salary desired.
18. Probability of professional growth.
19. Enthusiasm and interest in work.
20. Church affiliation.
21. General culture.

Some of these items merit special consideration as to their usefulness in selecting teachers of superior qualifications.

Quality of Scholarship. It is idle to argue that members of Phi Beta Kappa do not always make good teachers; neither do age, experience, good appearance, nor good recommendations insure ability. In fact, these latter criteria are even less valid and certainly less reliable. Although there are numerous examples of persons of high scholarship who were not successful in high-school teaching, and occasionally, though rarely, the instance of one poor in scholarship who became a good teacher, they are exceptions, and a relatively high correlation between scholarship and teaching efficiency among high-school teachers exists nevertheless.

Professional Study in Service. It is becoming very generally recognized that the education of a teacher begun in college must be continued in service. Prospective employers should want to know what courses have been taken in summer school, what experience has been had in business or in travel which would increase the effectiveness of the teacher, and what participation the teacher has had in teacher-improvement activities

while teaching—for example, in-service training in guidance, course-of-study construction, home-room management, or other extra-curricular service, and community relationships.

Intelligence-Test Scores, or I. Q. Study after study has shown that while there is little relationship between I. Q. and success in teaching in the elementary school, granted that the teacher is not subnormal, there is a material relationship at the high-school level. No other single factor has been demonstrated to be more closely correlated with the teaching success of *high-school teachers*. While some investigators have reported small coefficients, they are relatively high as compared to those with other factors. Since many colleges and universities have begun to give intelligence tests to all entering students, a way may be devised to obtain some rating on this point. In larger school systems applicants for positions in the high school should be required to take a reliable intelligence test, and their scores should be made a part of their record. Since recommendations, ratings by supervisors, and judgments on the basis of photographs and interviews prove so lacking in validity and reliability, the intelligence-test score promises to be relatively useful.

Sources of Data. The most likely sources of information desired concerning prospective teachers are indicated as follows:

Application Blanks: education, experience, age, health, marital status, height and weight, salary desired, church affiliation, subjects of specialization, activity experience, appearance (photographs), certificate.

References: (1) previous instructors: scholarship, character, personal appearance, personality traits, social qualities, intelligence; (2) school officials: experience, ability to maintain order, teaching ability, character, personal appearance, coöperation and loyalty, health, traits of personality, defects, social qualities, probability of professional growth, health, enthusiasm, and interest in work.

Interviews: personality, appearance, salary desired, health, physical defects, general culture.

Classroom Visitation: scholarship, the ability to maintain order, teaching ability, teaching personality, enthusiasm, and interest in work.

Credentials of Agencies and Bureaus: items listed under application blanks and references; general intelligence.

Relative Validity and Reliability of Certain Types of Data. Perhaps the next most valid and reliable of the sources of data relative to the candidate's ability are observation based upon classroom visitation, answers to direct and personal letters of inquiry (especially if these are from persons competent to judge), and those parts of credentials from placement bureaus which have to do with education and scholarship. Least reliable are photographs and general or indirect letters of recommendation the contents of which are known to the candidate.

Photographs. Photographs are of very little value in predicting success except as they may serve to weed out what appear to be impossible candidates; even in those instances, if information from all other sources is favorable, they should not be taken too seriously. A slight negative correlation has been found between the ratings based on photographs and the ratings of supervisors, principals, and assistant superintendents as to teaching success. It is also interesting that the correlations with recommendations and letters of application were also practically zero. It should be remembered, however, that these correlations were based only on the relatively homogeneous groups that were actually employed in the Minneapolis schools, and these criteria may have been quite serviceable in ruling out distinctly inferior teachers.

Personal Interviews. Even the personal interview taken alone is not much more reliable, as everyone knows who has had experience as director of a university or college placement bureau. Very often excellent teachers do not "sell themselves" well, and those who appear best at first meeting are frequently lacking in qualities necessary for teaching success, prove to be hard to supervise, and are not interested professionally or are otherwise not suited for high-grade service.

Health Data. Because of the continued close contact of pupil and teacher in the classroom, there is need for assurance that

the teacher is free from pulmonary and other contagious diseases. In the interests of efficiency it is also desirable to be assured that the vigor of the teacher is not impaired by constitutional physical weakness. Many schools now require that candidates furnish evidence that they suffer from no weaknesses of those types which will endanger the health of pupils or interfere with the effective discharge of teaching responsibilities. This sometimes takes the form of a certificate from a reputable physician residing in the community in which the teacher has been living. In other districts the contract is conditional upon the approval of the school physician in the employ of the school or some physician appointed by the authorities in that school.

Certification Data. In considering possible candidates for positions it should be determined quite early for each applicant who is being favorably considered whether he will be able to obtain a certificate valid for the position for which he is being considered. Most state departments of public instruction prepare and distribute bulletins of information regarding certification. The new principal should acquaint himself with the requirements as stated in the school law and the regulations of the state department of instruction. Against these requirements should be checked the candidate's qualifications. It is not always safe to take the candidate's word or judgment on this point if he comes from outside the state.

Letters from the Applicant and his References. Considerable reliance may usually be placed on the statements of the candidate as to amount and nature (not quality) of experience, as to approximate height and weight, marital status, and usually with reference to age, church affiliation, and amount of specific preparation for the teaching of any particular subject or subjects. In determining the quality and relative teaching success of the candidates no consideration should be given to general letters of recommendation furnished by them. Only fair confidence may be placed in direct letters of recommendation, even though the candidate is not aware of their contents. Various motives actuate those who write such letters, and their degree

of accuracy and frankness is as wide as the scale of such values. In most instances, in addition to the letters given by the candidate as references, a letter of inquiry should be sent to at least one individual who is in a position to speak of the candidate's success or probable success, particularly if there is one such individual among the friends or professional acquaintances of the selecting officer. This should not be done except in instances in which it is certain that it would not in any way be likely to embarrass the candidate in his present position. If there is any doubt in this matter, permission to write such a letter should first be obtained from the candidate.

Application Forms. Though it is apparent that certain items are essential in application forms, it is difficult to say just what should be included in such forms. The best forms include the items below. (See pages 96, 97, 98 for a good form.)

Personal: age, sex, race or nationality, state of health, sight, hearing, weight and height, bodily infirmities, marital state, religious affiliation, photograph.

Experience: schools, subjects taught, dates, references.

Education: schools, dates, degrees, number of semester credits in major subjects and in other subjects which might be considered as preparation for teaching the subjects the candidate wishes to teach, number of semester hours in education, names of courses.

Extra-curricular activities: experience or preparation for, nature, schools, date.

Reference Forms. Many school officials charged with the responsibility of selecting teachers do not employ blank forms, but merely request a statement from the reference regarding the probable fitness of the candidate for the type of position for which he is applying and which is described in the request. This plan has the advantage of stimulating the reference to give information concerning points which are of such a variety of types that it is practically impossible to include provision for all of them in a form. It also operates in many cases to inspire a feeling of responsibility for the exercise of good faith in revealing all pertinent information. On the other hand, the form saves time and mental effort in thinking of what to men-

BLANK CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BLANK CITY, MINNESOTA

Date_____

Application Form

(Secondary Schools)

Name in full _____ _____

Present address Telephone No. _____

Permanent address Telephone No _____

Date of birth _____ Place of birth

Height _____ Weight _____ Married _____ Widowed

Divorced _____ Number of children _____

Condition of health _____

Physical disabilities, if any _____

Church membership Or church preference _____

Teachers' certificates you now hold _____

List below all schools attended, above elementary, including high school, technical school, commercial school, normal school, college, and university.

Dates Inclusive	Name of School	Location	Certificate or Degree (Give Dates)

In the column below headed "In High School, Business College, or Technical School," list the number of school years that you studied the subject in the schools specified

In the column headed "In Normal School, College, or University," list the number of term hours' credit received at any normal school, college or university. If you find it impossible to answer exactly, give approximate estimates. (To change semester hours to term hours, multiply by 3/2.)

Data on Education and Experience

Subjects	In High School, Business College, or Technical School (Year Units)	In Normal School, College, or University (Semester Houses)
Agriculture		
Art		
Bookkeeping		
Botany		
Chemistry		
Civics		
Commercial law		
Debate		
Dramatics		
Economics		
Education		
English		
French		
General science		
Geology		
German		
History		
Household arts		
Sewing		
Cooking		
Journalism		
Latin		
Library training		
Manual training		
Bench		
Shop		
Forge		
Mathematics		
Mechanical drawing		
Music		
Physical education		
Physics		
Physiology		
Political science		
Public speaking		
Sociology		
Spanish		
Stenography		
(System)		
Typewriting		
Zoölogy		
Attach a list of the courses		
taken in education and		
psychology		

Major subject in college or university _____

Degree or degrees that you hold _____

College distinctions you have received. (Prizes, scholarships, fellowships, honorable mention, honorary organizations, student-body, class or departmental offices.) _____

_____

_____

Clubs, societies, or other organizations to which you belonged in college or university _____

_____

_____

A brief statement as to the part you have taken in college activities: debate, dramatics, etc., not including athletics _____

_____

_____

Forms of athletics you can handle in high school:

Branches	Length and Kind of Experience (Playing or Coaching)

Other extra-curricular activities you could supervise or coach in high school. Underscore twice those you can handle well, and once those you could undertake if necessary. (Most high schools expect teachers to supervise one or more activities.) Debate, dramatics, glee club, orchestra, band, library, girls'-reserve or girl-scout work, boy-scout work, high-school annual or paper

Would you teach vocal music? _____

Conduct chorus practice? _____

Lead singing? _____

What instruments do you play? _____

Foreign languages you speak readily _____

Read easily _____ Write well _____

List below complete record of teaching experience to date Include practice teaching.

Dates Inclusive	Name of School	Location	Chief Subjects Taught	Annual Salary
Practice Teaching				

Other remunerative undertakings:

Dates Inclusive	Location	Description of Duties	Salary or Wages

Subjects you prefer to teach _____
Other subjects you would teach if necessary _____
Give below a list of references, including

1. Those college or university instructors who are best qualified to speak of your proficiency in the subjects you expect to teach.
2. An instructor in a department of education who is able to judge of your fitness as a teacher
3. The supervisor under whom you did your practice teaching.
4. Where necessary, anyone who knows of your ability to handle special lines of work not studied in college or university, as glee club, scout work, etc.
5. The appointment secretary of any college or university with whom you may have registered.
6. The superintendents, principals, or other school officers best able to speak of your experience in the position or positions you have held during the last ten or twelve years.
7. Any other persons you may wish to add who are qualified to speak concerning your professional ability, general fitness, or character.
8. College or university professors who can speak of your ability to teach your subjects of specialization.

Name	Address	Title

A recent photograph, unmounted, size about 2½ x 3½ inches, is necessary. Write your name and address on the back of it.

tion, is much more easily interpreted when filed, and is likely to call for useful information that would otherwise be omitted intentionally or unintentionally. The best forms sent to principals, supervisors, or others who have seen the candidate teach include such items as general success in teaching, ability to maintain orderly classroom procedure, subjects or grades best fitted for, coöperative spirit, capacity for growth, general intelligence, appearance, reason for leaving position, "would you be willing to employ," and weakest point or points.

In order to save the person of whom information is asked from writing, many employing officials have prepared a rating device to be used in connection with appropriate points. Two devices commonly used are the best-answer underscoring device and the graphic rating scheme. These two are illustrated below.

1. Class Control, or Discipline. (Underscore One)

Excellent, better than average, average, not quite average, poor.

2. Class Control, or Discipline. (Place Check on Line)

Very superior Superior Average Not quite average Poor

The graphic device possesses the advantage of permitting the rater to make finer distinctions, if he wishes to make them, by placing a check or cross on the line at any point which he believes appropriate, though he is under no obligation to employ intermediate points. In many of these blanks confusion is encouraged by the employment of words which do not uniformly express the same degree of difference. For example, some blanks employ both "excellent" and "superior"; some designate the highest quality by "superior," and some designate it by "excellent." Ordinarily it is not worth while to distinguish between more than five degrees of quality. Space should always be provided for additional comments, and encouragement offered for such.

The Filing of Data concerning the Teachers Elected. Although it is a conventional courtesy to return to agencies and bureaus the photographs, credentials, and other papers submitted by

them, and photographs and copies of letters of references to candidates, for all candidates not chosen as soon as it is evident that they will not be appointed, it is good policy to retain all information gathered and all correspondence relating to those appointed. This material will be useful in several types of situations, including (1) the assignment of responsibilities in the school to the teacher, (2) any misunderstanding between the candidate and the principal as to the types of work which the candidate professed to be able to do, and (3) as publicity material for news stories in regard to additions to the faculty or any news stories in regard to the particular teacher.

Obtaining an Understanding concerning the Duties of New Teachers. At the time of appointment the newly selected teacher should be informed as to what his duties will be as far as it is possible to do so at that time. This will enable him to make whatever preparation he may feel desirable for his new work. It also reduces the possibility of misunderstanding which may arise when he is given his assignment in the school. Such information should include data relative to his probable teaching load and to extra-curricular or other special responsibilities. When it is possible that the details of the assignment will depend somewhat upon developments at the time of making the schedule, this should be made clear to the teacher. It is wise to give this information in writing and to preserve a copy for future reference.

The assignment of teachers to their duties, involving the question of the measurement and size of teaching loads and of the most effective allocation of duties, is in itself a very important responsibility. Chapter V will be devoted to this and related problems.

National Teachers' Examinations. In recent years the Cooperative Test Service has been preparing and giving in various cities in the country a group of tests to measure educational possessions most likely to contribute to the success of teachers. The tests, revised annually, cover such fields as

1. Education, including guidance, methods, curriculum, community relationships, psychology of learning, etc.

2. General information, emphasizing contemporary affairs, events, and developments.
3. Certain special fields—for example, science, mathematics, English, and home economics.
4. Elementary-school subjects.

Upon payment of a small fee, the teacher or prospective teacher may take as many of these examinations as he or she wishes, have the papers scored, recorded, and sent to any administrator or board of education whom she designates. There is no failing or passing mark. The score and its percentile rank among all taking the particular examination are recorded and forwarded to the employing person or board designated by the teacher. The employing agency may evaluate the score in any way it chooses.

Sex. It has been an objective in American education to maintain a balance between men and women teachers in grades above the first six. This has been due not primarily to a belief that men make better teachers in certain subjects,[1] though it is widely thought that men make better teachers of social studies, science, and industrial arts. It has been due primarily to the belief that high-school boys and girls should come in contact with both masculine and feminine personalities. The employment of good men at the same salaries as women is very difficult, and it seems probable that the single-salary schedule is depriving high-school youngsters of as much contact with superior men as is desirable.

Marital Status. Discussions of the relative merits of married and unmarried teachers have been endless and usually decisionless. From the point of view of general social considerations, there is something to be said against taking married women away from their homes and children and putting them into

[1]Herda discovered that, as far as results on the Minnesota state board examinations are concerned, what differences there are between men and women in teaching effectiveness are at least as often in favor of the women as they are of the men. See F. J. Herda, "Relative Instructional Efficiency of Men and Women Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research* (November, 1935), Vol XXIX, pp. 196–203.

competition with breadwinners. From the point of view of teaching effectiveness, test scores of pupils and opinions of supervisors do not settle the question. Married women, on the whole, seem to understand children a little better, but not much. They seem, on the whole, a little better balanced mentally, at least after thirty. They are usually not so professional in their interests, not keenly interested in attending committee or teachers' meetings or other activities of professional growth, usually belong to cliques, factions, or other groups along with their husbands, and are very difficult to discharge when incompetent or uncoöperative. Unmarried men tend to become romantic occasionally about high-school girls, as, indeed, occasionally an unmarried woman does about a high-school boy.

Studies by Moehlman, Peters, and others, when thrown together into the hopper, furnish no basis for believing that married teachers are either inferior or superior on the whole. A practice with much theoretical support but rarely found in reality is that of employing married women for half-days only.

Other Family Affiliations. Another perennial question is that of the relative desirability of the teacher whose parents live in the community—the home-talent teacher. On the basis of teaching efficiency, there is in all probability little difference whether a given teacher teaches in her home town or elsewhere. There are, however, objections on other scores, among them being that (1) home-town teachers of poor ability can bring pressure to bear upon local boards and thus secure employment which they could not otherwise secure; (2) they are hard to deal with when they fall short in competence, coöperation, or professional growth, or develop differences with their colleagues; (3) they are subject to all the antagonisms and antagonists which the family has developed in the community, which often prove a handicap in pupil and parent relationships.

Pupil Ratings. Collections of pupil opinion reveal that pupils like teachers who are good-natured, helpful, "human," impartial, and who "understand" them, make work interesting, and command respect. Just what behavior on the part of the teacher will evoke the foregoing pupil reactions it is hard to

say or describe—maybe high grades, low standards, entertainment, flattery; maybe excellent teaching, forceful personality, or real knowledge of juvenile human nature. At any rate, it is hard to obtain reliable data on applicants for teaching positions on these points.

Problems and Exercises

1. From a state high-school directory or from a report of the state as to the size of the staff and the number of pupils enrolled, determine which high schools are positively overstaffed and which understaffed. Note the size of these schools.

2. What administrative staff should be employed for a high school of 100 pupils? of 275 pupils? of 650 pupils? of 1375 pupils?

3. Draw up a plan for the division of duties between a high-school principal and the superintendent of schools, in a city of from 10,000 to 20,000 population, in recruiting the high-school staff to the needed size for the coming year.

4. Summarize the arguments for and against employing married women in the high school. Suggest a policy of procedure.

5. Summarize the arguments for and against employing local teachers in the high school. Suggest a policy of procedure.

6. Obtain from several principals or superintendents statements as to what they consider the relative points of strength and of weakness of the following sources of teachers: teachers' agencies, recommendations of citizens in the community, college placement bureaus, direct applications of teachers, and search for good teachers in other schools.

7. Prepare a brief of the arguments for or against one of the following propositions, taking the side that seems to you more sound:

a. Junior-high-school teachers should have had four years of training above the high school.

b. Senior-high-school teachers should have had a year of training beyond the bachelor's degree.

c. Junior-college teachers should have had the equivalent of two years' training beyond the bachelor's degree.

8. After reading the discussion of the relative validity of various qualities of teachers, what would you consider the most important

items of information by which to select teachers from among candidates?

9. Write out a list of suggestions of how to conduct interviews with candidates for vacancies, noting what information you would attempt to gather.

10. Make up an application blank which you would consider practical for use in selecting high-school teachers.

11. Make up a form to be used in getting information from those who might be in a position to speak of the merits of candidates.

12. For a school of a size of your own choosing describe what part should be played by the board of education, the superintendent, the principal, and the heads of departments in selecting teachers.

13. What five professional courses would you consider the most desirable for high-school teachers? Name five which you consider of little value.

14. What are the requirements for each of the various types of certificates valid for junior or senior high schools in your state?

15. Select some field in the high school and list the subject-matter courses which you think it very desirable that teachers in that field should have taken in college

V

Assigning the Staff

1. THE TEACHER'S LOAD, OR ASSIGNMENT

Departmental Assignment. Secondary education in the United States seems definitely committed to assignment of teachers to subjects on the departmental basis rather than the class basis, and long and general trial seems to have justified the practice. Nevertheless many principals have somehow allowed the teaching assignments in their schools to become of a semi-departmental nature. This has been owing perhaps to two causes: (1) the impossibility of observing departmental assignments in small schools and (2) the tendency to permit teachers remaining from previous years to select the subjects which they will teach without reference to the consequent assortment of subjects which will make up the assignment of new teachers. This tendency, it is perhaps needless to say, is unfortunate and should be restricted. In small schools, where the practice is most frequent, the incoming teacher is very likely to be less able to do creditable work under adverse conditions than is the more experienced teacher. The welfare of the school should take precedence over the preferences of the older instructor. A compromise between the two practices should be the limit to which priority should be accorded to experience in the school.

In the junior high school, departmental assignments may well be modified in the interest of achieving gradual transition from the room-teacher plan of the elementary school to complete departmentalization in the senior high school. In many of the better junior high schools it is the practice to assign pupils for two or even three subjects in the seventh grade to one teacher who is also their home-room adviser. In general such assignments should be given to teachers with experience in the upper grades. The subjects so combined depend more upon the preparation and interests of the teacher than upon the relationships between the subjects themselves.

Junior-High-School Teachers. Except under unusual conditions the practice, which prevails rather widely, of assigning only ninth-grade sections in the junior high school to college and university graduates and seventh-grade and eighth-grade sections to graduates of teachers' colleges and normal schools is of doubtful wisdom, operating as it does to preserve features of the 8-4 plan and to hinder the gradual transition, reorganization, and articulation of the curriculum. No doubt this practice, which was employed as an emergency measure when, at the time of the establishment of some junior high schools, elementary-school teachers with inadequate academic training had to be absorbed into the new school, has been continued for no good reason other than the unfortunate feeling on the part of many college and university graduates that it is not appropriate for them to be assigned to teach classes below the ninth grade.

Duplicate Preparations. It is impossible to state with any confidence a general rule for practice in the matter of assigning sections requiring duplicate preparations. Many teachers would prefer teaching five sections with three or four preparations to five similar sections. It is possible, however, that what teachers prefer may not be to the best interests of the pupils.

Reichard[1] reported that Minneapolis high-school teachers spend on the average as much time per section when teaching duplicate sections as when teaching non-duplicative ones. However, this does not preclude the probability that teachers on the average give about so much time to preparation, and that if time is available more careful planning and preparation are made; otherwise, the time available is distributed among the different preparations. It is certain that little or no time in marking papers and in doing other clerical work is saved by assigning duplicate sections. In the absence of convincing experimental data it seems reasonable to assume that more thorough preparation and the economies peculiar to specialization

[1]C. E. Reichard, *The Working Day of the High School Teacher in Minneapolis.* An unpublished Master of Arts thesis at the University of Minnesota.

will be realized by assigning to teachers sections requiring not more than three different preparations and possibly only two.

Number of Classes Daily. In the interests of effective teaching care should be taken that the instructor is not asked to meet an excessive number of classes daily. The teaching load in the high schools and upper elementary schools of the United States has been uniformly too high. During the past quarter-century the average teaching load in the high school measured in terms of sections taught has diminished from approximately six to approximately five daily. Yet this reduction has been compensated for by the increased responsibility for the extra-curricular program of the school, by the need of more careful attention to greater individual differences in high-school pupils, and by the greater size of sections owing to the increase in size of high schools and the growing conviction that larger classes may be taught as effectively as smaller ones. In England, France, and Germany—in spite of the fact that in these countries extra-curricular activities require much less time of instructors and the traditional subject matter is well crystallized, is almost reduced to formula, and requires very little reorganization—the secondary-school teacher is rarely responsible for more than four class periods daily.

A teaching load of six sections daily should be regarded as a maximum to be avoided wherever possible, and an assignment of five sections daily should carry with it little or no study-hall or other extra-class duties. Where as much as an hour a day is given over to those or other coöperations, the load should be not greater than four daily sections. In other words, the daily teaching load, including coöperations, should not exceed the equivalent of five sections daily. For teachers of subjects requiring double periods one or more days a week, the load should obviously be less. An assignment of five classes a day requiring, let us say, 250 minutes gross for class meetings would leave of an eight-hour day, 230 minutes for marking papers, conferences with pupils, teachers' meetings, and various other routine and occasional duties, and for preparation. Deducting 80 minutes daily for marking papers and for other

duties, there is left not more than 150 minutes for the preparation and planning of instruction—but 30 minutes per class. This seems certainly an irreducible minimum if anything of a higher order than impromptu teaching is expected. If time for study halls or extra-curricular activities must be deducted from these 150 minutes, the result is either more or less impromptu teaching or a longer work day. In view of the wearing nature of teaching, a school day of more than eight hours is consistent neither with healthy living of teachers nor with fair working requirements. Where class periods are longer, as in the 55-minute to 70-minute supervised study periods, the load in terms of sections taught daily should be less than indicated above, depending on the length of the class period. It is, for example, probably fair to consider teaching five sections of 45-minute periods daily as the equivalent of four and a half sections daily for a 60-minute period.

During the first half of the thirties, the depression years, teacher loads and class size increased as an economy measure chosen in preference to decreases in salaries. In the latter half of the decade this tendency was checked.

Table IV. Pupil-Teacher Ratio in Senior High Schools, 1930–1931 to 1940–1941[1]

Size of City	1930-1931	1935-1936	1940-1941
Over 100,000	28.5	31.1	31.1
30,000 to 100,000	26.9	29.0	29.4

Junior-High-School and Junior-College Teaching Loads. Because of the relative simplicity of the subject matter and the smaller amount covered daily, the teaching load of junior-high-school teachers may reasonably be slightly greater than that of senior-high-school teachers by probably as much as the equiva-

[1]National Education Association, Research Division, and American Association of School Administrators, *Size of Class in 150 Public School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population*, Educational Research Service Circular No. 10, 1941; *Size of Class in Public Schools in 60 Cities over 100,000 in Population*, Educational Research Circular No. 7, 1941.

lent of half the load incident to a daily section. That is, teachers in junior high school should rarely be assigned more than five classes a day plus a study hall or the equivalent in supervision of extra-curricular activities. If periods are as long as from 55 to 60 minutes, as they frequently are in junior high schools, the maximum figure should probably be reduced by the equivalent of half a section daily.

Though college teachers are ordinarily not assigned more than fifteen hours a week of teaching and, on the average, less than that amount, with no study halls or responsibility for extra-curricular activities, many other types of service, such as research, publication, and public addresses, are expected of them which will not be required in any great amount of junior-college teachers. Yet the greater difficulty and larger assignments of the subject matter of junior-college subjects and the greater amounts covered daily argue for a load somewhat less than that assigned in high school. Upon the basis of the consideration of present practice as reported in several studies, upon standards recommended, and upon common-sense reasoning, an average load of about 20 sections weekly for two-year institutions and about 22 sections weekly for four-year institutions, including the eleventh and twelfth grades, may be regarded as maximum teaching loads. If supervision of study halls or extra-curricular activities or other extras are required, corresponding reductions in the weekly teaching load should be made.

Number of Pupils Taught Daily. In the foregoing paragraphs class sections have been thought of as of average size: that is, as averaging from 20 to 25 pupils. If the number of pupils taught daily is much greater or less, the number of daily sections assigned should be correspondingly decreased or increased. Just what ratio of equivalence between pupils and sections should be observed cannot be stated with any great degree of confidence or accuracy. A discussion of this point will be found in a later section of this chapter.

Load of the Beginning Teacher. A recent study by Anderson shows that some principals assign a slightly lighter load to the

beginning teacher than to the experienced teacher, but this practice is not uniform. In fact, it is probably offset on the whole by the tendency to assign to beginning teachers a wider range of subjects to be taught. The data of several investigations show that the beginning high-school teacher is assigned classes in two or three different fields more often than in one field. It is not uncommon for the assignment to involve four or more fields.

There is little cause for wonder that the beginning teacher does not organize or plan her instruction properly, but teaches in a more or less impromptu, lesson-hearing manner, and in an altogether too large percentage of instances becomes habituated to that procedure, never reaching a much higher level.

It would be fortunate and wise, indeed, if beginning teachers might not be required to teach more than two or three classes daily, the load being gradually increased with experience. However, to so assign beginning teachers would not be practical from the point of view of the local district unless salaries were adjusted proportionally. To do this would reduce the salaries of beginning teachers so much that unless it were done on a state-wide basis, few beginning teachers would be interested in teaching positions except in districts paying very high salaries. It should prove a valuable experiment for those districts which do pay relatively high salaries to employ a few such "apprentice teachers" each year, selecting promising candidates and assigning to them reduced teaching loads with salaries which, while adjusted accordingly, would approximate those paid in smaller districts.

Administrative Responsibility for Teacher Assignments. The problem of deciding who should arrange the assignments of teachers will naturally depend upon the size of the particular schools. In the smaller schools it should be a coöperative affair in which the superintendent, principal, other teachers directly concerned, and the teacher in question should all be consulted. If the school is very small, having, let us say, fewer than six or eight teachers, and the superintendent is virtually

the high-school principal as well, he should take the initiative. In larger districts, particularly those in which the schedule is made by the high-school principal, the initiative in teacher assignment should rest in his hands. As the schools become larger and the importance of the department head as an assistant in administration increases, the consideration given his counsel naturally increases. In schools with enrollments of from 1800 to 2000 or more, the assignments of teachers may well be left almost entirely to the respective department heads, subject, of course, to general principles laid down and to final approval by the principal. In schools of smaller size, where department heads are designated, they should at least be consulted concerning assignments of teachers in their departments and their recommendations given consideration in proportion to their respective abilities to approach the problem impartially and in accordance with modern theories and facts of school administration.

2. MEASURING THE TEACHER'S LOAD

Factors in the Teaching Load. The units most commonly employed in measuring teaching loads are, in the order of their importance: (1) the number of sections, (2) the number of pupils, and (3) the number of free periods. It should be obvious that neither of these units taken separately is a satisfactory measure of the time required of instructors or of the teaching load.

Since schools differ materially in the length of the class periods and in the length of the school day, the number of free periods is clearly not serviceable. It is equally obvious that still other factors affect the teaching load. The principal factors determining the teaching load are:

1. The number of sections taught daily (or weekly).
2. The number of pupils taught.
3. The number of different preparations required.
4. The amount of time required for coöperations: study halls, activities, etc.

5. The length of the class period.

6. The nature of the subject taught and the consequent amount of time required for preparation, for marking papers and notebooks, and for arranging equipment, apparatus, and materials.

7. The personnel of the pupils taught: tractability, range of individual differences in ability, etc.

8. The age and maturity of the pupils taught and the consequent character of the subject matter.

Any accurate means of measuring the teaching load should take into consideration several of these factors at least, if not all of them.

A Formula for Measuring the Teaching Load. The formula given below for measuring the teaching load of teachers in the junior and senior high schools takes into consideration the more important factors in the teaching load.

$$TL = \left[CP - \frac{2\,Dup}{10} + \frac{(NP - 20\,CP)}{100} + \frac{PC}{2}\right]\left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right]^{1}$$

TL = units of teaching load per week.

CP = class periods spent in classroom per week.

Dup = number of class periods spent per week in classroom teaching classes for which the preparation is very similar to that for some other section, not including the original section.

NP = number of pupils in classes per week.

PC = number of class periods spent per week in supervision of the study hall, student activities, teachers' meetings, committee work, assisting in administrative or supervisory work, or other coöperations.

PL = gross length in minutes of class periods.

Perhaps the method of evaluation and the significance of the formula for individual cases will be better understood if we apply it to the activities of a given teacher. Let us consider the instance of a teacher who meets three sections of English I and two classes of English II daily, enrolling 34, 34, 32, 30,

[1]By simple algebraic manipulation the formula may be reduced to

$$\left[\frac{8\,CP + .1\,NP - 2\,Dup + 5\,PC}{10}\right]\left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right].$$

and 24 students, respectively, and, in addition, supervises a study hall two periods a week, coaches a glee club, in which he spends time equivalent to an average of two class periods weekly, and gives on the average two class periods a week to department and faculty meetings and to other coöperations. The class periods are 55 minutes in length.

$$TL = \left[25 - \frac{2 \times 15}{10} + \frac{170 + 170 + 160 + 150 + 120 - 20 \times 25}{100} + \frac{6}{2}\right]\left[\frac{55 + 55}{100}\right]$$

$$= [25 - 3 + 2.7 + 3][1\ 1] = 27.7 \times 1.1$$

$$= 30.47 \text{ load units weekly or } 6.09 \text{ load units daily.}$$

Application to Special Types of Classes. In applying the formula to classes requiring no reading and no marking of written work (for example, physical education or music), the term pertaining to the number of pupils should either be divided by 2 or, better still, be omitted entirely.

In applying the formula to double-period classes in science laboratory, household arts, typewriting, and art or shop of various types, the following procedure should be employed:

1. Count each double period as two class periods (*CP*).
2. Count each double period as one unit of duplicate preparation over and above any other allowance made for duplicate preparation.
3. Count the number of pupils for each half of double period.

For example, for the instance of an instructor who teaches four classes of twenty-five pupils each in physics meeting twice a week for 90-minute laboratory periods, the first three terms in the formula are evaluated as follows:

$$TL = 28 - \frac{2 \times (21 + 8)}{10} + \frac{4 \times 175 - 28 \times 20}{100} \text{ or } 23.6 \text{ units.}$$

The *21* in the parenthesis represents the twenty-one periods given to classes which are duplicates of the first class, and the *8* represents the eight double periods in accordance with the second of the three instructions above.

As soon as possible the time spent in coöperations such as home rooms and supervising or coaching extra-curricular activities in each individual school should be studied and each of the responsibilities be evaluated in terms of load units. To do so will preclude the possibility of the teaching loads being calculated as higher than they should be owing to the spending of an inordinate amount of time upon an activity or to faulty estimates by individual teachers of the time spent in these activities.

Assumptions and Units Involved in the Formula. In the formula as given, the teaching load (TL) is furnished in units, each of which is theoretically equivalent to teaching one period a class which requires preparation, in which there are twenty pupils and which meets for 45 minutes.

The assumptions underlying the formula are as follows:

1. That in teaching two sections requiring practically identical preparation the amount of total work for the duplicate section in class and out is reduced approximately 20 per cent if the quality of preparation is held constant.

2. That the additional teaching load resulting from large sections may be expressed in terms of the teaching load incidental to one section of average size by counting each 100 pupils met daily, in excess of an average load of 20 pupils per section, as equal to the load resulting from teaching one section of average size. For example, of two instructors, one teaching five sections a day averaging 42 pupils each and the other teaching five sections averaging 22 pupils each, the former is assigned a load greater than that of the latter by one daily section requiring preparation:

$$\frac{1050 - 500}{100} - \frac{550 - 500}{100} = 5 \text{ class periods a week.}$$

3. That two class periods spent in coöperation are equivalent to teaching for one day one section requiring normal preparation.

4. That increasing the length of the class period by five minutes is equivalent to increasing the teaching load by one twentieth of a normal class with preparation for each period taught daily; for example, ten minutes added to the length of the class period would add to the load involved in teaching five sections daily an amount equivalent to half a section.

Perhaps the formula may be best employed to measure only instructional load, omitting the factor relating to "co-operations"; that is, $\frac{PC}{2}$. In larger city systems investigations may be made to advantage upon the data of which equivalents of performing extra-instructional duties (for example, coaching an extra-curricular organization in terms of teaching-load units) may be standardized.

These assumptions are not finely accurate or truly objective. They represent a compromise between the consensus of opinion of a number of groups of graduate students made up of experienced teachers and principals and such studies as those by Reichard, Koos,[1] and Brownell.[2]

However, it should be quite clear that the use of the formula will yield much more accurate and reliable measures of teaching loads than to take as criteria either the number of classes taught or the number of pupils taught, neither of which takes direct cognizance of the other, and both of which ignore the saving in preparation owing to duplicate sections, the time spent in coöperations, and the differences in the length of the class period. It is also maintained that the assumptions are in all probability very close to the truth, and that the formula will yield estimates that are as accurate and valid for ordinary administrative and supervisory purposes as a great many formulas upon which important estimates and decisions are made in the industrial and business world, or more so.

Making Allowances for Differences in Load between Different Subjects. It may be noted that no allowance is made in the formula for differences in load which may be caused by the nature of the subject matter. It is often asserted that teaching a class in English requires more time than teaching a class in any other subject, because of the large amount of papers to be read and the detail with which they should be read. It is frequently asserted that teachers of science and history should

[1]Frank H. Koos, *A Study of the Teaching Load of 236 Minnesota High School Teachers*. Master of Arts thesis at the University of Minnesota, 1925.

[2]S. M. Brownell, *The Working Hours of Secondary School Teachers in Connecticut*. Unpublished thesis, Yale University, 1926.

spend more time in preparation for their classes than should teachers of mathematics or of foreign languages, the subject matter for each of the latter being largely confined to a textbook and needing little review.

Evidence supporting these assertions is furnished in the studies of Koos and Reichard, previously mentioned. The average of the median time spent by the teachers involved in the two studies in connection with teaching duties are as follows in the various subjects: English, 93 minutes; history and the social studies, 87.5 minutes; languages, 78.5 minutes; mathematics, 75 minutes; science, 74.5 minutes; commercial subjects, 73.5 minutes; industrial arts and household arts (Reichard only), 58.8 minutes.

These data are suggestive in spite of the fact that the amounts reported are probably influenced to some degree by the practice of many principals to assign heavier loads in the number of class periods daily to teachers of household arts, industrial and commercial subjects, foreign languages and mathematics, and lighter loads to teachers of English, and the consequent fact that the latter have more time to spend in preparation.

The amounts of time spent in preparation for classes in various subjects as reported by 424 teachers to Woody and Bergman in their study, made some time earlier, agree in general with those reported by Reichard and Koos, though the amount of time spent in preparation for mathematics is relatively lower and that spent for science (particularly biology) much greater. The study also shows that teachers of fine arts and physical education spend relatively small amounts of time in preparation. Results of a study by Tritt and Keyes, in Los Angeles high schools, confirms, except in minor details, the findings of previous workers. If for the purpose of more precise measurement it is desired to take cognizance of the factor of the difference in the amount of time required by different subjects, the following tentative coefficients are suggested, based on the unit of the average time required by foreign languages: English, science, and history and social studies, including

commercial law and geography, 1.1; foreign languages, commercial subjects, and mathematics, 1; all shop subjects, household arts, and art, .9; music and physical education, .8.

If this factor is employed, the formula will read

$$TL = SC\left[CP - \frac{2\,Dup}{10} + \frac{(NP - 20\,CP)}{100}\right]\left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right] + \frac{PC}{2}\left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right]$$

In case the teacher teaches more than one subject, the load for each subject should be computed separately (omitting the term $\frac{PC}{2}$), then added, and the total multiplied by $\left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right]$, to which product $\left(\frac{PC}{2}\right) \times \left[\frac{PL + 55}{100}\right]$ is finally added.

Teaching-Load Norms. Teaching-load norms based upon data from 1136 teachers in various parts of the country are as follows:

Upper quartile, 34.4 Median, 31.1 Lower quartile, 28.2

Teachers of shop subjects and teachers in large schools seem to be assigned smaller loads than those of academic subjects and those in smaller schools.

Measuring the Load in the Junior High School and the Junior College. For comparing teaching loads in the junior high school and junior college, the formulas described above may be used. Junior-high-school geography, physiology, and vocational study should be given the subject coefficient of the social studies and science.

It should be obvious that units of load as measured by the formula in the junior high school, for example, will not be comparable to units of load in the senior high school or in the junior college. Either different standards for the different schools must be kept in mind, or some allowance must be made for the differences owing to the greater amount of time spent in preparation, conferences, and other extra-classroom activities in the higher schools. No one knows exactly just what allowance should be made. In all likelihood a ratio of 1.2, 1, and .8 is as

close to the true relationship as any ratios which do not go into the second decimal. That is, 1.2 teaching-load units in the junior high school are equivalent to 1 teaching-load unit in the senior high school and to .8 teaching-load unit in the two-year junior college; consequently 1.5 units in junior high school may be regarded as equivalent to 1 unit in junior college. Teaching 4 classes daily in the junior college for a class period of 55 minutes is therefore equivalent, approximately, to teaching 5 classes of the same size daily in the same subject in the senior high school for a period of 57 minutes and to teaching 6 classes in the junior high school with 40-minute periods.

3. EQUALIZING AND REDUCING THE LOAD

Equalizing the Load. In the interest of fairness and the good will of the teaching staff and of the working efficiency of the school, the principal should exercise considerable care to make his assignments in such a way that the load will be equally divided among members of the staff, and he should be constantly alive to every opportunity to reduce the demands made upon their time and physical and mental energy. By the use of the formula described above or by some other reasonable method he should keep check on the loads carried by every member of his staff. It is not unlikely that it will soon become conventional to ask each instructor to file at periodic intervals estimates of time spent in various types of coöperations, so that such a check may be fairly complete. This is already being done in the majority of larger universities and colleges in the form of term work-sheets. The shortcoming of these lies in the inaccuracy resulting from the large interval of time covered by each report. Checking on summaries of such reports will enable the principal to see what demands are made on the time of various members of his staff by various coöperations, to judge whether the activity is worthy of the teacher time required, and to consider the possibility of adjusting the management of those activities making excessive demands.

It does not necessarily follow that all teachers should have exactly the same load. Men may on the average safely teach larger classes than women; teachers of either sex who are strong in elements of control may be given larger classes than others.

Number of Sections versus Size. Among the most fruitful opportunities for reducing the teaching load is the reduction in the number of sections to be taught daily. This may be brought about without increasing the size of the staff (by increasing the size of the section and eliminating small sections).

The traditional belief that much better results can be made in small sections than in large ones has not been verified by the many studies of the influence of class size upon scores made on standard achievement tests. Whatever may be said of the possibilities afforded for better adapting instruction to individual needs and abilities, the general trend of conclusions from experimental studies is clear and marked; namely, that, as measured by teachers' marks or objective tests, the results obtained in small sections are on the whole very little if any greater than in larger sections. By no freak of chance could the results so uniformly fail to favor small sections if smaller sections were actually superior in proportion to the increase in cost of instruction and in teaching load that is necessary to make small sections possible. Not only do marks and test scores indicate that no better results are achieved in small sections, but also more teachers prefer to teach sections of medium size than small sections.

The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges for years set 25 pupils as a "norm" for the size of sections, but within recent years it has employed no standard or maximum as to class size. Many of the best high schools in the larger cities have set normal section sizes as high as from 35 to 40 pupils. Yet teachers and principals in many small schools have persuaded themselves that sections enrolling more than 30 pupils or, in many schools, even more than 25 should be divided. Some school buildings have unwisely been so constructed as to make it very inconvenient to seat more than 30 pupils in each room. Many instructors in household arts and

shop subjects have believed that not more than 16 or 20 pupils could be taught effectively in one section, while they had but to visit schools in neighboring cities to find sections of 24 or more making equally desirable progress. It would seem obvious that for most teachers 4 sections averaging 30 pupils each is definitely a lighter load than 5 sections averaging 24 pupils each or 6 sections averaging 20 pupils each, though the pupil load is exactly 120 pupils in each instance.

Elimination of Small Sections. As suggested in Chapter III, there may be found in many high schools sections in foreign languages, mathematics, physics, chemistry, and other subjects enrolling an extravagantly small number, often as few as five or six pupils. In the interests of effective teaching as well as of economy, the principal should exert his influence to eliminate small sections. By so doing the teaching load may often be materially reduced with no extra cost to the district. The principal should not be led into the fallacy in reasoning which traps many conscientious teachers in smaller schools, by permitting the teacher concerned to teach the small section as a labor of love in addition to his full teaching schedule. As often as not the extra section does actually figure (at least partly) in the "regular" load, smaller classes being assigned or the extra class being made the excuse for not assisting in coöperations. Even were this not so, the other sections taught by the teacher are deprived of extra hours of his time—time otherwise available for preparation and planning or for professional reading, but which now must be given to instructing the extra class. It is an instance in which the teacher's level of effectiveness must be protected against his zeal for his favorite subject.

Assignment in Relation to Special Fitness. Maximum effectiveness of the teaching staff may be realized only when each teacher is, as nearly as possible, given work to do which he can do best. Results of a very large number of investigations show that teachers in large numbers are assigned subjects for which they are poorly or only fairly prepared to teach. English majors, for example, are often assigned foreign languages and history, but no English; and history majors are put to teach-

ing mathematics and science, but no history. Even the college major of the teacher does not furnish sufficiently detailed information. It is desirable to know what phases of history or English he is especially interested in and qualified to teach. It is desirable to know what experience and success he has had in subjects and in participating in or coaching, directing, or supervising extra-curricular activities. Because these data are useful in this manner and in order that the assignments may be most wisely made, the application blank, credentials, and letters of recommendation—the entire file accumulated when the teacher was a candidate for a position—should be placed in the hands of the principal. In smaller schools interviews with new teachers may serve to furnish information on their special lines of ability.

In six-year secondary schools it is well worth while to consider whether the candidate's experience, preparation, personality, and interests better fit him for younger or for older pupils. In a number of instances the author has materially increased the usefulness of a teacher by changing the teaching assignment to lower or upper grades of pupils and, on several occasions, by changing the department in which the teacher taught from what appeared first to be his strongest subject to one in which he was reasonably adequately prepared but in which he was much better adapted to teach. Among such instances that occur to the author are the following: an English teacher who had an academic major in English, but whose personality made her a much better drill master in algebra than an interpreter of literature; a teacher of junior-high-school history who could not manage younger children, largely because she did not understand them, but who succeeded rather well in senior-high-school history; and a history teacher who by nature was not interested in political and economic problems, in spite of her many college courses in history, in which she received high marks, made a much happier and much more effective teacher of typewriting.

A few hours spent in careful study of all available relevant data of this sort will often yield big dividends—results all

out of proportion to the same number of hours spent in trying to make teachers more effective. Teachers cannot be relied upon entirely to know just what they can do best for the school. In a high school in which the author was principal he finally withdrew the supervision of dramatics from a teacher who believed that she was outstandingly successful in that field, because her work in another field, work for which she was much better adapted, suffered from the diversion of her time and attention to making a very mediocre showing in dramatics. Teachers sometimes insist that of several lines they have reasonable hope to succeed in they are best prepared to teach that which seems the best lead to greater financial returns. It is a problem which is frequently given but passing attention, only gross and obvious data being considered. The results of such maladministration are rarely attached to the proper causes. Since such decisions bind all parties for at least a semester, they should be made with unusual care.

A considerable proportion of the assignment to teachers of classes in subjects for which they are not prepared is the result of assigning to teachers new to the school the scraps after older teachers have chosen what subjects they wish to teach.

Library Personnel. The work of the librarian has become so increasingly important, and the opportunity for service makes such demands of time and special training, that all larger high schools, let us say with enrollments in excess of 500 pupils, should provide a full-time trained librarian. Part of the librarian's salary, often more than half, is compensated for by the decreased amount of time required of teachers in supervising study halls. The librarian should have a certain amount of library training, though he need not have highly specialized public-library training and experience. Even in small high schools, at least part-time librarians should be employed for not less than one-third time. Among teachers without definite library training, instructors in English usually are, by the nature of their work, best qualified to take over the responsibility of the library until they can obtain training or until some trained person is obtained.

Lightening the Teacher's Load. Years ago Edmonson published some suggestions for reducing the teacher's load. No better published statement has since appeared. They include the following:[1]

1. By providing substitutes promptly rather than allowing the teachers or the principal to assume the work of an absent teacher.
2. By providing new teachers with summarized statements of the established rules, regulations, and policies enforced in the school building (brief and specific).
3. By providing facilities for mimeographing material needed for instructional purposes.
4. By avoiding long, tedious, uninteresting teachers' meetings at the close of a full day of regular work.
5. By preventing or reducing to a minimum the interferences with the usual routine of the daily schedule; that is, special assemblies, interruptions by visitors, etc.
6. By cultivating on the part of the pupils a wholesome respect for the authority of the teacher.
7. By protecting the teachers against the unwarranted attacks of spiteful critics.
8. By removing promptly objectionable and incorrigible pupils from the average classes or rooms.
9. By allowing teachers to use the clerical help of the school for letters relating to school organizations or school business.
10. By providing simplified forms for all regular school reports, notices, etc.
11. By insuring that new teachers secure wholesome and pleasant places to room and board.
12. By insuring that new teachers have adequate opportunity to form social contacts with the most desirable elements of the community.
13. By adjusting the teaching load according to the experience of teachers.
14. By securing needed instructional supplies in advance of the date of actual use.
15. By systematizing the making up of "missed work" in such a way as to give teachers certain freedom at the close of school.

[1] J. B. Edmonson, "How to Lighten the Teaching Load," *Journal of Education* (October, 1922), Vol. XCVI, pp. 325–326.

16. By providing student messengers, student assistants in laboratory work, student assistants in library work, etc.

17. By reducing the number of different daily subject preparations per teacher.

18. By helping teachers to discover time-saving methods for conducting written quizzes and for testing daily preparations.

19. By helping teachers to discover other ways of solving disciplinary problems than the customary one of keeping pupils after school.

20. By conducting supervision in such a way as to eliminate fear.

Fundamental Principles. An excellent statement of principles underlying better practice in assigning teachers is that of the Commission on Research and Service of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The eight principles are quoted from that statement:[1]

1. There should exist in every secondary school a definitely formulated policy relative to the combinations of duties assigned to teachers, together with long-term plans for its progressive realization.

2. Individual teaching assignments should be considered as reasonably flexible and subject to change in accordance with the best interests of the school

3. Every secondary-school position should be held by a teacher who is qualified for the total combination of duties assigned to it.

4. Every secondary-school teacher should be assigned to subject-matter fields in which he possesses broad, as well as concentrated, preparation.

5. Every teaching assignment in the secondary school should be limited to not more than two broad fields of subject matter.

6. As nearly as possible, each teacher should be assigned in conformity with the most frequently occurring teaching combinations.

7. The extra-class responsibilities in a school should be regarded as a part of the teachers' assignments and should be considered in determining their total loads.

8. Whenever possible, new and inexperienced teachers should be assigned relatively light loads in comparison with their colleagues.

[1] *Assigning Teachers in the Secondary School: A Guide to Better Practice* (8 pages), Report of the Subcommittee on High Schools of the Committee on Preparation of High School Teachers, 1943.

Problems and Exercises

1. Summarize the arguments for and against departmentalization.

2. In what ways, if any, do "duplicate" classes lighten the teaching load?

3. How would a teacher spend that time most profitably if 45 minutes were available for the preparation of every lesson?

4. Supply the details of three actual or hypothetical teaching assignments and evaluate the load of each by means of the formula given in this chapter.

5. Examine the terms of the formula carefully and suggest alterations. What term or terms would you omit in order to obtain a shorter form of the formula?

6. Read one or more of the experimental studies on size of classes and give your own conclusions as to just exactly what may be safely concluded from it or them.

7. If possible obtain a schedule of classes on which is noted the number of pupils in each section. Show how, if possible, the teaching load may be materially reduced without employing more teachers.

8. For a high school of a size which you set, outline a division of duties and responsibilities between the head of the department, the principal, and the superintendent of schools in assigning loads to teachers.

9. Give three reasons why principals do not more regularly study carefully the details of college preparation in subject matter of teachers for the class work for which they are assigned.

10. How do you account for the relative amounts of time spent in teaching the different subjects as found by Reichard and Koos?

VI

Constructing the School Schedule

In the high school, organized as it is upon a plan of departmental instruction in which students go from one classroom to another for instruction in different subjects, it is absolutely necessary that no class section should have to wait until the assigned teacher has finished the work of the day with another class. There must be no confusion or waits. The teacher must be ready to begin when the class section arrives. The high school must be operated on a schedule.

Many important adjustments must be properly worked out in connection with schedule construction. Teachers must be assigned to appropriate duties—types of instruction for which they are best fitted. Their loads should be properly equalized. Building space in many schools must be economized without disadvantage to instructional efficiency. Assemblies and other activities must be adequately provided for. Above all, students must be able to enroll without conflict for instruction in the subjects they need. To make a schedule that fully meets these conditions, that stands the test of operation from the first day of the school term, and that is free from delays and confusion resulting from necessary amendments and revisions, requires some skill and great care. It is an indication to many teachers, pupils, and patrons that the new principal "knows what he is about." Success in this project may lead to respect and confidence and to an auspicious launching of a professional administration of a school. Failure to make a good schedule may lead to suspicion and a lack of confidence which will disappear only after continued and unquestionable demonstration of skill in other phases of the principal's work. The ability to arrange a satisfactory schedule is the first major test of administrative competence.

There are several somewhat different procedures in schedule-making. Three of these will be discussed in detail in the sec-

tions that follow. In general, however, the procedures all rest upon the first steps, involving the gathering of preliminary information and making the fundamental decisions as to policies which constitute the conditions of schedule-making in any given school. It is appropriate that these be considered first.

1. GATHERING THE PRELIMINARY INFORMATION

The principal or his schedule committee either must already have acquired the following information fundamental to schedule-making or must now acquire it:

1. The structure and plan of administration of various curricula: which subjects are constants and which are variables.
2. The probable number of enrollments in each subject.
3. The standard, minimum, and maximum size of class sections in various subjects.
4. The number of class sections necessary in each subject.
5. The plan for forming class sections.
6. The number and types of rooms available.
7. The organization of the school day: the length and number of periods, the beginning and dismissing hours, and the length and hour of the lunch period or periods.
8. Special problems; for example, overlapping sessions made necessary by building congestion, and time available of part-time instructors or supervisors.
9. Data concerning teachers: preparation, experience, preferences as to duties, and special fitness for different types of activities.
10. What shall be regarded as the standard teaching load.

Offerings and Curricula. It is obvious that before the construction of a high-school schedule is begun, it must be known what subjects are offered in the semester or year involved. In smaller schools the practice of offering certain subjects only in alternate years is often followed. What subjects are to be omitted from the schedule must be known. Frequently enrollments for subjects are smaller than the minimum number for which class sections are maintained. Omissions because of these conditions may be determined only after

registration or preregistration, though in the smaller schools they may be estimated fairly accurately in most cases.

The schedule-maker must be familiar with the placement of the offered subjects in the curricula and with the list of subjects required for each curriculum. He must also know from what year-classes or grades enrollments for each subject may be expected; for example, whether first-year typing is open to sophomores, juniors, and seniors, to juniors and seniors, or to juniors only.

Estimating Registrations. Estimating the probable number of students who will enroll for instruction in each of the various subjects is best accomplished by a preregistration held at least some six to twelve weeks before the close of the semester. The selection of the subjects likely to be of most value is a very important decision for pupils. Because of a fuller realization of this in recent years, much more time and attention have been spent in many schools in assisting the students in making their choices. In view of the importance of the topic and of recently developed procedures, discussion of this phase of educational guidance is reserved for more complete treatment in Chapter VII along with other phases of guidance. The preregistration should include similar information from probable students in the highest grade of the next lowest unit; that is, the sixth grade of the elementary schools contributing to a given junior high school or the ninth grades of junior high schools contributing to a given senior high school.

Though in the case of some pupils changes in the selection of subjects will occur between preregistration and the beginning of the next semester, owing to failures, withdrawals, additions of new students, and changes of plans of students, these will ordinarily affect the estimates based upon preregistration but little, since the changes will represent only a small percentage of the total registrations and will to a considerable degree be compensatory. By good counseling at preregistration and estimates of probable failures, such changes may be kept to a minimum.

Some schools do not employ preregistration, but principals

in these schools may arrive at close estimates by taking the enrollments of the previous year as a base and making modifications in the light of pertinent trends or facts as discussed in Chapter IV, pages 75–76. Although fairly reliable results are usually obtained by means of this type of procedure, they are all subject to errors of judgment which may occasionally prove serious, and for that reason, as well as for other reasons, a preregistration is to be preferred.

Estimating the Number of Class Sections Required. From the preregistration the probable enrollment in each subject is readily tallied. The next step is to calculate the number of class sections which will be required. In doing this it is first necessary to determine the minimum, the standard, and the maximum class-section size. Ordinarily the minimum number of pupils for offering a section should be in the neighborhood of eight or ten. In certain subjects required for college entrance a smaller minimum may perhaps be justified. In second-year or third-year classes in a foreign language a smaller minimum should possibly be observed, on the theory that the pupils desiring the section have taken the one or two years of the language in good faith, under the impression that the second or third year would be offered.

As to what constitutes the largest number of students that can be taught in one section without serious loss of effectiveness, there is not complete agreement. It was noted in Chapter V that contrary to the rather general belief that best results are possible only when students are taught in small sections, results of recent experimentation indicate that sections may be larger without significant decrease in effectiveness. With superior experienced teachers in a school with a high disciplinary morale, the standard class size may well be 35 or even 40 pupils. In other schools the standard section size should probably number not far from 28 to 32 pupils. The size of the classroom available will be a determining factor in some instances.

The figures given above apply to the more common types of academic subjects. Sections in physical education and choral

music may be much larger, even twice as large, whereas sections in manual, household, and industrial arts should be smaller, probably not including more than 24 to 28 students.

It might be mentioned parenthetically that since the fallacious idea that effective work cannot be done in large classes obtains generally among teachers, it is not bad policy to bring to the attention of teachers or heads of departments the studies relating to class size and their conclusions.

Having estimated the respective enrollments for each subject in the program of studies to be offered, and having set up standards as to class size, it is a matter of simple arithmetic and common sense to calculate the number of sections to be offered for each subject. It now remains to determine how the students making up the sections will be chosen.

Methods of Assigning Students to Sections. There are three more prominent bases for determining the personnel of class sections. Perhaps the least desirable of these are chance, or non-selective, methods; that is, allowing students to register for whatever section they desire or by assigning students to sections by alphabetical order. A second method is the assignment of students to sections on the basis of curricula; that is, as far as possible placing college-preparatory students together in one or more sections, commercial students together, and so on. By so doing, not only will the possibility of conflicts be reduced. owing to the tendency of pupils in the same curriculum to elect the same subjects, but the employment of such a plan makes it possible for instructors to adapt the materials of instruction to the needs of the students of the different curricula. A third type, rather widely employed in recent years, is known as ability, or homogeneous, grouping; that is, placing students of probably homogeneous ability together in sections. A more extended discussion of this method of sectioning will be given in Chapter XIV.

In instances where two sections are to be offered in a class subject to which students from more than one class (for example, sophomores and juniors) are admitted, students from each class should be assigned when possible to the same section.

This will reduce the probability of conflicts in making the schedule and, in addition, will operate to make the sections more homogeneous as to ability.

Housing Accommodations. Before making or completing a schedule it is necessary to know what rooms are available, as well as their size, location, and nature of equipment. For this purpose blueprints of each floor showing major equipment, size, and number of seats are very serviceable. In lieu of these, rough floor plans on which brief notations regarding each room have been made will be found useful. Perhaps sufficient (especially in the smaller schools) is a diagram with columns for periods in the day and rows for rooms. In preparing such a diagram the capacities of the rooms and some notation in the way of a description of the general nature of the room should be entered in the column at the left, along with the room numbers.

The Organization of the School Day. Fundamental to the arrangement of the schedule is the organization of the school day: the length of the day, the number and length of periods, the time of the opening and the closing of the school day, the length, number, and hours of lunch periods, and whether overlapping sessions will be necessary to accommodate all students.

1. *The Single Session.* Fortunately all but a small percentage of schools have abandoned the single-session day. As might be expected, in schools in which single sessions are employed, a very large portion of the students dismissed at noon or shortly afterwards spend the afternoon in activities other than study. The great increase in high-school enrollment has brought into the high school students of less ability, less scholarly interests, and from homes of less favorable opportunities. This fact, together with the competition for the students' time furnished by the automobile and the motion pictures, has brought about such an increased need for providing favorable conditions and supervision of study at school as to make the short single session quite inadequate.

2. *Overlapping Sessions.* The overlapping session should be regarded as a temporary expediency; but in many districts in

which enrollments have grown more rapidly than the building program has developed, it becomes a necessity. By arranging for some students to begin their work as early as 8.15 or 8.30 and to leave school as early as 2.15 or 2.30 and for others not to report until 9.45 or 10 o'clock and to be dismissed at 3.45 or 4 o'clock, it is possible, by thus increasing the number of periods in the day in which the various rooms of the building are in use, to accommodate, with the same housing, from 20 per cent to 30 per cent more students. The use of the plan, however, if any considerable increase in housing capacity is effected, involves a shorter school day for the pupil and is therefore to that extent undesirable. When this plan is employed, duplicate sections of both lower and upper class subjects are usually scheduled during the first two periods of the day and the last two.

3. *Length of School Day and Class Period.* Together with certain of the considerations just advanced, the introduction of supervised study, with the consequently lengthened class period, and of manual types of activity and physical education to break and shorten the mental day has tended to increase the length of the school day. In the schools of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges the average school day has increased since 1917 from approximately 5½ hours to slightly less than 6 hours. One school in three has increased the class period to 50 minutes or more. It seems almost certain that within the next decade or so the six-period day of from 55 to 60 minutes each will come to be the conventional school day. Both educational theory and trends in practice point to a longer school day and a longer class period.

The longer class period has resulted chiefly from the introduction of supervised study. Earlier experimentation involved a double period, one half of which was for the conventional recitation and one half for study of the next day's lesson. Because teachers and students were restricted to a load of four subjects a day, the double period plan was never widely used and soon gave way to a plan involving periods of from 55 to 70 minutes.

Where the period of from 55 to 70 minutes is in operation the question arises as to whether those subjects which have previously been allotted double periods should be scheduled with double periods. It seems clear that to do so would favor such subjects disproportionately and would result in serious difficulties in scheduling and registration. Instructors in those subjects often oppose the substitution of the single longer period for the double short period. However, after trial of just that plan the vigor of opposition diminishes markedly, though, of course, the reduction in class-time allotment will always constitute a tempting avenue for explaining results whenever they happen to be unsatisfactory. In science classes it has been found satisfactory to dispense with the double period entirely, though certain experiments requiring more than an hour have to be eliminated, be modified, or be carried on by a special committee rather than by each member of the class. In schools arranged on a period basis of from 55 to 60 minutes, subjects to which daily double periods of 90 minutes had been given previously are frequently scheduled for single periods with one or more and commonly two additional laboratory or practice periods a week.

4. *Opening and Closing Time and Lunch Periods.* What constitutes the best times for beginning and closing the official school day is hard to specify for any given community. The first period might easily begin before 9 o'clock in most communities, probably as early as 8.30 in a majority of schools. Beginning earlier is likely to meet opposition on the part of parents and to result in hastily eaten breakfasts and considerable tardiness. Beginning at 8.40 makes possible in the morning session four 45-minute periods or three 60-minute periods and a home-room period of from 15 to 20 minutes.

In small and medium-sized districts where students go home to lunch in large numbers, the full lunch period of 60 or 70 minutes is desirable. Where practically all students eat lunch at school a period of 30 minutes is ample. In very large schools two or even three lunch periods may be scheduled and dovetailed with each other and with class periods.

In schools maintaining the old 45-minute period and attempting to provide more than one lunch period, the problem is not easily handled. usually two full 45-minute periods being given over for lunch. This increased time allowed may, however, result in problems of order within the building. An excellent arrangement employed by some schools is that of scheduling a 30-minute home-room period and a 30-minute lunch period for each half of the noon hour and dividing the students into two groups.

5. *The Activity and Assembly Period.* With the development of the practice of providing an activity period for assemblies, clubs, and home-room meetings, the schedule problem has become somewhat further complicated. The most common practice is to set aside a period of from 30 to 40 minutes, during which only assemblies, meetings of organizations, and home rooms and study halls are scheduled. To prevent absence it is desirable that it be scheduled between two morning or afternoon periods. On the other hand, the last period of the day for these activities offers the advantage that when it is desirable the meeting may continue after school time.

Data concerning the Staff. As may be implied from the discussion relating to the assignment of the teaching staff in Chapter V, the schedule must provide for the assignment of class sections to teachers so as to bring about (1) the best possible assignment of subjects and extra-curricular activities with regard to the preparation and interests of teachers, and (2) an equalized teaching load.

In order that this may be done, the schedule-maker must obtain data as to the preparation and previous experience of teachers. The material collected concerning the teacher at the time of appointment should be available for reference, as should data concerning the training in service or in summer school since appointment and reports of supervisors or heads of departments regarding the suitability of members of their departments for various types of classes. These officials should be consulted, or asked to make recommendations concerning the assignment of classes in their departments.

2. THE MOSAIC METHOD

Types of Plans for Construction of Schedules. With data on these matters at hand, the principal is ready to form his schedule. Three types of procedure may be distinguished, though variations of one type grade gradually into variations of the other. They are the mosaic method, the block method, and the individual-pupil method. The mosaic plan is especially adapted to schools enrolling from 100 to 800 or 1000 pupils (100 to 400 or 500 in junior high schools). In smaller schools the individual-pupil method will be found relatively more useful, owing to the large possibilities of conflicts resulting from the smaller percentage of nonduplicated sections and alternated subjects. In larger schools the economies of the "block" plan may be realized. That these statements are true will become more evident as the different plans are described.

On the basis of most frequent use, the mosaic procedure ranks first. It is employed with a great many variations. One very satisfactory procedure will be given here.

Materials Needed. The schedule-maker should obtain a drawing board or a large sheet of heavy cardboard about 20 inches wide and at least twice as many inches long as there are teachers in the school, thumb tacks, a sheet of heavy paper or light cardboard of the size mentioned above, a ruler or T-square, and a paper of small pins.[1] On the paper or cardboard as many columns about two inches in width should be ruled off as there are teachers, and as many rows as there are periods in the school day. The name of each class section should be typewritten on a small rectangular piece of cardboard about 1 inch × ½ inch. On this card, as shown above, should also appear the probable number of students who will be assigned to the section and an abbreviation designating the days of the week on which the section will meet. On

English IV (Robinson) 24 D

[1]For large schools the use of a composition blackboard is recommended. Instead of cardboard and pins, a pocket chart such as is often used as a seating chart and sold by several school-supply houses may be used to excellent advantage.

those cards representing classes which must be assigned to certain teachers, as will very likely be the case in some instances in a small school, the name of the teacher should also appear on the card. Cards for all class sections meeting for double periods on one or more days a week should be twice as deep as ordinary cards so as to extend over the spaces assigned to two consecutive periods. These should be arranged in rows or columns on desk or table by class grade and by subjects; for example, seniors, juniors, sophomores, and freshmen in four different rows, and English in one column, mathematics in another, and so on. The card or heavy paper should be fastened to the drawing board with thumb tacks. Everything is now ready for filling in the "mosaic."

Blocking in the Mosaic. It is well to start first with the sections which will be composed largely of seniors, with those which have no duplicates, and with those which require double periods. Sections which fit into all three of these categories should be located on the chart first, followed by those belonging to two such classifications. This is done by passing a pin through the small card or cards representing the section and fastening it on the chart in a square in the column headed by the name of the teacher who will teach the section. Care must be taken not to place in one row (that is, at one period) two or more sections in two of which any given pupil will be enrolled. Likewise no two sections should be placed in the same row to which it is expected the same teacher will be assigned. After all the senior, the nonduplicated single sections, and the double-period sections are located, the schedule-maker should then locate the sections of which there is but one duplicate, taking these in the order of seniority; for example, junior sections, then sophomore, then freshman or high ninth, low ninth, high eighth, and so on. The sections of which there are two or more duplicates will rarely cause any difficulty in scheduling and may be blocked in later. Where overlapping sessions obtain, as many sections as possible should be scheduled in the early-morning and late-afternoon periods. In small schools an effort should be made to avoid bunching recitations for any one class.

It will frequently seem impossible to locate all sections without conflicts. For example, one is confronted with scheduling in six periods sections in the following twelve senior subjects: Latin, French, English, social problems, second-year typewriting, second-year shorthand, bookkeeping, chemistry, mathematics, household arts, agriculture, and industrial arts. It should be obvious that a number of nonconflicting combinations may be selected for scheduling in one period row or "block"; for example, shorthand and either agriculture, industrial arts, French, Latin, or mathematics. As many as three or even four such sections may sometimes be scheduled in a period—for example, agriculture, Latin, shorthand, and household arts, it being very unlikely that any pupil will be enrolled for any two of these subjects at the same time. Fourth-year or even third-year foreign languages should rarely conflict with senior-year commercial subjects. In schools offering so varied a program there will in all likelihood be two or more sections of English and social problems, so that these sections may be scheduled with conflicting subjects if when only two or three sections of either of those studies are offered, each of these sections is not placed in periods with mutually conflicting sections; as, English 8 and Mathematics 8 (one section only) in one period, and English 8 and Chemistry 8 (one section only) in another.

Checking for Conflicts. After the mosaic has been completed —that is, all section cards placed on the chart—it is now ready for checking for conflicts. This may be done by going through the preregistrations, selecting those that are somewhat irregular, and taking note of all conflicts. In small schools the proposed schedule may be exhibited at assembly and pupils be asked to note their conflicts. There will be several types of these, and they should be so classified. Most conflicts will be occasioned by irregular students or those desiring to take subjects not planned in the program of studies for the year in which the student belongs. If in either case students may hope to program one of the conflicting subjects the following year, less consideration should be given to them than to more deserving cases.

Among the deserving cases is the student whose registration cannot be programmed without conflicts, although the subjects which he wishes to take are regularly offered for the class in which he is classified. When conflicts of this nature occur an attempt should be made to eliminate them by moving one of the conflicting sections to another period, if necessary moving out of that period some other section, and so on. Before doing this, however, a copy should be made of the tentative schedule and a memorandum of the conflicts which it involves. Often after several possible schedules are arrived at it will become obvious that there is little chance of eliminating all conflicts, and that a schedule will have to be adopted which involves the least number of serious conflicts. The best schedule may not be the last one arranged, and hence it is desirable to have a record of all reasonably satisfactory solutions. Frequently conflicts may be removed by consulting with the student or students concerned and discovering that there is no considerable margin of preference between one of the subjects causing the conflict and another which will not result in conflict.

Conflict Sheet for Third-Year Classes

	English	U.S. History	Physics	French	Math. III	Latin II	Typing	Shorthand	Shop	Home Economics
English		/	/		/		/			
U.S. history			/		/		/			
Physics					/		/			
French										
Math. III							/			
Latin II										
Typing										
Shorthand										
Shop										
Home economics										

Suppose a student A registers for English, history, physics, math. III, and typing; a tally will be made first in each column in the row for English, that is, in the top row, in the columns headed "U. S. History," "Physics," "Math. III," and "Typing" (see diagram). Then a tally will be made in the row for "History," in the columns headed "Physics," "Math. III," and "Typing." Likewise, in the row for "Physics," in the columns headed "Math. III" and "Typing," and in the row for "Math. III," in the column headed "Typing." This is done for each student card, and the tallies in each cell counted and the total entered in the cell.

The schedule-maker now has before him a guide to conflicts. In the case of any subject in which there are entries in the same row, there will be conflicts with the subjects indicated at the heads of the columns for as many students as may be indicated by the tallies in the cell where the row and column in question intersect. If there are two sections for a given class, there will certainly be schedule conflicts only when two classes of one section each are scheduled at the same hour; if three sections, only when there is apparent conflict on the conflict sheet with three classes of one section each. Ordinarily it is not necessary to provide rows or columns for classes in which it is planned to provide for three sections or more. By ignoring those classes, much time may be saved in tallying.

There will be, of course, always the possibility of conflict in the case of one or more individual students, even when classes with two or more sections seem to conflict with other classes. These conflicts on pupils' schedules can, however, be eliminated in all but rare cases in the process of assigning pupils to sections.

When conflict sheets are made for classes of each grade level separately, there are always possibilities of conflict in the case of students who carry some subjects in one grade-level group and one or more in others (for example, seniors carrying second-year or third-year subjects), and in the case of classes intended for students of two year levels (for example, home economics for both juniors and seniors). That is why, in

smaller schools, it is better to make one conflict sheet for all classes in the school.

Assignment of Rooms. After all sections have been assigned to class periods and to teachers and the schedule in this stage checked for conflicts, it is then ready for the filling in of room assignments.

As far as possible sections of the same type of work should be scheduled for the same classrooms; for example, all sections in American history in order to avoid the necessity of moving maps from room to room. For convenience a teacher should have as many of his classes as possible in one room. By scheduling one or two sections taught by each of two teachers to other rooms, perhaps small sections to small rooms, it is usually possible to assign all other sections of those two teachers to the same room. It should be obvious that to tie up one room for each teacher, with the result that rooms are not scheduled for classes in periods in which the teachers assigned to them are not teaching, is wasteful and calls for a plant much larger than is actually needed. As noted in Chapter II, it is easily possible that high-school principals may feel that their buildings are crowded before the utilization of the possible number of seatings or pupil-stations has reached 60 or 70 per cent. This condition is brought about partly by poor schedule-making.

With a little care it is possible to reduce materially the amount of vertical traffic: that is, traffic from one floor level to another. If there are classrooms of different sizes in the building, very small sections should be assigned to smaller classrooms and very large sections assigned to larger classrooms. By so doing class morale may be more easily obtained by instructors. Often conflicting is the principle of assigning classes to rooms appropriately equipped to teach the particular subject.

Where buildings are crowded, it is necessary, in assigning sections to periods, to keep in mind the maximum number of classrooms available at each period and so to distribute the sections among the periods that the finished schedule will not

call for more rooms than are available. Likewise it is necessary to exercise care that more sections calling for the same type of special room (for example, physics laboratory) are not blocked in at any given period than there are rooms of that type available.

3. THE BLOCK METHOD

The block method is so called because it consists in arranging all sections in nonconflicting units, frequently referred to as "blocks." The blocks may correspond to the periods in the school day, exclusive of the activity period, or a block may be made up of a different period each day, thus equalizing among the different blocks what differences there may be in the desirability of the different hours of the day. The distinguishing feature of the block system is that the pupils of each year or semester class are distributed to class divisions which are assigned as units to class sections.

Preliminary Steps and Materials. The information needed relative to the enrollments in each class and the steps pertaining to organizing the school day and determining upon typical teacher loads are identical with those already discussed. The principal should have before him a list of the enrollments in each class, information regarding rooms, and information as to the training and qualifications of the staff to be assigned to the various sections. A chart, section cards, and pins similar to those recommended for use with the mosaic plan are serviceable when the block method is used.

Class Grouping. Each year or semester class (for example, the tenth grade) is divided into groups of equal numbers, each of from 30 to 40 pupils according to the limit set as the "full" class size.[1] This may be done by merely assigning the first 35 pupils, let us say, to group *a*, the next 35 to group *b*, and so on.

[1] In the senior class of high school in which no subject is required or likely to be elected by all pupils the number may be increased to 45 or 50 pupils, so that resulting groups will be likely to furnish on the average full sections in the subject of greatest enrollment—usually English.

Conflicts may be better avoided, however, if the class is first divided into curriculum groups and then subdivided in a manner similar to the following:

Class Groups: Grade 12, 238 Pupils

a. College preparatory	A through Marsters
b College preparatory	Masters through Z
c General	A through Sanderson
d. General	Sapley through Z (+ Industrials)
e. Commercial	A through Milligan
f Commercial	Moore through Z

Blocking in the Sections. In order to prevent confusion resulting from shifting sections in and out of blocks, the schedule-maker should prepare a large chart or a piece of paper ruled vertically into as many columns as there will be blocks, or periods, in the day and use small rectangular pieces of cardboard to represent the various sections. He should begin to fill in with the senior class and work with one class at a time. In high schools having semiannual promotions the most advanced semester group should be scheduled first.

The first step consists in assigning to each section of each class as many class divisions as will seem necessary to produce sections of the desired size. If English is required of all pupils in the senior class, one division may be assigned to each section. When dealing with subjects not required, the schedule-maker will have to estimate from the nature of the group (for example, college-preparatory or commercial group) and his previous experience how best to combine groups so as to produce full and approximately equal sections. For example, of the 80 pupils assigned above to the college-preparatory divisions, enough ordinarily will elect fourth-year Latin to necessitate but one section. Occasional pupils of other divisions taking Latin IV may be shifted, if necessary, to divisions *a* or *b* to permit them to arrange with no conflicts a schedule including Latin IV. Of 80 commercial students assigned alphabetically to two divisions of 40 each, it is extremely likely

that enrollments will call for one section for the pupils in each division in typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Of course reference to the enrollment figures may show otherwise. The principles of procedure are the same in any case. If two sections in each are required, they will be labeled respectively *e* and *f*. Students of other divisions, *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d*, enrolling for these courses and having conflicts, will be shifted to other divisions for one or more subjects. Since enrollments in English and social science are not likely to be bunched in any particular sections, even in those schools where neither is required, one may assume that if the suggestions given on page 143 for determining the number of divisions have been observed, there will result sections in those subjects, one for each division, of so nearly equal a number of pupils that a shifting of a few pupils will produce sections of sufficiently equal size. If, of course, such does not happen to be indicated from the enrollment summaries (for example, if only 164 pupils of the six divisions enroll for social science), the two divisions with lowest enrollments may be combined, or one of them may be distributed between two or more other divisions.

In assigning sections to the various blocks the following rules should be observed:

1. Distribute sections in one class subject as evenly among the blocks as possible, assigning two sections to a block only after there is already one section in every block or as a means of avoiding conflicts. (If homogeneous grouping is to employed, it is better, in order to facilitate shifting from one level to another, to schedule one section of each level to each block in which any section is assigned.)

2. Do not assign to one block two sections made up of students from the same groups (for example, English *b* and Mathematics *ab*) except in the following types of situations:

a. When two sections meet on alternate days; for example, art *abcd* (M. W. F.), physical education *abcde* (boys—T. Th.) and physical education (girls—T. Th.).

b. When two classes are known not to conflict; for example, fourth-year French and second-year typing.

c. When a group is divided between two sections, as would be the

case when nine groups are to be divided among six sections, Group *a* and half of Group *b*, for example, being assigned to one section and Group *c* and the other half of Group *b* to another section. When this is done confusion will be avoided by assigning subscripts to the two halves of the group divided: as, ab_1 and cb_2. Thus the appearance of the same letter twice in the same block will not signify a conflict.

3. Do not include as a part of the designation of a section the letters of groups from which only one or two pupils will be drawn. Transfer such pupils to another group, enabling the letter to their group to be dropped.

The scheduling of a senior class of approximately 250 pupils, grouped as described on page 143, is shown below:

Assignment of Sections to Blocks for a Senior Class of 250 Pupils distributed into Six Groups

Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4	Block 5	Block 6
French *ab*	Latin *ab*	Mathematics *ab*	Chemistry *acf*	Chemistry *bde*	Bookkeeping *f*
Typing *e*	Typing II *f*	Shorthand *f*	Shorthand *e*	Household arts	English *e*
English *f*	Bookkeeping *e*	Industrial arts *d*	English *d*		Social science *a*
Social science *d*	Social science *c*	English *c* Social science *e*	Social science *b*	English *a* Social science *f*	English *b*

When the portions of the schedule for the different classes are combined, it will resemble, at this stage, the portion of a schedule (two of six or seven blocks) shown in the table on page 146.

Checking for Conflicts. The use of the block system will not prevent conflicts. That these will occur in the cases of a small number of pupils may be foreseen when the schedule is being blocked in. In order to avoid conflicts, it will frequently be necessary to reassign a few pupils to groups other than those to which they belong by virtue of the scheme of classification, sometimes in all subjects, sometimes in only one or two. This will be particularly true of pupils who are irregular or of upper-class pupils desiring to take subjects normally taken in a lower year.

Schedule at Stage of Completion after Blocks are Formed

	Block 1	Block 2
Senior class 250 pupils in six divisions	French *ab* Typing II *e* English *f* Social science *d*	Latin *ab* Typing II *f* Bookkeeping *c* Social science *c*
Junior class 310 pupils in nine divisions	American history *f* English *e* Mathematics *ab* Physics *cd* Foods *j* Industrial arts *i* English *g*	American history *e* English *d* Latin *abc* French *abc* Bookkeeping *hi* English *g* American history *f*
Sophomore class 375 pupils in eleven divisions	Biology *ab* Geometry *c* Typing *k* Sewing *l* Shop *l* English *d* European history *f* European history *h* English *e* Shorthand *ij*	Social science *e* Biology *ij* Latin *ab* French *ab* Spanish *ab* Shorthand *kl* English *f* European history *g* English *h* European history *d* Geometry *c*

When the student's program card is being made out for him, these conflicts should come to light. Consider the following example of pupil-choice of subjects in connection with the schedule given on page 145 for seniors.

Name, Donahue, Mary L.	Class, Senior	Group, b
Subjects	Block	Days
English IV b	6	D
Social science b	4	D
Chemistry bde	5	D
Household arts	5	D

Miss Donahue's conflict may be resolved by assigning her to the section in chemistry in Block 4 and to a section in social science in Block 1 or Block 2 or Block 3.

Equalization of Sections. In spite of the fact that the use of the block system operates to produce less variation in section

size than the mosaic method, it will by no means automatically result in sections of uniform size. The number of pupils assigned to each section should be tabulated. These tabulations should be scanned for irregularities. For example, if eight sections in sophomore European history are found to be of 39, 36, 32, 32, 28, 29, 23, and 21 pupils, respectively, a few pupils from each of the first two sections should be transferred to the last two, and whatever other transfers are made necessary to prevent conflicts should be so managed as to contribute to the equalization of section size.

The procedure in the assignment of sections to members of the staff and to rooms is in all essentials identical with that described in connection with the mosaic method.

Relative Advantages of the Block Method. The foregoing outline of procedure has, no doubt, suggested that the block method is not as simple a method as some writers appear to believe. It does not eliminate the necessity of shifting pupils to equalize sections and to eliminate conflicts. It is subject to difficulties resulting from the fact that in the groups into which the classes are divided, there will be variation in the frequency of election of the various subjects. On the other hand, especially in larger schools, use of the block plan should

1. Go far to equalize sections and to eliminate the labor involved in equalizing sections in schools of large enrollments.
2. Reduce materially the labor involved in reducing conflicts.
3. Reduce materially the time spent in blocking out a schedule by its virtue of substituting a systematic approach for a more or less "trial and error" method. Principals of very large high schools or of junior high schools should not be prevented, by the apparent complexity of the procedure, from giving the plan a trial. Its complexity is more apparent than real, and disappears quickly when the schedule-maker attacks it in a concrete, practical situation.

The block method is not equally useful in all schools. It is practical only in junior high schools and larger senior and four-year high schools. Indeed, in spite of the claims made for it by some writers, as the number of students in the semester and year classes diminishes to less than 250 or 300 its advan-

tages for four-year or senior high schools disappear. Schools having fewer than 200 pupils to a year or semester class will find it very difficult to employ. Because of the relatively few electives in the junior high school the block method is much easier to construct and is much more practical for junior high schools, in which it may be employed to advantage in schools with enrollments as small as 300 or 400 pupils.

4. THE "INDIVIDUAL PUPIL," OR "YARDSTICK," METHOD

For very small schools a third plan is more useful. In these, because of the practice of offering some subjects only in alternate years and because of the high percentage of one-section subjects, the scheduling has to be carried on with each pupil in mind. A very convenient device for employing this method is often referred to as the "yardstick" or "individual pupil" method.

Materials Needed. The materials needed are the registration cards of the pupils, as many yardsticks and thumb tacks as there are to be sections offered (counting twice all sections requiring double periods on one or more days a week), and crayons of different colors. If yardsticks are not available, long strips of very heavy cardboard of about the same length will serve as well. If cardboard strips are used, crayon marks should be used instead of thumb tacks. Each yardstick should be consecutively numbered at each half-inch interval, and these numbers should be assigned to individual pupils. If the method is used in schools with more than 72 pupils, smaller intervals and more numbers must be used.

It is economical of time to arrange the names of the students alphabetically within each class. To each yardstick attach with a thumb tack a small piece of cardboard bearing the name of the section and the instructor most likely to be assigned the section. Taking each stick in turn, mark with the crayon a heavy line at the spaces corresponding to the pupils enrolled in that section, using different-colored chalk for the four different grades. Then lay off, with chalk lines on a table or

on the floor, intervals wide enough to contain as many yardsticks laid side by side as there are likely to be assigned sections at any one period. These should be numbered, one interval for each period in the school day.

Procedure. The procedure of schedule construction itself is quite simple. The problem is to distribute the sticks approximately evenly among the intervals so as not to have in any one interval two sticks bearing marks at the same places; that is, so that no pupil will have a conflict. Yardsticks representing the two divisions of double periods should, of course, be laid in adjacent intervals. Care must also be taken that the sticks are so distributed as not to schedule at the same hour two classes requiring the same room or the same teacher.

The general principles of procedure are similar to certain of those of the other two methods. The sticks representing sections in which seniors are enrolled should be placed first, and those for sections containing freshmen should be placed last. Within each such group the sections having a duplicate (if there are any) should be left to the last.

As the size of the school increases, the method becomes cumbersome and the facilities for preventing conflicts in the way of duplicate sections renders the individual-pupil check unnecessary. If the school is large enough to have two sections in many subjects or three sections in any one subject, the method becomes complicated. If the marks on the sticks are closer together than two to the inch it is difficult, in watching for conflicts while constructing the schedule, to follow the lines over from stick to stick and to distinguish from one another the lines representing different pupils.

5. PUTTING THE SCHEDULE INTO OPERATION

Pupil Schedules. In all but the smallest schools it is good practice for the principal, the roll-room advisers, or other assistants to fill schedule cards (often called roster cards) for each pupil on a form similar to that shown on page 394. If pupils are permitted to make their own schedules, many will

choose sections on the basis of trivial reasons, the sections of more popular teachers will be overcrowded, cliques of pupils will arrange to go into the same sections, and some sections will be too small. In very small schools where there are few duplicate sections these dangers are not of importance.

If the block method has been employed, the assignment of pupils to sections is in the main a mechanical procedure. With the exception of pupils who have been transferred for one or more classes to blocks other than the one in which they naturally would classify according to the scheme for forming divisions, the section, the classroom, and the hour are shown by the class-group letters. When either of the other methods is used, each pupil's schedule is a problem in itself, though it ordinarily presents no great difficulty. When the mosaic plan has been employed, in assigning pupils to sections a tally sheet should be provided so that the enrollment in each section may be tallied as pupils are assigned to it, and the enrollment equalized among sections. It is very desirable that two persons work together in this task, one to make the entries on the tally sheet. In making the pupil schedules care should be exercised to avoid erasures. It is better to prepare the card in duplicate, one copy being retained as a part of the school records. Where this is not done, pupils who are not pleased with their schedules are tempted to lose their cards.

This is the last stage at which any changes in schedule should be made. All conflicts should be eliminated before the cards are completed; in fact, it is serious if any are necessary at this late time.

At the beginning of the first day of school the home-room advisers or teachers delegated for that purpose should distribute these cards to the pupils and make such explanations as seem desirable with reference to rooms, periods, and other matters. Pupils desiring changes in their schedules should be permitted to petition for them, but with the understanding that only petitions based upon serious problems will be granted.

Teachers' Rolls. Two common practices for preparing class-section rolls may be noted. At the time the pupil schedules are

made the pupils' names may be entered on the tally sheets, and the rolls may be made up from these sheets and sent to the teacher. An alternative practice is to have a list made from the cards of pupils who attend the first meeting of the class. Since it is likely that some pupils will not be present at the first meeting of the class, the first method is preferable. The only advantage of the second plan lies in the fact that it lessens the clerical work at the time of making the pupil schedules.

Testing and Revising the Schedule. After the designated period for distributing and explaining the pupils' schedules has elapsed, the schedule should be run through with abbreviated periods of approximately fifteen minutes each. At this time assignments should be made and instructions given as to textbooks and materials needed in the various courses. Pupils having difficulties in following their schedules should report to the office, where someone should be stationed to assist them. Pupils may be dismissed at noon for the day.

In the smaller schools a staff meeting should then be called to explain or discuss apparent difficulties in the operation of the new schedule. Since all pupils' programs are based upon the schedule as now formulated, revisions should be avoided as far as possible, and before making changes the effects of doing so upon other pupils' programs should be thoroughly investigated. In this connection the method of tallying pupils' names by sections at the time of making pupil schedules is often seen in a very favorable light, since such tally sheets facilitate the study of the effect of shifting sections.

The Examination Schedule. It seems advisable that, at least in senior high schools, the final examinations should be distributed over the whole of the last week of each semester. Thus the likelihood of pupils' taking several examinations on one day is materially reduced, and time for pupils to continue independent study upon weaknesses developed during review is available, as well as time for instructors to mark papers.

A simple schedule for final examinations may be provided by scheduling examinations in the order of the daily schedule,

allotting one period to the latter half of each morning and afternoon session and scheduling no examinations at other hours. When a day of less than eight periods obtains, one or more half-days may be interspersed on which no examinations are scheduled. Teachers may be asked to be present and to be available an hour or so each day to pupils desiring conferences in connection with their reviews. Needless to say, the library should be open during all this time, and good study conditions should be maintained throughout the building on these days. In order that pupils may not rely upon cramming, types of examinations should be employed which do not encourage superficial cramming, and they should not be so heavily weighted in determining final marks that pupils will be encouraged to substitute preparation for final examination for daily study.

In the interests of validity the examinations for junior-high-school pupils should rarely exceed ninety minutes and for senior-high-school pupils two hours, though more deliberation and less hurry are quite desirable.

Problems and Exercises

1. Why is it desirable before starting to construct a schedule (1) to be familiar with the structure of the curriculum or curricula? (2) to decide what shall be regarded as the standard class size and the standard teaching load?

2. Outline in detail how you as a principal would conduct "pre-registration."

3. What are the chief conclusions that seem warranted by an examination of the various studies on class size?

4. What arguments would you employ in recommending a longer school day with longer periods, and what objections would be likely to be made by patrons, pupils, or members of the board of education?

5. Work out a typical activity-period schedule providing for assemblies and meetings of home-room and other organizations.

6. Why is the mosaic plan better for all but the largest schools, the block method better for large schools (especially junior high schools), and the yardstick method better for very small schools only?

7. Obtain all the necessary data and construct a schedule for some given school.

8. Obtain a copy of the schedule being followed by some high school and, after studying it, carefully write out an evaluation of it.

9. Be able to explain to a group of fellow principals or fellow students the block method of constructing the schedule.

10. Be able to explain the yardstick method of schedule construction.

11. Outline in detail a procedure for putting a schedule into effect.

12. Outline in detail a procedure for the elimination of conflicts resulting from a schedule which appears to be as good as can be arranged.

VII

Organizing and Improving the Guidance Program

1. GUIDANCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

The high school has become more than an institution for teaching the various academic and vocational subjects. The aims of secondary education as conceived today by the most careful students of secondary education are much broader and focus more directly upon the needs of high-school girls and boys than formerly. The development of a rich and varied program of studies and of multiple curricula has greatly increased the responsibility of high-school pupils for important decisions. Likewise the greatly increased heterogeneity of ability and of future occupation of high-school students, large numbers of whom will soon pass from their school days into the vocational world, challenges high-school officials and teachers to new types of responsibilities and activities. The professional study of education has brought these responsibilities into relief, and the development of the technique of guidance has made it possible for the high school to function effectively with respect to them. The high school of today, therefore, is not only a teaching agency, giving instruction in languages, sciences, literature, history and social science, fine arts, and vocational subjects, but also an agency for enabling students to study themselves—their capacities, their interests, their needs, and the possibilities open to them educationally and vocationally—and to adapt their educational program most effectively to the purposes of exploration and specialization.

Not only does it appear that the school should provide young people with experiences and counsel which will enable them to make intelligent choices in decisions about their educational problems and their vocational futures, but also, as a result of the greatly increased percentage of boys and girls of

high-school age who now go to school and the greatly increased need for moral guidance owing to the changed conditions of present-day society and the lessened contribution of home and church in this direction, the high school may perform a most valuable service in providing guidance of a nature calculated to make for clean and wholesome living, private and public.

The modern secondary school, with specially trained workers and with facilities for health and physical examinations, is in an excellent position to render valuable guidance to the improvement and preservation of health and physical excellence. It is in a much better position than the home to render such service to a great many boys and girls. In many instances there appears to be a genuine need for the protection of young people from the ignorance and indifference of their parents as well as from their own immaturity.

Similarly, it is apparent that there is a splendid opportunity for the school to assist pupils in developing interests and the ability to satisfy them which will tend to insure pleasurable and profitable expenditure of leisure hours in ways not inimical to the interests of others.

In addition to these opportunities for service, the school, through its regular teaching staff as well as through specially appointed advisers and counselors, may assist pupils in arriving at solutions of various perplexing questions of an intimate and personal nature—problems which demand immediate attention and which are only vaguely and indirectly touched, if at all, by the regular curricular instruction; for example, the modification of undesirable traits of personality and the development of desirable ones, personal appearance, relations in the home, financial difficulties, and relations with friends. As autobiographies frequently indicate, the influence of some mature friend who is "interested" and who "understands" is often of great value at critical times in the lives of adolescent boys and girls.

Types of Guidance. For the purpose of classification we may group guidance activities with reference to their objectives. However, in rendering the service of guidance it is neither

desirable nor possible to separate completely the activities as to type of outcome or as to the nature of the activity in such a manner. It is, for example, almost impossible to think of *any guidance activity or service which is not "educational"* guidance. For convenience the following classification, with illustrative activities, may be serviceable.

1. *Vocational*

a. Furnishing the pupil with knowledge of occupations, particularly relating to rewards, conditions of employment, opportunities for advancement, and requirements for entrance to, and success in, occupations in the way of education, of traits of personality, of capital, etc.

b. Furnishing the pupil with opportunities to discover and reveal to himself his general and special capacities and aptitudes, his interests, and his traits of personality and character as related to vocational life.

c. Furnishing the pupil with a point of view and a method of study of occupations which will assist him in making his vocational decisions.

2. *Educational*

a. Furnishing the pupil counsel and the opportunity to discover his interests, abilities, and capacities in various studies.

b. Furnishing the pupil counsel and the opportunity to discover what studies will contribute best to the realization of his probable vocational and educational plans, and where such studies may be best pursued.

c. Providing courses of study adapted to the abilities of atypical children, and guidance in electing such courses.

d. Furnishing pertinent information concerning the possibility and desirability of further schooling and stimulating the pupil to consider these carefully.

e. Acquainting the pupil with the curricular and extra-curricular activity opportunities of the school and with conventions relative to the life and management of the school.

f. Acquainting the pupil with the opportunities and methods of using the school library most effectively.[1]

[1]See Chapter XIII.

3. *Leisure or avocational guidance*

a. Providing opportunities, curricular and extra-curricular, for the pupil to discover or develop tastes and interests which will provide avenues or fields of reflection, enjoyment, and recreation, and thus make life more worth while to the individual and make the individual more worth while to society.

4. *Moral or social guidance*

a. Furnishing counsel, example, and learning situations in private conference, in the classroom, or by means of extra-curricular activity which shall contribute to the development of right ideals and habits of conduct and living.

b. Furnishing opportunities for training in extra-curricular group situations, which will result in information, attitudes, habits, and abilities which shall contribute to the tendency and ability to work and play effectively with other people with satisfaction—as leader, follower, or colleague—in the home, in school, at work, or at play.

c. Furnishing training in correct social conventions.

5. *Health guidance*

a. Providing situations which shall call attention to infirmities, defects, or tendencies that should be corrected or removed.

b. Developing an interest in health and in strong, healthy bodies.

c. Developing interest, habits, and skills in games and other activities which will operate to promote health.

6. *"Personal" guidance*

a. Providing, under favorable conditions, hints or suggestions that are likely to make for improvement of personal appearance and traits of personality.

b. Providing advice and counsel on personal problems of all sorts which the boy or girl may desire to receive.

c. Providing the inspiration and encouragement which come from personal interest of an older individual who "understands" and is "interested."

High-School Pupils' Problems. Indeed astonishing is the wide range of problems that eat on children's hearts and souls. The

idea that guidance is no more than vocational and educational guidance is not only inaccurate but very misleading. The wide range of questions likely to be raised by pupils in conference with teachers and counselors in a school in which pupil-teacher rapport has been well developed is indicated by the following:

Out of the thousands of conferences similar to these today have come questions covering the whole range of educational, vocational and personal problems that perplex adolescents. Here are some samples: How can I get any social development when my parents won't even let me walk home from church with a boy? How could I get work in a cow-testing association? How much does a year at college cost? How can I stop my mother from running around with men? Should I take my father's offer to set me up in the hardware business?

Since high school is so hard for me is it worthwhile to try to get through college? Is there any chance for a woman in electro-therapy? Should a boy who is late in reaching adolescence go to college at sixteen or seventeen? How do you get into the Government Forest Service? How can I study science and still believe in the Bible? Doesn't it take more courage to commit suicide than to live? Does it cost less to go to a small college than to a large one? If sex is a normal thing why don't people act like it was?

Are correspondence courses in electricity any good? Can business college training be transferred toward a regular college degree? Should a Protestant girl enter a Catholic hospital for a nurse's training? How can I learn to concentrate? Are there any tests that will tell me what I am fitted for? Should I take up medicine just because my folks want me to? Should I go to a large college or to a small one?

Since my mother is insane do I dare to marry and have children? How is the best way to learn to be a chef? After I finish high school should I stay out a year and work or go to college right away? Will bookkeeping machines crowd out regular bookkeepers? Does a professional boxer make anything if he is just an ordinary "palooka"? What things in life are most worthwhile?

It should be clear that while problems of choice of a vocation are numerous, the problems upon which high-school pupils

[1]L. L. Love, "The Sea of Adolescent Storms," *School and Society* (June 16, 1934), Vol. XXXIX, pp. 768–773.

need guidance are varied and pertain to education, social adjustment, sex, religion, family, and, in many cases, attitudes toward self.

Providing for the Types of Guidance. The classification of the functions of guidance by types, as given in the foregoing paragraphs, should not be taken to mean that each type is to be carried on separately, much less that different machinery must be set up to carry on each type. As a matter of fact, the same person, subject matter, data, and activities may be made to contribute simultaneously to different types of guidance. The high-school principal, for example, in a small school may serve in all the types of guidance. Subjects of instruction may be taught in such a manner or made the basis of such discussions that contributions may be made to all types. Test scores and personal history may be useful in connection with each type. In fact, it is practically impossible to think of each of these types of guidance as being carried on independently, without reference or material contribution to one or more of the others.

Members of Staff involved in Guidance. Everyone associated with any secondary school has some opportunities to render guidance service,—indeed, responsibilities which he or she cannot escape,—even members of the board of education and certainly the janitor. There would be many more opportunities if teachers were known to high-school youngsters as being truly interested in them as individuals in capacities other than that of persons who must be, by some method, cajoled or intimidated into at least some semblance of mastery of the lessons—and also if teachers' interests and life experience were a little broader.

True it is that the participation of typical teachers and other members of the staff in guidance is somewhat badly distributed and not always intelligent. Not only is there the tendency not to attract pupils to bring their problems—personal, social, domestic, and otherwise—to them, but there is almost universally a very unfortunate practice on the part of teachers of attempting guidance services for which they are not qualified—and often no one else is—and to give bad advice and wholly fallacious information.

Instead of helping pupils to think about their problems, there seems to be an irresistible temptation to teachers to give them the answers—many of which are wrong. The values ascribed by teachers, for example, to the study of the subjects which they teach exceed in wild inaccuracy and exaggeration any glib-tongued talk of commercial salesmen; and the pupils know no better and cannot, therefore, refute them. The advice given pupils upon whether they should go to college or not, for example, reveals an astonishing ignorance of the wide variation in levels of ability and interests necessary as the minimum to succeed in college.

All this means that until teacher-training institutions give more and better training for guidance in their courses required of teachers, principals or directors of guidance must provide material and constant training and supervision of teachers in connection with their guidance activities.

Even in the larger schools much of guidance service centers in the teacher either as teacher or as home-room adviser. Jacobson and Reavis[1] report the practices in sixty-eight larger secondary schools near Chicago, as shown in Table V.

Table V. Functionaries about whom Guidance Activities are centered in Sixty-eight Secondary Schools

Functionary	Number of Schools
Home-room advisers	39
Principal	36
Assistant principal	17
Dean of girls	15
Director of guidance	15
Committee of teachers who have had or are given some special training for this work	12
Special counselor or counselors	11
Classroom teachers	10
Dean of boys	8
House directors	1
Adviser of girls	1
Vocational director	1

[1]Paul B. Jacobson and William C. Reavis, *Duties of School Principals*, p 140. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1942.

It should be obvious that the extent and nature of provisions for guidance that may be made will vary with the size of the school, the finances and personnel available, and the organization of the school. In the following paragraphs, consideration will be given to certain well-recognized means of providing guidance services, with occasional reference to modifications which seem necessary or desirable in different sizes or types of secondary schools.

2. EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND REGISTRATION

One of the most effective opportunities for rendering guidance service to high-school students, as well as one of the easiest to administer, is the utilization of possibilities for guidance in connection with registration. Recently principals have realized more fully than before the importance of preregistration as an opportunity for guidance, and the trend of practice is clearly in the direction of providing adequate counsel at this important time, though inertia and tradition still conserve the *laissez-faire* procedure.

The Preregistration Period. Provision should be made for preregistration during the previous semester. Sufficient time should be allowed for careful study and reflection on the part of pupils and parents. It is not too much to allow two or even three weeks. Perhaps the best plan is to provide for preregistration during the spring for the entire following school year, allowing a day or so at the beginning of the first semester for changes in registration and for registering new students. This supplementary registration may well be taken care of during the week just preceding the opening of school. When these procedures are employed, it is possible to begin regular class work on the second day of school.

Registration for the second semester may be confined to a few days toward the latter part of the first semester, during which pupils desiring or compelled to make changes may petition to do so and confer with their advisers about such proposed changes.

Providing Useful Information. During the preregistration period all possible means of putting advisers and students in possession of information which may be useful in the choice of studies should be used. Many principals prepare, or have a committee of advisers prepare, a chart of the entrance requirements of all colleges and universities to which students of that community usually go. This is reproduced in sufficient duplicates to place a copy in the hands of each adviser and one or more copies on bulletin boards in the halls. Talks may be made before school assemblies or roll-room groups on the values of the study of the various subjects offered by the school. These should not be of the nature of "sales" talks, centering vaguely round values of doubtful reality. Talks on the various curricula offered, their constants, and the futures for which they prepare should be made at this time in assembly or in roll room.

Information regarding the value of continuing in school should be given in roll-room meetings or assemblies. Care should be taken that such information is accurate and impartial. Studies of the money value of education should be employed sparingly, as should the relation of success in public life, as it is practically impossible to disentangle the contributions of natural abilities and those of education in such studies. Since natural abilities and amounts of schooling are closely correlated, the correlation between success and amount of schooling does not necessarily mean that amount of schooling is largely responsible for success. Other types of values of education, such as the command of respect of one's fellows, an understanding of public affairs and current topics of conversation, enjoyment of life on a high level, and the ability to mingle with ease and pleasure with other educated people, should be emphasized. Such discussions are most useful if the pupils are permitted to participate freely.

Data Needed by Registration Advisers. Data which should be organized and placed in the hands of advisers at this time should include intelligence-test scores connected with M. A. (mental age) and I. Q. (intelligence quotient), previous school

marks, data from health and physical examinations, data resulting from questionnaires or analyses of vocational interest, character ratings of previous teachers in junior and senior high schools, family data (for example, occupation and nationality of father), and data available relative to citizenship and other personality traits.

The usefulness of such data in the hands of those who understand their significance is great. Pupils whose ability to do school work is distinctly above the average should be urged to carry heavier than normal programs and to select college-preparatory subjects. Those who will in all probability never finish high school may be located with some precision by means of their age, I. Q., occupation of father, school marks, and intention to graduate, and should be encouraged to elect non-college-preparatory and vocational subjects. Those whose chances of any real success in mathematics or languages are not promising, as shown by intelligence and prognostic tests and previous school marks, may be located and so advised, in order that the months of discouraging toil rewarded only with failure and humiliation may be avoided. Those not in good health should be given programs which will not overtax them. Students who have definite vocational goals may be given valuable assistance in selecting subjects of most value to them. These are but illustrative of the many purposes for which such data may be used. In schools that enjoy the services of a vocational counselor or an effective dean of women the records of pupils kept by these officials should be made available.

It is not enough that data be available in the office or some other central place for reference; they should be put into the hands of the advisers, who should be called into conference in advance to consider the most effective use of the information, along with other questions and problems of educational guidance connected with preregistration.

In addition to the data mentioned above, for use in assisting pupils to decide whether they should take a foreign language, algebra, or geometery, subjects responsible for a higher percentage of failure than others, it is possible for additional and

highly pertinent data to be gathered through the medium of prognostic tests for special subjects, such as the *Luria-Orleans Modern Language Test, Symonds's Foreign Language Prognosis Test, Orleans-Solomon Latin Prognosis Test, Lee Test of Algebra Ability, Orleans Algebra Prognosis Test, Iowa Algebra Aptitude Test, Lee Test of Geometric Aptitude, Orleans Geometry Prognosis Test, Iowa Plane Geometry Aptitude Test.*

Illustration of Uses of Data for Registration Guidance. In Fig. 1 is reproduced the adviser's chart employed in the Providence, Rhode Island, Senior High School for use of data from mental tests in educational guidance. By locating each pupil by number on a spot at the intersection of the vertical line above his age and a horizontal line to the right of his M. A., the adviser is enabled to draw from that point an imaginary line approximately parallel to the two curved lines between which the point lies to the right-hand margin, to read there the part of the suggested educational-guidance program for the pupil, and at the top of the chart, directly above the point representing the pupil, to find still further suggestions for guidance to fit the case.

Who Should Be Registration Advisers. Advisers should be chosen, as far as possible, from those who have had special training and who understand the significance of such data and how to use it. It is better to employ a smaller number of advisers and to take more time for registration than to assign as advisers teachers who are not properly prepared to render effective service. In many schools where the latter condition obtains, the "advisership" is a perfunctory, mechanical thing, often, though given in the best of conscience, of very doubtful value if not actually harmful. The practice of employing heads of departments or the regular "class" advisers for preregistration guidance is not always wise, nor are all home-room teachers competent "registration advisers." Before preregistration the principal, if properly trained himself, may give valuable training to some members of his staff for these responsibilities.

In using this chart for educational guidance, it should be borne in mind that the prescription is only suggestive and may

well be modified in the light of such factors as previous school marks, outside work or other responsibilities, health, industry, and participation in extra-curricular activities.

Approval of Registration by Parents and School. Parents should be notified at the beginning of this period and urged to advise

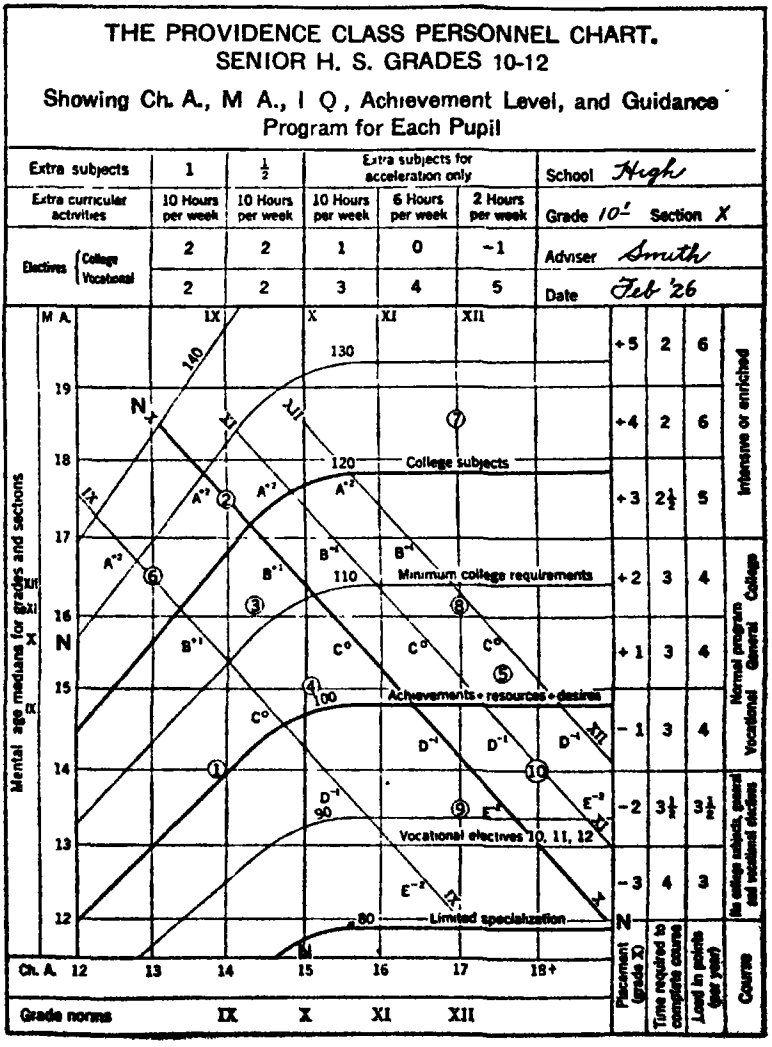


FIG. 1

their children. Information about curricula and courses should be sent to them and publicity should be given to the pre-registration period in the local newspapers. Parents should be invited to visit the school for conference, and should be informed of office hours at which they may find the principal, counselor, dean, or advisers available. When the pupil's registration is complete, the signature of the parent indicating approval should be obtained on the registration card.

Immediately upon the completion of registration the counselor and the dean (if the school is fortunate enough to have such officers), or the principal, in small schools, should check over all registration cards with a view to suggesting improvement in the selection of studies for individual pupils and to making sure that the pupil has registered for the constants in his chosen curriculum and has not registered for courses for which he is not eligible.

3. GUIDANCE FOR THE NEXT HIGHER SCHOOL

College Preparatory Guidance. Since the college-preparatory group is the largest group of students in high school who are homogeneous as to immediate future occupation, it is necessary to adopt such administrative procedures that their needs will not be ignored. In a previous paragraph there was suggested the desirability of locating the most likely future college students and, from the beginning of their high-school course, furnishing these students with special advice and data calculated to assist them in making adequate preparation for college entrance.

When the students have become seniors another very valuable type of service may be rendered, and is being rendered, by many secondary schools; namely, guidance in the selection of the institution which they will attend upon graduation from the high school. Important as the decision is, young people are influenced in making it by factors which are either trifling or unreliable. Teachers and alumni of colleges and universities exploit them in the interest of building up the enrollment of their institutions. They are influenced by older friends, now

students in college, who likewise are operating more in the interest of their institutions or Greek-letter organizations than in the interest of the prospective college freshman. Athletic, debating, dramatic, musical, and many other types of tournaments held at institutions of higher education are organized, as are special "high-school days" or "week ends," largely for the purpose of recruiting students. Many colleges and universities which do not prefer to engage in such activities are forced to do so by the competition furnished by other institutions which draw students from the same communities. In Chapter XXIV important information is given relative to the selection of a college or curricula in harmony with the intellectual abilities and capacities of the student, and data are given concerning the relationship of college grades to the subjects taken in high school.

The methods of rendering this service are not at all uniform among the schools. In some it is handled entirely by the group advisers of senior students. In many small schools the principal undertakes the service. It is frequently attended to in the advisory or roll-room periods. In some schools one or more special groups of prospective college entrants are scheduled for conferences with an adviser and for weekly or occasional meetings throughout the spring at which group discussions are conducted or opportunities provided for study of catalogues and other material. In still others the counselor, the head adviser, or the principal leads a few discussions, usually including consideration of "How to Choose my College," and invites students to make appointments for personal conferences. No matter what procedures are employed, the catalogues and other pertinent material of all the schools in which the students are likely to be interested should be collected early in the year, be made available, and be called to the attention of the senior class. Such topics as the possibilities and opportunities of earning all or part of college expenses, the importance of a good start in college life and studies, the choice of roommates, scholarships, and the costs of a college education, should prove useful to prospective college students.

If advisers have made the detailed study of their charges which they should always make, they will be prepared to give the student much valuable advice in selecting not only his college but also his major field. Where a counselor is employed, this should be one of his regular functions. Advice from such a person is likely to be much more impartial and, because of his knowledge and possession of data and records of the student, much more intelligent than the student would receive on these points from his adviser in college. Students of mediocre intelligence should be advised against certain fields; for example, against medicine; those of unsuitable personalities and of a low order of intellectual interests, against going into law or high-school teaching; and those of special disabilities in mathematics, against engineering. Students who apparently cannot afford to preface training in a technical field which is their vocational choice with academic study must be made conscious of the lack in many small colleges of facilities in technical lines of training. Those who are interested in particular fields not represented in all schools—for example, in library training, agriculture, certain types of music and of art, and diplomatic and consular service—should be advised or guided in their study concerning places most likely to offer training of a high grade in the chosen field.

Certain students, particularly those of low intelligence-test scores and scholarship records, should be brought to see that their best interests will not be conserved by going to college. At least they should realize that only by dint of much hard work may they hope to succeed at all.

Guidance in the Next Lower School. Many schools are beginning to realize the possibilities of guidance in the last year of the next lower school; for example, guidance in the eighth grade for a four-year high school, in the ninth grade of the junior high school for the senior high school, and in the sixth grade for the junior high school. This may take the form of coöperative guidance, in which officials and teachers of both schools pool their efforts.

In the Berkeley, California, junior high schools a plan was

developed by the Bureau of Research and Guidance which was calculated to render valuable guidance service to ninth-grade students in the junior high schools. The following is an extract from a detailed description of the plan by Miss Margaret M. Alltucker of the Berkeley High School.

I. *Policy and Organization.* With a view to assisting principals in the better placement of pupils in their schools, the Bureau of Research and Guidance has adopted the policy of selecting for each school in Berkeley a teacher who acts as school counselor. It provides also for a careful follow-up system, including a study of the needs and capacities of each child, so that training may be offered which will bring about as complete an adjustment of the pupil to all phases of his environment as his native endowments will permit.

Obviously, a good counselor is one who has keen insight into child psychology, who is trained to observe data and records carefully, who has had practical teaching experience, who has a knowledge of mental testing and of methods of making and analyzing case histories, and who has a thorough acquaintance with the educational opportunities and the demands of the next higher school, as well as a knowledge of the conflicting situations that are likely to confront a pupil.

II. *Counseling for the Next Higher School.* The following is a brief outline of the work of the school counselor as she helps to arrange the programs of the pupils in the senior high school:

1. The counselor studies the cumulative card or data sheet and the case history of every pupil. These include records of the pupil's scholarship for the previous nine years, his accomplishments in educational tests, his attendance, his attitude toward work, his mental capacity as measured by a general intelligence test, his age, his future plans, and significant social data.

2. A conference is held between the counselors of the junior and senior high schools for a careful study of the problems and opportunities in each school.

3. The pupil's program for the first term in the senior high school is made out. This involves:

a. A careful study by every prospective student and his parents of the bulletin *What the Senior High School has to Offer.* This bulletin supplies accurate information concerning the opportunities offered, requirements for high-school graduation, essentials for matriculation in the various colleges, suggestions for educational preparation

for various vocations, and significant facts concerning the Berkeley High School with which the incoming student and his parents should be acquainted.

b. Development, with the entire group and with each individual pupil looking forward to entrance into the senior high school, of the question "Considering my interests, ability, and social and civic outlook for life, what should be my future educational plans?"

c. A conference between the pupil and his parents with reference to high-school courses as explained in the bulletin. This may be supplemented by a general meeting of the parents of prospective senior-high-school pupils with the director of research and guidance and the senior-high-school counselor. Here opportunity is given for parents to ask questions concerning the new school in which they expect to enroll their children and about which they have every right to know.

d. The pupil's selection of the program in which he is most interested and which he thinks will best fit his needs and capacity.

e. A conference between the counselor and the pupil with reference to the subjects chosen. Here the counselor checks carefully to see that the student has the proper prerequisites for the subjects he has selected, to see that the subjects meet the matriculation requirements of the college in which the student expects later to enroll or that they offer training for the specific vocation which he may have selected, and, finally, to make sure that enough interests are being developed.

f. A revision of the program by the pupil and his parents in the light of any suggestions brought out in conference with the counselor.

g. A second conference between the counselor and the pupil for final decision with regard to the program. The final choice of subjects is recorded on the "Introduction Card," which becomes the child's admission card to the senior high school.

h. The signature of the parent on the back of the introduction card. This indicates the parent's approval of the course chosen.

i. The signature of the junior-high-school counselor on the introduction card.

4. The introduction cards are sent to the senior high school several weeks before the close of the term previous to the students' entrance. The senior-high-school counselor makes a careful tally of each one, and in this way determines exactly the number of sections in each subject to provide for the ensuing term.

5. Each incoming student's case record is carefully studied by the senior-high-school counselor. Students are placed in differentiated sections in certain subjects, depending on whether they are of limited, average, or superior ability. In the classification of students seven points are taken into consideration: (1) previous scholastic accomplishment, (2) teacher's estimate of ability, (3) industry, (4) health, (5) home coöperation, (6) chronological age, and (7) mental capacity as measured by a standardized test of general intelligence.

6. At the close of the first seven weeks of the new term, when the first report cards are issued, each individual student's scholarship grades are compared with the quality of his entrance credits. All students who have done as well as, or better than, they did in the junior high school are called to the counselor's office in groups of twenty and are commended. An individual conference is held with each new student who has not done as well as he did in the lower school. The student's own statement as to the reason for his failure is always asked for and is recorded on his record. The counselor also notes any extenuating circumstances that in her judgment are explanatory.

7. After each report period, during the student's first term in the senior high school, the senior-high-school counselor holds a conference with the principal, the counselor, and the ninth-grade teachers of each junior high school. Here the case record of each problem case is carefully considered. In this way the senior high school learns what, in the estimation of those who have known, studied, and worked with him for three years previously, are the factors making for the pupil's present failure and possibly what measures can best be adopted to prevent future failures.

8. A large number of failures in any particular subject immediately raises the question Why? Are the failures due to poor teaching in the senior high school, to poor preparation in the junior high school, or to lack of coördination of the work done in the lower and upper schools?

9. As far as is administratively possible, the counselor makes the necessary adjustments to meet the difficulties of each individual pupil, such as modifying the student's program of subjects, increasing the time spent in study, or improving the physical conditions.

A wide variety of plans and procedures are employed by schools to render this service. Among them may be mentioned:

1. The preparation and distribution of a handbook among students of the highest grade of the next lower school. Among other things such handbooks frequently contain:[1]

a. The program of studies and the various curricula, with requirements for graduation.

b. A list of descriptions of the various extra-curricular activities, with rules governing the participation in these and management of them.

c. School-spirit material: school motto, colors, yells; notable achievements of the school: successful students, athletics, etc.

d. Rules, regulations, conventions, and marking system.

e. Suggestions on how to use the facilities of the school: library, locker service, book-sale service, cafeteria.

f. Honors and awards: descriptions and bases of award.

2. The visitation by invitation of the upper school, at which the students of the lower school are entertained by assemblies or athletic contests, are addressed by the principal, advisers, or student officers of the upper school on curricular and extra-curricular opportunities in the school, and are taken by student guides to visit the various portions of the building, particularly the shops, laboratories, gymnasium, library, and other special rooms.

3. The sending of speakers—the principal, advisers, student representatives—to the lower school to explain the advantages of attending the upper school and to give advice on such points as the selection of courses and participation in activities.[2]

Principals of junior and senior schools do not always agree as to who should have charge of the guidance of the ninth-grade junior-high-school pupil with respect to the upper school. Without noting here the arguments advanced on either side, it would seem correct to state that this would depend largely upon which school was better prepared to render the desired service. As between schools in which one maintains a compe-

[1]For a more comprehensive and detailed list of items sometimes included, see Francis D. Curtis, "A Study of High School Handbooks," *The School Review* (December, 1924), Vol. LI, pp. 614–618.

[2]The counselor of the John Adams High School, Chicago, visits the junior high schools contributing most heavily to that school, holds conferences with all pupils planning to enter the school, and, in addition to planning the registration of these pupils, gives them information concerning the school.

tent counselor and the other does not, the responsibility should be borne by the school thus better equipped to render effective service. If neither maintains an especially trained worker in the field of guidance, it is very likely that better results and less friction will be obtained by utilizing representatives of the senior school as sources of information about their school and by leaving in the hands of the junior-high-school principal and advisers the actual management of the guidance. The junior-high-school principal and advisers have a personal knowledge of the individual pupil which it would be difficult to commit to records or otherwise transfer to any representative of the senior school. It is awkward for representatives of the higher school to make use of the records of the pupils still attending the lower school and to schedule individual conferences with them.

4. GUIDANCE IN ADJUSTING TO A NEW SCHOOL UNIT

Orientation in the Local School. Very closely related to the type of service which has just been described is what, for want of a better term, may be called "school" guidance. This type of guidance, as will be apparent, is a mixture or synthesis of educational, vocational, and moral-social-civic guidance given to students usually in the first year of the school. It is given in various forms in a number of junior high schools. It is rarely given as a course in senior high schools, since in spite of its value as preparation for college, few colleges will approve it when offered for college entrance, but is given there in the form of handbooks or talks in roll rooms or freshmen assemblies, or in both. In the Thomas Junior High School of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, a series of twelve lessons has been planned to be given during the first month of the term to all incoming seventh-grade pupils. Illustrative lesson units covering one or many days are given below.

LESSON I. *The school day, building orientation, and more important rules.* Information about the opening time of school, the length of periods, the schedule bells, assemblies, and lunch period; explanation of the roster card; plan of building; the numbering and the loca-

tion of rooms; lunch rules; excuses for absence and tardiness; books and material for classes.

LESSON II. *Traffic regulations.* Need for; standards and ideals; rules.

LESSON III. *Student material, equipment.* Lesson book: specifications; how kept; other equipment for all classes; care and arrangement of books and material.

LESSON IV. *Personal appearance.* Cleanliness; neatness; clothes; conventions; posture.

LESSON V. *Lunchroom ethics.* Standards and ideals, regulations; after lunch.

LESSON VI. *Group meeting: parliamentary procedure.* Order of business and parliamentary form; the school bank.

LESSON VII. *Aims, purposes, and functions of the junior high school.* The curriculum: special aims and functions.

LESSON VIII. *Home study.* Proper environment; rules for effective study.

LESSON IX. *Attendance.* Meaning and importance; state laws; proper excuses; details of routine.

LESSON X. *Punctuality.* Importance in business world; school punctuality.

LESSON XI. *Student organizations.* School government; student agencies for government and activities and duty.

LESSON XII. *Ethics of the auditorium.* Advantages of auditorium privileges; means of entrance, seats, and exit; behavior.

Much of the time spent on these lessons is given over to discussion by pupils. Attempts are made to lead them to form the desired attitudes as well as to develop and to acquire useful information. A collection of supplementary reading material is made available for voluntary reading and special reports. Such a series of lessons might well be substituted in the junior high school for instruction in some seventh-grade subjects for two or three weeks.

5. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Among the various methods employed in rendering vocational-guidance service in the high school, the following may be mentioned:

1. The occupational survey of the community, carried on usually by high-school students under the supervision of someone interested in vocational guidance.

2. The vocational-information shelf or alcove in the high-school library in which are placed pamphlets, bulletins, reports, books, etc., readable by high-school pupils and dealing with vocations and the choice of a vocation.

3. Vocational information taught through the high-school studies: theme work in English, side trips and incidental information in general science, geography, history, manual and household arts, vocational subjects, and special try-out courses.

4. Talks and lectures on vocations before assemblies, roll rooms, or classes by members of various professions and callings.

5. Formation of junior chambers of commerce.

6. Life career, or occupation, classes meeting regularly with preparation as any other class, usually four or five times a week for a semester.

7. Advisory activities of the vocational counselor.

8. Advisory activities of advisers and deans of girls.

9. Advisory activities of the classroom teacher.

10. Advisory activities of coaches or advisers of extra-curricular activities.

The activities of these various advisers should not be thought of as intended to determine the decisions of the pupil. The very large part of vocational guidance should be, in fact, the assisting of pupils in self-guidance. It does not involve the direct influencing of decisions, but, on the other hand, is indirect, the objective being to stimulate, inform, and guide the pupil in the study of himself and his vocational future. Without question, from the standpoint of eliminating questionable responsibility on the part of the school and its advisers self-guidance has attractive features, to say nothing of the apparent fact that such a type of guidance prepares the student better for independent study and decisions after he has passed beyond the reach of school guidance.

The remaining paragraphs of this chapter will be devoted to general effective methods of giving vocational information.

The Course in Occupations. The course in occupations, or the life-career class, may play an important part in the program of vocational guidance. It serves a threefold purpose: (1) to arouse in the pupil an interest in the matter of vocational choice so that information from any source in the next few years of his life will be utilized for the light it may throw upon his problem of choosing a life occupation; (2) to furnish the pupil with standards, criteria, and a method of approach to the study of a vocation as a possible occupation for him; (3) to furnish the pupil with information about the more important occupations, especially those in which he is interested.

The course in vocations is usually offered in the eighth or the ninth grade as the equivalent of a one-semester solid subject. There is much reason to believe that it would be profitable to offer in the twelfth grade a second course in which vocations may be studied more in detail and more emphasis be placed upon actually making the vocational decision. At this advanced stage of maturity the pupil should be able to arrive at some definite, if tentative, conclusions as to what his vocation will be and should set about preparing himself for it. Combined with such a course in this grade, there should be a study of college and university facilities for training for the prospective life work.

The field is relatively new, and teachers prepared to give this work are scarce indeed. The recent publication of a number of books, pamphlets, and bulletins with information about various occupations, including textbooks especially prepared for such courses, has made the organization of such courses less difficult, enabling a man or woman of reasonable background and interest, if willing to devote some time and attention to the task, to direct a profitable study of vocations. Where the vocational counselor is employed he should either teach the course in vocations or direct and supervise it.

Assembly Talks. Many principals have found that a series of talks given before assemblies or smaller groups has operated to set high-school pupils to thinking seriously about their vocational futures and to furnish very useful information and

procedures of approach in thinking about vocational choices. In most communities at least one individual may be found to give a talk on each of the main divisions of vocational pursuits which high-school boys and girls are likely to enter: medicine, law, journalism, the retail business, manufacturing, salesmanship, the ministry, banking, stenography, nursing, and the skilled trades. In selecting such speakers care should be taken to invite only those who are likely to speak effectively before high-school groups, and to suggest what sort of talk is desired. Many principals, profiting from experience, have adopted the practice of furnishing each speaker with a list of points which should be covered; for example, conditions of work, opportunities for employment and advancement, financial and other rewards, education and personality required for success. If available, statistical material relating to the more important points should be offered to the speaker, who may not have access to such data. Opportunity should be furnished for questions from the students. It is useful to place in the library a list of references relating to each field at the time each talk is made and to make some announcement of such provision when the talk is given or a few days before it is given.

Try-out Courses. One phase of the guidance program of a number of junior high schools is the provision of short unit try-out courses. In all but the larger schools these are usually given in the "general shop," which is equipped for elementary work in wood-turning, bench woodwork, electrical wiring, and other simple electrical repair or installation training, and sheet-metal and light machine work. In some schools try-out courses are also offered in typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, painting, plumbing, household arts, and agriculture. The value of these exploratory courses for the purposes of specific guidance is limited. Each course ordinarily cannot exceed from nine to eighteen weeks in length if more than a very few types of work are explored. The validity and reliability of so short a try-out are open to serious question. It would seem improbable that even an adult could get any adequate idea of whether he is suited by capacity and interest to any given occupation even

in the more valid situation of practical employment for an equivalent amount of time—from 75 to 150 hours, the equivalent of from 9 to 18 working days. It should also be remembered that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to set up in the school a situation so similar to the actual working conditions of a trade or calling in life that valid conclusions may be expected. Juvenile interests are not likely to be permanent. Only a few of the thousands of occupations may be represented.

On the other hand, such a series of try-outs is not without considerable value. At least the problem of studying self and vocation may be raised with pupils at the junior-high-school age, leading to search for, and use of, information and experiences to be had from all manner of sources in vocational-choice thinking. The pupil may profit from the opportunity to explore his potential interests and skills in the mechanical field. The fact that one must look forward to becoming self-supporting is presented and impressed. Such try-out courses are likely also to possess value in assisting in a more intelligent choice of vocational subjects in senior high school. They will at least reduce the possibility of choosing such subjects on the basis of the appeal of novelty.

Extra-curricular Activities. Coaches and advisers of extra-curricular activities should be brought to think of the guidance possibilities of such activities. Talents and interests of many a boy or girl have been disclosed to the young people themselves as well as to advisers as the result of participation in debating and in art and in dramatic, journalistic, musical, athletic, and other types of extra-curricular activities. Cases without number could be furnished of boys and girls who, through participation in extra-curricular activities, have found themselves to be talented and interested in a particular field or activity and have thus been led into profitable and satisfying vocational lives, to say nothing of the tens of thousands of cases of young people who have discovered themselves to be lacking in talent or interest in activities representative of vocations which they had thought of entering. The coach or adviser is usually qualified to recognize unusual talent and should be urged to be on

the lookout for it and to encourage those who appear to possess it to think of obtaining further training and of engaging in life activities which will capitalize it. Demonstration by any pupil of unusual talent in any line should be made a part of his permanent record for future use by principal and advisers.

Tests and Inventories in Vocational Guidance. The usefulness of aptitude and prognostic tests and interest inventories in vocational guidance has been almost consistently exaggerated in books on guidance and high-school administration. A number of them, however, are of some value and should always be used in any careful program of vocational guidance. Among them should be mentioned the following:

Vocational Interest Tests

Interest Questionnaire for High School Students (OLIVER K. GARRETSON and PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS), Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. $3 15 per 100; $ 25 per manual and keys.

Kefauver-Hand Guidance Tests and Inventories (6 tests and 2 inventories), The World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. $1.00–$1 30 per 25

Preference Record (G. FREDERIC KUDER), Science Research Associates, 1700 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. $5 00 per 25; $2.50 per 100 answer sheets; $2.00 per set of scoring stencils.

Specific Interest Inventory (PAUL P BRAINARD and FRANCES G. STEWART), The Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York. $5.00 per 100, 6 cents each. (Separate forms for boys and girls.)

Vocational Interest Inventory (GLEN U. CLEETON), McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois. $4.50 per 100; $.25 per manual. (Separate inventories for men and women.)

Mechanical Aptitude Tests

MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability, California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Boulevard, Hollywood, California. $1 75 per 25.

New Detroit Mechanical Aptitudes Examination, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. $3 00 per 100.

O'Rourke Mechanical Aptitude Test, Psychological Institute, Washington, D.C. 5 cents per test.

Revised Minnesota Paper Formboard Test, Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York. $3.50 per 100.

Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Tests (2 tests), The World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. $1 40 per 25; $.15 per manual.

Through the Classroom Teacher and Regular Subjects. The classroom teacher should be impressed with the importance of utilizing opportunities for guidance incidental to classroom instruction. These opportunities may be of three types:

1. Opportunities for bringing into the course and emphasizing the guidance relations of readings and discussions which furnish information about occupations and future educational activities.
2. Opportunities for stimulating and guiding pupils in the study of their own abilities and capacities.
3. Opportunities for bringing pupils to face the fact that they must make important vocational decisions, and that their happiness in life depends largely upon making these decisions wisely.

Such opportunities abound in the teaching of science and industrial subjects. They occur almost daily in the teaching of mathematics, literature, history, and social sciences; but they are infrequently recognized as worthy of particular notice by many teachers who have given little thought to their possibilities and values for the student or who have never thought of themselves in these relations to the school as other than teachers of their subjects. The values for guidance of general supplementary courses should be realized. Among courses of this nature are those in general science, general or unified mathematics, and general language.

It is hardly necessary to point out the possibilities of giving moral, leisure, and personal guidance in the classroom. The problem of the principal or head of the guidance program is to assist teachers to see their responsibilities in the light of objectives, in terms of boys and girls and their life needs and problems, and to free the teachers from the illusion that they are "employed to teach physics." He may increase their effectiveness further by stimulating their imagination in the direction of the possibilities of their subjects and themselves as agencies for guidance. Where guidance specialists are employed in the school system, they may be utilized in improving the guidance attitude and techniques of the members of the high-school staff.

Sources of Information concerning Occupations. Any successful program of vocational guidance must be based upon three fundamental approaches: (1) an analysis, including self-analysis, of the student's aptitudes, interests, personality potentialities, and character traits; (2) information concerning occupations and methods of analysis of occupations for purposes of guidance; and (3) training of pupil in combining his information and insights in (1) and (2), at least in one or more tentative programs for himself.

One who is to render service with respect to pupil analysis must have considerable technical training in that area, both in college and on the job. One who is to render any real vocational-guidance service must know a good deal about vocations, their financial and other rewards, conditions of work, demands upon workers with respect to abilities, personality and other character traits, general education, and special training. In addition, there must be available, for student reading and study, books or pamphlets of reliable information concerning all the vocations in which any considerable number of people are engaged in the United States.

Among the sources of such information which have been of most value in recent years are the following:

Careers, a series of small monographs on various vocations, published by the Institute for Research, 537 Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois. Average about 70 cents each.

Success, Vocational Information Series of 60 monographs, published by Morgan-Dillon and Co., 6431-33 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Individual monographs, $.32 each; ten or more, any assortment, $.30 per monograph.

Guidance Leaflets, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C. 5 cents each

Vocational Guidance Monographs, Commonwealth Book Company, 80 E. Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois. $1.00 each vocation, $17.75 for 25, $33.50 for 50.

Occupation Briefs, loose-leaf bulletins, one page to each occupation. Educational Research Association, 2214 East Colorado Street, Pasadena, California.

Problems and Exercises

1. Canvass the list of opportunities for guidance mentioned on pages 156–157 of the text and, in connection with each, note one or more ways in which that type of opportunity may be realized in the school.

2. Make an outline of a talk to be given to the advisers who will assist in the registration of pupils.

3. Outline a practical plan for putting the desired data in the possession of registration advisers.

4. Be able to explain the use of the Providence Class Personnel Chart in the guidance of pupils.

5. For what reasons is the approval of parents suggested in connection with the pupils' registration?

6. Obtain several high-school handbooks and examine them for useful data on guidance. In what ways is each lacking in desirable content?

7. How should you arrange for orienting new pupils in the junior high school? in the senior high school?

8. Arrange what you think is a reasonable and effective combination of means of vocational guidance for a school of a given size, the size to be set by you.

9. Write a paper of 500 words explaining in detail "self-guidance" as opposed to guidance by others.

10. Give illustrations of how a classroom teacher may render useful guidance service in connection with her classroom teaching.

11. In attempting to advise a high-school pupil as to what subjects he should study in high school, what items would be of most significance?

12. Outline a practical and reasonable program of college guidance for high-school pupils.

VIII

Organizing and Improving the Guidance Program (Continued)

6. PERSONNEL ORGANIZATION: THE DIRECTOR OF GUIDANCE

Types of Guidance Personnel. A variety of types of staff officers has been developed to carry on guidance in high schools. Among such types are the director of guidance, the vocational counselor, the placement director, the dean of girls, the dean of boys, the school counselor, registration advisers, and home-room or group advisers. In addition to these, there exist in a number of schools directors of health and directors of activities, who perform guidance service in these specialized fields. The nature and organization of the personnel employed in a given school vary not only with the extent to which the school has gone into the development of a guidance program, but also with the size of the school and with the individuals whose services are readily available.

An excellent organization for larger schools includes a director of guidance, a dean of girls, a vocational counselor, a staff of registration advisers, and a staff of home-room advisers. The director of guidance heads and directs the entire guidance program. The vocational counselor is one of the director's two chief lieutenants. Under the director's general direction he assumes responsibility for developing a program of bringing the pupils of the school into contact with information on vocations with special reference to the local community; of assisting them to bring together all available vocational information and data concerning themselves, their abilities and interests, to bear on the problem of choosing a vocation; and of assisting them to initiate and perfect their early adjustments in vocational life. The dean of girls is the other major member of the staff. She not only assumes the leadership in directing

the social life of the school, but also plays a large part in relieving the director of guidance (and, to some extent, the vocational counselor) from personal contacts with the girls of the school. The director of guidance, or head counselor, personally directs the activities of two groups of staff assistants: registration advisers and home-room, or group, advisers. The former are teachers who are chosen for special guidance duties at registration periods; the latter are advisers assigned each to a group of pupils and functioning throughout the year.

The duties and responsibilities of each of these types of officers in any given school depend upon the number and character of other members of the guidance staff. This point will be amplified and illustrated in the duties of the different types of guidance agents.

The Director of Guidance. In all but the smaller schools an effort should be made to obtain on the staff one individual who, perhaps, in schools of medium size, may do some teaching, who is especially trained in guidance theory, organization, and techniques and in underlying psychology and psychological testing, and on whom responsibility may be placed for organizing and supervising a modern functioning guidance program. He should be charged with setting up the plan of organization and the machinery for guidance, with training registration and home-room advisers, and with supervising their activities. In all but the larger schools he may well, if of suitable personality, act in the capacity of dean of boys.

7. THE VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR

The Counselor's Duties. The duties of vocational counselors vary from school to school, but in general the better-trained and better-supported counselors attempt to

1. Provide information about vocations

a. By placing books, magazines, bulletins, monographs, and other related material in the school library or in the hands of interested students.

b. By organizing and giving courses in "Occupations."

c. By organizing and supervising local occupational surveys.

d. By arranging for speakers to talk about occupations before assemblies or groups of pupils.

e. By giving talks before such groups.

f. By arranging for students to visit places where occupations are carried on and by conducting follow-up discussions.

g. By personal conferences with students

h. By stimulating pupils to make intensive studies of one or more vocations in which they are interested individually.

2. Study the capacities and interests of students as individuals

a. From the scores of tests of intelligence and of achievement, and prognostic (or aptitude) tests

b. From extra-curricular activity records.

c. From interest or occupation questionnaires or analyses on interests or occupations.

d. From the rating of teachers as to character and personality.

e. From the personal data of students and family data.

f. From data gathered from conferences with students.

g. From part-time or summer vocational experience of students.

3. Assist students in tentative choice of occupations

a. By a study of students' records with a view to vocational advice.

b. By conferences with students about their vocational futures.

4. Supervise and direct related types of research

a. By determining the prognostic value of various types of data for educational and vocational prediction.

b. By analyzing data for recommendations regarding curricula.

5. Coöperate with the following agencies in mutual problems:

a. The attendance department in connection with work permits and certificates on leaving school.

b. Placement agencies within or without the school.

c. Social agencies or workers interested in the vocational problems of young people.

d. Parents and friends interested in assisting children in making good vocational adjustments.

6. Gather data and conduct follow-up guidance with graduates and former pupils.

a. "Drop outs": where they go, why they dropped, etc.
b. Occupational success of those leaving school.
c. Occupational adjustment.
d. Self-improvement.

Selecting and Installing a Counselor. That these responsibilities may be discharged properly, the right type of counselor must be selected and favorable working conditions be provided. For high-grade work a man of considerable technical training should be obtained. This training should include a good background in psychological and aptitude testing and statistical methods, in educational and vocational guidance, and in vocational education. Preferably he should be a man who has made some special study of economics and business administration, including labor problems, and who has a good background in the theory and practices of education and school administration. Equally important is it to obtain a man who by his personality and appearance, as well as by his training, will command the respect and good will of all high-school boys and girls (particularly problem cases) and of the professional, business, and industrial men of the community. Such a man will naturally command a salary in excess of the classroom teacher or department head, one equivalent to that of a vice principal or an assistant principal.

The counselor should be given proper office quarters and equipment and funds for tests and for scoring tests. He should be given an adequate fund for vocational-guidance materials in the way of books and other printed matter. He should receive the complete coöperation of all other agencies, officials, and instructors in the school. Those in charge of the administration of the school should in every way assist him in making contact with outside forces of value to him, such as commercial and service clubs, social-service organizations, parents' organizations, and parents as individuals. He should not be given teaching or other duties to such an extent that he will

not be able to spend much time in conference with students, parents, and employment executives and in the study of his records and data.

Combining Counseling with Research and with Placement. In small schools the work of the counselor may well be combined with the department of research. The desired training of the director of research and that of the vocational counselor have much in common, and the duties of the two offices somewhat overlap. It is, without doubt, better to employ one highly trained individual of unusual personality and training at a favorable salary than to maintain two positions at salaries which will not attract candidates with adequate training or personal qualifications.

It perhaps goes without saying that in all but the largest high schools the placement service may be assigned to the vocational counselor. The activities of the two offices coördinate so well that there is much argument against separating them. Likewise, when the vocational counselor is properly trained he may head the "coördination" service between vocational training and employment. Since few schools have as yet developed these features of service and their work constitutes a special field, no further discussion of them would be appropriate here.

Placement and Follow-up Service. School administrators interested in secondary education have come to realize that the school may make to society and to young people as individuals a contribution which is broader than instruction. They have been impressed with the fact that, for a great many pupils, the school may render a service in getting them safely started in their vocational careers that their parents are unable to render for them effectively, or with the fact that it may give valuable assistance to parents in this important function. The idea has become generally accepted that the school should consider seriously assuming responsibility for any type of service necessary or highly desirable in the preparation of young people for life when no other institution or agency is functioning in that particular type of service, provided, of course, the school can

reasonably render the service. It is obvious that the industries, trades, professions, business, or other branches of productive life are rarely impartially interested in guiding boys and girls into those occupations in which they as individuals will be most happy and useful. Nor are they in a position to render service equal to that of the school. The idea that the school should maintain its influence and contacts of the nature of guidance even after the boy or girl has withdrawn from school is gaining adherents rapidly. An outgrowth of these developments in educational philosophy is the placement service now furnished by many schools, particularly for withdrawals from junior and senior high schools.

Briefly, the placement service should involve five types of activities.

1. The gathering of all information possible about the boys and girls to be served which will throw light on their abilities, capacities, interests, temperaments, health, and which will therefore be of use in most effectively locating them.
2. The establishment of contacts with employing concerns or individuals which will result in opportunities to place at work and in training the boys and girls to be guided.
3. The accumulation of such local information about vocations as will be useful in advising young people.
4. The continuation of contacts with young people after they are placed, for the purpose of guidance, counsel, and advice on matters vocational, moral, educational, and personal, and hints for the improvement of placement service.
5. The administration of details relating to employment certificates and other phases of the compulsory-attendance laws as these relate to employment.

Since placement service—its technique, records, and forms—constitutes a somewhat specialized field, the principal should place it in the hands of someone who has been able to give it careful study or is willing to do so. The personal qualifications desirable are similar to those mentioned in connection with the discussion of the counselor and will not be repeated here. Principals installing such service for the first time should also visit

and study the organization of such service in schools maintaining it successfully.

8. THE DEAN OF GIRLS AND THE DEAN OF BOYS

Duties of the Dean of Girls. A realization of the importance of guidance and the difficulty of finding among the regular teaching staff sufficiently trained advisers with favorable personality and temperament, and the need felt for the special guidance of girls by one of their own sex, have been largely responsible for the establishment, in a majority of schools of over 100 pupils, of a "dean of girls," or (a better term) "girls' adviser," or a vice principal who performs the duties of dean of girls. Properly supported, with needed data and equipment and working relations, an edequately trained girls' adviser may become the most useful member of the principal's administrative staff.

The duties and opportunities of the girls' adviser include all those mentioned in connection with the discussion of advisers and, in addition, others which pertain particularly to her position as the adviser of all girls' affairs in the school and which are peculiarly possible to a woman who advises girls. Among the most important of these the following may be mentioned as typical:

1. Personal and group advice in the matter of health and hygiene.
2. Responsibility for organization and assistance in the social and recreational program of the school: dances, parties, and hikes, in which girls participate with or without boys.
3. Sympathetic and wholesome advice to girls in their social life outside the school: romantic and personal, as well as formal.
4. Special responsibility in bringing social and personal development to the backward, ignorant, shy, and uncultured girls of the school.
5. In every way assisting the girl to arrive at a true understanding of the place and activities of the modern girl and woman of today, touching upon such things as

a. Friendships of various kinds.
b. Leisure and recreation.

c. Formal social life.
d. Attitudes toward older people: parents, teachers, and others.
e. Conventions that mark "good breeding."
f. Dress and appearance.

6. Analysis and remedial measures for personality and mental "twists" and nervous handicaps; for example, hypersensitiveness and sulkiness, pugnaciousness, abnormal fears, phobias, and suspicions, extreme extraversion or introversion, and morbidity.

7. Advice and counsel on financial problems, such as self-support, loan funds, employment, and working one's way through college.

8. Advice and counsel on matters of boarding or rooming houses, hygiene of home quarters (food, diet, and sleep), and unfortunate personal relationships in the home.

9. Vocational counseling in those schools in which there is no vocational counselor.

Even to a less extent than in the case of the group adviser, should she be charged with duties which operate to spoil the fundamental relationship of confidant and friend. The administration of disciplinary cases referred to her should be such as permit her to refer them back to some other official if formal punishment is necessary. The girls' adviser must be admired, esteemed, and respected—not feared, disliked, or avoided.

Installing a Girls' Adviser. The responsibility of advising girls should be assigned only to one who is fully familiar, by means of formal training or study in service, with the purposes and possibilities of the position, and with techniques and procedures which have proved successful; to one who is familiar with the points of view of high-school girls and who possesses the appearance, personality, and manner to attract girls. Superannuated teachers with no qualifications other than a "motherly" appearance or attitude should not be designated for the position. The problems involved not only require intellect and professional training but also make tremendous demands on the ability to win the confidence and admiration of girls. All too often the woman selected proves to be too stern, too sensitive to criticism of low standards, prizing the prestige of lost battles in a worthy cause even higher than

compromises which lead to progress, and putting her own reputation among the women of the community above the character of her girls, a social censor or policewoman, beneath whose external pleasantness there lies, after all, the traditional "schoolmarm."

The girls' adviser should be given adequate office room, strategically located and affording desirable privacy. She should be given clerical and stenographic assistance proportionate to the size of the school, record forms, and filing cabinets. She should be given every possible favorable working relationship with the school physician, the nurses, the directors and instructors in physical education, the attendance department, the building custodian, and the faculty in general. All advisers in the school should clear their social activities and program through her. She should be placed in close working relations with the vocational counselor, if there is one. She should be given every opportunity to make social and personal contacts with parents. As the representative of the school she should be put in touch with others in the community who work with and for girls—juvenile-court authorities, social workers, and religious and similar organizations.

She should not be so heavily loaded with teaching or with other duties not pertinent to her work as adviser as to prevent her from having ample time for many personal conferences with pupils and parents, for visits to pupils' homes and to the non-school officials and agencies mentioned above, and for planning the details of her work.

If she is relatively untrained or inexperienced she should be stimulated to give much study to her position, its possibilities and techniques, and to fit herself for graduation from the apprentice class as soon as possible. Appointments or increases in salary should be contingent upon such self-improvement, as well as upon apparent success in the work.

The Dean of Boys, or Boys' Counselor. Very few schools have separate deans of boys, or boys' advisers. Since most principals are men, there is much less need for a separate administrative office for boys corresponding to the dean of girls. Reavis and

Woellner[1] have shown that only one fourth as many schools, or 25 per cent, have boys' counselors as have deans of girls or girls' advisers; but that in 40 per cent of the schools there are assistant principals who perform the duties of boys' counselor. If there is a director of guidance or a vocational counselor of appropriate personal qualities, he may well act as boys' counselor in all but the larger schools.

The duties of the boys' counselor are similar to those of the dean of girls. He not only stands ready to talk over with the boys as individuals or as groups problems of almost any sort which they bring to him, but he is constantly on the lookout for opportunities to offer counsel to individuals or groups in any of the numerous problems which are likely to arise in the lives of boys at this age and with which few are ready to cope unaided—problems of conduct in school and out, problems of home, financial problems, and problems of social life. In the large majority of schools there is no dean of boys, many of the home-room, or group, advisers are women, and not all the men advisers are qualified to meet the requirements. In such schools the director of guidance or, in smaller schools, the principal is the logical individual to perform that service.

9. HOME-ROOM, OR GROUP, ADVISERS

The home-room, or group, advisory system has spread rapidly within recent years. The plan usually involves a staff of advisers selected from the teaching corps to work with groups made up of from 30 to 60 pupils each. The functions performed by these advisers vary with the guidance program of the principal or director of guidance and with the number and duties of other guidance agents. If there are on the staff a competent girls' adviser, a vocational counselor, and a director of guidance, or head counselor, the duties of the home-room adviser will naturally be less varied and will involve fewer of the more complex and technical tasks, which will be performed by the more highly trained members of the staff.

[1]Cf. page 82.

Inadequacy of Many "Advisory" Organizations. Except in those schools in which there are competent and forceful head counselors or chief advisers with the authority and the time to direct the activities of the advisers, the home-room, or group, advisory organization has rarely been very successful as an instrument for guidance. The home-room period is in many instances no more than a place and time for taking the roll, for making announcements, for electing home-room representatives and preparing home-room programs, for checking up absences, and for unsupervised study. In many high schools the reasons for this condition lie largely in the lack of training, competence, and interest on the part of those assigned as home-room advisers, in the lack of constructive supervision of advisers and their activities by someone who can outline a working program of principles and techniques of home-room guidance and who can interest advisers in the program, and in the failure to supply home-room advisers with necessary data. In many instances the home-room adviser knows no more about the pupil he advises than does any teacher with whom the pupil has a class, and he has little opportunity to learn any more about him, meeting him, as he does, in a group of from 25 to 40 pupils daily from five to fifteen minutes or for fifteen to thirty minutes two or three times a week. Often the adviser regards the responsibility as just another chore, to be completed with as little effort as possible. He is furnished either with meager documentary data in regard to his charges, or with none at all, and feels that there is not much that he can do. To call this sort of thing "advisory group-guidance service" approaches travesty. However useful home-room activities of the prevailing type may be in supplementing a really professional type of guidance carried on by a trained counselor, they do not in themselves constitute other than a very primitive type of guidance.

Fundamentals of a Successful Advisory Group-Counseling Organization. In the following paragraphs are presented briefly certain suggestions for setting up a functioning advisory group-guidance program.

1. *The adviser must be one who by training, personality, and interest is fitted to render an adviser's services.* In those schools in which the home-room adviser is expected to render professional service the position should be made more than an "extra." Either a bonus should be given for advisory services which will make appointment to such work desirable or, better still, a sufficient reduction should be made in the teaching load. The adviser should then be required to make a formal study of his problems and of the principles and technique of guidance. Summer session or extension courses in guidance are most valuable, but unsupervised professional reading will go far to give the adviser training in the possibilities and procedures in that work. The principal may be of assistance by providing bibliography and books. Especially useful should be those which discuss actual techniques of guidance and the case method of guidance and which illustrate with many types of individual cases and guidance follow-up.

2. *Time and opportunities should be provided for conferences between the adviser and each pupil allotted to him.* Where a daily activity period of from thirty to forty-five minutes is provided, one or two such periods a week should frequently be given over to the meeting of advisory groups, at which times the adviser not only may carry on group-guidance discussions of various sorts but may also find opportunity for conferences and counsel with individuals about problems of school progress, school attendance, citizenship, health, student activities, dress. In schools where no activity period is scheduled, one or two regular periods a week or several shorter periods should be given to advisory or home-room meetings.

3. *The advisers must be furnished with adequate data and with equipment for the care and use of it.* The professional home-room adviser should be provided with all possible types of data regarding the pupil: previous school record, scores of tests on intelligence and achievement, and prognostic tests on aptitude, personal and family history, citizenship, character ratings, health and medical or physical-examination records, present program, interest and vocational questionnaires, and

any other data available. An idea of the possible detailed items of data and forms for recording data may be had from forms illustrated in Chapters XVI and XVII. From time to time reports of unexcused absences, delinquency in scholarship or in citizenship, participation in extra-curricular activities and special achievements, and all other similar current data should be regularly and promptly forwarded to the appropriate advisers. It is as important for advisers to be prepared to congratulate the student on his achievements as to confer with him about his delinquencies or difficulties. To fail to do so weakens very materially the influence of the adviser with the student. The student should feel that his adviser is interested in him as an individual, truly rejoicing at his successes and truly grieved at his failures.

4. *Advisers must be trained not to neglect the advisory activities in favor of routine or other nonadvisory activities.* Meetings of advisers should be held from time to time in charge of the head adviser or the counselor or principal. These meetings serve to impress advisers with the importance of their work, to afford opportunity for exchange of ideas on making advisory activities effective, and to provide special training. If possible, speakers from teacher-training institutions or other high schools who are well versed in the details of advisory group activities should be brought in to discuss techniques successfully employed elsewhere. Advisory or home-room periods should be visited even more frequently than regular classes in an effort to perfect techniques in this new type of educational service. Advisers should be requested to make case reports on all important special cases, and these reports should be made a part of the pupils' permanent records to be passed on to all future advisers. They should also, at the conclusion of the semester or year or at any time when pupils are transferred to other advisers, file a brief report on each advisee and longer ones on special cases which will assist other advisers in being of most service. Such reports should include pertinent character traits, individual interests, and avenues of approach which have proved successful with the student.

Activities of Advisers. Only in a volume entirely devoted to guidance is it practical to discuss in detail the activities and techniques of home-room or group advisers. Much may be inferred from the foregoing discussion. Space will permit here merely a brief summary. Among the responsibilities borne by the adviser in at least a few schools are those listed below.

1. A careful study of all the available records of each individual assigned to the adviser.
2. Advice and assistance in advisory group organizations, activities, and programs.
3. Discovery of reasons for absences, and assistance to pupils in bringing about more regular attendance.
4. Guidance in registration for subjects to be studied for the coming year or semester.
5. Comparison of student's scholastic marks with relation to capacity as judged by intelligence-test scores and previous scholastic record.
6. Discovery of reasons for a student's failure to progress in his studies in proportion to his apparent capacity.
7. Conferences with students relative to citizenship in school.
8. Instruction in "school guidance" appropriate to the maturity of advisees.
9. Conferences with and advice to students upon any matter brought to him by the students: health, social problems, employment, and preparation for college.
10. Conferences with parents of students about excessive absences, matters of health, or citizenship in such instances as suggest the need of coöperation or information of parent.
11. Supervision of home-room activities: election of officers and the preparation and presentation of programs.

Advisers should not be charged with responsibilities which involve the punishment of pupils or with other contacts or relations that are not consistent with establishing and maintaining friendly and confidential relations. The ideal to be kept in view is to establish advisers as guides, counselors, friends, and confidants, not as watchdogs or policemen. Not only should care be exercised in the selection of advisers, but they must be brought to view their work in the proper light and to see the

necessity of establishing friendly relations, of being patient, and of being forgiving. The influence of such individuals in the lives of many boys and girls at high-school age may often exceed that of the pupil's own parents, who, because of the apparent necessity of much nagging and checking, have come to be regarded as persons who "do not understand." Ideals and ambitions may be engendered and fostered. Facts explaining various types of delinquencies may be discovered, difficult diagnoses made, children saved to good citizenship, educational careers prolonged, intelligent choices in decisions of subjects or vocations contributed to, to say nothing of increasing the happiness and dispelling undesirable worries of troubled boys and girls. Yet the functioning of the advisory system demands the utmost care in organization and supervision by the high-school principal.

10. THE PRINCIPAL AS COUNSELOR

The Principal as Counselor. In the small school an elaborate organization for guidance is not often possible and to a certain extent not necessary. In schools in which it is possible for every student to have immediate personal conferences with the principal and in which the principal may find time to give careful study to all the pertinent data and to call into his office students apparently most in need of guidance, much valuable guidance service may be rendered. In some ways he is in the best position to render it, being most likely to come naturally into contact with all the various types of data desirable for guidance—through the records of various sorts, attendance, misdemeanors, and contacts with parents. On the other hand, it is difficult for him to assume the double rôle of "terror" to evildoers and "friend" of the sinners. The principal of the small school, however, will miss golden opportunities and will labor under a distorted perspective if he becomes so busy maintaining discipline and carrying on routine and subject-matter supervision that he does not find the time and the occasion to come into the lives of many boys and girls at critical

moments with sympathy and advice, encouragement and caution, and assistance in arriving at right decisions.

Even in larger schools when certain conditions obtain, the principal may well act as chief guidance officer. Such conditions are the following:

1. The assistance of a capable dean of girls who can relieve the principal of at least a great share of actual conference with girls.
2. An assistant principal who will relieve him of much of the office routine or of the major burden of supervision of instruction.
3. The lack of funds or qualified candidates for the position of counselor.
4. Adequate training on the part of the principal.

These conditions should be regarded as relative. For example, in a school not too large the failure to have either a dean of girls or an assistant principal need not discourage the principal from building up a good guidance program centered about himself, especially if department heads may be relied upon to assist with supervision of instruction.

Unless funds are available for a real counselor, it is more than likely that the principal may find it advisable to delegate to teachers or department heads duties which require less in the way of personality and special training rather than to delegate counseling to a less able individual. Where the counseling is performed by the principal, it is fortunate if an assistant principal may be given responsibilities for the details of "discipline," punishment, and other activities where appeal to fear must be made. If these are handled personally by the principal, it may weaken his position materially as an adviser and a counselor.

If the untrained principal finds it impossible to obtain the services of a properly trained and fitted counselor and must himself assume the functions of guidance, he should apply to the department of education of a college or a university for a bibliography of the soundest, most readable, and most practical references on guidance and for a bibliography of materials to place in the library or in the hands of students. Practically

all larger higher institutions, through their bureaus of research or reference or through their department of vocational guidance or of secondary education, are prepared to render this service gratis or at very little cost. He may be able to pursue a correspondence course which, if he has sufficient time to complete it, will be of assistance in organizing his reading and reactions. He should, at any rate, realize that there is much to learn. For the principal possessing little special training in guidance, careful study of several treatises, such as those listed in the Bibliography (pp. 621-652) by Hamrin and Erickson; Cox and Duff; Koos and Kefauver; Lefever, Turrell, and Weitzel; Dunsmoor and Miller; and Jones, will be very helpful.

In smaller schools, where for one reason or another home-room or group advisers or other guidance agents cannot be relied upon to look after such matters, the principal should arrange to hold personal conferences with pupils falling far short of their possibilities in their subjects, with those most likely to fail in two or more subjects, and with those most in need of personal or civic guidance. At such conferences efforts should be made to encourage the pupils not only to exert efforts in their own behalf but also to seek to discover the underlying causes for the difficulties or delinquencies, of which the pupils themselves are often not conscious, and, upon ascertaining these, to initiate a constructive effort at rehabilitation. Such conferences should not be looked upon merely as opportunities for rebuking apparently lazy or indifferent pupils and for appealing to fear. Such a program, though effective in many cases, is too crude and superficial to get at the heart of most difficulties, and yields only temporary improvement, if any at all.

11. THE TEACHER AS COUNSELOR

In recent years the teacher has come to participate more in guidance. Not only has he come to participate more effectively as home-room counselor and sponsor, but he has come to employ more of the philosophy of guidance in his teaching and has come to see more and more opportunities in his normal

classroom contacts with pupils to render guidance services not closely associated with the teaching of his subject.

The more modern classroom teacher gathers and uses many more data than his mass-production predecessor. He wants to have reliable data concerning the individual pupil—his general intelligence, his special abilities, something of his home environment, his vocational, social, and hobby interests, his vocational, extra-curricular, and work experiences. He takes more pains to locate the areas of the pupil's limitations so that he may adapt instruction to his needs and interests.

It must be admitted, however, that in most schools there are one or more teachers who have not yet learned to perform these services, and quite often, unfortunately, some who have learned to perform them—but not very aptly or wisely. The in-service training of teachers in guidance services constitutes an important responsibility of the principal who is competent to lead. Others too must inspire teachers to self-improvement along these lines and to attendance at summer schools where adequate training is now becoming available.

Listed somewhat in the order of their importance, the following are fields in which the teacher who is to be effective in personalizing his instruction and other guidance services should feel at home:

Most Important

Mental hygiene
Guidance
Psychology of personality
Measurement of personality
Mental tests
Character education
Adolescent psychology
Elementary statistical methods

Others of Importance

Aptitude testing
Vocational guidance
Educational psychology
Social-welfare work
Diagnostic testing and remedial teaching
Case work
Sociology
Counseling
Job analysis
Health education
Philosophy and ethics
Behavior problems
Criminology
Clinical psychology
Achievement tests and measurements
Advanced statistics

12. THE USE OF TESTS, CHECK LISTS, AND INVENTORIES

Scores on intelligence and achievement tests and on prognostic and aptitude tests constitute one of the most valuable types of data for educational and vocational guidance. Taken in connection with one another and with previous school records, they are, in the hands of a thoroughly trained worker, perhaps of more value than all other sources of data taken collectively. However, because of the great amount of technical training required for the most effective use of tests for this purpose and because of the comparative recency and inadequacy of the training afforded even in the best teacher-training institutions, the use of tests in schools, especially for purposes of guidance, has usually been marked by bungling and poor craftsmanship. What training in this field is demanded for skillful work is not generally understood. A first course in tests and measurements should be regarded as but an introduction to the possibilities of tests, just as a first course in statistical methods is nothing more than an introduction to the mastery of the techniques of the treatment of test scores. Adequate training for research and guidance offices should include advanced courses in the details of giving and interpreting intelligence tests, achievement tests, and prognostic tests on aptitude, and, in addition, advanced courses in statistical methods. What now usually passes for research and guidance with these instruments, so simple in appearance but so complicated in interpretation, will, no doubt, in the course of the next 25 or 30 years seem most stupid and ineffective.

Such tests are very useful in guidance programs when properly selected and interpreted and taken into consideration with other data in

1. Identifying students who in all probability will not enter college.
2. Identifying students who will probably not graduate from high school.
3. Sectioning students into groups for instruction on the basis of ability.
4. Determining in a general way the intelligence level of occupa-

tion which a student should think most of following; for example, discouraging some students from entering occupations beneath their possibilities, and others from aspiring to callings in which their chances of success are remote.

5. Determining whether a student is capable, under favorable conditions and with reasonable effort, of doing better work in class than he is doing.

6. Guiding students into courses for which they show special aptitude and away from those for which they show little promise.

An illustration of the application of test results in educational guidance was furnished in Chapter VII. The validity of tests and previous school marks for the purpose of predicting ability to do school work in various subjects is discussed in Chapter XIV in connection with their use in homogeneous grouping. A number of references in which is discussed the validity of various criteria for predicting school success in general and in the various subjects individually may be found in the bibliography for Chapter XIV.

Check List for Identifying Pupil Interests. As important in guidance as tests of general intelligence and of school achievement are means of discovering economically what are the present interests of the individual student and what are the types of problems and areas of greatest maladjustment which are causing him excessive worry or personality difficulties. There are available a number of check lists for gathering data on these matters.

Among the best of the many interest blanks developed for this purpose is one by Professor W. G. Brink of Northwestern University, part of which is reproduced on the next page.[1]

Another set of interest inventories available for use with high-school students (preferably seniors) is Cleeton's *Vocational Interest Inventories for Men and Women*, published by McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois.

[1]This check list is reproduced in full in Shirley A Hamrin and Clifford E. Erickson, *Guidance in the Secondary School*, pp. 101–106. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

INTERESTS OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

BOY. GIRL AGE · YEARS MONTHS
GRADE HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHER DATE

To the Student Your teachers would like to obtain some information about your interests They believe that such information would be of great value to them in making your high- [illegible] fitable to you Will you, therefore, answer *frankly* and [illegible] *Answer only those questions that will give a clear picture* [illegible] with the assurance that your answers will be kept strictly [illegible] *g on your grades in any subject* You need not sign this report

1 (*a*) What sports do you like to watch? (*c*) What team games (of 5 or more persons) do you play?

2 (*a*) Have you made any collections within the past few years? (*b*) If you have, what kinds of collections have you made? (Example stamps) Place a *1* before the one you liked best, a *2* before the one you liked next best, etc. ...

3 (*b*) What parts of the newspaper do you most enjoy? (Place a *1* after the part you enjoy most, a *2* after the part you enjoy second best, etc) World news , local news , news about war ; editorials , the comics ...; sports

4 (*d*) What types of articles and stories in magazines do you like best? (Rank them as you did above) Love stories ; adventure ; travel .; sports , detective ; science ; technical ; politics , current news ...; religion ; arts

5 (*b*) What types of books do you like best? (Rank the following types according to your interest) Travel .; science , sports ., religion . ; poetry , humor ; biography . .; adventure ...; drama . ; romance ...; mystery ; art ; music . ; history ; home-making .; aviation ., personal appearance ; politics . , etiquette

7 (*a*) Name the occupation or occupations which you are interested in entering upon after you will leave school. (List them in the order of your preference.) .. (*f*) Are there things you like to construct, make, or build? (For example· knitting a sweater, constructing an engine, etc.) (*g*) Check no more than 3 of the following activities in which you have great interest playing a musical instrument ; acting ; dancing ; drawing . speaking . ., modeling clothes ; home-making

8 (*g*) What institutions, museums, buildings, or industries would you like to visit if you had only two weeks more to stay in Chicago?

9 (*e*) Where do you have the best times? (Check not more than five.)

on a hike	riding
at games	roller-skating
at parties	dinner dances
at the movies	tea dansant
at school socials	meeting celebrities
on a date	giving a party of your own ..
at clubs	or what else?

Adjustment Inventories. Guidance workers in many schools have prepared check lists or questionnaires, some of which are very useful. A few very superior ones have been published and are readily available commercially. Among them are Bell's *Adjustment Inventory* and *School Inventory*, the *California Test of Personality*, Symonds's *Adjustment Questionnaire*, Symonds and Block's *Student Questionnaire*, the *Washburne Social-Adjustment Inventory*.

By means of these check lists pupils are asked questions

concerning their opinions, attitudes, and relationships which are very likely to reveal maladjustments at home, with teachers or a certain teacher, with other young people of the same sex or opposite sex, conflicts involving religion, sex worries, health worries, and other types of maladjustment. When given under favorable conditions and professionally interpreted and skillfully employed, these instruments are most valuable in gathering critical data for guidance workers.

These inventories are not scored as are standardized tests, but merely furnish factual information which needs to be interpreted very carefully and intelligently by the counselor, and of course must be treated absolutely confidentially and not discussed with the student until a very opportune occasion arises. They should be filed, and the results of each inventory compared with those of others given previously.

13. FORMS AND RECORDS

Data Needed. The success of guidance depends not a little upon the data gathered and made available for counselors and advisers. Forms for gathering and keeping records of the various types mentioned in Chapters VII–VIII should be prepared with care and kept systematically for use by guidance agents.

Many of the records needed for purposes of guidance are available in the form of records gathered for other purposes; for example, marks, credits, attendance, test scores, age, family history, activity records, health, and disciplinary records. If a thorough, careful program of guidance is to be carried out, it is convenient to duplicate entries on each of these records on a single card called the advisers' card. What should be included on such cards would depend upon the nature of the program of guidance contemplated. Ordinarily they should include at least the items mentioned above. In addition, if teachers' estimates of personality traits are available these should be entered. In a number of schools all these records for each pupil are kept together in a folder or packet file.

Special Forms and Records. Types of forms and records not ordinarily found among school records, but useful in schools attempting a more efficient guidance program, include:

1. Employers' request for help.
2. Introduction card to employers.
3. Individual employment or follow-up records.
4. Records of permits for working and for leaving school.
5. Employers' reports on advisees—occasional and terminal.
6. Forms for requisition of information about individual pupils from principal's office.
7. Interest analysis questionnaire.
8. Memoranda of counseling conferences.
9. Conference notices (invitation to pupils to call for conference).
10. Forms for advisees to report contracts for employment.
11. Records of interviews with pupils.

Which ones of these should be employed will depend upon the types of guidance procedures employed.

Office equipment should also include filing cabinets for the safekeeping of all types of records, and index cards containing references to material on vocations, classified by vocation.

An example of the type of pupil records now being kept which are most valuable, a portion of a cumulative pupil record, is shown on the following page.[1] The portion shown here is in addition to the scholastic record and ratings on personal appearance and personality habits and characteristics, dates of entrance and graduation, and parents' address, nationality, and occupation.

A duplicate copy of this record should be prepared and made readily available for guidance purposes, preferably placed in the hands of the home-room counselor.

Records should be rarely kept unless there is assurance that they will be used. Continuously over a period of years teachers and counselors should grow in their ability to interpret expertly a greater body and variety of information concerning pupils.

[1]N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt (Editors), *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools*, pp. 136–137. The American Book Company, New York, 1940. Reproduced by permission.

Special Problems, Areas of Maladjustment, Disciplinary History

HOME ENVIRONMENT RECORD

Father: Living Yes.....No.....Date..... Yes.....No.....Date..... Working Yes.....No.....Date.....
Yes.....No.....Date..... Yes.....No.....Date.....

Mother: Living Yes.....No.....Date..... Working Yes.....No.....Date.....
Yes.....No.....Date..... Yes.....No.....Date.....

Guardian: Living Yes.....No.....Date..... Working Yes.....No.....Date.....

Occupation of Father.....Mother.....Guardian.....

Yes..... Yes..... Yes.....

Broken Home No..... Stepfather No..... Stepmother No..... Orphan Home.....

Brothers..... Brothers.....

No. of Older Sisters .... Younger Sisters..... Others living in home .....

Person most interested in pupil's success.....Language spoken in home .....

Education: Highest grade reached by Father.....Mother..... Oldest Brother..... Oldest Sister .....

Helpful.....

Home relationship Not Helpful.....Remarks.....

H. R. Tr .....H. R. Tr .....

Entered Jr. H. S. from.....Date.....

Withdrew.....Reason.....Reentered.....

Transferred to.....Date.....

Promoted to.....Date .....

HONORS AND AWARDS

Sr H. S.....

.....

.....

Jr. H. S .....

.....

H. R. Tr .....H R Tr .....

INTELLIGENCE TEST RECORD

Date	Name of Test	Form	Score	P L R.

ACHIEVEMENT TEST RECORD

Date	Name of Test	Form	Score

EDUCATIONAL PLANS

Jr. H. S. Grade..... .....Date ....Expects to complete..... ....Grade

Sr. H. S. .....

ACTIVITIES RECORD

....Jr High School 7th Year	8th Year	9th Year
....Sr High School 10th Year	11th Year	12th Year

FOLLOW-UP AND PLACEMENT

Problems and Exercises

1. For a school of 150 pupils (or of any stated enrollment) suggest two good plans of organization of guidance, with special reference to the duties assigned to different members of the staff.

2. Write out a supplement to section 7, on the duties of the vocational counselor, suggesting other responsibilities or opportunities and criticizing the suggestions made in the text.

3. Write a paper on "The Placement Bureau in a High School," giving as many suggestions as possible for effectiveness in organization and administration

4. Write out a discussion of what should be the qualifications of an ideal dean of girls or girls' adviser, including training and all personal traits.

5. Write out a list of mistakes frequently made by girls' advisers or boys' advisers.

6. Write out or prepare notes for a paper on the purposes, organization, and supervision of home rooms in a high school.

7. Write out your reactions to the "Fundamentals of a Successful Advisory Group-Counseling Organization," on pages 193–195, including criticisms, additions, and applications of the four fundamental suggestions.

8. To the eleven types of activity of counselors add four others and arrange the complete list in approximate order of importance.

9. Write out your reactions to the discussion of the principal as counselor, drawing on your own high-school experiences, as well as other sources of information.

10. Look up three of the books referred to on page 199 and write out a statement of from 100 to 200 words describing and evaluating each book as one for principals to read.

11. Describe and tell how to use one of the following: (*a*) a check list for identifying the interests of a pupil; (*b*) a check list for discovering nature of pupil maladjustments.

12. Make a list of all the records which should be useful to a counselor and draw sketches of some forms which you think should be provided for his work.

13. How accurate are (*a*) mental tests, (*b*) achievement tests, (*c*) aptitude tests, and (*d*) school marks as bases for predicting scholastic success in high school, length of stay in high school, and whether student will go to college?

IX

Organizing and Administering Student Organizations

1. PLACE OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Thirty-five years ago, when the writer was a high-school pupil in a Missouri town of some 4000 inhabitants, the principal defined the status of football in that school and his own responsibility in connection with it much as follows: "You young men may go out on the grounds and knock your heads together, if you wish—I shall not attempt to stop you; but it should be understood that no responsibility rests upon either the school or me." It is very likely that there are today high-school principals who prefer to take a similar position, but the developments that have taken place within the last quarter of a century relative to athletic and other extra-curricular activities in the high school make such a procedure highly impractical if not impossible. Only in continental Europe have secondary schools kept themselves free from what we know in this country as extra-curricular activities. There are in this country certain outstanding professional educators who are inclined to compare the best in European secondary education with a misinterpretation of American secondary education. They insist that in this among other respects European schools are fortunate. Sincere and vigorous complaints against the obvious encroachment of the "side shows" upon the territory originally monopolized by the regular curriculum are not infrequent. Certainly much progress remains to be achieved in the matter of discovering and putting into practice the most effective procedures of organizing and administering activities. As truly as with the administration and teaching of the subjects of the curriculum, the outcomes may fall materially short of those desired.

Yet the difference between those who regard activities as inimical to the real work of the school and those who believe activities to be educationally worth while is largely a difference in point of view. Those of the reactionary group are committed advisedly or unconsciously to the principle that the regular subjects constitute the most effective type of worth-while, educational stimuli, if not the only type. Many appear to think of the outcomes of education as being synonymous with learning the materials of the "regular" subjects.

The progressive group, on the other hand, evidently believe that activities, if properly organized and managed, will contribute to the objectives of education effectively enough to compensate for the time or interest taken from the pursuit of the regular subjects for activities, and that they make certain types of contributions that the regular subjects do not make nearly so well. A brief consideration of the relative educational values of this new type of educational stimulus would seem appropriate here.

The Relation of Activities to the Objectives of Secondary Education. One should bear in mind that stimuli to educational activity are not confined to textbooks or to subjects or to organized bodies of knowledge. Any type of object, situation, or impression that stimulates in an individual mental or physical activity which results in modification or control of future behavior in the direction of the objectives of education is legitimate subject matter for education. Contributions to these objectives are made through the acquisition of information, skills and habits, ideals, tastes, and interests. To many it seems obvious that activities may be so managed as to make valuable contributions to these objectives. The lists on the following pages illustrate the possible contributions of participation in extra-curricular activities to the seven objectives formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

They are not intended to be thought of as exhaustive but merely as illustrative of the possible educational values of activities.

Objective	Type of Outcome	Contributing Activity
Health and safety	Information about sports, games, animals, flowers, plants, scientific basis of health and sanitation, first aid, fire and accident prevention. Habits and skills in games, sports, outdoor activities, dancing, first aid, avoiding accident, and general bodily skill and strength. Ideals of sound, healthy bodies and proficiency in physical activities. Tastes and interests in sports outdoors, and health.	Athletic teams of all sorts, hiking, outdoor clubs, biology clubs, nursing club, dancing, Junior Red Cross.
Vocation	Information concerning occupations (nature of work, rewards, chance for advancement, etc.) and concerning pupils' abilities in different pursuits—information underlying choice of vocation. Habits and skills: those general habits (honesty, industry, and ambition) that make for vocational success; skills in one or more vocations or activities common to several vocations (salesmanship, accounting, writing). Ideals: of success, influence, independence, fair dealing, cooperation, and service. Tastes and interests: explorations of such as a basis for vocational choice.	Sports and games, musical and other fine-arts clubs, journalistic and forensic clubs, household-arts clubs, semi-scientific clubs (radio, photography, automotive, aëronautic); semi-vocational clubs (printing, millinery, cartooning, agricultural and commercial clubs).
Worthy use of leisure	Information about things of culture: art, music, drama, current and classical literature, and authors; about current social problems and events; about games and sports; about nature, scientific phenomena and laws. Habits and skills: in fine arts, games and sports, and reading. Ideals: of culture, dignity, and self-respect, of approval of others in such matters. Tastes and interests in fine arts, sports, games, hobbies of various sorts.	Athletic and other sports; chess, checkers, and other games; musical and other fine-arts clubs, foreign-language clubs; mathematical clubs; dramatic clubs; reading clubs; history clubs; sewing and basketry clubs; short-story clubs.

Objective	Type of Outcome	Contributing Activity
Command of fundamental processes	Information — how to read, to study, to write, to speak, to solve problems. Habits and skills in the application of computation, study methods, skills in written and oral communication, getting on with other people Ideals, tastes, and interests. continuation of desirable types begun in the elementary school.	Practically every activity, particularly those involving the reading of books, the writing of reports, and the keeping of accounts, giving oral reports or participating in discussions (journalistic and forensic activity).
Worthy home membership	Information about things of culture, human nature and character, biology, sanitation, household decoration, purchasing, budgeting, diet and nursing, preparation of foods, the construction and repair of clothing, household machines, children's reading Habits and skills in fields mentioned above Ideals culture, monogamy, fair play, courtesy, happiness to others, happy and beautiful homes. Tastes and interests in fields named above, in artistic things, and in games and sports.	All sorts of fine-arts clubs, household-arts clubs, and semi-scientific clubs. All clubs in so far as they develop an understanding of human nature and psychology and how to get on in close contact with others.
Citizenship	Information about government (national, state, and local), public utilities, community organizations, results of unsocial acts or neglect. Habits and skills: in getting along in group activities as followers and as leaders, respecting feelings and rights of others, repressing unsocial impulses, thinking through consequences of behavior. Ideals: "the group above the individual," fair play, service, patriotism Tastes and interests. in local and other social institutions, in justice and fair play, in the welfare of others; antagonism toward unsocial ideas and acts.	All organizations involving group efforts: student government, teams, civic clubs, letter clubs, traditions clubs or committees, Girl Reserves, Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts, Hi-Y clubs, service clubs.

Objective	Type of Outcome	Contributing Activity
Ethical character	Information about ethical ideals and practices and philosophies underlying them. Habits and skills in carrying such ideals into automatic and effective practice. Ideals of an ethical nature, of right behavior to self and to others. Tastes and interests: in service, in religious activities and philosophies, in human beings as creatures of God.	Hi-Y clubs; Catholic, Hebrew, or other denominational clubs; service clubs; and practically all activities mentioned under citizenship.

Other Desirable Outcomes of Participation in Activities. As important means of realizing the objectives of secondary education three values of well-managed programs of activities likely to be overlooked in the consideration of such an outline as that given above should be mentioned; namely, (1) the opportunities they offer in exploration and guidance, (2) the contribution they make to school loyalty and to happiness in school life, and (3) their values in developing personality and as mental hygiene.

It should not be difficult to see that musical, artistic, journalistic, semi-scientific, semi-vocational, and other activities afford experience and stimuli that not only are likely to raise the question of vocational and future educational plans, but to furnish opportunities for learning much about certain types of occupation and to provide opportunities for exploring the interest and capacities of pupils in those various fields.

It seems equally clear that, largely through school activities, the attitude of pupils toward their schools has within the last few decades been changed from that of "every pupil's hand against the teacher" to that of friendly coöperation in "putting the school on the map." School loyalty is replacing individualistic attitudes bound together by the single common tie of constant incipient revolt. It is not pleasant to contemplate what conditions, aggravated by the greatly increased enrollments of pupils of lesser academic interests and abilities, might

exist except for the development of activities as a means of providing for teacher-pupil advisory contacts and for cementing pupils and teachers into groups for the common cause of success in student group enterprises.

As experiences for developing traits of personality and character and for providing mentally hygienic environment, there is little doubt that activities are superior to classroom instruction as most commonly carried on. Activity experiences favorable to the development of initiative, leadership, group interests, social intelligence, and self-confidence in human relations are not to be matched in the typical classroom. Activities afford channels for self-expression, highly desirable as good mental hygiene, which have not characterized the study and teaching of the conventional subjects. The presence of more purposeful attitudes and greater enthusiasm and interest also serve to make participation in organization activities effective in the promotion of healthy mental and emotional growth and balance.

Regarded in this light, there seem to be good reasons for holding that the opportunities for achievements in the direction of the objectives of secondary education are numerous and inviting. It is possible that they are more promising than those of a large amount of subject matter now taught in high schools as "legitimate" materials of instruction, since (1) they stimulate very important outcomes not stimulated by legitimate subject matter, (2) they are more closely related to applied situations and are therefore more economical in transfer, (3) they involve training in practice as well as information, and (4) they are much more interesting and hence learning is more readily and effectively achieved.

It should be obvious that the complaint that activities interfere with the legitimate subjects is not in itself sufficient to condemn them. Rather the test should be on the basis of a comparison of the educative values of the activities to the extent to which the effectiveness of instruction in regular subjects is diminished by the competition of activities. Data pertaining to the extent to which activities seem to interfere with

the studies will be presented shortly. Perhaps the solution may eventually lie in substituting participation in activities for one of the four subjects conventionally carried by high-school pupils. The apparent conflict suggests the need of developing procedures of organization and administration which will insure effective functioning of both types of educational activities.

Though such studies do not warrant any definite conclusions as to cause and effect, investigations now being reported indicate that leaders in activities are more successful in after-school life than are "non-leaders" or even "scholars." In study of the earnings of the graduates of the Garfield High School of Terre Haute, Indiana, between 1914 and 1919, inclusive, Shannon[1] found that those classified as having been leaders in school definitely and markedly surpassed in income those who were the "scholars" of those classes. This was true of the men considered separately and of both men and women taken together. The data also show that the leaders have also attained in larger percentages advanced university degrees—special honors, outstanding accomplishments (including publications), and community leadership than have the scholars or members of the "random group." It seems clear that the possible educational outcomes from participation in intelligently managed extra-curricular activities are considerable.

2. DANGERS AND LIMITATIONS OF ACTIVITIES

All plans and activities of organizing and administering pupil clubs and organizations in schools should be thought through in full view of certain dangers and alleged evils of activities. Most prominently mentioned among these are the following:

1. Interference with legitimate studies.
2. Unwise increase in principal's or teachers' loads.
3. Failure of activities to achieve desirable outcomes.

[1] J. R. Shannon, "The Post-School Careers of High School Leaders and High School Scholars," *School Review* (November, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 656-665.

Interference with Scholarship. In view of the results of statistical studies reported in the last few years, it is probable that the fear of the interference of participation in activities with the scholarship of participants has been largely without basis, and that one must look to other factors for the explanation of inferior achievement of present-day high-school pupils, if indeed inferior achievement may be found actually to exist. Space will not permit the presentation of more than a few brief items of the data from studies relating to the question, but the conclusions from such studies as have been made seem to indicate rather clearly that participation in activities has little or no undesirable effect upon scholarship. Participants in activities receive marks as high as those of non-participants or even higher. In those instances in which the data show that leaders and participants in non-athletic activities seem to surpass the average of non-participants and that participants in athletic activities often do not do as well, this may be largely accounted for by the fact that on the average non-athletic participants score higher on intelligence tests and athletes usually slightly lower. The more important conclusions of some of the careful studies reported in recent years are given in the following paragraphs.

Swanson[1] reported that in four Kansas City high schools the median mark of participants in activities was slightly higher during participation than before participation and that this also held true for athletes taken separately.

King[2] found that high-school athletes made practically the same percentage of superior marks and of unsatisfactory marks as non-athletes. Bevier[3] found that at Rutgers College non-athletes surpassed athletes in scholarship, but that editors surpassed non-editors.

[1]A. M. Swanson, "Effect on High School Scholarship of Pupil Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities," *School Review* (October, 1924), Vol. XXXII, pp. 613–626.

[2]I. F. King, in E. H. Wilds, *Extra-Curricular Activities*, pp. 149–150. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1926.

[3]L. Bevier, "Student Activities and Success in Life," *Educational Review*, Vol. LVIII, pp. 1–7.

Monroe[1] reports data from two unpublished graduate theses showing no significant difference between the median marks received by participants in activities for semesters during which they participated and their median marks for semesters in which they did not participate. The data reported by Monroe also confirm those of other studies in that participants were found to have made higher scores on an intelligence test and that participants (excepting athletes) make as high marks as non-participants, or higher.

Cook and Thompson[2] found "letter" boys in the Hughes High School of Cincinnati, Ohio, to stand slightly lower in their school marks than the "non-letter" boys.

The average marks of pupils engaging in activities in different degrees as measured by number of hours a week spent on activities were calculated by Osterberg[3] for three groups of students: those with I. Q.'s less than 90, those with I. Q.'s from 90 to 109, and those with I. Q.'s of 110 or over. His data indicate the lack of any significant relationship between the marks and the amount of time spent in activities.

If such studies are to be taken seriously, and there is every indication that they should be, there is little basis for fears that participation in activities will affect scholarship in any appreciable degree; in fact, there is perhaps just as much reason to believe that it will be improved rather than lowered.

Overloading the Principals and Teachers. There can be little doubt that the supervision of activities has come to demand a material portion of the time and attention of high-school principals and teachers. When teachers give considerable time to assisting pupils in their activities as described, the school day becomes appreciably longer—for many teachers an hour

[1]W. S. Monroe, "The Effect of Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities on Scholarship in the High School," *School Review* (December, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 747–752.

[2]William A. Cook and Mabel Thompson, "A Comparison of Letter Boys and Non-Letter Boys in a City High School," *School Review* (May, 1928), Vol. XXXVI, pp. 350–358.

[3]H. C. Osterberg, "A Study of the Load of Senior High School Pupils in Los Angeles," *School Review* (May, 1928), Vol. XXXVI, pp. 359–369.

or more longer. It has been suggested that teachers carrying an outside activity assignment should be given extra pay for such services. Although this is done in some schools, it is hardly an advisable policy to have teachers do such work in addition to the regular teaching load, for extra pay. Such practice is almost certain to lead to difficulties in determining the relative values of such services in connection with different activities; competition for the bonuses is not likely to result always in the assignment of the best-qualified individuals; and the increased time spent on activities is almost certain to reduce proportionately time that may be given to duties connected with the teaching assignment. It is preferable to make a compensating reduction in the teaching load for services as activity advisers and coaches. A serviceable formula for figuring activity services in measuring the teaching load is given in Chapter V.

The organization, the administration, and in smaller schools the actual advising of student organizations have added no small increment of responsibility and work to the burden of the already overloaded high-school principal. This condition is one more argument for freeing the principal in small schools from teaching and for providing executive, supervisory, and clerical assistance in large ones. There have already been established in an increasing number of secondary schools directors of activities, who relieve principals of the details of administrative problems connected with the activity program and who guide and train teachers in their advisory duties.

Non-educative Activity. Just as in the selection of studies it is difficult to determine the ultimate relative value of various units or items, so it is difficult to say which phases of various activities have sufficient educative values and which do not. There is considerable probability that many activities involve an expenditure of time without adequate educational return in duplication of training and in relatively useless activity. It is very likely, for example, that the soliciting of advertisements or subscriptions in any given field soon exhausts its profitable educational possibilities for any one individual. It is also ques-

tionable whether the great amount of time spent in polishing many dramatic productions is economical from the standpoint of educational returns. It is on these points that advisers will have to learn to do practical thinking in terms of educational values and that principals and other directors of activities will have to guide others in doing so.

Student Mismanagement. Of the more prominent types of student mismanagement are the following: the mismanagement of funds and business contracts, excessive expenditures, the development of selfish cliques, and the participation in unconventional or undesirable activities which reflect discredit upon the school. Solutions of these problems fall into these categories: a sound business-like system of fund administration and accounting; a careful, diplomatic, but firm limitation of expenditures by organizations and of expenditures by individuals; counter education and the development of a counter spirit against exploitation by cliques; a carefully administered system of chartering and approving organizations dependent upon good behavior; and a careful check upon organizations by advisers.

Much of the misdirection and overemphasis of activities on the part both of adviser and of pupils is stimulated by state or district contests for "champion" typing, debating, and athletic teams; for prize annuals, journals, and newspapers; for champion glee clubs, orchestras, and bands; and for prize dramatic presentations. Though they are often sponsored by higher educational institutions in the interest of such activities, they usually lead to the over-training of a few of the best participants to the neglect of others, as well as to the neglect of studies and other activities on the part of the contestants. Excessively expensive annuals may in many instances be attributed in part to such a stimulus. This tendency to lower all activities to the plane to which athletics has fallen should be checked by principal and advisers.

3. THE PROGRAM OF ACTIVITIES

A list of activities may not be safely prescribed for any given school, no matter how exactly the school, its students, and the local situation may be described. Though it is a sound principle that every school should have as varied a program of activities as conditions warrant, there is no definitely known relation between conditions and the program.

Among the clubs that Gruhn found to be in operation in high schools are the following:

All School

Booster
Business managers
Cafeteria
Cheerful service
Cheerleaders
Corridor guards
Girls' pep
Home room
Honor
Lunch room
Leadership
Rooters
Safety
Safety patrol
School welfare
Social worker
Student council
Student court
Traffic

Foreign Language

French conversation
General language
German
Latin
Spanish
Spanish dramatics

Physical Education

Aesthetic dancing
Archery
Athletic rules
Bow and arrow
Boys' athletic
Boys' gym leaders
Captains
Clogging
Dancing
Fencing
First aid
Folk dancing
Girls athletic
Golf
Gymnasium games
Health and hygiene
Hiking
Letterman's
Life-saving
Posture
Riding
Rifle
Social dancing
Sports study
Swimming
Tap dancing
Tennis

English

Biography
Book design
Book-reviewers
Debate
Drama
Dramatics
English
Impromptu speaking
Journalism
Library service
Literary society
Little theater
Marionette
Newspaper
Once upon a time
Play scenery
Play-reading
Poetry
Press
Public speaking
Puppet
Reporters
Shakespeare
Short story
Spelling
Story-reading
Story-telling
Studio
Writers

Civic-Social-Moral

Famous women of history
Girl Reserves
Girl Scouts
Guidance

Historical fiction
History
Hi-Y
Indian lore
International
Junior C. of C.
Junior Red Cross
Majorettes
National honor society
Personality
Political problems
Red Cross
Social
Spanish America
State history
Topics of the day
Travel
Tri-Y
World study

Agriculture

Flower
Forestry
4-H Club
Future Farmers of America
Gardening

Art

Applied art
Art service
Block printing
Brush and pencil
Cartoon
Clay modeling
Commercial art
Commercial poster
Crayon sketch
Film, slide, and picture
Illustrators
Leather craft
Linoleum block
Paper craft
Pastel
Pencil sketch
Portrait sketch
Poster
Pottery
Reed and raffia
Sculpture
Show-card writing
Silhouette
Soap-carving
Water color

Science and Mathematics

Astronomy
Big-game hunters
Biology
Bird
Camera
Chemistry
Conservatory
Current science
Film
General science
Inventors
Junior Izaak Walton
Kodascope
Mathematics puzzle
Microscope
Modern inventions
Motion pictures
National Geographic
Physics
Popular science
Radio
Science biography
Science news
Taxidermy
Telegraph

Domestic Arts

Apron
Baking
Batik
Boys' camp cookery
Candy-making
Cooking
Costume design
Dressmaking
Embroidery
Fancywork
4-H Club
General domestic arts
Gift
Handicraft
Home entertainment
Home-makers
Home nursing
Hook and needle
Hospital aid
Hostess
Interior decorating
Kindergarten helpers
Knitting
Lamp
Millinery
Needlework
Nursing
Old-time fancywork
Personal appearance
Quilt and pillow
Red Cross dressmaking
Rug-making
Self-improvement
Sewing
Spool and thimble
Textile
Toy cloth animal
Welfare
Yarn craft

Manual Arts

Airplane
Airplane and drafting
Architectual drawing
Arts and crafts
Automobile

Bird house
Blue print
Boat
Book-mending
Drafting
Electricity
Electricity for girls
Handicraft
Hobby
Home mechanics
Home mechanics for girls
House plans
Manual arts
Manual arts for girls
Marionette scenery
Mechanical drawing
Mechanical drawing for girls
Metal work
Novelty
Printing
Printing design
Repair
Sheet metal
Ship-modeling
Stagecraft
Toy-making
Wood-carving
Wood-carving for girls
Woodwork
Woodwork for girls
Yacht

Commercial

Advertising
Bankers'
Bookkeeping
Business girls
Business practice
General commercial
Office practice
Penmanship
Secretaries
Shorthand
Thrift
Vocational guidance
Vocations

Music

Band
Chorus
Drum-and-bugle corps
Glee
Harmonica
Marimba
Melody
Minstrel
Music
Music appreciation
Operetta
Orchestra
Piano
Popular songs
Singing
Solo
Stringed instrument
Violin

Miscellaneous

Beauty culture
Braille
Bridge
Bulletin boards
Camp craft
Checkers
Chess
Collectors
College preparatory
Cross-word puzzle
Curiosity
Dog-lovers
Educational films
Film review
Hobby
How to study
Knot-tying
Magicians
Pet
Ping-pong
Puzzle
Scout craft
Scrapbook
Stamp and coin
Study

What Activities should be Maintained. The following criteria should be considered in determining what and how many activities should be represented in any given school:

1. No activity should be organized, or interest maintained in it, which requires stronger stimulus than casual suggestion and encouragement from the principal or other member of the staff.

2. No activity should be organized or maintained which for reasons of lack of local support outside the school or the small number of pupils requires excessive expenditure on the part of pupils.

3. No activity should be permitted to continue as a school activity which is not democratic in its membership, or which will not submit to school regulations for activities and respond reasonably well to advisory control.

4. No activity should be encouraged which does not promise a favorable balance as compared to possible harmful results or difficulties of management or a favorable balance in educational returns in proportion to expenditures of time.

5. The number of activities should not be multiplied to such a point that a reasonable quality of work may not be done in them without excessive activity loads upon the more talented pupils.

6. No activity should be maintained for which a capable and reliable adviser cannot be found.

7. Activities should be sufficient in number to provide opportunities for all pupils desiring to participate.

8. Within the bounds mentioned above as wide a range of activities as possible should be organized and maintained.

Besides the conventional athletic teams which the school is large enough to support, ordinarily there should be maintained, in every school large enough to maintain them, representatives of the following activities:

Student associations
Class or roll-room organizations or both
Debating
Dramatics
School-news departments or newspapers
Glee clubs
Orchestra or band or both
One or more semi-scientific activities: for example, camera, radio, automobile, and aëronautic clubs.
One or more character clubs for girls: for example, Girl Scout, Girl Reserve, and Camp Fire organizations.
One or more character clubs for boys: for example, Hi-Y, Boy Scout, and civic improvement organizations.
Exercise and sport clubs: for example, golf, tennis, hiking.

A very useful means of surveying the needs for various organizations is the interest-analysis questionnaire. This questionnaire and its use are described on pages 227–228.

Initiating or Chartering Activities. Activities should not be unduly urged upon pupils. If pointing out the possibilities of a new activity to a few pupils most likely to be interested does not result in the sincere desire to organize and maintain that activity, the matter should probably be dropped. It is even more to be desired that the idea of organizing the activity originate with a group of interested pupils. Activities in which the interest of pupils has ebbed should not be continued as perfunctory, lifeless formalities.

The approval of the principal for every new activity should be required. Consideration of new activities should be contingent upon the presentation of a petition stating the objects

Form 1. Application for Club Organization

APPLICATION FOR CLUB ORGANIZATION

Date _____

Name of club _____

Purpose _____

_____

Conditions of membership _____

_____

Place of meeting _____ _____

Time of meeting _____ _____

We, the undersigned pupils of Wilmington High School, hereby make application for the organization of _____ club

	SIGNATURE	CLASS	HOME ROOM
1	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____

Etc

_____
Director of Activities

_____
Principal

of the organization and signed by a number of interested pupils. It would not be a bad procedure to require such approval annually for each new group of students and officers as a means of bringing to the attention of the members that the activities exist by permission of the administration of the school. The form employed in the Wilmington, Delaware, High School for such applications is given as Form I on the previous page.

Constitutional provisions for chartering organizations are reproduced, together with an illustrative charter from Wilds's *Extra-Curricular Activities*.[1]

ARTICLE I. Organization

Section 2. No student organization or club, except the Student Association, may exist in W. S. N. S., unless chartered by the Student Council with the approval of the Faculty Advisory Board.

Section 3. Charters shall be granted for periods of one year to new organizations and of two or three years to established organizations. Class organizations shall be chartered for a period of four years.

Section 4. Ten or more students who wish to effect an organization of any kind shall apply in writing to the Student Council, stating the purpose of the proposed organization, the amount of its dues, the qualifications and requirements for membership, the mode of admission of new members, the time and place of meeting, and such information as the secretary of the Council may deem advisable. To the Student Council, a finished draft of the constitution of the organization shall be submitted for the final approval of the Council. The Council shall have the right to suggest changes in the constitution of any proposed organization to make it conform with the spirit of school organizations. When the organization shall have complied with the requirements of the Student Council, the Student Council shall issue said organization its charter.

ARTICLE II. Constitution

Section 1. A copy of the constitution and by-laws of the organization shall be filed with the secretary by the Student Association, and shall be open to the inspection of any student.

[1]Pages 172–176. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York.

ARTICLE IV. Officers

Section 1. Names of members, officers, and committees shall be filed annually with the secretary of the Student Association.

Section 2. Any change of officers during the academic year shall be reported to the secretary of the Student Association.

ARTICLE V. Renewal of a Charter

Section 1. Charters shall be renewed for periods of one, two, three, and four years on written request of ten or more members of the organization.

ARTICLE VII. Withdrawal of Charter

Section 1. Failure to comply with the conditions of its charter and the regulations of the Student Council shall be deemed sufficient cause for the organization committing the offense to be brought before the Student Council for explanation of its conduct.

Section 2. If the offense is not serious enough to warrant the withdrawal of the charter, the Student Council shall have the power to recommend such reformatory measures as shall be deemed advisable.

Section 3. The Student Council shall have the power to withdraw the charter of said organization if the misdemeanor is of sufficient seriousness to warrant such action. The final decision of the Student Council to withdraw the charter of said organization must have the approval of the Faculty Advisory Board.

CHARTER

The _____ of _____ is hereby chartered by the Student Council for a period of _____ years, beginning _____ and ending _____ under the conditions incorporated in the Charter system.

Three copies of this charter shall be made. One copy shall be filed with the Principal, one with the organization, and one with the secretary of the Student Council. Signed by

_____
President of Student Council

_____
Secretary of Student Council

_____
Chairman, Faculty Advisers

4. ENCOURAGING GENERAL PARTICIPATION

The problem of reaching all pupils with at least one form of activity is as important and as baffling as that of maintaining a balance between curricular and extra-curricular activities by the more capable and versatile pupils. Unfortunate mistakes have been made in attempting to insure that all students participate in some activity, for example, the requiring of certain points for graduation or the choice on the part of every pupil of at least one activity in which he will participate. Among the important sources of value of the activity as an educative agent are the interest, spontaneity, and initiative experienced by the pupil participant. If pupils are required or pressed to participate in activities, the activity is more than likely (at least for many students) to possess few if any of its peculiar advantages and all its disadvantages.

Among methods of bringing about general participation are the following, which have been employed frequently with success:

1. Employing interest-analysis questionnaires.
2. Allowing credit toward graduation.
3. Giving letters, awards, certificates, or prizes based on participation.
4. Developing student approval of participation in activities.

The Interest-Analysis Questionnaire. In some schools, at the beginning of the year or the semester, a questionnaire similar to that reproduced below is handed to each pupil in the assembly room or roll room, and he is asked to fill out and return it within a few days. If a copy has been placed on the bulletin board a few days in advance, with notice of the purpose of the questionnaire, or if it has been explained in the assembly or in the roll room in advance so that the pupil may have had opportunity to consider the matter, the questionnaire may be filled out when it is received and returned at once, thus avoiding difficulty in collecting the forms.

ACTIVITY QUESTIONNAIRE[1]

NAME _____ SEX _____ AGE _____ CLASS _____

Directions. Below is a list of possible activities. Draw a circle around the number preceding each thing you like to do.

1. Draw cartoons 2. Cook and serve luncheons. 3. Design and make costumes for plays and parties. 4. Make posters to advertise parties, games, plays, and so on. 5. Embroider, tat, and knit. 6. Take lessons in camp cooking.

7. Learn about the city you live in. 8. Learn how to be a good officer. 9. Visit the courthouse, the city council, the police and fire stations, and so on. 10. Learn how to conduct an office successfully. 11. Learn how to act on a sleeping car, at a banquet, or at a dance. 12. Study what is proper to wear at a dance, at a party, or when traveling. 13. Find out just what is best to eat, what exercises are best for health. 14. Belong to a booster's club and help to boost our school.

15. Be an editor of the school paper. 16. Write items of different kinds for the school paper. 17. Write short stories 18. Be a leader in our school activities. 19. Learn how to advertise a business. 20. Help students who have trouble with their lessons. 21. Be helpful to students having few friends.

22. Draw house plans. 23. Make cross-word puzzles. 24. Learn how to make a tent, to build a fire without matches. 25. Study the habits of fish, birds, animals. 26. Make such things as tables, candlesticks, cupboards, hatracks, and so on.

27. Collect postage stamps. 28. Learn how to take good kodak pictures. 29. Make and use a radio set. 30. Learn how an automobile is made and works. 31. Learn military drilling.

32. Study the stars. 33. Find out what the people of other countries do and how they live. 34. Belong to a science club. 35. Learn how to give first aid. 36. Learn how to take care of the sick.

37. Dance. 38. Read good books. 39. Tell stories. 40. Hear good music. 41. Learn how moving pictures are made 42. Attend good moving pictures. 43. Figure out queer mathematical problems. 44. Learn about people who lived in ancient times.

45. Play basketball. 46. Play baseball. 47. Play tennis. 48. Play volley ball. 49. Hiking. 50. Track. 51. Swimming. 52. Watch basketball games. 53. Watch baseball games.

[1]From Joseph Roemer and C. F. Allen's *Extra-Curricular Activities*, pp. 35–37.

54. Take part in a play. **55.** Be on a debating team. **56.** Take part in assembly programs. **57.** Give readings. **58.** Learn how to persuade people to do what you want them to do. **59.** Learn how to sell things to people.

If there is something else you would like to do or like to learn to do, write it in here _____

From those you mark select the one you would most like to do or like to learn to do, and write it in here _____

Number of second choice _____

Number of third choice _____

The list of activities mentioned in the questionnaire should be made up from all activities or organizations which exist in the school or which might be organized if there were sufficient demand.

On the basis of the tabulated returns of such a questionnaire, invitations should be extended, perhaps by means of the bulletin board and announcement in the roll room, to students interested in membership or tryouts for membership in the activities preferred.

Credit toward Graduation. Despite the fact that as yet colleges and universities will not recognize for entrance any credits awarded for activities, many schools have arranged to grant credits toward graduation for participation in activities. Some schools award fractional credits for specified major activities; for example, one-quarter unit for membership in the glee club. Others have developed point equivalents of credits similar to those employed for the restriction of participation. Each activity or office is assigned a specified number of points, and specified numbers of points are regarded as the equivalent of a unit or fraction of a unit of credit; for example, 80 points for one unit, 40 points for half a unit. The ratio of equivalents will, of course, depend upon the number of points assigned to various activities, and must be determined after consideration of the time spent by pupils in earning activity points.

Point-credit accounting will be facilitated if the student organization or the principal's office furnishes "activity reports" on which the captain, the president, or the leader of

Form II. Report of Activity Membership and Participation

ACTIVITY REPORT

Name of activity or organization _____

President or captain _____ Secretary or manager _____

Adviser _____ Semester ending _____

Approximate hours spent in meetings ___ Period covered from ___ to ___

Names of Participants	Estimated Hours of Activity	Nature of Activity	Quality of Participation	Points Recommended[1]
Etc.				

each organization will report the participation of each student, an estimate of the time spent by him, and the quality of work done. Approved by the adviser and filed in the office this will entitle the pupil to the appropriate credit on his activity card, which is kept in the office file. A simpler method requires each leader and faculty adviser to prepare and sign at the conclusion of the season's activities a report of the organization covering the participation of each pupil and recommending the points to be allowed to each. A suggested form to be used for that purpose is shown as Form II.

The granting of credits for participation in activities is not without objections. Because of the varying amounts of time required by the same activity from year to year and required of different students in the same activity in the same year, for example, different parts in a play, the number of points allowed

[1]This column will be omitted if no point system is employed.

will, of necessity, always be determined subjectively and be open to question. The system involves considerable bookkeeping, which is not likely to be well attended to. Activities will often not be reported, and students will later ask to receive credit points for participation. The use of the system also tends to establish the atmosphere and feeling that the pupil is working for points, which is certainly not nearly so favorable a situation as that in which he engages in activities for sheer enjoyment. Prospective college students are faced with the necessity of earning fifteen year-units of credit that will be accepted for entrance to college; and since credits for physical education or activities do not lessen by more than one unit the number of credits that must be made in curricular study, credit for activities means in reality very little. In order to meet this condition, a few schools require seventeen year-units for graduation.

Awards of Letters, Insignia, and Certificates. It is common for schools to award school letters, service stripes, and sweaters to first-string athletes. The practice in some schools has been extended to include not only managers of sports but also participants in other types of work, including debate and general leadership. It is of doubtful value. It is an obvious imitation of practice in athletics, and the letter has become so well associated with athletics that the wearer of a non-athletic letter is frequently subjected to such ridicule or more subtle contempt that his award does not seem to him of much value. Recognizing this fact, some schools have provided for interscholastic team members other types of awards with inscriptions designating the years and the type of activity.

Other schools encourage participation by awarding cups or medals to school or class champions in various activities, graduated activity certificates to participating pupils, arm bands to the school "knights" or ushers, and by considering activity records in selecting members for the honor society. Different degrees of certificates may be awarded, based on a point system. The certificate usually is an attractively printed form bearing the name of the pupil, the signature of the president

of the student body and that of the principal, and designating the activities engaged in and the offices held. It constitutes a very attractive souvenir of high-school days.

Another means of providing incentive to participation includes cultivating popular approval of activity participation and honors. Of this type may be mentioned the regular publication (with pupils' names and sometimes their pictures) of the results of all elections, contests, projects, and other events of various organizations in the local papers, in the school paper, and in the annual. Publicity may also be provided by means of the bulletin board and the roll-room and school-assembly announcements and programs. It may be made customary, in introducing a pupil for a talk in the assembly or in the roll room, to mention his office or offices and his activities; for example, "William Wordlaw, vice president of the junior class, member of the *Owl* staff, and member of the debating team."

In a large number of schools one or two assemblies at the beginning of the school year are given over to talks by student officers or faculty sponsors, or by both, in which the nature of the activities is set forth and explained to the students. Serving, as it does, to orient the new pupil, to promote democracy in membership, and to provide an exercise in leadership, the plan is very commendable.

Keeping Costs Down. With the great expansion of pupil organizations and extra-curricular activities over the past half-century, costs to students and their parents have multiplied almost beyond belief. The reported data of pertinent investigations by Hand, Jacobson, and others have been astonishing. Starting first with admissions to athletic events and to plays, class pins, and a modest school annual, the costs in some schools have increased to more than a hundred dollars per pupil, including costumes, dues in clubs, school parties and dances, subscriptions to school papers and to periodicals for use in classes, rental fees for typewriters, laboratory fees, library fees, school jewelry, initiation into fraternities and sororities, use of automobiles for school functions, work books and materials for shop and instruction, and a school annual, copies of which sell

for as much as college annuals used to, but which involves also costs for pictures, usually running into several dollars.

As a result of these increased costs of participation in the normal activities of the high school, American secondary education is no longer free. It has been rapidly becoming a commercial commodity. When one also takes into consideration the increased costs of the clothing, cosmetics, and extra-school social life of high-school pupils, one understands how it is that many splendid boys and girls, guilty of nothing more culpable than having been born to poor fathers and mothers, are made to feel most uncomfortable while attending high school. Not only are the effects upon self-assurance and other aspects of personality development undesirable, but unfavorable attitudes toward the school and public education, toward American "democracy," and toward more fortunate classes of society are developed. In keeping down costs to pupils participating in pupils' organizations, the secondary-school administrator is rendering a valuable service to pupils, parents, public education, and American democracy.

Problems and Exercises

1. Select one objective of secondary education and make an exhaustive development of what items similar to the illustrative items given in the text might be classified under the headings "Type of Outcome" and "Contributing Activity."

2. Giving specific illustrations, show how activities may make important contributions to the functions of exploration and guidance.

3. In what ways are activities important as related to mental hygiene and to the development of personality?

4. How do you account for the apparent fact that activities do not influence the marks of pupils, considering that popular opinion is strongly to the contrary?

5. What specific solution to the problem of overloading the principal and the teacher would you propose?

6. Make a list of activities that you think ought to be found in one of the following: a six-year high school of 100 pupils; a junior high school of 250 pupils; a four-year high school of 50 pupils; and a senior high school of 800 pupils.

7. Add a principle to the eight given in the text to determine what activities should be organized and maintained.

8. Do you believe in allowing credit toward graduation for participation in activities? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Outline a practical plan for initiating a new activity, showing any records or forms you would employ.

10. Draw up in detail a plan for awarding school credits for participation in activities.

11. What awards would you provide for participation in different activities in a high school of 250 pupils?

12. Obtain from some high school the following data concerning each pupil: 1. Q. or mental-test score, chronological age, school marks, and activities participated in From these data come to some conclusion as to whether participation in activities seems to interfere with scholarship.

13. How do you account for the fact that all the more careful studies seem to indicate that, contrary to expectations, participation in activities does not interfere with scholarship?

14. Obtain the names of all extra-curricular organizations in two or three high schools and evaluate the extra-curricular opportunities of each school in the light of its size and needs.

15. Evaluate the various means of encouraging participation in activities discussed in the preceding chapter and suggest one other method of encouraging participation.

X

Organizing and Administering Student Organizations (Continued)

5. REGULATION OF PUPIL PARTICIPATION

The success in any school of a program of activities is closely bound up with sound and effective plans and means of regulating the participation of pupils in the various activities. Among the more important phases or problems of regulation are those related to the prevention of the monopolization by a small number of pupils of opportunities for participation in activities.

The theory of specific abilities seems to face a reasonable contradiction in the fact that in many schools the leaders and chief participants in several different important activities are the same persons, often being confined to a small group. For example, one lad is a member of the football team, the senior class president, business manager of the annual, and a member of the student council. Another is editor of the newspaper, assistant editor of the annual, and a member of the dramatic club and of the glee club or orchestra. This condition is not an insuperable difficulty. Restriction of the participation of any one individual in activities to a defined maximum is not at all impossible to administer, as many schools have discovered in spite of the pressure brought to bear in such cases as that in which there exists on the part of pupils the desire to elect to a major office a candidate who already participates in two other major activities or, worse still, that in which it becomes necessary to require a pupil to resign from an office or membership in some activity in order to become eligible for an athletic or other team. The following paragraphs will be devoted to a discussion of various administrative means of solving such problems.

Restricting Participation: the "Major-Minor" Plan. The two plans for restricting participation most commonly employed are (1) the *major-minor plan* and (2) the *point system.*

The major-minor plan consists, briefly, of classifying all activities as major or minor according to the responsibility and expenditure of time involved and restricting the participation of any one pupil to a specified number of majors and minors or their equivalents.

Below is an illustrative classification of types of participation as "major" or "minor" activities.

Major Activities

Major sports
Editor of annual
Business manager of annual
Debating team
President of student body
Secretary of student body
Editor of school paper
Manager of school paper
President of junior or senior class
Leader of orchestra, band, or glee club

Minor Activities

Minor sports
Membership in any club, orchestra, or band
Class officers
Participation in a play
Member of staff of annual
Member of staff of school paper
Cheer leader
Chairmen of student body committees

Participation is usually limited to some such equivalent as two majors, one major and two minors, or four minors.

A Suggested Point-Scale System[1]

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

President	10
Other officers	8
Home-room representatives	3
Home-room officers	2

[1]Adapted from one given by H. C McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*, pp. 573–574. The Macmillan Company, New York.

CLASS ORGANIZATION

President of senior or junior class	5
Vice president, secretary, and treasurer of senior or junior class	4
President of sophomore or freshman class	4
Vice president, secretary, and treasurer of sophomore or freshman class	3

ATHLETICS

Captain of football and basketball team	10
Captain of track and baseball team	8
Captain of class team	5
Member of school team	5
Member of school squad	3
Cheer leader or assistant	1 3
Member of class team	1 3

CLUBS

[Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, Friendship, Literary, Mathematics, Science, etc.]

President	4
Secretary	3
Members	1–2

DRAMATICS AND ORATORICAL ACTIVITIES

Senior class play	3 5
Assembly program	1–4
Debating squad	4
Debating team	6
Declamation and oratorical contests	3
Members of dramatic clubs	1
Major parts in each play	2
Minor parts in each play	1

NEWSPAPER AND YEARBOOK

Editor in chief of newspaper	10
Assistant editors	5–8
Business manager	10
Business assistants	5–8
Editor in chief of yearbook	10
Assistant editors	4–6
Business manager	10
Business assistants	4–6

MUSICAL ORGANIZATIONS

Glee club (student leader)	6
Members	3
Orchestra or band (student leader)	8
Members	5

MISCELLANEOUS

Outside music or art	
Committee work	
Hobbies, jobs, or worthy projects	

On the basis of such a scale from eighteen to twenty points might prove a practical maximum to set for participation at one time or during one semester.

Construction of Such Classifications or Point Scales. It is not probable that any one major-minor classification or point scale would serve all schools equally well. The relative demands made upon the time of participants by any given activity will vary from school to school and from year to year. Those responsible for the administration of activity problems in each school should work out a scheme for the classification or point-weighting of activities to fit local conditions. Perhaps this should be based upon data gathered from a study of estimates of time spent by pupils on various offices and activities.

The weighting must take into consideration not only the total amount of time spent in the office or activity, but also the amount that may be demanded daily at certain periods of intensified practice or by the exigencies of the organization. It is probably wise to think first of the offices or activities requiring the least time and energy, assigning to these a value of 1 and assigning proportionate point values to all the others. A classification or point system, once set up, should be revised from time to time on the basis of information obtained by continued study and continued collection of data on the relative demands of the activities. It should not be regarded as inflexible. The principal, the director of activities, or the committee on the administration of activities should hear and pass on

petitions requesting that a different number of points be assigned for participation in specified activities for reasons stated. Ordinarily, however, the safe policy is to do as little tinkering during the school year as is consistent with justice.

Administration of the Foregoing Plans. For such systems to be effective, records of participation must be kept up to date, showing the extent of each student's participation at all times. A form for such records is shown as Form III.

Form III. Individual Activities Record[1]

ACTIVITIES RECORD CARD CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA			
NAME		CLASS	
FRESHMAN			
FALL	PTS.	SPRING	PTS.
SOPHOMORE			
	PTS.		PTS.

These forms should be checked over at the beginning of each year or semester and approved or pupils notified that their activity loads exceed the limit. It is not a bad practice to have a pupil specify at the time of registration the activities in which he intends to participate. Upon his applying for membership in any organization after the opening of the year or the semester, his application should be referred to the office for checking and approval before acceptance. Officers of activities

[1]Record for the third and fourth years on the reverse side of the card.

organized after the beginning of the year should send to the office a list of proposed members, that each individual may be checked.

In some schools the pupil's activity load is measured by the number of points totaled from all activities engaged in during the semester; in others it is estimated from the activities being participated in at any given time. From the point of view of protecting the pupil from overloading to the danger of scholastic standing the latter method is advantageous. It involves a more careful accounting, however; and since the work incident to most activities is fairly well distributed throughout the semester or year the disadvantages of the plan probably outweigh its peculiar values. From the standpoint of preventing a monopoly of activities what difference exists is in favor of the semester or annual basis for accounting.

In some schools exceptions to the maximum are regularly made in favor of athletic teams. In view of the time and energy spent on athletics by squad members, the only arguments that may be made for such exceptions are that its strict observance may weaken local teams as compared to the teams of neighboring schools not employing a system of restriction, and that it operates to restrict a versatile athlete from exploring other activities except by refraining from participation in one or more forms of athletics in which he may be of "varsity" caliber. Interscholastic competition in athletics has such a firm grip on secondary-school pupils and principals in many places that the failure of a letter man to "come out for the team" is considered not only foolish but a display of disloyalty. Almost irresistible pressure is commonly brought to bear upon a boy who considers abstaining from athletics in order to participate in other types of activities. As a result such a student may, year after year, exhaust his maximum in one field alone—athletics.

Participation according to Marks. In many schools the degree to which a pupil may participate in activities depends upon the marks he earns. In some instances the point scale is so administered that the maximum number of points of activities

in which any pupil may participate is determined by his average marks for the preceding semester or six-weeks period; for example, A, 25 points; B, 20 points; C, 15 points; D, 10 points; E, no participation. Thus the opportunity to participate in activities is employed to motivate the work in the regular studies.

In addition to the difficulties incidental to restraining pupils in activities to a greater extent than their marks call for, the use of such a plan operates to restrict the participation of those pupils who need activities most. To bar from participation pupils whose marks are low because of lack of ability in academic studies is equivalent to closing to such pupils the only remaining avenue to education at school. In many instances the pupil who can or will learn little in the regular book studies will profit very materially from participation in activities.

Much more effective, perhaps, is guidance based on individual cases, in which restriction would be invoked only for those pupils whose current achievements in subject matter, as indicated by periodical reports from teachers, were distinctly below their ability as judged by previous school marks and intelligence-test scores, and with this exception all pupils who were passing in the major portion of their work could participate without special restriction.

Fundamental Principles Governing Membership. There should be established, understood, and observed certain principles governing admission to, and continuance of, membership in activities sponsored by the school. As important among these the following are suggested:

1. *There should be complete democracy in the means of determining membership.* Membership should not be dependent upon the preference of members or leaders of cliques.

2. *Membership should be determined on the basis of the pupil's interest and ability in the work of the organization in accordance with the objective rules of the organization.* If the organization does not stand ready to accept all candidates, there should be set up objective means of selecting candidates, such as try-outs conducted by faculty advisers, order of seniority as pupil, or formal application.

3. *Membership should be restricted to pupils in good standing.* No

school organization should admit to membership or to participation in its activity any person not a bona-fide member of the student body. All members should be boys and girls subject to the discipline of the school. Outsiders almost invariably constitute unusual and unnecessary problems difficult to handle.

4. *Membership should be regulated by rules which prevent monopoly of activities by the more able or popular pupils.* Such regulations should be provided and enforced as will make it impossible for a small number of pupils to enjoy a large share of the opportunities for training in the activities of the school to the exclusion of those more in need of such training. Means of administration of such regulations have just been outlined and discussed.

5. *Except in exceptional cases membership should not depend upon any degree of scholarship beyond passing marks.* It has been shown that participation in activities (with the possible exception of certain types of athletics—notably football) has little or no effect upon the quality of work done by participants on their regular conventional studies. In perhaps a majority of instances the pupil who is not capable or interested in such studies will profit relatively more by participation in activities than the normal or superior pupil; in fact, many inferior pupils will profit very little from attendance in school except by means of activities.

6. *Membership should not be subject to severance in the interests of the highly specialized training of a selected few.* This principle is violated in almost every organization or activity which engages in interscholastic competition. Coaches or sponsors of such activities are prone to place a good showing of a picked team above the educational value of the activity. Pupils of lesser promise are frequently forced to discontinue. This practice is indicative of a perverted concept of values and should give way to a régime which makes provision for those who need the training most and are willing to acquire it, as well as for those who are most gifted or who have already reached a high degree of training.

In those schools in which the number of pupils desiring to become members of some organization exceeds materially the number that can well be accommodated in one group, favorable consideration should be given to the formation of two or more groups; for example, two bands, two debating clubs, or two dramatic organizations. This is an excellent policy. Divi-

sions are sometimes made on the basis of maturity (for example, under-classmen and upper-classmen), sometimes on the basis of proficiency, the "first" and "second" team or club, and sometimes on the basis of the choice of the applicant for admission.

Furthermore, if educational values are to be criteria, it is not possible to justify, on a practical basis, the provision of an inferior quality of opportunity, coach, sponsor, or equipment for the "second" or "third" squad or club. Only the feverish desire to win contests and the consequent failure to realize the true, practical values of activities can account for the impractical procedure of dismissing all but the abler pupils or of providing for the less able only inferior training.

6. ACTIVITY MEETINGS

Place of Meetings. As far as possible all meetings of school organizations should be held in the school building or on the school grounds and be attended by the faculty adviser. Meetings should be held in other places only with the consent of the principal. By their very nature some organizations will have need to meet or carry on activities in other places; for example, rehearsals of plays or entertainments in down-town theaters or in churches. Even in such instances exceptions should be held to a minimum. When meetings are held in the school building, students naturally feel that the authority of the school, even though it is not being ostentatiously displayed or exercised, is, nevertheless, extended to such meetings. The conduct of students is much less likely to be questionable, and advisers may more easily be on hand to supervise the work.

Time and Frequency of Meetings: The Activity Period. As is desirable, many organizations may reduce their meetings to a set schedule of once or twice a week or once or twice a month for periods of uniform length. Among organizations which should be able to do so are the debating clubs, bands, athletic teams, nursing clubs, the cartoon club, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, Girl Reserves, the Hi-Y, the civic club, the commercial club, the honor society, the camera club, all semi-curricular

clubs, such as the French, German, Latin, history, mathematics, and art clubs, the orchestra, glee clubs, and chorus, printing, agriculture, household arts and other semi-vocational clubs, and the roll-room organizations.

Other organizations, such as the annual staff, class organizations and dramatic clubs, cannot do this so easily. As far as is practical, clubs should be required to meet on set schedules, those schedules to be arranged by a committee of the student organization and the principal or director of activities. Such schedules will reduce the amount of conflicting meetings of clubs with overlapping membership and the confusion resulting from meetings held on call.

The Activity Period. Many organizations are able to hold meetings within the limits of a school period and during school hours if classes do not conflict. Others, such as athletic teams, must meet after school hours. If the school day is six hours or more in length, programs of students who expect to participate in activities carried on at the close of the school day should be scheduled, if possible, so that they have no classes during the last period. As a means of encouraging activity participation, of dignifying it, of making possible the participation of all pupils (including those who live at a distance and are transported and those who are employed at home or elsewhere after school hours), and of encouraging members of the faculty to serve as advisers, there has developed the practice of setting aside each day for organization meetings a period of from 25 to 40 minutes in length, in which no classes are scheduled, such periods being almost universally referred to as "activity" periods. If one or two periods a week are allowed for home-room meetings and one period a week for assemblies, the two or three remaining periods do not constitute too much time to devote to activities. If desired, one of these may be set aside for "called" meetings. In his study of junior high schools Terry found that 30 per cent of the schools provided for organization meetings in school time.

The problems attendant upon working out the activity period have not been few or simple. Important among them have

been (1) the prevention of conflicts, (2) adjustment to the apparent differences in time needed for different meetings, and (3) satisfactory provision for pupils not attending such meetings. These difficulties, however, are not insuperable, and in many schools have been overcome with very satisfactory arrangements.

On this page is an illustrative activity-period program as operated in a school of 450 students. All the students in this school are required to belong to at least one club.

ACTIVITY-PERIOD PROGRAM
Richmond High School, 1942–1943
(10 10–10 55 daily)

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
CLUBS	H		CLUBS	H
Spanish	O	General school assembly, first and third Wednesdays of month	Commerce	O
Booster	M		Mathematics	M
Poetry	E		First aid	E
Short story			Library	
Girl Reserves			Marionette	
Junior Red Cross	R	OTHER WEDNESDAYS	Film	R
Sketch	O	Honor Society	Magicians	O
Electricity	O	Coin and Stamp Club	Scout Craft	O
Blue print	M	Gym leaders	Chess and checkers	M
Styles	S		Business managers	S
Tap dancers			Toy-makers	
Social welfare			International affairs	
Popular songs			Aeronautics	
			Radio	

The School Calendar. With the multiplication of organizations and their activities, the necessity develops for careful management with respect to the dates for performances, contests, and social and other events. In order that these may not conflict and that they may be distributed properly throughout the year, there should be kept in the principal's office a calendar for scheduling in advance all sorts of events, thereby preventing conflicts. A rule for awarding dates on the schedule on the basis of priority of application forestalls disputes likely to occur over desired dates.

Certain types of events are fixed by the nature of the organization and should be the constants on the calendar, leaving as

variables the events for which suitable dates are not determined in such a manner. Athletic schedules, commencement events, final examinations, school holidays, and certain local non-school activities are examples of such constants. There should also be worked out agreements as to when the intensive work of some organizations should take place; for example, an operetta in January, the senior-class play in April, a series of glee-club concerts in March, and an intramural debating tournament in December. The exercise of such foresight will operate to reduce the number of possible conflicts as well as serve to distribute the calls upon versatile students and the demands upon local out-of-school support at public exhibitions.

The Application for Holding School Social Affairs. In making application for a place on the calendar for social affairs, a form similar to that shown as Form IV possesses many advantages. In addition to its use for making the application for a place on the school calendar a matter of record, it provides an excellent means of supervising the management of the affair; for example, it furnishes a check upon whether suitable chaperones have been obtained, whether the affair meets with the approval of the faculty sponsor, and whether the invitation list and the method of financing conform to the school regulations and policies for social affairs.

7. SUPERVISION OF ACTIVITIES

Sponsors. Each organization should be required to provide for a faculty adviser as part of its organization. Occasionally in a smaller school, where no one on the staff is competent to act as adviser to a desirable organization, the principal may appoint some responsible, competent individual in the community who is willing to give the time and attention necessary. This practice should be regarded as a makeshift, to be employed only in rare exceptions. Advisers should be under more direct contact with the administration, in closer touch with the life and operation of the school, and not so likely to be involved in local factional differences.

Form IV. Application for Holding School Social Affairs (Front)

REGISTRATION OF EVENTS

WICHITA HIGH SCHOOL, WICHITA, KANSAS

Date _____

Date reserved _____ Organization _____

Type of event _____

Place _____

Time: From _____

To _____

Purpose of event _____

Guests _____

_____

Committee chairmen: Head chairman _____

Decoration _____

Reception _____

Program _____

Refreshments _____

Clean-up _____

Others _____

Faculty sponsors _____

Plan of event _____

_____

_____

Selection of Advisers. Although advisers should be chosen on the basis of their capacity for leadership and management, their special experience and subject-matter qualifications should also be considered. Teachers of English usually make the best advisers for journalistic and public-speaking enterprises, teachers of the sciences and industrial arts for semi-scientific and semi-vocational activities, and teachers of history for debate. However, wide differences exist between English teachers, for example, in their training and qualifications for

Form IV. Application for Holding School Social Affairs (Back)

Invitation or publicity arrangements _____

_____

Refreshment arrangements _____

_____

Transportation arrangements _____

_____

Estimated expense. Total _____ Method of financing _____

Estimated expense. Per person _____

_____

Final report.

Total receipts _____ _____

Expenses _____ _____

Net profit _____ _____

Disposal of proceeds _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

Suggestions for next time _____ _____

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

Approved _____ _____

_____

acting as advisers to school-publication staffs, dramatic clubs, and other activities. Teachers trained only in literature are very often not as valuable as history teachers with some training in journalism or as foreign-language teachers with some training in dramatics.

Though the principal may well consult pupils' preferences and requests, the selection of faculty advisers should, for several reasons, rest largely with him. In the first place, he must see to it that advisers are well qualified to assist in the

activity, which is often of a semi-technical nature, and are well adapted by personality and character to assume and exercise the desired leadership in the activity. Then, too, it is he who must attend to the matter of keeping the teachers' loads equalized. Again, he is most likely to have assisted in the selection of his teachers, taking care that advisers be provided for different types of activities, and therefore knows what teachers are best fitted for relations with each activity. Finally, such a practice is not conducive to disagreement among pupils or to the development of delicate situations among teachers incident to the choice of advisers by pupils. For example, no teacher will be "second choice" as adviser.

The Direction of Faculty Sponsors. In the small school the principal is in all likelihood the logical individual to head the activity program and to direct it through his staff of advisers. He is best oriented in the various contacts, events, and related problems of management of the school. In larger schools he may delegate a considerable portion of the details of administration to an assistant or a committee of assistants. Persons likely to be useful as such assistants or committee members are the dean of girls, the director of athletics, the director of guidance or counselor, and the vice principal. In a very small but steadily growing number of schools a qualified individual is selected to serve, with or without teaching duties, as director of activities.[1] To him the principal may commit the whole program of activities, making officers and advisers responsible to him and charging him with the complete responsibility for the success of the program.

Faculty advisers should be brought to understand that supervision which borders on domination operates to destroy pupils' spontaneity and interest. Many advisers are prone to look upon the material product rather than the educational growth of the participants as the most important aim and function of the activity. They are, like athletic coaches, inclined to as-

[1]W. C. Reavis and Robert Woellner found that directors of activities were included in the staff of 14.8 per cent of the 522 secondary schools included in their study.

sume almost complete responsibility for leadership and initiative, reducing pupils to low levels of participation. Such guidance fails to arouse purposeful interest and responsibility and serves to reduce activities to the status of traditional classroom teaching characterized by perfunctory uninterested pupil performance and lack of opportunity for the development of initiative, leadership, and skills in democratic, coöperative undertakings.

Not a little time should be spent in training advisers in point of view and procedures for their work. Meetings of advisers at which problems relating to activities are discussed should be held from time to time, especially during the first month or two of the school year. Advisers who have not had formal training in the management of activities should be encouraged to do considerable reading in books of the nature of those by McKown, Roemer and Allen, Wilds, Terry, Meyer, and Fretwell, on extra-curricular activities.

The necessity of developing a balanced point of view on the part of advisers as well as of leading them to study the details of management should not be overlooked. A high percentage of teachers were not in their own student days leaders in activities, but were more inclined to "book study." Many have little sympathy with, and no adequate understanding of, the educational value and purpose of activities. They need to be brought to understand a modern sound and practical philosophy of the values and principles of organization and administration of extra-curricular activities. They need to be caused to think through clearly and somewhat specifically the possible contributions to the aims of education and the possible harmful or wasteful results of participation in each activity.

General Principles of Supervision. It is difficult to define in detail what should be the degree and nature of the supervision of organization activities by the faculty adviser. It is, perhaps, equally useful and certainly simpler to set up certain general principles which the adviser should translate into specific practice in the light of the particular activity, the local situation, and the personnel of the organization.

Among such principles are the following:

1. The supervision of activities should not amount to domination. Opportunity must be provided for the development and exercise of pupil initiative, leadership, imagination, and thinking through consequences. Pupils must be permitted to make some mistakes as a part of their training. The educational value derived from an activity depends largely upon its incidental training value, and by no means entirely upon success in the ostensible purpose of the organization.

2. Supervision must circumvent the influence of immoral and unsocial practices; for example, the mismanagement of funds, the domination of social cliques, undemocratic selection of members and officials, and unethical business and competitive practices.

3. Supervision should be, as far as possible, by suggestion rather than by authoritative direction.

4. Supervision must include coöperation with the central administration and the general activity program, especially in matters of accounting (records and reports) and in the management of activities in such a way as to insure loyalty to the administrative policies.

5. Supervision must include recognition of the exploratory value of activities as a factor in guidance. Advisers should be constantly on the lookout for evidence of special talent and should advise pupils concerning the possibilities of training and employing such talent.

6. Supervision should have as one of its primary objectives the integration of curricular studies and extra-curricular activities.

Pupil Self-management. In addition, the pupil officers of the various organizations may well have a large part in the organization and management of the whole program of activities. In many schools all the organizations, or a great many of them, are subdivisions of the general student association; they receive their charters from it and are subject to its constitution and the legislation passed by its suffrage or by its designated representative councils. As far as possible organizing and managing should be left to pupils acting through their central organization and their different organization officers and committees. The school committee on activities should be composed of both pupil and faculty representatives. A practical organization for management is suggested in Fig. 2.

For very large schools, in which the number of activities is

great, subcommittees of the council for the administration of groups of activities are advisable, organized as suggested in Fig. 3, which was arranged by Wilds.[1]

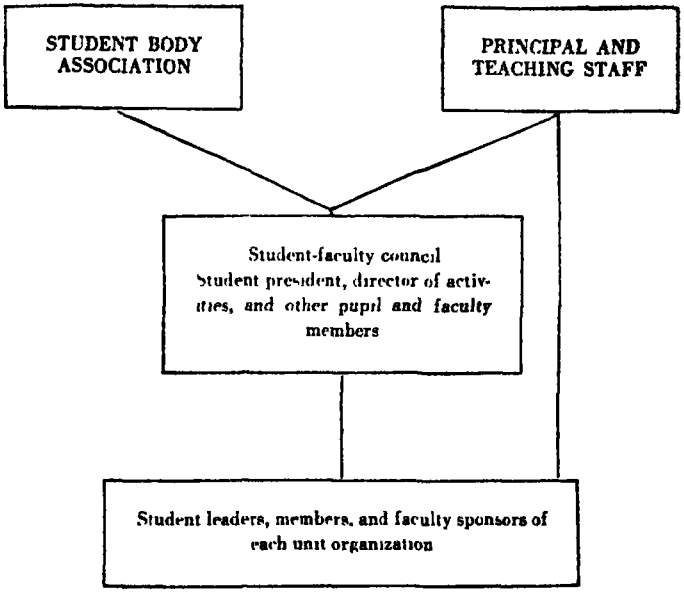


FIG. 2. Plan of Organization for the Control of Activities

Funds and Financial Accounting. A phase of the organization and supervision of pupil organizations which requires most careful attention is that of establishing and maintaining a satisfactory system of accounting for funds raised from membership fees and from admission fees to contests and exhibitions of various sorts. This problem is discussed and a satisfactory system outlined in Chapter XVIII, along with other problems and procedures of accounting for funds.

8. THE SCHOOL ASSEMBLY AS A SPECIAL PROBLEM

Management. The assembly may be regarded not only as a pupil activity but also as an important administrative device

[1] *Extra-Curricular Activities*, p. 103. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York.

of the principal—an educational agency especially useful for certain types of education not of the nature of pupil activity and for establishing favorable contacts between the central administrative staff and the students as a whole. For these reasons it has been a common practice to make the assembly a dual-purpose activity, presided over jointly by the high-school principal and the president of the student body or his assembly-program chairman. In some schools the responsibility for the assemblies is intrusted to an assembly committee composed of both faculty and pupil members, who coöperate with the principal and the president of the student body in arranging the programs for assemblies.

Student Participation in Control. As far as possible the assembly should be managed by student representatives under faculty direction. Teachers should not dominate assembly programs. These periods should constitute opportunities for developing responsibility and skill in management. In addition, student leaders, if not the bulk of the students, should share in feelings of responsibility for making the assemblies successful. This nourishes a feeling that they are *our* assemblies. The appearance of students in positions of leadership serves as an inspiration toward responsibility and leadership to other students Principals may always arrange to be introduced for whatever announcements or talks they may wish to make without interfering with student management. Student leaders may be advised and assisted behind the scenes as much as is necessary to make the assemblies interesting and otherwise most worth while. The success of student management, however, depends upon reducing to a minimum close or arbitrary supervision by faculty or principal. The ideas of student leaders should be considered on their merits, if not actually given consideration beyond their real value.

Assembly Periods. One assembly a week, requiring a full class period, is to be preferred to more frequent short assemblies. Some schools find a place for both: a short assembly consisting of singing and announcements at the opening of school in the morning, and one full-period assembly weekly or fortnightly.

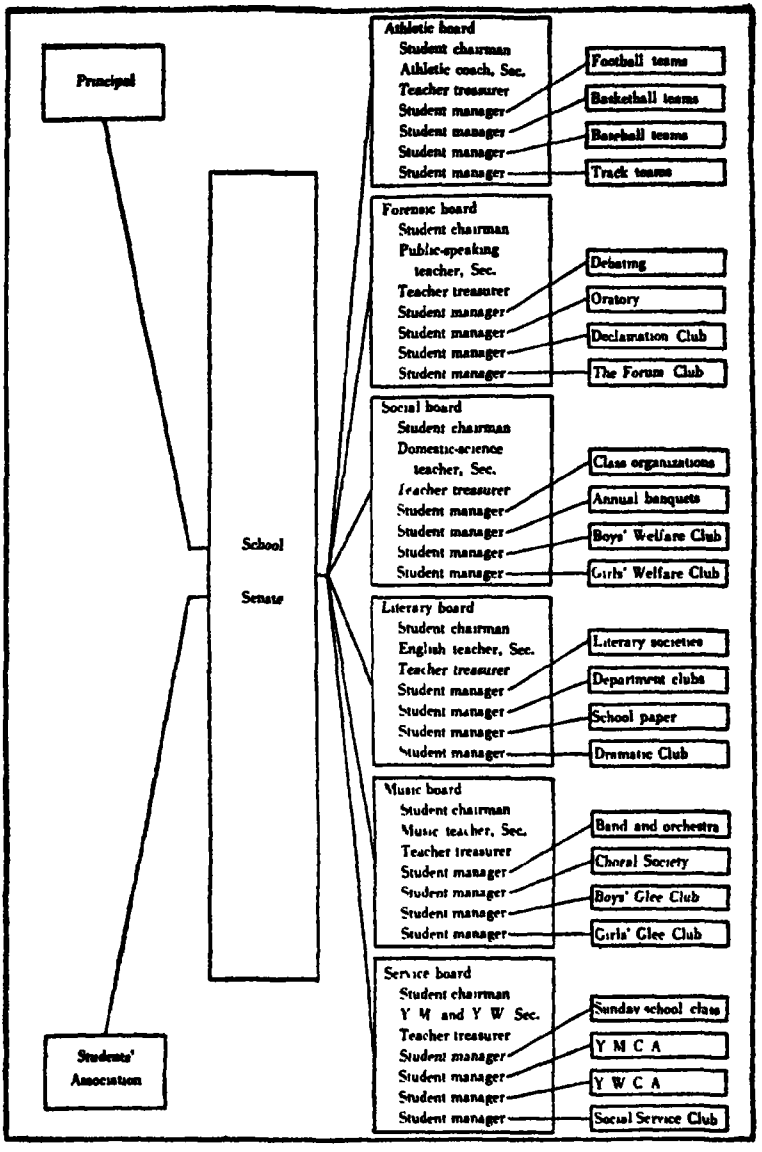


FIG. 3. Plan of Organization for the Control of Activities in Larger Schools

If an activity period is provided for, the assembly should probably be scheduled for this period. If assembly periods are provided by dismissing classes for a period, they should be alternated among the various class periods in order that certain classes will not be dismissed a disproportionate number of times. The last period in the day is useful for assemblies which are wholly or in large part "rallies." For other assemblies the last period is the least desirable, offering, as it does, a temptation to pupils or parents which results in more absences than would occur if classes were held at that period.

Programs. Successful assembly programs can hardly be expected to materialize except as the result of a well-organized schedule planned several weeks in advance. Types of material suitable for assembly programs are

1. Announcements and explanations of interest to the entire school relative to the various administrative procedures.
2. Announcements and reports relative to the achievements and honors of pupils, teams, classes, and organizations, and the awarding of letters, honors, and prizes.
3. Programs growing out of curricular activities· dramatizations, pageants, demonstrations, presentations by means of projecting machines, style shows, or exhibits of products of classes in household arts, fine arts, and industrial arts, and readings of original or other poems or prose.
4. Programs growing out of extra-curricular activities: concerts, exhibitions, demonstrations, pageants, dramatizations presented by glee clubs, orchestras, bands, and by radio, first-aid, history, foreign-language, debating, dramatic, and other clubs; reports, exhibitions, and final interclass contests of various types of teams –typing, debating; rallies for athletic and other contests.
5. Business meeting of the general student organization: elections, nominations, discussion of school problems and enterprises.
6. Programs from outside sources: lectures on guidance by business and professional men and women; informational, entertaining, and inspirational talks and lectures by qualified local speakers, speakers from state educational institutions, and occasional distinguished visitors in the city, club programs given by local service clubs, parent-teachers' associations, and musical, literary, and civic organizations.

7. Programs of a musical or dramatic nature or exhibits by the organizations and clubs of other schools.

8. Programs for special days or movements: patriotic and biographical occasions, thrift days, Thanksgiving, Armistice Day, Christmas, and Memorial Day.

9. Mass-singing by the students.

10. Devotional exercises.

11. Miscellaneous programs: moving pictures, faculty programs, miscellaneous debates, reports by students of trips and interesting experiences.

12. Rallies for interscholastic contests.

Though the first consideration in the selection of assembly program material is its possible administrative and educational value, it must without question be of interest to high-school students. Too much speaking must be avoided, as well as obtaining speakers who are not adapted to the vocabulary, maturity, and interests of high-school boys and girls.

9. THE ADMINISTRATION OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

The chief problems of interscholastic athletic competition are likely to be largely solved when two conditions obtain: (1) the presence on the staff of a trained physical director in charge of athletics, together with carefully selected coaches who are full-time members of the teaching staff; (2) membership in a properly organized athletic association.

McKown's Suggestions. McKown[1] makes the following suggestions for the management of interscholastic athletics:

1. Instruct the school and community in the real educational values of interscholastic athletics by means of assembly programs, the relative emphasis placed upon athletics through the board of education, and newspapers.

[1] *Extracurricular Activities*, pp. 249–262. The Macmillan Company. During the war the perspective of people in general with respect to the place of athletics in a program of physical education has been improved. Instead of the highly specialized training of a few athletes, attention has been given to the physical training of all students not only through interscholastic athletics, but through intramural competitions with few or no spectators.

2. Win the coöperation of the local newspapers in toning down the over-enthusiastic sports reporter, in separating amateur news from professional athletic news, and in using editorial space to educate the local community.

3. Eliminate intrinsically valuable awards and gifts: sweaters, gold balls, and blankets.

4. Discourage community gifts to athletes and coaches: suits, hats, shirts—and pressing and other service.

5. Establish a one-semester rule for interscholastic participation, requiring a student to carry at least one semester of passing work for each season of competition in order to prevent students from attending merely during the football or basket ball season, and to discourage athletes from transferring from one school to another.

6. Recognize and develop athletics for girls, developing forms of athletics adapted to girls as substitutes for imitations of boys' athletics.

7. Base athletic supremacy on many teams instead of on one: class teams, teams of various sizes and weights, and second and third teams as well as first, or "varsity," teams.

8. Abolish part-time coaches not members of the all-year faculty.

9. Build an inclusive health program, including athletics.

10. Abolish athletic committees of the board of education or limit their work. Control of athletics is not a lay responsibility, and such committees often embarrass the saner professional administration of athletics.

11. Abolish championships—regional, state, and national—and in so doing prevent the temporary demoralization not only of teams but also of the entire student body.

12. Abolish training camps.

13. Let the board of education subsidize athletics, so as to relieve the management from depending upon commercial considerations and to give the school more definite claims upon control.

14. Put the control of athletics in the hands of the student association, along with other activities, as a means of preventing overemphasis and of subjecting the management of athletics to the entire student body.

Critical Problems. The more critical problems in the administration of interscholastic athletics center round three points: (1) the eligibility of the contestants, (2) contracts with other

schools regarding games and officials, and (3) the management of funds. All details of management related to these three points should come under the immediate supervision of the principal or a member of the administrative staff designated by him; for example, the vice principal, the director of activities, or the faculty manager of athletics. Though pupil representatives should not be deprived of exercising the details of management, the principal or his representative should approve all dates, contracts, and eligibility lists, and should be in close touch with the activities of all pupil managers in their relations with other schools. All funds should be administered and accounted for as described in Chapter XVIII.

10. THE HOME ROOM

Functions and Values. Perhaps, from the educational point of view, the most valuable extra-curricular activity is the home room, when organized and operated in accordance with a high-grade modern plan. It serves the following four types of functions:

1. *Administrative:* as an agency for distributing notices, report cards, textbooks, and materials; for making announcements, checking on tardiness and absence; for collections of scrap paper and other materials; for sales campaigns; for discussion of school policies, new rules, and the like.

2. *Curricular Supplementation:* as an opportunity for teaching important topics that are not adequately treated in the regular curricular subjects or which may be better learned by home-room procedures; for example, safety education, personality development, occupations, social conventions, current events, study habits and techniques, home relationships; as an excellent place for emphasis upon social and character education.

3. *Guidance:* (1) as an organization for group guidance in such fields as health, selection of courses, selection of an occupation, personal appearance, making friends, use of leisure time, securing, holding, and getting ahead in a job, boy-girl relationships, school citizenship, matters of ethics and of sportsmanship, problems of going to college, and similar ones; and (2) as an arrangement for guidance of

the individual pupil by a home-room teacher who comes to know the individual pupil better than the typical teacher of his classroom subjects can and to whom a small group of pupils are assigned as protégés for guidance.

4. *Promotion of Extra-curricular Activities:* The home room may contribute to this function in two ways: (1) by contributions to the all-school program of activities and (2) by its own program of activities. In the home-room clubs, the programs of school organizations and other activities may be brought to the attention of home-room members, values discussed, and participation encouraged. Certain types of administrative routine may be carried on—for example, making announcements, election of home-room representatives, rally programs. The home room may also have athletic, debate, or other teams to participate in inter-home-room competition.

(1) The home room may carry on its own program of activities in the form of putting on programs at the school assembly; and (2) it may have programs for its own members or with another home room as its guest, including musical numbers, talks, debates, vaudeville stunts, reading of the home-room "paper," etc.

Composition of Home-Room Groups. Home-room groups are usually made up of from 25 to 40 pupils of the same grade; sometimes the group is a random group. In some schools home-room groups are all boys or all girls, and much is to be said for that arrangement, since practically all other activities of the school are on a coeducational basis. In a small number of schools groups are formed according to age, curriculum followed, or I. Q., or contain some pupils from each grade. There seems little likelihood that these practices will spread.

Home-Room Sponsor. In some larger schools the very reasonable practice is employed of assigning to the same home rooms, at least for one semester, students who are seriously considering going to college.

In most schools where home rooms exist, all or practically all teachers are assigned home-room groups. Unless a sponsor is assigned two groups or the groups are very large, almost every teacher is needed If it were not for schedule difficulties, it is very likely that many principals would much prefer to employ for this important work only those teachers who by

training, personality, and interest are best qualified. In fact, this is actually done in some schools, two home-room groups usually being counted as the equivalent of one class taught.

Not only do sponsors need to be interested in boys and girls as individual human beings, rather than merely as "students," and need to be the kind of persons with whom pupils will co-operate and develop a confidential guidance relation, but also they need to have developed a modern practical philosophy of pupil-teacher relations and of home-room practice. They should also have had some training in such fields as guidance, extra-curricular activities, modern secondary education, mental hygiene, psychology of personality, and intelligence-testing.

In some schools sponsors are assigned to the same groups for several years. Sponsors under this arrangement come to know their pupils much better. Where this is done, pupils should be permitted to change groups at the end of any semester.

Time Allotment and Schedule. Home rooms should meet for periods of not less than 30 minutes and for not less than 50 minutes a week. In an increasing number of schools, home rooms meet for two or more periods of from 30 to 60 minutes each week. The most common practice is two periods a week of from 40 to 57 minutes. "Home rooms" which meet for periods of 15 minutes or less are not really home rooms but are "roll rooms," serving only the administrative function. It is a common practice to fit the home-room meetings into a daily activity program—for example, home rooms twice a week, clubs twice a week, and school assembly once a week.

It is becoming generally recognized that home-room or activity periods should not be scheduled for the beginning or the end of either the morning or the afternoon session. To do so, it has been discovered, is to invite non-attendance at these periods.

Officers and Committees. A good home-room organization is very likely to include a president, a vice president, a secretary, a treasurer, a representative on the student council and his alternate, and the executive committee, made up of the foregoing officers. The vice president should have definite respon-

sibilities, in addition to his assisting the president and presiding in his absence. Among such duties frequently are the following: director of safety, director of campaigns, chairman of the reception committee, receiving visitors, and looking after new students.

Among the committees most likely to be useful are the following: citizenship, scholarship, programs, finance and auditing, welfare and visiting, entertainment, and the committee on relationships with the all-school program.

In some home-room organizations there is an auxiliary parents' organization, in which all parents of pupils in the home room are eligible to membership. Parents are encouraged to attend home-room "assemblies," to sponsor home-room parties, and to get acquainted with the sponsor, who will introduce them to other teachers upon request or upon need.

Fundamental Principles. The most important elements in the success of a home-room program include the following:

1. The staff should study home-room plans and philosophy, and should plan materials for a year before launching the home rooms.
2. A collection of not less than one book per pupil in the school should be made available, including books on vocations, vocational guidance, educational guidance, social conventions and etiquette, and the various topics likely to be discussed in the classroom. Hundreds of books very suitable for this use have been published in recent years.
3. Careful in-service training of home-room sponsors, with the use of key teachers, should be carried on for at least a few years and be repeated every few years for new additions to the staff.
4. The home-room period should be not less than 30 minutes and not more than 60 minutes a week, and should be allocated to home-room meetings.
5. New teachers should be selected partly on the basis of their ability to be good home-room sponsors.
6. When new teachers are employed, there should be an understanding that home-room sponsorship is an important part of the regular teaching load. Of course this same understanding should prevail with all teachers engaged in home-room sponsoring.
7. There should be available to all home-room sponsors collec-

tions of outlines, manuals, and units for home rooms, already worked out in other schools; and these should be kept up to date.

8. Sponsors should recognize that home-room discussions should be characterized by freedom to express opinion, spontaneity, naturalness, and they should be permitted to change their courses to wherever student interests lie.

9. Sponsors should avoid long lectures. Lectures should grow out of problems raised in the discussion, should be short, should be given in a conversational manner, and should not involve mere opinion and guessing by the sponsor. They should be followed by questions and discussions.

10. In the home-room period there should be little place for recitations, quizzes, and examinations. Good use should be made, however, of the practice of suggesting readings for students on the topics of the unit. These should be carefully selected.

11. Use should be made of the learning device of having individual students or small committees volunteer to make special investigations and reports on various problems and topics.

12. If, apparently, it is necessary to add dignity to home-room work, credit toward graduation may well be given, usually one fourth of a year unit or one half of a semester unit for each year in programs in which there are two to three periods a week of not less than 30 minutes each. Giving credit is hardly practical when home-room meetings do not involve as much time as 60 minutes a week.

11. SUMMARY OF FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES

Professor E. Duncan Grizzell of the University of Pennsylvania has made an excellent statement of sound principles underlying the formulation, organization, management, supervision, accounting, personnel, and housing and financial programs of activities intended for sound educational purposes. It is quoted here:

1. The pupil is the center around which, and for which, all educational activity is organized.

2. The units of activities selected should be only such as to meet the following tests:

a. They must arise out of, or find their justification in, the natural or acquired interests of the pupil.

b. They must meet definite needs of individuals and groups of individuals.

c. They must be readily adapted to the abilities and aptitudes of pupils of varying degrees of preparation or previous training in particular kinds of activities.

d. Every activity performed shall be educative to the person performing the activity.

3. The organization of the units of activities should provide for the following conditions:

a. The program of activities and the program of studies should supplement each other in the total school program.

b. Definite provision should be made for common and peculiar needs of various individuals and groups of individuals.

c. The form of organization should be subordinate to its fundamental spirit and should be determined largely by the pupils as they develop the need for, and interest in, definite organization.

d. The program of activities should be organized in such manner as to provide as fully as possible for training in leadership and followership, as well as in other important social and individual qualities.

e. The daily schedule should include units of activities as well as subjects of instruction. The same care should be used in making adjustments to meet individual needs for activities as for the formal school subjects.

4. The management of the program of activities should be in accordance with the following principles:

a. Every effort should be made to develop definite relationships between the program of studies and the program of activities.

b. Procedure in the management of the program of activities should provide for as free participation as possible that the spontaneity of those participating may not be destroyed.

c. Pupils and faculty and other personnel should coöperate freely in the management of all school activities.

d. No student should be penalized in his participation in activities merely as a spur to improvement in the formal work of the school.

e. Limitation as to membership, office holding, and other such matters should be based upon needs of pupils, not upon scholarship in the abstract.

f. Successful participation in *any* unit of activity should receive

proper recognition. A system of awards of a graduated character is to be preferred to a system of marks and credits. Such facts should be made a part of the school records.

5. A system of adequate and accurate records and reports must recognize the following requirements:

a. An analysis of the program of activities is essential in order that significant pupil characteristics and growths may be recorded and reported.

b. A system of records and reports must provide for a continuous record of comparable facts.

6. The improvement of personnel is essential to a full recognition of the fundamental principles of administration. Specifically the following principles must be recognized:

a. The first step in the improvement of personnel involves care in the selection of the staff.

b. Fitness for the task is determined by the initial ability to succeed and improvement in service.

7. The improvement of material requires that fundamental changes be made in school plant and equipment. The following principles are involved:

a. The selection of the site and the planning and construction of the school plant should recognize the demands of the program of activities.

b. Improvement of material is absolutely essential to the development of the program of activities.

8. The program of activities should be definitely related to the life of the community in order that it may serve as the connecting link between the school and life.

9. The program of activities should be fully supported by the school from the general funds. The present practice of non-support of activities by the school requires that the following principles be recognized:

a. A budget system is a necessary feature of a sound system of finance.

b. All financial activities shall receive careful supervision in accord with the educational values to be derived by the pupil from participation in financial affairs.

c. A school treasury should be provided for the handling of all funds to be deposited by the various school organizations.

d. Educational purposes should never be subordinated to financial ends.

Problems and Exercises

1. Classify each of the various practices recommended in this chapter and Chapter IX under the principles set up by Grizzell, noting any that seem to be in conflict with one or more principles.

2. For a given school work out a classification of activities into majors and minors and draw up related regulations governing the extent of pupil participation.

3. For a given school draw up a point system for regulating pupil participation and for awarding school credit for participation.

4. Give the details of a good plan for administering a "major-minor" or "point" system for limiting participation.

5. Of the two systems, the major-minor and the point, which would you recommend, and why?

6. What modifications would you make in Roemer's analysis questionnaire on interest in activities?

7. Draw up a set of regulations governing meetings of organizations, and tell how you would put them into effect.

8. Plan a typical activity-period schedule.

9. Make a list of all forms, reports, or records that you would recommend for a school of 200 pupils, mentioning items (or drawing sketches) to be included in each form.

10. Write an outline for a chapter in a book on "How to Conduct the High School Assembly," showing in detail what you would discuss and what position you would take on various questions.

11. In what ways would you modify or add to McKown's fourteen points for the better management of athletics?

12. Plan in detail a good organization for the control of extracurricular activities.

13. Draw up a list of from ten to fifteen statements of good administration policies in the organization and administration of activities.

XI

Discipline and Citizenship as an Administrative Problem

1. OBJECTIVES OF DISCIPLINE

One of the traditional and earliest responsibilities of those charged with the immediate administration of secondary schools is that involving the conduct of pupils while at school. The principal is still largely judged by his lay constituents, if not also by the teaching staff, on the basis of his ability to establish morale among the pupils of the school. As an appropriate approach to the discussion of principles and procedures involved in discipline the objectives of discipline will first be briefly reviewed, with special attention to the marked change which has been taking place recently in the relative emphasis placed upon different objectives.

Objectives of Discipline. In addition to the objectives of maintaining orderly conduct consistent with serious work, free from distractions and the misbehavior of others, and of establishing respect for the authority of the school and its staff, a third and even more important objective should be noted.

The purposes for which policies and measures of discipline are employed may be said to be as follows:

1. Establishing and maintaining favorable study conditions free from distractions and misbehavior
2. Establishing and maintaining respect for authority within the school.
3. *Developing, on the part of the pupils, ideals, interests, habits, and skills making for self-government and good citizenship.*

The policies and devices employed are materially influenced by the relative importance attached to each of these objectives in the minds of the principal and the staff. Therefore it is only natural that with the changing conception of the relative importance of the various possible outcomes of methods of dis-

cipline, along with a better understanding of adolescent human nature, the principles and measures employed for disciplinary purposes have undergone marked changes in recent years.

Earlier Conceptions of Discipline. Until the last decade or so the first two of the objectives mentioned above were emphasized to the relative neglect of the third, except as the third was realized incidentally as one of the disciplinary outcomes of the first two. In fact, even today the merit of teachers is judged by many principals, as is the effectiveness of principals in many communities, largely by the order maintained in the classrooms, in the building, and at all school activities conducted outside the school. It might be said that the criterion apparently considered by many to be the most important for rating teachers and principals is the degree of fear that they are able to develop in pupils in regard to doing other than those things which are acceptable to the staff of the school.

Another criterion that is still important, though in much lesser degree, among those influencing the choice of standards, as well as measures of discipline, is the effect likely to be produced on the opinion of the patrons. Measures in themselves quite ineffective as means of influencing pupil conduct are often employed because they meet with the approval of the people in the community. Harangues in assembly against smoking, joy-riding, the use of cosmetics, and various other practices against which older people are warmly prejudiced usually have little effect upon the practice of the pupils, yet they serve to let the community know where the principal stands on these matters. Fear of what people will say controls procedures in many schools to such an extent that the influence on pupils' character and behavior is only dimly envisaged.

In days gone by the authority of the principal was not conventionally accepted as a matter of course. In fact, it was often put to the test for each individual principal. The methods of discipline and, indeed, the whole spirit of discipline were such as to invite the antagonism of the pupils, solidifying them in the common cause of resisting oppression. With the develop-

ment of larger schools and saner methods of government we are rapidly emerging from that state, so that principals may be less conscious of the necessity of immediate girding for the battle for supremacy. The passing concept of the educative value of discipline was associated very closely with training young people in obedience to authority, in doing distasteful things without protest, and in developing patience, endurance, and self-restraint.

Though, as is implied in the foregoing paragraphs, theory and practice as to government of the school are yet in the stage of transition, new values, changes in relative emphasis, and methods adapted accordingly characterize the disciplinary program and procedure of the modern secondary school.

Modern Objectives of Discipline. The changes which have taken place in the objectives and principles of discipline center very largely round the increased emphasis on permanent educational values as compared with that placed on maintaining order in the school; on training boys and girls to desire to do acceptable and useful things rather than destructive and harmful things; on training individuals to govern each his own conduct rather than to be dependent upon government by others.

Modern philosophy of school discipline does not contemplate disorder in the school, it does not lose sight of the value of having pupils respect authority, and it does not entirely deny the necessity of keeping in mind the prejudices of the local community and the tendency of parents and citizens to criticize the administration of the school for the failure to do with twenty pupils per teacher what they as parents are failing to do with an average of one child per parent. It does, however, insist that these considerations move over and make room in the sun for a new type of objective, an educational objective to which the others should be secondary: order as largely incidental to the primary objective, to be maintained in and of itself only so far as is necessary to maintain satisfactory work conditions. *Respect for authority* should be at least partly the deserved result of leadership and not merely a forced tribute from a weaker group; and the *approval of the community*

should be the natural outcome of the more modern and effective program of character development and not a primary objective.

Modern Standards of Discipline. Consistent with the modern conceptions of the goals of discipline, a marked reaction should be noted in what are considered to be desired standards of conduct in school. There has been a relaxation of the strain experienced by teachers and principals in trying to prevent all whispering, writing of notes, chewing gum, and to insure all the minor externals of conformance and respect. In place of this a more constructive program has been adopted looking forward to development by positive rather than negative means, to growth rather than repression, to initiative and freedom governed by acceptable ideals and interests rather than to self-restraint and inhibition actuated by fear and accompanied by resentment and other emotions and attitudes unfavorable to the development of qualities of good citizenship.

The modern principal or teacher well oriented in the philosophy and objectives of discipline does not ask: "Is this conventional? Should pupils be permitted to 'get away with that'? Was I permitted as a pupil to do that?" In the order of their importance, he raises the following questions:

1. What relative net results, direct and indirect, for this pupil and for all others, will the various reactions I may make (including making no noticeable reaction) have upon the development of ideals and habits that are consistent with good citizenship and self-government?
2. What will be the effect upon the conditions for carrying on profitable educative activity?
3. What will people say?
4. What will be the effect upon the "authority" of the teacher or principal (beyond the indirect results mentioned in 1)?

In schools and classrooms where such standards prevail mechanical and deadly quiet, which was the goal of many teachers of the passing generation, will rarely be found, but in its place groups of busy, happy pupils ready to join in authority to disapprove really objectionable behavior. Perfection in conduct will not be found, but the perfecting of conduct will be abundant evidence. Practice and growth in citizenship and

self-direction will be guided and not deprived of opportunity for development.

With this brief picture of the modern philosophy of discipline as an educative as well as a restrictive agent, consideration will now be given to the discussion of agencies and procedures of disciplinary guidance.

2. AGENCIES OF DISCIPLINARY GUIDANCE: POSITIVE

Counter-Attraction through Teaching and Management. After a long and unsuccessful trial of the treating of symptoms—the repression of undesirable behavior through various negative means—we are now turning to the use of constructive agencies. Wise and patient parents have learned, as the teachers are now learning, to guide young people away from undesirable activities and habits by guiding them into activities which are desirable and which will lead to the formation of desirable habits. By such a program of developing interests, of keeping boys and girls busy doing things which they like to do and which are at least harmless, disciplinary crises are avoided. As it is often said of successful teachers, "You couldn't tell how good a disciplinarian she was, for she never had any disciplinary situations."

In Chapter IV of his *Introduction to High School Teaching*[1] the late Stephen S. Colvin gave the following outline of suggestions on positive methods of maintaining order as the chief reliance of classroom teachers. Intelligent principals may easily generalize them so that they apply also to high school administration.

In the Best-Controlled Class the Problem of Discipline is not Obvious.
1. *The smoothly running class is the class in which all the pupils are doing rigorous mental work.*

a. Begin each class exercise with vigor and promptness.

b. Strive to keep each member of the class busy during the entire period.

[1]The Macmillan Company.

c. Have some system of holding every member of the class responsible for all that takes place during the class period.

d. The teacher must hear all and see all that is happening in the class all the time.

2. *In the smoothly running class the pupils are interested in their work.*

a. Interest is more readily aroused when the attention of the learner is concentrated on the thing to be accomplished than when it is occupied with the details that lead to the accomplishment.

b. Interest centers more in the concrete than in the abstract.

c. Interest is dependent not merely on presenting facts, but on the interpretation of them in terms of their meaning.

d. Interest is stimulated to the extent that the learner is also a doer.

e. Interest in the last analysis is a personal matter.

3. *In the smoothly running class the teacher is the master.*

The employment of pupils' interests and time in athletics and other activities, as well as in purposeful and interesting classroom and study work, has so developed interests and so busied pupils in harmless and worth-while activities that within recent years, in spite of the great influx of pupils of types formerly largely eliminated, there has been a very noticeable improvement in the quality of school citizenship.

Development of School Ideals and Spirit. Assemblies and other group meetings of pupils should be employed for developing not only ideals that make for character and good citizenship of a general nature but also a good school spirit. Programs should be provided which will include stimuli to the growth of an interest in the achievements of the school and of the pupils, to group and individual loyalty, and to pleasant and friendly relations between faculty and pupils. The principal may easily find opportunity for establishing favorable contacts with pupils, identifying his interests with theirs and revealing his interest in their happiness, and for exhibiting unostentatiously his ideals and certain phases of his character which may be idealized consciously or unconsciously by the pupils.

Developing Favorable Relations. Upon all occasions the principal and his staff must remember that their influence is conditioned largely by the attitudes taken toward them by their pupils. While it is in no way suggested that either the principal or the teacher should approach the unethical by condoning offenses or low scholarship or by playing cheap politics for personal preferment by the students, or lose dignity by becoming too intimate, the success of discipline will depend in a large measure upon the relative willingness of students to accept in a favorable spirit advice, counsel, and even rebuke and punishment, from their superiors. Pupils will not accept ideals from those whom they dislike. They are ready to resent attempts by such persons to restrict or even to counsel them, to the point of completely misinterpreting their actions and words. The desire to have the good will and respect of teachers and principals who are well liked and respected actuates most pupils to behave in a way that will merit approval.

Consequently the principal should exhibit, wherever possible, at least a casual interest in every pupil and in all pupil activities, congratulating pupils upon their successes and sympathizing with them in their misfortunes. He should avoid all unnecessary sarcasm and reproof. He should be extremely cautious in attempting to punish large groups of pupils even for group offenses. He must insist also that teachers and others do not make him the official "goat" or "bogy man" for all disciplinary cases and thereby weaken his influence in his school. In his conferences with erring pupils he should be careful to avoid a show of temper and personal antagonism, leaving each pupil with the knowledge that in spite of the necessity for rebuke or even for drastic action, he bears no personal ill will.

Removal of Temptation and the Possibility of Misbehavior. A great many disciplinary situations may be avoided by careful planning on the part of the principal and his staff. Opportunities for pilfering should be as few as possible. Challenges in the way of threats should very rarely be employed. Careful checking of absences should forestall the feeling on the part

of the youngsters that they may be able to beat the game. Periods of enforcement of rules should not be interspersed with periods of indifference. Opportunities for cheating on written examinations or in papers, notebooks, and experiments should be reduced to a minimum. In crowded buildings the use of exits and halls should be so planned as to prevent congestion likely to lead to disorder. Careful checking should eliminate the possibility of pupils' absenting themselves with immunity from classes or portions of class periods. Friendly relations with pupils should develop in such a manner as not to lead them to believe that they can take advantage of such relations to transgress. Routine should be so planned as to prevent confusion leading to what will be regarded as misbehavior.

Rewards for Good Citizenship. In many schools good citizenship is rewarded with more than the satisfaction of doing right. Citizenship is taken into consideration in making many types of awards and honors; for example, in choosing members for honor societies and in selecting the best all-around student for individual honors at commencement.

Frequently, however, mistakes are made by teachers and principals desirous of expressing their appreciation of good behavior. School marks should not depend directly upon behavior. Anything that might appear to be conspicuous favoritism toward good citizens serves to embitter less-favored pupils who rationalize their own conduct in most surprising and circuitous ways, and to embarrass the "good citizen" by making him appear as a favorite of the principal or the faculty.

3. AGENCIES OF DISCIPLINARY GUIDANCE: NEGATIVE

Need of Negative Means. There will always exist the necessity for artificial discouragement of unsocial behavior. There will always be houses of correction and punishment. The mistake that is often made in employing negative means is in making punishment the fundamental program of moral and disciplinary guidance. The correct procedure, of course, is that of getting at the source of conduct by cultivating con-

structively good behavior as the natural activity of pupils, thereby reducing, as far as possible, the necessity for punishment. It is impossible, however, to reach all pupils by the preferred means, and growth in the desired directions will be gradual and slow. It is necessary, therefore, to supplement the regular program with punishments as the second line of defense of order and morals.

Types of Methods of Treatment of Misbehavior. The number of possible punishments is so great that it would be unwise to attempt to enumerate them here. The following are the more important types: personal and group conferences, detention after school, demerit systems, threats and warnings, ineligibility for participation in activities, forced apologies and promises to do better, suspension and expulsion, and corporal punishment.

1. *Personal and Group Conferences.* Conducted properly, the conference may be so employed with individuals and occasionally with groups as to bring to those whose behavior has left much to be desired a perspective from which they may see the significance of their actions in true light, and to make clear and logical to them the reasons for asking that such undesirable and unfair behavior be eliminated. If the conference be personal and managed with that end in view, it may frequently terminate in the development of a more favorable personal relationship, which generates in the pupil a desire to obtain or maintain the respect and good will of the principal.

Group conferences should rarely, if ever, be of the scolding type which serves usually to solidify the group, but should aim to help the individuals of the group to visualize the true meaning of their acts. Properly conducted, such conferences will not give the impression that "the old boy is slopping over" or that he is afraid to punish the group, but will win at least the majority or a considerable group of the offenders to a reasonable view of the matter, thereby reducing the number of those to whom artificial methods will have to be applied, as well as alienating from this minority the moral support of their fellows.

Individual conferences particularly may be employed to discover the real reasons for misbehavior, which will prove very illuminating in guiding the prescription of remedial treatment. It should be remembered that only in a relatively small minority of instances does the pupil fail to feel that his conduct is justifiable, and that in many instances this behavior is the outgrowth of complex causes which are not all on the surface. In order that he may take adequate time to study each case, the principal should discourage the sending of large numbers of pupils to him for correction.

2. *Detention after School.* Detention after school has been abandoned in many high schools and in a number of junior high schools. The pupil detained does not feel that this punishment is much to be feared. It affords him time and occasion to rationalize his conduct and a stimulus to nurse his resentment and dissatisfaction. Yet in many schools it is employed apparently with some success as punishment for minor offenses, and is so managed that the pupil has the feeling of being a good sport in "taking his medicine" as a matter of course. In such schools the "sentencing" member of the staff refrains from displaying any evidences of feeling. When pupils are detained for conference, the device becomes another type of thing entirely.

3. *Threats and Warnings.* A distinction may be made between threats and warnings. The "threat" is essentially a dare to do wrong under fear of serious penalty and is ordinarily a dangerous and foolish weapon, serving to challenge the offender and to widen the gap between him and the principal. It should be employed only when the penalty threatened will be certain, proportional to the offense, and of a serious nature. "Warnings" should be frequently given, not as a display of irritation or impatience, or as a challenge, but as a friendly or matter-of-fact picturing of what the continuance of the offense will lead to and of the penalty to which the pupil renders himself liable. Pupils who apparently fail to see that serious penalties lie ahead of them are entitled to warnings, but these should rarely take the nature of threats.

4. *Forced Apologies.* As an alternative to a more severe punishment, requiring pupils to make apologies even in private (and certainly in public) to a teacher or pupil against whom the offender has transgressed seems clearly an unwise procedure. Being forced to make an apology is more than likely to lead to hypocrisy, to the feeding of fires of resentfulness, antagonism, and vengeance, and to further complications growing out of the manner of the apology. It should be remembered that few pupils consider themselves entirely to blame, and that frequently they are not. Some pupils will regard the apology as an easy way to escape any significant punishment, and the procedure becomes education in hypocrisy.

Of course, if the pupil is brought to see that he has been wrong, has done an injustice, or has been discourteous, a subtle suggestion that he can regain the good will or respect of the instructor by a statement that he is sorry, or that he now sees that he was in the wrong, possesses none of these limitations. If safeguarded from exploitation by deceitful pupils, it can do no harm, and often leads to a marked improvement in the relations between pupil and instructor.

5. *Suspension and Expulsion.* These punishments should be reserved for the most serious offenses or the most chronic and incurable cases. So long as the pupil is not seriously corrupting his companions, dismissal from school should rarely occur. Throwing the erring pupil into a non-school environment, except in such cases as those in which the misbehavior grows directly out of a lack of interest in school, does not contribute to the solution of the problem from the standpoint of the development of the pupil or of the welfare of society as a whole: it merely transfers the problem from the school to a less favorable environment. Almost invariably expulsion from school should occur only after a very careful consideration of the case, after repeated attempts to appeal to the pupil, and after warning parents and consulting with them upon the occasion of at least one previous offense.

Suspension or probation may often be employed as a warning of impending expulsion, a means of calling attention to the

seriousness of the offender's situation. Suspension may be employed to remove an apparently seriously objectionable boy or girl from school during investigation of his or her case. Since it often seems to give the offender desired freedom from attending classes and to cause him to fall behind in his work, it is not always effective, being much less effective for pupils who are not interested in school and who have little intention of graduating than for pupils who expect to receive diplomas.

Because of the seriousness of these penalties they should be invoked only after careful investigation and after establishing clear-cut proof of guilt. Complete records of all suspensions and expulsions should always be kept, giving details of each offense and of the evidence; for such objective records may prove very useful for guidance in the consideration of future offenses or in case action is brought by parents.

6. *Corporal Punishment.* In senior high schools corporal punishment has all but disappeared. The prejudice of people generally against corporal punishment has grown so steadily that whatever may be said in its favor, it is not politic. In addition, with few exceptions it is not effective for older children, since it serves to antagonize not only the pupil punished but other pupils as well, to arouse the "martyr" attitude, and usually to arouse parents to fever heat. It is likely to be more effective in junior high schools, but it is equally undesirable from other points of view. It is becoming more and more out of harmony with the modern spirit of instruction and pupil management. Its chief value at any time is as a warning to other pupils.

When corporal punishment is employed, there are certain precautions which should be carefully observed. The pupil should be proved guilty beyond any reasonable doubt. The charges against him must be serious and proportionate to the punishment. It should be invoked only after repeated failures of more acceptable methods. There should always be at least one adult witness. Care should be taken to confine the punishment to such a form as may not be considered brutal or vengeful, or in any way result in permanent injury. The principal

should familiarize himself with the state laws and with the regulations of the board of education relating to corporal punishment, many of which forbid it or prescribe conditions under which it may be administered. Perhaps the situation where the use of corporal punishment is most excusable is that where the parent suggests or agrees to this type of punishment, probably in lieu of expulsion or long-time suspension.

Treatment of Group Offenses. One of the most perplexing and complicated situations confronting high-school principals is the group offense: the concerted cutting of school by a considerable number of pupils, the pupil strike, or "hard times" or "kid" days, on which all the pupils by arrangement come to school in unusual costumes. The problems of classroom supervision, of accounting for supplies, and other phases of the day's work seem to sink into insignificance in the presence of these situations, which are often poorly managed, resulting in serious consequences to the school and to the principal.

The usual mistake made is to regard such occurrences as a life-and-death challenge to the authority of the principal. In two Oregon high schools in the same week, boys and girls came to school in unconventional costumes. In one they were sent home to change their clothes, were given unexcused absences, and were required to make up the time. Those refusing to make up the time, about 40 pupils in all, were suspended. Public opinion was almost unanimously with the "martyrs." At a public meeting attended by most of the parents and other influential citizens, the pupils appealed to the board of education, which reinstated them. The principal's influence was materially weakened.

In the other school no attention was paid to the costumes except in a few individual cases where the conduct constituted a distraction. These were handled as ordinary individual offenders. They were sent home, and their marks were permitted to suffer as they would ordinarily for absence. At noon only a few of the pupils continued to wear the costumes, the only punishment being the attitude of the faculty, which bordered on contempt. The whole group upon being relatively

unnoticed by the faculty felt much like a group of individuals pulling hard on a rope which has become suddenly unfastened at the other end. Very little school time was lost and no antagonisms resulted. Contrary to the prediction of two or three excited teachers who were all for accepting the challenge, the authority of the principal suffered no undesirable effect.

Ordinarily it is not wise to attempt to punish artificially large groups of pupils especially for such offenses as concerted absence. If they miss school, it is their misfortune as individuals, especially if they have a number of previous unexcused absences. As long as the management of the school has not contributed to such wholesale absences, the responsibility is more that of the parent than that of the school. To attempt to assume the responsibility in the hope of receiving firm support at home is often the mark of courage and optimism rather than of discretion and wisdom.

In the instances in which groups of pupils attempt to dictate, under threat of strikes or other group action, policies or details of administration, they should politely but firmly be told that requests coming under such conditions cannot be considered. Requests not coming as threats or demands should be given adequate consideration, with the benefit of the doubt going to the pupils. It is definitely unwise as well as unjust to punish groups for the offenses of a few.

Summary of Principles Underlying Punishments.[1] Among the more important principles upon which punitive policies and measures should be based are the following:

1. Employ punishments only as a supplementary part of the program, distinctly secondary to the fundamental program of counter-attraction and civic education.
2. Attempt to prevent the necessity of any but the nominal punishment attaching to conferences, by bringing the offending pupil or pupils to see the reasons for the standards which have been violated.
3. Attempt to analyze the causes for offenses, particularly by chronic offenders.

[1]See Chapter XIII for a discussion of criteria by which to judge the value of devices intended to operate as incentives.

4. Appeal always, even in punishments, to the pride of the offender and his desire for the respect of his fellows and teachers as well as to his self-respect.

5. Avoid threats and challenges.

6. Employ warnings merely as counsel or advice.

7. Do not employ punishment except after definite and conclusive proof of guilt.

8. Avoid sarcasm and public humiliation of pupils.

9. Reserve long-time suspension and expulsion for very serious and chronic cases.

10. Avoid the use of corporal punishment; if it is employed, observe certain precautions carefully.

11. Avoid the frequent use of any type of punishment except nominal ones, for example, slight expressions of disapproval or disappointment.

12. Consult parents in cases of major or chronic offenders as a means of aiding diagnosis and obtaining the cooperation of parents.

13. Carefully avoid conflicts with large groups—group punishments and scoldings.

14. At no time in any punishment, verbal or otherwise, reflect directly upon the parents or home training of individual pupils.

4. RELATIONS TO TEACHERS AND PARENTS

Giving Standards to Teachers. One of the important functions of a high-school principal in connection with discipline is to aid members of the staff in obtaining orientation in the philosophy of discipline which will enable them to appreciate the relative importance of the objectives or purposes of discipline. Along with this he should assist them to arrive at practical standards of order consistent with those objectives. He should assist them to think through for themselves the relation and significance of any act or behavior on the part of a pupil to the morale of the school and the growth of the pupil. He should bring them to see the necessity of assisting pupils to become independent and self-directing as well as conforming. He should enable them to free themselves from outworn prejudices and conventions about "order for order's sake" only, and to react to disciplinary situations without emotional exci-

tation or the feeling of combat or of being challenged. He must assist them in looking at discipline from an impersonal point of view.

The means of accomplishing these aims are the usual supervisory agencies: teachers' meetings at which discussions of these points and reports of individuals and committees are made, personal conferences, suggested readings, addresses by speakers, and routine contacts incidental to specific cases of discipline.

Supporting Teachers. Every pupil and every instructor should feel that all the staff stand together on all matters of discipline, and that the principal stands squarely behind the staff in all cases in which the pupil is wrong. The staff and the principal should have uniform standards of discipline. Except in cases of gross injustice the principal should support the teacher in the presence of pupils, even though she may not have used the best judgment. The pupil's confidence in, and respect for, the teacher must be maintained, even though the teacher may come in for some good counsel in private conference with the principal. Teachers who repeatedly bring about this situation should be marked for dismissal or transfer. In cases where there is serious doubt or gross injustice, or where there is at stake something of importance (for example, serious punishment), the principal should attempt to help the teacher to see her mistake and to correct it; failing in this, however, he must see that the pupil is protected from serious injustice. In doing so he should observe every precaution to maintain the prestige of the teacher, even though her attitude in the matter may not be at all pleasing. Justice to the pupil and not reproof of the erring instructor should be the aim.

A few principals of large schools have found it useful to appoint a committee to pass on cases referred to it by the principal for report or appeals by pupils from penalties imposed by instructors, thus insuring to the instructor consideration by his peers and at the same time avoiding the possibility of having her feel or assert that she did not enjoy the deserved support of the principal in matters of discipline. Perhaps in some

schools the plan would reduce the temptation of weak principals to give way under pressure from pupils and parents.

Sending Pupils to the Office. Wide variation exists between different schools in the encouragement given teachers to send disciplinary cases to the office. In some schools, particularly in smaller ones, in which relatively inexperienced younger teachers are employed, it has unfortunately become conventional to send a large percentage of classroom offenders to the office of the principal. The high-school teacher should assume rather full responsibility for discipline in her classroom, and failure to do so should be regarded as an indication of professional weakness. Perhaps the majority of pupils sent to the office are sent there as a result of poor and uninteresting teaching or of poor personality and judgment on the part of the teacher, or of both.

Pupils should be sent to the office for few offenses. All cases of clear and unjustifiable insubordination should be referred to the principal of the school as possibilities for suspension or expulsion. After all other methods have failed, chronic, major offenders should be required to come to some understanding with the principal as to what their future conduct will be. Sending pupils to the office, if practiced to any appreciable extent by a number of teachers, results in putting up to the principal more cases than he can investigate closely enough to warrant harsh measures, even in those cases which merit it. As a consequence he dismisses many of them with a perfunctory admonition, and the prospect of being sent to the office is no longer a deterrent to potential mischief makers. Teachers then complain of the failure of the principal to "do something." Often the pupil sent from the room does not find the principal in his office, and the matter goes no farther. Better practice than sending the pupil from the classroom is that of requiring him to report to the principal at an hour designated for that purpose.

For every pupil referred to the office, the teacher should file with the principal, preferably in writing, a statement of the circumstances of the case. When only an insubordinate and

chronically incorrigible pupil is sent to the principal the visit should be an unpleasant one for him. After verification of the details of the charges made against him the principal should attempt to cause him to see the seriousness of his position and to know what future visits may mean. Repeaters should be dealt with in a manner calculated to get results; for example, by placing the pupil on probation and notifying his parents. Nothing in the foregoing is intended to mean that there should not be a careful study of each case, especially those cases sent to the office for the first time, and an effort made to discover causes of misbehavior. Often the assignment of the pupil to another section and teacher will solve the problem; in case it does not, it will strengthen the case against the offending pupil.

Reporting to Parents. It is unwise to report pupils to their parents for petty offenses except through the medium of citizenship marks on report cards. Parents rightly expect the school to manage all but chronic and serious infractions of conventions and regulations. Parents of pupils in danger of suspension or expulsion should be given ample warning and opportunity to assist in avoiding serious punishments. The approach to parents should always be frank but tactful, indicating a sympathy with young people, and an interest in the welfare of the pupil in question.

Counter complaints or defenses set up by parents should be received diplomatically, in good faith, investigated thoroughly, and reported back to the parents. Not always should the principal support the teacher, right or wrong. To do so is not only unjust but unwise. It results in arousing hostility toward the administration and in encouraging teachers of warm temper, domineering personality, and poor judgment to continue to make serious mistakes. Under no circumstances should such incidents be permitted to tend to appear as being handled in a way to make the principal "solid" with parents at the expense of the instructor or the standards of the school, and as far as is consistent with fair treatment of the pupil and parent the confidence of the parent in the teacher should be maintained.

5. COMMON PRACTICES

Garinger,[1] in his thorough study of the administration of discipline in high schools, involving 312 schools in 46 states, reported that the primitive measures employed most frequently are, in the order of frequency of use, as follows: detention after school, requiring parent to come, sending pupil to office, withdrawal of privileges, reprimand, suspension, special tasks, demanding an apology, forcing pupil to drop course, expulsion, giving of demerits, lowering mark of pupil, imposition of a fine, corporal punishment, group suspension.

He also found the most commonly employed remedial measures to be as follows, in the order of their frequency: persuasion and suggestion, improving health of pupil, adjustment of entire program, frequent reports to parents, probation for pupil, providing of food and clothing, visit to home of pupil, obtaining part-time work, encouragement to join club, recommendation to parents of a change in methods of control, assignment of pupil to one teacher, giving pupil position of responsibility, change in course, change in teacher, placing pupil in discussion group, change of parent attitude through special lecture or bulletin.

Principals tended to feel that the school had some responsibility for the following offenses: smoking when off school premises; breaking training; playing on non-school teams; drinking at school parties, dances; membership in prohibited clubs, fraternities; damaging property on way to and from school; "thumbing" rides; drinking at contests away from school; gambling at school games; profanity at school entertainments.

6. DISCIPLINE AND MENTAL HYGIENE

One of the most unfortunate aspects of the school discipline problem is the insufficient thought given to the effect of disciplinary measures upon the personality of pupils. Out of primi-

[1] Elmer Henry Garinger, *The Administration of Discipline in the High School*, Contributions to Education, No. 686, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

tive practices, particularly when misunderstood or thought not to be deserved by the pupil, the most unfortunate attitudes, somewhat permanent, are known to arise. Teachers and principals are prone to seek "order" at the expense of pupil growth.

The teacher, as well as the principal, needs to be trained to observe such principles as the following:

1. Study the child—his type of temperament; his previous disciplinary history; his interests; his adjustment to school, friends, and home; his home background, including opportunities available there for study and sleep.

2. Adapt the treatment to the child, not to the offense Keep in mind a growing personality and administer to its special needs and status; do not attempt to develop standard treatment of types of pupil behavior.

3. Above all, try to keep the confidence and good will of every pupil. He must believe in you as one who understands, is fair, and is interested in him, and who firmly refuses to be run over.

4. Always remember that not a day, rarely an hour, passes in which one or more pupils do not behave in ways that are displeasing to you. Do not be quick to take offense, self-conscious, or too "observing."

5. Try always, when confronted with a bad or chronic case of misbehavior, to understand why the pupil behaves as he does. Look beneath the surface for causes. Very few pupils are by nature incurable or non-educable.

The goal of intelligent discipline is neither perfect order and respect at all costs, nor the freedom of pupils to do as they please, but the guiding of pupils to do what they should. without too much compulsion and always with a keen eye on the probable long-time effects upon the individual pupil. The goal is rarely attained when pupils are caused to fear or dislike anyone intensely. The school treatment must also be planned in the light of other factors outside the school which are influencing the pupils' behavior. Most important of all is to keep pupils busy doing worth-while things that they like to do. This is both the calories and the vitamins for the nourishment of a healthy personality and good social character.

Problems and Exercises

1. What importance would you attach to developing habits of obedience to authority as an aim of disciplinary training?

2. To what extent is it true that if classroom teaching is of a distinctly superior order, there will be no problems of discipline?

3. Outline the policies you would recommend in instructing teachers about sending pupils to the office in disciplinary situations.

4. What do you think is the probable effect of the development of "school spirit" upon problems of discipline?

5. What advantages and what disadvantages do you see in the practice of the demerit system by which infractions of rules are penalized by deductions from 100 merit points arbitrarily assigned to a pupil at the beginning of each month?

6. For what offenses, if any, would you employ detention after school as a punishment? What do you think of the effectiveness of such punishment?

7. Under what circumstances would you employ corporal punishment? suspension? expulsion?

8. In what way would you revise or supplement the summary of principles underlying punishments as stated by the author?

9. Should the principal always support the teacher against the pupil and parents in matters of discipline?

10. What should be the principal's policy in dealing with the misconduct of pupils on athletic trips, in which the coach is unwilling to take responsibility for punishment?

11. What would you do in case a parent instructed a pupil to refuse to accept a punishment which you believed he deserved; for example, detention after school for cutting a class?

XII

Pupil Participation in Government and Management of the School

1. FIELDS OF ACTIVITY OF PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT AND MANAGEMENT

One of the most marked changes within recent years in the relations of pupil and faculty of secondary schools has been transition from the standardized and absolute control exercised by the principal and faculty to coöperative government and management. The George Junior Republic experiment, a self-governed community of boys, and the great amount of publicity it received in the early part of the century, gave considerable impetus to the movement in the direction of introducing school children to the responsibility of self-government and to participation in government. Between 1910 and 1930 student governments were set up in a great number of high schools and threatened to become the mode. These, however, met with varying degrees of success, few of them proving as fortunate in results as had been anticipated and many culminating in conditions approaching chaos. Yet exceptional is the school today in which pupil coöperation and participation in government and management in some degree do not exist.

Pupil Discipline. Great variation exists between schools in (1) the fields in which pupil control or participation is found and (2) the degree of pupil control or participation as compared with that of faculty government and management.

In the period just following the notable George Junior Republic experiment the tendency to employ pupil government as a disciplinary organization was very marked. In a few schools student government for the direct administration of discipline is still employed in forms similar to those employed in a much larger number of schools a decade or so ago. Pupil sergeants arrest or report offenders in the classroom, halls, or

on the grounds. Courts for the trial of offenders are maintained with pupil officers presiding, and occasionally juries and attorneys for the prosecution and the defense are involved in the plan. Their recommendations are reviewed by the principal or by a committee of the faculty or of instructors and pupils, and with such modifications as are made by the principal or this committee they are carried into execution. Often such recommendations are only advisory and have no official standing.

In but a small and decreasing number of schools is such a degree of responsibility for the administration of disorder intrusted to student police and judicial organizations. More recently the functions of student government have been related less closely to the administration of discipline and more largely to the fields of management of extra-curricular activities and school affairs.

The responsibilities which pupils are permitted to assume, with varying degrees of autonomy and of faculty supervision and coöperation, in secondary schools today include the following:

A. Governmental

1. *Assemblies:* developing the spirit of order; handling cases of discipline.
2. *Study halls:* developing the spirit of order; handling cases of discipline and tardiness.
3. *Libraries:* developing the spirit of order; handling cases of discipline.
4. *Social functions:* developing the spirit of good citizenship; cases of disorder.
5. *Classrooms:* cases of breach of discipline.
6. *Cafeterias or lunch rooms:* policies for order, cases of breakage, etc.
7. *Lockers and locker rooms:* cases of untidiness, damage, etc.
8. *Tardiness:* bringing pressure to bear upon offenders.
9. *Vice defense:* detecting, reporting, and recommending punishment for offenses of gambling, drinking, etc.
10. *Trial courts:* trying offenders and recommending punishment for them.
11. *Grounds and games:* administering rules and regulations.

B. Managerial

1. *Assemblies:* providing programs, presiding, seating arrangement.

2. *Study halls:* attending to bookkeeping incident to pupils' leaving and entering, attendance, etc.

3. *Libraries:* bulletin boards, charging books, working out policies and plans for managing.

4. *Social functions:* plans and details of arranging and managing.

5. *Lockers:* assigning, keys, etc.

6. *Lost-and-found service:* managing bureau, bulletins, etc.

7. *Book exchange:* plant and details of operating, funds, etc.

8. *Tardiness:* recording tardiness and administering excuses and admissions.

9. *Fire and safety:* developing plans, managing drills, etc.

10. *Employment service:* planning and operating bureau.

11. *Supervision of elections:* determining procedures and means of supervision.

12. *Grounds and games:* planning policies and regulations.

13. *Student clubs and organizations:* initiating, governing, managing.

Fields of Student Participation. Sheldon,[1] in his investigation of student participation in 181 four-year senior high schools in Iowa, of which a little less than half had some form of student government, found that student councils are concerned much more with participation in the management of student organizations and much less in government in the sense of discipline, particularly as regards punishment.

The fields of responsibility in which student participation in government was found most frequently are as follows: (1) The most frequently mentioned activities of a managerial type are the planning of assembly programs, the sponsoring of "pep" functions, the planning and managing of social functions, supervising playgrounds, supervising parking, ushering at school functions, sponsoring the school paper, managing ticket sales, sponsoring tournaments, keeping the grounds neat, and acting as traffic officers. (2) The most frequently mentioned of the

[1]James A. Sheldon, "Pupil Participation in School Control in High Schools of Iowa," *School Review* (March, 1935), Vol. XLIII, pp. 189–197.

governmental activities is the supervising of corridors. Another activity frequently mentioned is that of prescribing punishment for offenders. Supervising study halls seems rather generally to be considered a suitable activity. (3) Legislative activities are narrow in range. In some schools the governing board charters school organizations, regulates letter awards, and shares in the determination of eligibility rules for school organizations.

Garinger,[1] in his study of discipline in the high school, reported the following data relative to frequency of practice in medium-sized and larger schools throughout the country:

Table VI. Percentages of the Schools in the Different Groups observing the Practices indicated in Specific Extra-curricular Activities

	Total	Small	Medium	Large
I Students participate in administration	71 8	67 8	68 0	78.0
II. In this participation group students make rules for pupil behavior in				
Classroom	25.0	30.0	23.0	24.0
Corridors	73 0	67 5	75.0	74.0
Toilets	54.0	57.5	59.0	49.0
Playground	47 0	60.0	49.0	39.0
Assembly hall	55 0	62 5	56 0	50.0
Gymnasium	27 0	37.5	26.0	24.0
Cafeteria	47.0	30 0	44.0	58.0
Library	37 0	52 5	37 0	30.0
Study hall	34 0	47.5	32 0	30.0
Bus, streetcar	22 0	15.0	24.0	23.0
Students enforce rules	36.5	35.0	32.0	41.2
Action affects only				
Extra-curricular status	15.6	7.5	14 8	20.6
Curricular status	.9	5 0	0.0	0.0
Both curricular and extra-curricular	20 0	22.5	17.2	20.6
School has student court	25 0	27.5	19.5	29 0

The findings of Sheldon and Garinger in this respect are very similar to those of studies by Ringdahl, Dustin, and Voelker.[2]

[1] Elmer Henry Garinger, *The Administration of Discipline in the High School*, Contributions to Education, No 686, Table XV, p 53, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2] See Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools* (First Edition), Chap. XII. Ginn and Company.

Sheldon reported that the powers and duties of the council or other governing board are determined by the principal in 27 per cent of the schools (larger schools), by the superintendent in 24 per cent (small schools), by a combination of the two in 20 per cent, and by an administrative officer and students in 14 per cent of the schools

Brogue and Jacobson, from a study of the activities of student councils in 361 schools, reported practices as shown in Table IX.[1]

Table VII. Activities of Student Councils and Frequencies of Performance in 361 Secondary Schools

Activity	Frequency
Social affairs	175
Chartering of clubs	123
Proctor duty in halls	108
Collecting and disbursing funds	42
Managing elections	41
Welfare work	37
Sponsoring plays etc	34
Trial of acts of dishonor	31
Making and executing laws	28
Welcoming new students	26
Interscholastic relations	26
Managing athletics	26
Awarding letters and medals	22
Appointment of fire chief	18
Appointment of committees	18
Harmonizing activities	17
Directing honor system	16
Managing the cafeteria	12
Crusading against absence and tardiness	12
Drawing up a budget	11
Promoting school spirit	8
Making rules for letters	6
Keeping a scrapbook	4
Maintaining a scholarship fund	2

[1] Ellen B Brogue and P B Jacobson, *Student Council Handbook*, Bulletin No 89, National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, p 90.

2. VALUES AND LIMITATIONS OF DIFFERENT FORMS OF PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT

Values of Pupil Government. It is often stated that the "citizenship" aim of education can be truly achieved only by "living it." It is claimed that, more often than not, whatever loss in orderliness may result (if, indeed, order is not improved) is more than compensated for by the social training afforded by pupil government. It is difficult to make any reliable or objective comparisons on this score. Dustin reported that of the 57 schools replying to his questionnaire 82 per cent asserted that the pupils have greater respect for teachers in authority. Other benefits mentioned by a majority of the replies as having been realized include: impression upon pupils of the similarity of school and life experiences, better coöperation between the home and the school, and provision for more intelligent majority rule.

Among the values commonly claimed for student government by its proponents which, with careful management by competent and skillful principals and under favorable conditions, should in large measure be realized are the following:

1. Essentially temporary:

a. Provision of a channel through which the principal and the faculty may educate the leaders and the students to civic responsibility and to the ideals and attitudes of good citizenship.

b. Development of feelings of good will, friendliness, and fellowship between pupils and faculty.

c. Reduction of the necessity of supervision and pressure by the faculty, relieving them for more professional duties.

d. Increased happiness of school life for pupils.

e. Improvement in the discipline and moral tone of the school.

f. Removal of the tie that often binds pupils together in unsocial attitudes and conduct in school; namely, the feeling of common oppression by outside force.

2. Essentially permanent:

a. Development of ideals of right conduct, self-control, coöperative efficiency, and fairness.

b. Provision for practice contributing heavily to the development of habits of coöperation, self-control, right thinking, and responding rightly to questions involving civic righteousness.

c. Provision for training in leadership—for learning the means of bringing others to see the right side of civic issues and for acquiring skill in doing so.

d. Preparation of the pupil better to understand and appreciate the necessity for, and the virtues of, fair and ethical coöperation as demanded in adult activities in business life.

e. Development of a sense and appreciation of individual responsibility for the welfare of all group interests.

f. Development of habits of, and skill in, substituting behavior that is socially ethical for individualistic behavior in situations in which the demands of social and civic life conflict with instinctive reactions.

g. Provision of valuable training in situations which are similar to those to be met in later life, and hence much more likely to be effective in influencing conduct in later life than mere information, and even ideals, acquired in classroom or elsewhere, divorced from concrete practical situations in the life and immediate conduct of the pupil.

Dangers and Limitations. However, student government is a potentiality for undesirable elements of training as well as for desirable ones. If student government is unsuccessful, if it results in injustices, partiality, irregularity, or the failure to accomplish order, it is distinctly an educational liability rather than an asset, a liability resulting in the development of non-coöperative attitudes, clannishness, lack of respect for organized self-government, distorted and undesirable ideals of the possibilities of leadership, and other unfortunate educational products.

Sheldon, from his study of student government in Iowa high schools, reported that administrators believed that student participation was successful. The following values were claimed: (1) There is less disciplinary trouble. (2) The attitude of pupils is more favorable. Other values claimed less frequently for pupil participation are that it correlates school and life, crystallizes school opinion, maintains a democracy, and prompts pupils to do work otherwise required of teachers.

The major problems were reported as (1) incompetency of the leaders, (2) lack of pupil interest, (3) too much teacher direction, and (4) lack of faculty coöperation.

Dangers and Limitations of Student Responsibility for Discipline. Pupil government, with responsibilities for the direct discipline of the school, has proved so unsatisfactory in many places that great care should be exercised in making use of it. Pupils often resent discipline by their peers much more than by the staff of the school; parents frequently have even less confidence in its justice and efficacy, and may complicate the situation greatly. Infrequently the faculty or administration of a high school, after having delegated certain of its powers or responsibilities to organized students, find it necessary to reassume them. These instances of "Indian giving" quite regularly result in much more undesirable situations and relations than if no responsibility had been delegated in the first place.

Pupils tend somewhat to settle cases on a personal basis, departing obviously from the uniform treatment of all individuals. Officers are often elected or appointed who for one reason or another function spasmodically or not at all. In some instances groups defeated in elections have refused to submit to their fellow students who were victorious. In the student-government investigation of cases of breach of discipline, great variation is commonly found to exist between the stories of the accused and the accuser.

Even where penalties are administered by the principal or the faculty, the onus of detecting and reporting offenses is not a welcome one and is likely to result in unpleasant feelings between individual pupils if not between groups divided on the question of whether it is ethical to "tell." As a consequence the responsibility for detecting and reporting or recommending for punishment is like that in connection with certain laws toward which the opinions of the people of this country are divided—a responsibility which is not felt by all but rests heavily upon a few, thus insuring a doubtful degree of enforcement and provision for justice.

If student government is employed at all for disciplinary

responsibilities, it should be built upon a foundation of student guaranty of coöperation to insure success. Its charter, verbal or written, should center round the principle that student authority must be in proportion to the ability and willingness of the organization to exercise it effectively. Admission of student government to the control of various phases of the school life should come gradually and as the result of a careful consideration of the best means and time for insuring continued success in the broader field. It should in no sense partake of the nature of a fad and should not be lightly undertaken.

Self-government versus Student Government and Citizenship. Many principals and faculties prefer to attempt to develop, informally and formally, such ideals, conventions, attitudes, and habits as make for self-government rather than to resort to student government. They attempt to place the responsibility for acceptable social behavior of each pupil upon himself rather than upon his representative officers.

As in the case of student government, such a policy necessitates supplementary control by authority. There are always individuals who will not respond. The goal of self-government is to reduce to the lowest possible minimum the necessity for the direct control of the conduct of individuals by other individuals or organizations. Each student is given to feel that until he proves otherwise he is considered capable of governing himself. Students requiring direct control or punishment are brought to feel that they are exceptions, immature and peculiar in their inability to govern themselves without assistance of their elders. Under favorable conditions of self-government they are almost certain to experience the disapproval or mild contempt of their fellows and their instructors. Though the expression of disapproval may be subtle and rarely formally expressed, its influence may easily be underestimated.

Plans for regulating closely the details of the students' conduct are rarely employed. Considerable leeway is allowed for "growth mistakes," which do not in any serious way infringe upon the rights of others. As a part of the self-government plan or policy, study halls or assemblies are sometimes left unsuper-

vised, those who prove to be yet too immature for such freedom being assigned to a supervised study hall.

Supporters of self-government as a better policy than student government point out as analogous that the attempts to enforce the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States and to make automobile traffic safe for riders and pedestrians by means of detection and punishment seem to indicate the necessity for educating the great mass of people to self-government and cultivating standards of social approval, reserving only for the small minority of serious offenders compulsory and legal methods. Whatever important values may be achieved in training for citizenship by student government, it is probable that they are not likely to be so significant as values resulting from methods aimed at the development of ideals and habits of governing oneself according to accepted standards.

Methods of Developing Qualities making for Self-government. McKown[1] describes various devices and procedures which are employed here and there for developing ideals of good citizenship. Among them are the following:

1. The study and adoption of citizenship codes, creeds, and pledges.
2. The election, by their fellows, of outstanding good citizens from among the pupils.
3. The rating of students by representatives of home rooms on the basis of character-rating scales and self-rating devices.
4. Detailed character records and reports kept by the schools.
5. Citizenship awards to individual pupils.
6. Citizenship contests between groups of pupils; for example, divisions of home rooms.
7. Organized courses in ethics and citizenship.

Properly administered, these devices should contribute to such values as the following: determining what constitutes good citizenship, resolving to live up to codes or standards as closely as possible; analyzing one's own merits and deficiencies as a good citizen; and providing artificial incentives for good citi-

[1]H. C. McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*, Chap. XII. The Macmillan Company, New York

zenship. These should be regarded, however, as only supplementary or minor parts of a more comprehensive, continuous campaign to develop in each individual a personal sense of pride in mature, socially acceptable, and ethical behavior.

Student Organizations as "Legislative" in Matters of Discipline rather than "Administrative." Though self-government or self-control is to a considerable extent a function of one's own conscience and sense of what is right and fair and socially efficient, it is influenced in large measure by the opinions of one's fellows. It is important, therefore, that such effort and attention be given to the developing of pupil opinion and sentiment as will place a premium upon right conduct. In this function, which is legislative rather than administrative in nature, coöperation will usually be found very useful.

By means of student councils, committees of the pupils on cafeterias, halls, assemblies, fire drill, extra-curricular activities, social affairs, athletics, clubs, and other representative bodies, exchange of points of view between faculty and students may be provided. This may often be enlightening to the faculty as well as to the pupils, and should be so regarded. In the meetings of these bodies, at which faculty representatives are present either as members of the committees or as sponsors, questions of what are reasonable and desirable standards of conduct in specific school situations, conventions, regulations, privileges, and similar matters may be considered and discussed, bringing into relief all the pertinent considerations and reasons. Decisions of such bodies do not have the appearance of being arbitrary rulings of the "faculty," who "naturally" may not be expected to be in sympathy with or to understand the pupil's point of view. Indeed, they should rarely be rulings of the faculty approved by puppet pupil committees. As long as such bodies seem to be reasonably unbiased and open to conviction on matters brought before them, their sincere reactions should in general prevail, subject to little pressure other than the appeal to reason, fair-mindedness, and the ideal of efficiency, even though their decisions fall somewhat short of the ideal standard.

When convinced of the fairness and reasonableness of rules, restrictions, and standards, such committees constitute a powerful nucleus in converting their fellows; and even if they are not entirely successful, the lines of division are drawn not between faculty and students, but between the leaders and a portion of their constituency. If these leaders are not mere puppets, pupils are much less likely to react unfavorably than in situations where all such decisions come as edicts from the "ruling class"—the faculty.

Though they do not resort to "trials" and direct punishment of offenders, the penal powers of such bodies are not inconsiderable. By exercise of their powers of regulating the conditions under which pupils may enjoy participation in activities and privileges as officers of various organizations, their decisions carry automatic penalties which are the natural consequences of the failure of individual pupils to conform.

3. THE ORGANIZATION OF PUPIL GOVERNMENT

Forms of Organization of Student Participation. As a natural consequence of the differences in the degrees and nature of the responsibilities attached to student government and management which exist among schools, wide variations exist in the types of organizations found. In 130 schools in which students participated, Voelker found the forms of participation to exist in the frequencies shown in the tables on page 299.[1]

In the large majority of schools the student council is the important central unit of pupil organization. Usually all other units are responsible to it, and their organization and powers are determined by it.

A desirable form of organization, similar perhaps to a good majority of student organizations, is given on pages 300–303.

With respect to practices in regard to types of organization of student government, Sheldon reported the following practices in 181 Iowa schools:

[1]E W. Voelker, "The Organization and Functions of Pupil Opinion in High School Control," *School Review*, Vol XXXIV, pp. 654–667.

1. "Does your school provide for student government?" Class A: Yes, 53 schools (57.0 per cent). Class B: Yes, 28 schools (31.8 per cent).

2. "How many years has your school provided for student government?" Of 39 Class A schools answering this question, 19 had had student government for five years or more. Of 27 Class B schools answering the question, 11 had had student government for five years or more.

3. "Do you have a central board or committee in charge of the student self-government activities?" The answer is yes in 70 per cent of the Class A schools and 75 per cent of the Class B schools having student participation.

4. "If you have a central governing board in charge of student-government activities, what is it called?" In 76 per cent of the schools the board is called the "student council."

5. "By whom are the powers and duties of this governing board determined?" In 26 per cent of the schools they are determined by the principal; in 25 per cent, by the superintendent. None of the larger schools and but two of the smaller schools reported that the pupils themselves determined the extent of their participation.

6. "Does the governing board operate under a written constitution?" Only 21 of the 53 Class A schools and 10 of the 28 Class B schools have written constitutions.

7. "Are there any governing qualifications required of the members of the governing board?" Class A: Yes, 91 per cent. Class B: Yes, 89 per cent.

8. "What are the qualifications required of the members of the student governing board?" The three principal qualifications reported are (1) minimum scholastic average, (2) faculty approval, and (3) the earning of some distinction, such as an office in a school organization.

9. "How many members are there on the governing board?" The number ranges from five to thirty-eight; the most common number is between seven and nine.

Student-Body Constitutions. It is an almost uniform practice for student-government organizations to operate according to constitution. The development of a constitution should go far toward bringing about orientation in the proper functions and the objectives of the organization, and therefore constitutes

Table VIII. Number of High Schools permitting Pupil Participation which have Various Forms of Control (Voelker)

Student council	31
Committees	14
Judge and police officials	0
Athletic, social, and literary clubs	13
City government	0
State government	0
Other forms	2
Student council and committees	17
Student council and police	1
Student council and clubs	7
Student council and some other form	2
Committees and clubs	11
Student council, committees, and police	2
Student council, committees, and clubs	13
Student council, committees, and city government	1
Student council, committees, and some other form	2
Student council, police, and clubs	3
Committees, clubs, and state government	1
Committees, clubs, and some other form	1
Student council, committees, police, and clubs	3
Student council, committees, police, and state government	1
Student council, committees, clubs, and some other form	1
Student council, police, clubs, and city government	1
Student council, committees, police, clubs, and city government	2
Student council, committees, police, clubs, city government, and state government	1
Total	130
Number of schools having no pupil participation in school control	22
Grand total	152

Table IX. The Frequency with which Certain Types of Organizations for Pupil Representation in Control exist in Schools studied by Voelker

Form of Control	Number of Schools	Percentage
Student council	88	68
Committees	59	45
Judge and police officials	11	9
Athletic, social, and literary clubs	39	30
City government	5	4
State government	3	2
Other forms	8	6

a valuable exercise in citizenship. The following example, which is reproduced as typical of the better constitutions, is a composite of a number of published documents employed in various high schools, selected by the author as being superior constitutions.

Constitution of the _____ High School

Article I · Name and Purposes

Section 1. Name. The name of this organization shall be the Associated Students of the —— High School.

Section 2. Purposes. The purposes of this organization shall be as follows:

1. To provide unity and cooperation of the pupils and faculty in all the extra-classroom activities of the school.
2. To develop the spirit, ideals, and practice of good citizenship in the school.
3. To provide a means of adequate government and management of all extra-curricular activities.
4. To promote the general welfare of —— High School, its good name and reputation, and its possibilities for the achievement of its purposes.
5. To bring about equality and justice to all pupils, in the benefits and responsibilities of school life.
6. To provide a satisfactory means of carrying on relations with other schools and business relations of the pupil organizations.

Article II · Membership

Section 1. All students, teachers, supervisors, and the principal shall be considered members of this organization.

Article III · Officers

Section 1. The officers of the organization shall be as follows:

1. The general council, composed of

a. One boy and one girl from each class elected by the pupils of that class.

b. Three members elected at large from the student body.

c. Two members of the faculty appointed by the principal.

2. A president, vice president, secretary, and treasurer of the student body elected by and from the members of the council at its first meeting after each annual election. No faculty member shall be eligible to hold office.

3. A faculty adviser appointed by the principal.

Section 2. All officers shall hold office from the time of their election or appointment (which shall take place during the second week in May) until their successors have been elected and certified as qualified as provided for in the by-laws or until disqualified by withdrawing from school or by becoming ineligible as provided in the by-laws.

Section 3. All vacancies shall be filled in the manner prescribed for the office to be filled at the first meeting of the qualified electors.

Article IV · Duties of Officers

Section 1. The president. The president shall (1) preside at all meetings of the council and of the students; (2) call meetings of the student body and of the council at the times specified in Article V and upon call of five members of the council; (3) appoint all committees of the council and of the student body.

Section 2. The vice president The vice president shall preside at all meetings of the council and of the student body when the president is not present and upon request of the president.

Section 3. The secretary. The secretary shall (1) prepare and keep minutes of all meetings of the council and of the student body; (2) sign all papers to which the signature of the secretary is authorized by the by-laws.

Section 4. The treasurer. The treasurer shall (1) keep in trust all moneys of the student-body association and of all organizations which are intrusted to him, (2) keep an accurate account in a manner prescribed by the by-laws of all receipts and expenditures of all funds intrusted to him and render accounts of the same annually as provided in the by-laws.

Section 5. The faculty adviser. The faculty adviser shall (1) attend all meetings of the council and the student body; (2) preside at all such meetings when neither the president nor the vice president is present; (3) upon request, advise the council upon all matters of the association to the best of his ability.

Section 6. The above officers shall also perform all other duties usually discharged by such officers.

Article V · Meetings

Section 1. Meetings shall be held as follows: The student body upon the first Friday of each month that the school is in session, at a time appointed by the principal, and at other times upon call of the principal or five members of the council at such a time as the principal shall designate. The council shall meet on Wednesday of each week at a time appointed by the principal and at other times upon call of the principal or five members of the council.

Section 2. All meetings shall be held in the building of the —— High School.

Article VI · Powers of the Council

Section 1. The council shall have power, by vote of the majority of its members and subject to veto of the principal of the school, to

1. Grant charters to clubs and organizations of the school and to specify conditions for the granting and the withdrawal of the same.
2. Have charge of all financial matters pertaining to extra-curricular activities.
3. Investigate and report on all matters referred to it by the principal, the faculty, or the student body.
4. Make recommendations to the student body on any point thought desirable for the school welfare.
5. Authorize the president to appoint any committees thought desirable for any responsibilities which the council is authorized to exercise.
6. Make and enforce any rules necessary for the betterment of the school and the purposes of the organization, subject to revocation by a vote of two thirds of the members of the associated students.

Article VII · Amendments and By-laws

Section 1. This constitution may be amended as follows:

1. A petition for amendment signed by one fourth of the members of the associated students must be presented to the council. Such petition must state clearly what changes are intended.
2. Upon presentation of such a petition to the council the president must provide for discussion and vote at the first meeting of the associated students held one week or more after the reception of the petition.

Section 2. Any by-laws not conflicting with the constitution as may be determined by the principal may be passed by two thirds of the associated students or by a majority vote of both the council and the associated students.

The Introduction of Student Government. Whereas certain phases of student government may be introduced rather directly, in general it should grow out of a sincere desire for responsibility upon the part of the pupils; and responsibility should be transferred gradually and only after careful advance preparation. The organization of classes, clubs, or of a certain student-body organization which would, within limitations of the general policies of the school, transact pertinent business and be largely self-governing, is safely undertaken without much prefatory training, though guidance may be necessary in the earlier stages; but if responsibility for conduct, for enforcing rules, and for awarding punishments is involved, a more cautious policy is wise.

Responsibility for maintaining the standards of conduct in a school, or even for such duties as are typical of student councils, may be wisely assumed by pupils only after considerable preparatory ground has been covered. They should be made ready by being induced to give such consideration to the matter as will enable them to see clearly what is involved and what their responsibilities really will be. The most successful examples of student government have been those in which the pupil organizations have been allotted responsibility gradually and in proportion to their demonstrated ability to discharge it satisfactorily. Added responsibilities have come at the desire of the pupils to widen their scope of self-direction and have been granted only as tentative arrangements, subject to readjustment in case results do not justify a continuance of the arrangement.

To thrust powers of self-government upon any pupil organization by some means more abrupt than through evolutionary progress is to violate the lessons learned from the history of sudden changes from autocratic to democratic government,

and to invite failure, anarchy, and the necessity for a dictatorship of the faculty. The unfortunate experiences of many schools bear out the wisdom of the conservative procedure. In many other schools the time and effort taken to stimulate pupils to grow normally to the concepts, orientation, and attitudes which form a secure foundation for democratic government have been justified.

Sound policy means the gradual transfer of responsibility. It also means a careful study of the implications and possible consequences of a shift in responsibility. The latter is often the natural result of the careful study by pupils and their committees, together with faculty representatives, of the desirability of enlarging the scope of student government and the possible schemes for putting it into functioning and effective practice.

Student Codes. In many schools students have developed and adopted codes of good citizenship in school. The code adopted by the National Association of Student Officers in 1938 is as follows:[1]

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

[1] J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, p. 215. The Macmillan Company.

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 everyone in my home, my school, my community, my country and the world

There seem to be certain essential principles for the successful establishment and operation of pupil participation in government and management. They are well stated by Dustin:[1]

(1) The principal must be thoroughly in sympathy with the idea.

(2) There must be a demand for the plan from the pupils.

(3) Pupils and faculty must have a clear understanding of the plan, its scope and limitations. A distinction between co-operation and control of the school must be understood by the pupils and faculty.

(4) The procedure in development should be slow, the pupils being prepared for each successive step

(5) The attitude of the faculty should be one of sympathy.

(6) Faculty advisers should be carefully selected.

(7) A carefully defined constitution, providing the right basis for the selection of pupil representatives, should be adopted.

(8) It is necessary to create within the student body an atmosphere of confidence in the school council

(9) Very close guidance and advice should be provided.

(10) The pupils should be given something definite to do. . . .

(11) There must be constant cordial co-operation and constructive criticism on the part of the entire faculty.

[1]L. V. Koos and others, *Administering the Secondary School*, pp. 170–171. The American Book Company.

4. MINOR FORMS OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT

In addition to the forms of central organization of student government and its various branches, there exist in many schools certain special forms of organization for the control of student behavior in certain limited aspects of school life, usually somewhat related to the question of discipline. These frequently exist as separate units from the general student organization, though sometimes as a part of it.

Most prominent among such responsibilities assigned to pupils are these:

1. School traffic officers to regulate traffic at street intersections near the school at periods in the day when pupils cross streets at these places in large numbers.
2. School guides, to conduct visitors through the building.
3. Assistant librarians to serve in the libraries sometimes with and sometimes without the presence of a faculty librarian.
4. Study-hall presidents to preside over study halls, taking attendance, attending to traffic permits, and maintaining a morale appropriate to study conditions.
5. Fire patrols and chief to supervise fire drills and to man fire hose.
6. Assistants in the cafeteria to guide traffic, to discuss infractions of good manners with offenders, etc.
7. Traffic directors in loading school busses and in conducting school excursions.

Usually in those schools in which students are given these responsibilities, they carry on their duties under the direction of the principal or other members of the staff, who stand ready to step into the breach in all cases of questioned authority or of flagrant lack of coöperation. In small schools in which central student organizations exist they are under the general charge of the council and the local sponsors.

Student Government of Study Halls. In a number of schools, among which are the Central High School and the East Technical High School of Cleveland, Ohio, and the Walla Walla (Washington) High School, concerning whose plans of organization and operation articles have been published, student organizations have taken over the responsibilities of promot-

ing good study conditions in the study halls. In some of these schools pupils are assigned to the student-governed study hall on the understanding that they will coöperate in the project; continued failure to do so results in the student's assignment to a room in charge of a teacher, a room referred to at Walla Walla as the "pest room." Student monitors are elected by local units; for example, by the different rows of pupils in the hall, who endeavor to influence the pupils in their units to live up to good citizenship in the hall. "Fresh-air," "light," "seating," and other committees are appointed by the head monitor or the study-hall president for designated duties. Competition between units is sometimes utilized as an incentive to good citizenship.

In the Central High School at Cleveland the head of the organization is the teacher in charge, who delegates to his pupil assistants practically all his managerial duties. The assistants have complete charge of preserving good study conditions, referring to the teacher only those cases where punishment is necessary. One assistant designated as the clerk, assisted by the monitors or proctors, handles all attendance records, reports, and admission slips. He acts as director of the proctors, and may dismiss any one of them if he finds it necessary to do so in order to secure effective management. In this school there are no "teacher-governed" study halls.

As in the case of study halls in which pupils do not participate in management or government, standards of conduct and standard procedures should be agreed upon and made uniform in all halls. To do otherwise is certain to result in confusion on the part of pupils, who will fail to make adequate adjustments to the differences between different study halls.

In the Harrison, New York, High School, honor study halls have been employed since 1934, as described below.[1]

. . . Being a member of honor study hall is considered one of the signal achievements of the school, and as a result there is a definite desire on the part of pupils to be accepted as a member of one of these

[1]Louis M. Klein, "Experiment in Honor Study Halls," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. XIX, p. 28.

study groups. Enrollment in honor study halls varies from a minimum of eighteen pupils to a maximum of twenty-six.

The success of our honor study halls is demonstrated by the fact that only four persons have been dropped from these study groups in the three years of their existence for violating the agreement they voluntarily signed. A pupil who desires to become a member applies to the student council for an application blank, on which are stated certain conditions, with which he must comply if he is accepted. These conditions are as follows:

1. Membership in an honor study hall is entirely voluntary on my part; I may ask to be returned to a regularly supervised study hall at any time. This request must be made to the student council.

2. Membership in an honor study hall requires from me respect for and observance of the following rules and regulations: (*a*) individual work, (*b*) no conversation, (*c*) movement about the room only as is necessary and then quietly, and (*d*) coöperation with any student council member in taking attendance, giving pass slips, etc.

When a pupil has been a member in good standing for one semester in an honor study hall that fact is placed on his permanent record card. Failure to comply with the foregoing requirements makes him liable to dismissal from an honor study hall. Such dismissal is regarded as a disciplinary offense, and a record of the fact becomes a part of his permanent record.

By agreement, honor study hall may be discontinued at any time by the principal.

Student Government of the Library and Other Special Places of School Life. Similar organization for participation in library service has been found useful. Pupil assistants who may be appointed from those interested in library work are assigned to various types of responsibilities, such as cataloguing, charging books lent out and returned, caring for bulletin board and other publicity, and maintaining order, as in the study halls, carrying on these responsibilities under the direction of the school librarian. Student coöperation may also be used to advantage in the forming of fire patrols and traffic patrols and as guides or "knights" to assist as ushers, in conducting patrons through the building, and in entertaining visiting students from other schools.

Summary. Students of educational theory and the administration of schools appreciate the possibilities for practical training in citizenship, leadership, and personality, resulting from student participation in government and management of their own conduct and group enterprises, and recognize that such training has peculiar value, superior to that likely to accrue from the conventional studies of the regular curriculum.

Early types of pupil government, in which a large share in the responsibility for administration of discipline in junior and senior high school was given over to pupil organizations, have given way, after varying degrees of failure, to other relationships better adapted to the psychology of high-school students. The more recent and more successful types of participation involve (1) pupil management, with faculty coöperation, through sponsors of student affairs and extra-classroom activities; (2) pupil and faculty coöperation in determining standards and conventions and school policies relative to administering student affairs. Self-government as a means of promoting civic development has demonstrated points of strength and lack of serious weaknesses as compared with either close formal student supervision of conduct or faculty supervision.

Experience in such ventures has resulted in a very general adoption of a central representative student organization—the student council—with various powers for the management of pupil activities and coöperation with the faculty in forming pupil opinion.

Successful ventures in localized pupil assistance in the control and management of study halls, library, and lunch rooms have given indications of possibilities for valuable training in citizenship.

Problems and Exercises

1. Do you believe that student government should be restricted to managerial responsibilities? Give reasons for your belief.

2. State in which of the following you believe:

a. Student government in matters of discipline.

b. Complete faculty government.

c. Coöperative pupil-faculty government.

Give reasons for your choice.

3. To each of the lists of "temporary" and "permanent" values of student government add one other value, and select one value which you would strike from the list.

4. What are the principal reasons for the frequent failure of student government?

5. From the devices suggested by McKown for developing qualities making for self-government select the one which you think most practical and effective and plan in detail how you would carry it into effect.

6. What responsibilities do you believe may be best given over to student government?

7. Work out a plan for the personnel of a student council.

8. Work out a plan of organization for student government of study halls, of the lunch rooms, or of the library.

9. Make a list of suggestions applying to the introduction of student government or student participation in government.

10. Can you think of a number of steps which might be practical in developing in pupils as individuals habits and ideals of self-government?

XIII

Problems of Administration Related to Instruction—Stimulating and Directing Pupils' Study

1. INCENTIVES TO SCHOLARSHIP AND CRITERIA FOR JUDGING INCENTIVES

Certain phases of the problems of stimulating scholarship are problems of the school as a whole and involve related administrative procedures. Methods of stimulating scholarship which belong in this category are almost exclusively artificial methods—rewards and punishments artificially attached to achievement or the lack of it. It is therefore perhaps wise at the outset to state that devices and procedures of this nature should be considered distinctly secondary and supplementary to those which appeal to the pupil's immediate or intrinsic interest in, and to the sense of need for, the outcomes likely to result from his application to learning activities. Medals, honor lists, and other types of artificial incentives should in no way be thought of as reducing in the slightest degree the desirability of teaching procedures which in themselves contribute, as suggested above, to the improvement of scholarship.

Types of Incentives to Scholarship. The various artificial devices for improving scholarship may be classified as negative or positive. Usually, however, the negative and the positive are simply two aspects of the same device. Yet one may be emphasized to the relative obscurity of the other. For example, posting a list of honor pupils emphasizes the positive aspect of the device, which also has its negative aspect, namely, the disappointment at not being included in such a list. Posting a list of those in danger of failure emphasizes the negative aspect, though it also operates in a positive way to bring satisfaction to those whose names do not appear.

Among the various devices employed by schools at least partly for their supposed influence on scholarship are the following:

1. Marks on report cards.
2. Medals, prizes, or other material awards to individuals on the basis of scholarship alone or in combination with citizenship, participation in activities, or other items.
3. Honor rolls of names of pupils published periodically in a local paper, in the school paper, or posted on a bulletin board or announced in assembly or roll room.
4. Eligibility rules for interscholastic competitions and restriction of participation in other extra-curricular activities on the basis of scholarship.
5. Exemptions from examinations.
6. Graduation honors, for example, as valedictorian or salutatorian; graduation *cum laude* or *magna cum laude*.
7. Roll-room, class, or other group honors, for example, cups, banners, or other awards for the class making the highest average mark for the semester or the year.
8. Membership in honor societies similar to the National Honor Society.
9. Credit toward graduation according to the quality of the work done.

It will be worth while to look into the merits and effects of certain of these and to examine the criteria by which we may judge the merits of incentives.

Criteria for Evaluating Such Devices. The relative value of any device intended as an incentive to action—study, good behavior, or other type of response—may be judged by observing the following criteria:

1. *Strength.* The degree of appeal the device possesses to those persons to whom it appeals; for example, fear of failure is a much more powerful stimulus with young people than the desire to render service to mankind.
2. *Universality.* The extent to which the device will appeal to all pupils for whom it is intended; for example, marks appeal to many more pupils than the offering of a gold medal to the one best pupil.
3. *By-products.* The desirability of the concomitant educational effects upon pupils; for example, to arouse jealousies, dislike of

teacher on the part of less able pupils, and the falsely high value placed upon the attainment of honors as compared with that accorded to interest in the subject matter and subject-matter values.

Application of the Criteria. It is because of the fact that many types of school devices commonly employed do not scale high on the two latter criteria that they are of questionable value. Medals or other honors attainable by one pupil or by a definite and small number of pupils do not appeal to more than the upper 10 or 20 per cent of high-school pupils. Fear of failure does not influence many high-school pupils, since all but a few are reasonably certain of passing. The possibility of graduation honors does not appeal to many pupils, though a few may work diligently in an effort to win them. Almost any type of incentive which gives publicity to distinctions between individuals is likely to generate bad social attitudes and to give pupils an unfortunate perspective of the relative value of the study for its natural values and interests on the one hand and its value as a means of winning distinction or avoiding humiliation on the other.

There are few formal school devices or combinations of devices for stimulating scholarship which meet all three standards sufficiently to warrant much enthusiasm for them. In schools in which superior and interested teachers are to be found in the classrooms these devices add little if anything to the net educational improvement of pupils. Perhaps the chief contribution of such devices is the satisfaction experienced by members of the faculty at seeing bright and industrious pupils officially rewarded and apparently lazy pupils punished.

Evidence that the relative lack of value possessed by such devices is becoming recognized may be seen in the facts that the custom of selecting valedictorians and salutatorians has been abandoned in a great many schools, that honor lists and medals are employed much less frequently than formerly, that less stress is being put upon marks, and that in general less attention is being paid to singling out individuals for artificial rewards or punishments on the basis of scholarship.

Administrative Considerations. In addition to the criteria mentioned above, and—though usually of less consequence—often of very considerable importance, are the administrative inconveniences or difficulties involved in the use of artificial incentives. Prominent among such considerations is the possibility of creating undesirable attitudes on the part of patrons owing to the invidious distinctions which are frequently brought into relief by such methods, and which give rise to the suspicion, if not the conviction, that the awards have been determined inaccurately or on a political basis, and to rationalization that occasionally leads disappointed parents to attempt to discredit the awards if not the entire administration. The smaller the community, the greater is the possibility that such developments may be of significance. Of less importance, but not to be ignored, are the time and energy spent in administering these devices, in calculating records and averages, in discussing candidates in committee meetings, in preparing lists, and in similar activities.

Limitations of Artificial Stimuli. There seems to be a growing tendency to place less and less emphasis upon artificial incentives. The following quotations[1] present very admirably certain limitations of such incentives to learning:

> Our experience on this whole question of stimulation is that all artificial stimuli applied result in pushing those who do not need this incentive into undesirable effort, while those who may and do need stimulation are harmed rather than helped.[2]

> I asked our high-school principals last Friday what they thought about schemes for stimulating scholarship. Their opinion, on the whole, is that methods of artificial stimulation of enthusiasm are really valueless, the only real and useful stimulus being highly gifted teachers.[3]

> As far as experience goes—and we have been watching the thing pretty carefully for many years—the usual stimulus of honor socie-

[1] "Prizes Fail to Improve Scholarship," *Cleveland School Topics*, November 7, 1927.

[2] B. G. Shackelford, director of school and community relations, St. Louis public schools

[3] E. L. Miller, assistant superintendent of the Detroit public schools

ties, awards of merit, honor rolls, etc. simply spur on those who need no spurring. . . . The effect of such devices upon those of lower degree of ability is either negligible or objectionable. . . . We need to do less thinking about how to stimulate interest by artificial means and more thinking about arousing an interest on the part of pupils which will cause them to make achievement its own reward.[1]

However expedient artificial incentives to study may be or seem to be, the real effect of their use almost invariably includes distorting the learner's scale of relative values and more often than not they serve to hinder rather than to accelerate the development of interest in the subject of study itself. The sharp distinctions resulting from their use often contribute to condition a dislike for the subject in the minds of some pupils and an unbecoming attitude of superiority in others.

State Scholarship Contests. A comparatively new type of device for stimulating scholarship is the state-wide contest or academic meet—promoted by institutions of higher education, by state departments of education, or by coöperation between an institution and a department—which has been gaining ground rapidly within the last decade. Such contests in some form or other exist in approximately 30 states. The plan employed at the University of Iowa is perhaps typical of the more recently and completely developed plans. Elimination contests are first held in the local high school, and from these representatives are sent to participate in district contests. The winners of these district contests are then qualified to enter the state finals held at the university. Objective examinations are employed as the basis for comparisons. Prizes, in the way of cups, plaques, and other souvenirs, are awarded in the assembly following the meet.

Among the values attributed to these contests by their sponsors are the following:

1. Scholastic attainment is given a place of importance comparable with extra-curricular activities in the minds of the pupils and the public.

[1]George Wheeler, assistant superintendent of schools at Philadelphia.

2. A very desirable type of school publicity is afforded by which general community interest in the work of the school is stimulated.

3. More thorough teaching is stimulated. Teachers are desirous of having their pupils make a good showing in the contests.

4. Standards are provided by which teachers may judge what should be expected of their pupils and by which they may compare the progress of their pupils with that of pupils of other schools.

5. Teachers are brought into contact with standard and modern objective types of tests.

6. Pupils are brought into contact with institutions of higher learning.

Limitations of Scholarship Contests. Not all the effects of state or sectional contests between selected representatives of schools or classes are desirable. A very serious objection may be seen in the premium placed upon objectives and methods of teaching which are of such a nature as will permit ready objective testing. Without doubt one effect of such contests is to obstruct the progress that secondary schools are making toward reducing the extreme and unfortunate overemphasis heretofore placed on information[1] and other strictly intellectual outcomes of teaching to the neglect of important outcomes which play a large part in determining qualities of citizenship, worthy home membership, leisure and culture, moral development, and health; namely, ideals, attitudes, interests, and habits. Without such contests teachers are prone to concentrate on temporary learning of names, dates, places, and other detached facts, subject-matter laws, rules, and principles—the easily taught and easily measurable outcomes. They need no further encouragement to neglect the more subtle yet more important types of outcomes.

Such contests (as may be exemplified in state contests in typewriting and debating) result very generally in an intensified coaching of the few abler pupils who will represent the school, often to the neglect of their other studies by these pupils and the neglect of the other pupils by the instructors. In addition, as with all such artificial stimuli, they serve to

[1]See Hughes Mearns, "Salvation by Information," *North American Review*, December, 1929

lead pupils and teachers to substitute winning in such contests for the real objectives.

"Every Pupil" Contests. If contests are to be employed in promoting scholarship, then, from many points of view, contests in which all members of the classes concerned participate are to be preferred, as in the University of Iowa academic meet, to those in which only "teams" or representatives take part. More pupils are motivated, the "hothouse" forcing of a few pupils to the neglect of the rest of the class is much less likely to result, and inequalities between larger and smaller schools are lessened. The interclass efficiency contest, such as that described by Cook in the reference given at the end of the chapter, is employed to advantage in a number of schools not only for stimulating scholarship but also for improving attendance, citizenship, and extra-curricular activities. When standings in scholarship are based on marks rather than upon objective examinations, there is less overemphasis placed upon informational outcomes of instruction.

2. THE HONOR SOCIETY

Of very much the same type as honor rolls, and subject to some of the same limitations as other artificial incentives, are the various kinds of honor organizations to membership in which the pupils of best scholarship are elected. The hope of attainment to these distinctions is so small for those of average or less than average ability that such organizations exert little or no influence upon them with respect to their application to study. Beneficial effects of such organizations upon scholarship include the increasing of the prestige and dignity of scholarship and citizenship in the minds of the pupils and the community through the publicity which they are certain to receive from time to time and the challenge to abler pupils to "make" the society.

Types of Honor Societies. There are at least half a dozen different honor societies, chapters of which exist in a number of different schools. Among them are the following:

Electing to membership on the basis of scholarship alone:

The Cum Laude Society
The Pro Merito Society

Electing to membership on scholarship and other qualities, such as leadership, citizenship, or all-round abilities:

The Arista
The Marcelleans
The National Honor Society
The Junior National Honor Society

With the exception of the National Honor Society and the Junior National Honor Society, none of these organizations are represented in a very large number of schools. There are chapters of the National Honor Society in over 1000 high schools, with nearly 60,000 members.

The National Honor Society. The National Honor Society is a project of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association. Membership in it is limited to 15 per cent of the graduating class. Members may be elected not to exceed 10 per cent of the low Twelfth Grade and 5 per cent of the high Eleventh Grade. To be elected to membership, a pupil must rank in the upper third of his class in scholarship. A key is presented to be worn by members.

Various schemes are employed in different schools for the selection of prospective members of the society. The quotation given below is from the report of a committee appointed by the National Council of the society to report on methods of selecting members:

I. The principal submits, either to the entire faculty or to a faculty committee, an alphabetical list of seniors comprising the highest 33 per cent of the class in scholarship rank. In case a school uses a letter scheme of grading, it is well to use a weighted value as follows: 5 for Grade A; 4 for Grade B; 3 for Grade C; 2 for Grade D; etc.

II. Usually the executive committee of the local honor society defines for the faculty or faculty committee the meaning in their school of service, leadership, and character. The following definitions are suggested:

1. *Service* is interpreted to mean

a. A willingness to render cheerfully and enthusiastically any service to the school whenever called upon.

b. A willingness to do thoroughly any assigned service in school procedure or student government, such as acting as proctor, citizenship committeeman, or serving voluntarily on the staff of the school publication, etc.

c. A readiness to show courtesy to visitors by acting as guide, selling tickets, looking after concessions, acting as big brother or sister to underclassmen, or assisting students behind in their work.

d. A willingness to offer oneself as a representative of his class or school in interclass or interscholastic competition.

e. A willingness to uphold scholarship and maintain a loyal school attitude.

f. A willingness to render any other worth-while service to the school, or through the school to the community

2. *Leadership* is interpreted to mean

a. Demonstrating a degree of initiative in the classroom activities which leads to higher scholarship for all.

b. Showing initiative in prompting any high-school activities.

c. Successfully holding school offices, committee chairmanships, and other positions of responsibility.

d. Contributing ideas which may be incorporated in the civic life of the school.

e. Exerting a type of leadership which actively and wholesomely influences toward fine leadership.

3. A student may gain recognition in *character*

a. By meeting his individual obligations to the school promptly and completely.

b. By demonstrating an honest spirit in his class work and a spirit of cordiality and sincerity toward his teachers and student associates.

c. By actively helping to rid the school of bad influences or environment.

d. By upholding the ideals of the Christian organizations of the school whenever occasion affords opportunity.

e. By constantly demonstrating such qualities of personality, honesty, reliability, promptness, achievement, and morality as are indispensable to the finest young manhood and womanhood.

Constitution of the National Honor Society. Perhaps no better summary of the purposes and organization of the society can be given than the national constitution.

Constitution of the National Honor Society

Article I · Name and Purpose

Section 1. The name of this organization shall be the National Honor Society of Secondary Schools.

Section 2. The purpose of this organization shall be to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service, to promote leadership, and to develop character in the students of American secondary schools.

Article II · General Control

Section 1. The general control of this organization shall be vested in a national council.

Section 2. The National Council shall consist of nine members elected by the National Association of Secondary School Principals. The secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals shall be a member, ex-officio.

Section 3. The nine elective members shall be chosen for a term of three years, three being chosen annually. Immediately after the first election they shall be divided into three classes for the one-, two-, and three-year terms.

Section 4. Five members shall constitute a quorum of the National Council.

Section 5. The National Council shall each year nominate three members to be elected by the National Association of Secondary School Principals to succeed those whose terms expire.

Article III · Local Organizations

Section 1. These organizations shall consist of chapters in the secondary schools of the United States, supported by public taxation or endowment, with standards equal to those accredited by such agencies

as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, etc.

Section 2. Each chapter, before its admission to the National Honor Society, shall have its organization approved by the National Council.

Section 3. Each chapter shall, for continued membership, conform to all rules made by the National Council.

Article IV · Emblem

Section 1. This organization shall have an appropriate emblem, selected by the National Council, and this emblem shall be uniform throughout the United States

Section 2. This emblem shall be patented

Section 3. The distribution of the emblem shall be under the exclusive control of the National Council.

Article V · Dues

Section 1. Each chapter of this organization shall contribute whatever amount may be assessed by the National Council, not to exceed five dollars ($5) annually.

Article VI · Membership

Section 1. Members of chapters shall be known as active and graduate.

Section 2. Membership in any chapters shall be based on scholarship, service, leadership, and character.

Section 3. Candidates eligible to membership in a chapter of this organization shall have a scholarship rank in the first third of their respective classes.

Section 4. To be eligible for membership the student must have spent at least one year in the secondary school electing such student.

Section 5. Not more than 15 per cent of any senior or graduating class shall be elected to membership in a chapter.

Section 6. The election of not more than 5 per cent of the 11A class may take place during the last month of the sixth semester. The election of not more than 10 per cent may take place before the end of the seventh semester. The remainder may be chosen during the eighth or last semester before graduation.

Article IX · Faculty Supervision

Section 1. All meetings shall be open meetings and shall be held under the direction of the principal or of some member of the faculty selected by him.

Section 2. The activities of the chapter shall be subject to the approval of the principal.

Article X · Executive Committee

Section 1. The executive committee shall consist of the officers of the chapter and the faculty sponsor.

Section 2. The executive committee shall have general charge of the meetings and business affairs of the chapter, but any action on the part of the executive committee shall be subject to review by the chapter.

Article XI · Amendments

Section 1. This constitution may be amended at any meeting of the National Council, or by mail by an affirmative vote of seven members.

The National Junior Honor Society. In response to a persistent demand for recognition by members of the National Honor Society of scholarship in grades 9 and 10 of high schools and to a desire for a similar society in junior high schools the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, under whose auspices the National Honor Society had been fostered for a number of years, formulated and adopted a plan for the organization of a junior honor society with chapters in both junior and four-year high schools. The constitution for the National Junior Honor Society is very similar to that for the senior schools as given on

preceding pages. The objectives, as stated in the constitution, are almost identical.

3. MARKS AND CREDITS AS INCENTIVES

Since the earliest secondary schools in this country, marks have been used as incentives, as likewise have credits toward graduation and college entrance, though the intrinsic purpose of each was something else. Marks were originally for the purpose of informing the parent of the quality of the student's learning in a subject, and credits were originally intended as a unit of recording educational achievement.

While no doubt the use of marks and credits has served to stimulate efforts of students who otherwise would have applied themselves less diligently, they have tended to become substitutes for more educationally sound types of motivation. By reason of their appeal to deep-seated mainsprings of human action,—the desire to excel and to appear well,—marks and credits have been effective in one sense as incentives. They have, however, tended to replace, with many teachers and in many schools, such appeals as recognition of the value of learning and interest in the learning activities themselves.

Reenforced by misinterpretation of the theory of formal discipline, marks, as rewards or punishments, have operated to relieve teachers of incentives to become good teachers. If the teacher fails and some pupils, therefore, fail to learn, the pupil receives a bad mark or loses his unit of credit. With better teachers and in better schools, pupils are motivated by the desire to grow, to learn, to achieve, and by the interest in learning activities. Clear-thinking supervisors and administrators are making less use of marks. Much less is made of them in report cards, in honor rolls, in post-lists, in determining eligibility for student activities, and in other areas. Marks are discussed less and thought of less. Teachers are discouraged from mentioning them in class, and are encouraged to make their courses of study and methods of teaching more obviously practical, more applicable to life and to pupil interests.

These tendencies are being accelerated with the increased attention to the concomitant effects, or by-products, of teaching and to mental hygiene. Fear of bad marks constitutes a source of worry which makes many pupils dislike schooling and teachers, quarrel with their parents, lose confidence in teachers and parents, develop nervous, digestive, and skin disorders, and develop lack of confidence in themselves. On the whole, if overemphasized, their harmful effects more than offset their values.

Methods of deflating marks and other artificial awards are various. In some schools, marks and report cards are not used at all—probably an unwise extreme. In others, marks include qualities of citizenship, industry, and personality—another doubtful approach. In others, marks are reported to pupil and parents in the form of statements which, in addition to rating the pupil, offer suggestions for improvement. In others, the conventional marks and reports are still employed, but pupils and parents are encouraged not to take them seriously.

In the majority of schools the old plan of having valedictorians and salutatorians at graduating exercises has been dropped, though in its place there has developed the practice of awarding honors, medals, and prizes. In some schools the number of these awards is so great that they have no longer much meaning except to the students and the parents of the students who receive no awards and who, as a consequence, take little satisfaction in what should be a time of rejoicing for all.

Weighted Credits for Quality. A more substantial type of reward for scholarship, employed in some schools, is the awarding of credits toward graduation on the basis of marks received. In some high schools and some colleges credit is awarded according to the quality of work done on some such basis as the following:

Mark	Percentage of Normal Credit	Mark	Percentage of Normal Credit
1 or 95–100	1.2	5 or 75–79	.9
2 or 90–94	1.1	6 or 70–74	.8
3 or 85–89	1.0	1 or below 70	.0
4 or 80–84	1.0		

In some schools the scheme employed since 1908 at the University of Missouri is used. This is briefly as follows:

E, usually given to the upper 5 per cent of pupils .	1.30 × normal credit
S, usually given to the next 20 per cent of pupils .	1.15 × normal credit
M, usually given to the middle 50 per cent of pupils . . .	Normal credit
I, usually given to the next 20 per cent of pupils .	0.85 × normal credit
F. usually given to the lowest 5 per cent of pupils	No credit

In others no extra credit is given for superior work, but honor points are awarded on some such basis as the following:

A, distinctly superior achievement	4 honor points
B, superior achievement	3 honor points
C, average achievement	2 honor points
D, inferior but passing achievement	1 honor point
E, failure	no honor points

Honor points are frequently used as a basis for awarding honors or privileges or for determining the degree to which students may participate in activities. In a few schools a defined number of honor points are made prerequisite to graduation.

Limitations of Weighted Credit. Plans for giving "credit for quality" suffer two limitations: (1) they add materially to the labor and complexity of the bookkeeping incidental to the records of credits; (2) they permit the graduation of bright pupils from high school with fewer units of credit than are required for college entrance.

The first objection should not be of great weight. Efforts are, without question, exerted in the promotion of scholarship by other means that yield smaller returns for the amount of time and energy expended. The amount of accounting incidental to the use of the plan may be reduced by refining the percentages of credit no further than to the first decimal place.

With regard to the second objection, it must be conceded that the incentive for bright pupils is somewhat reduced in its effectiveness by the fact that bright pupils intending to enter college cannot safely reduce the number of units necessary for graduation more than the difference between the number of

units required for college entrance and the number required for graduation—usually amounting to but one unit. Even so, use of the plan may permit bright pupils to complete a four-year high-school course with fifteen units in three or three and a half years, thus bringing about a reduction of the time spent in the elementary and secondary schools by students going to college—an end to be desired if sufficient pupils are affected. This objection is inherent not in the plan, but in the college-entrance requirements. In those colleges and universities where such plans are employed no such limitation exists. At the University of Missouri slightly less than one student in ten graduates in seven semesters, and about one in three requires nine or more semesters. Less than one per cent of those graduated are able to complete their course in six semesters or less.

The honor-point system is simpler of operation and does not suffer the complication relative to college-entrance credits. On the other hand, it offers little incentive to the abler pupils. It operates to discourage some inferior pupils from graduation and to require others to carry extra subjects or to remain in school longer than the normal time. It is hard to say to what extent either of these is desirable.

Opinions of Teachers and Administrators regarding Weighted Credit. Although little objective evidence has been offered by which the relative merit of the "credit for quality" plan may be judged, the principals and faculties in the schools in which the plan is employed are almost unanimous in their judgment that greater interest in scholarship is stimulated.

In describing the operation and effects of the weighted credit in the Lincoln High School, Wible states that, excepting the influence of parental approval, seventeen hundred pupils of the schools considered weighted credit as the most effective incentive to scholarship, honor rolls and senior prizes being far in the rear. From a study of marks just before and just after introducing weighted credit and from other related studies Miss Wible concludes that "several methods of measurement indicate that weighted credit is more effective in promoting scholarship than is the elimination of fraternities, introduction

of directed study, honor roll, senior prizes, eligibility requirements, competition, and other factors." Thirteen per cent of the pupils were able to complete high school in less than four years, and those of this group who went on to college made scholastic records considerably above the average. Two thirds of the pupils preferred weighted credits.

4. SUPERVISING PUPILS' STUDY AND TEACHING HOW TO STUDY

Teaching in secondary schools in this country is undergoing a steady departure from the traditional method of daily assignment and recitation characteristic of teaching a quarter of a century ago. These changes, which are well along in their development, grew largely out of the recognition (1) of the need for attention to the variation in capacities to learn existing among pupils in the same class, and the increasing degrees of such differences resulting from the tendency for larger percentages of boys and girls to go on to high school; (2) of the futility of home study, increasing with the increasing high-school enrollments and with the increasing opportunities for enjoyment of the evening in ways other than study; and (3) of the importance for training pupils in initiative and skill in methods of study and thinking. For a quarter of a century secondary-school teachers in a steadily increasing number have been employing some form of supervised study.

Many of the more recent developments in teaching theory and practice have originated as special types or modifications of earlier attempts to provide adequate guidance and training in study through supervision of pupils' study. Earlier plans for supervised study commonly involved a double period or a lengthened period, divided into approximately equal divisions, the first of which was given over to recitation and the second to assignment and recitation. In a great many schools this plan has not proved as desirable as had been anticipated. Instructors seemed unwilling or unable to confine recitation to the first half of the period, and this resulted in the use of the

lengthened period for more recitation at the expense of the time formerly available to the pupil for study. To train pupils to use the "supervised study" time in the study of the appropriate subject proved a perpetual and discouraging struggle. Teachers seemed not to know or to learn rapidly how to train pupils in effective methods of study during the available period, and it was difficult to adapt daily assignments to varying amounts of time left for study during the class period.

The S-R Sequence of Supervised Study. Experimentation seems to show that when the divided period is employed for supervised study, the S-R sequence, in which the first part of the hour is employed for supervised study, operates (1) to restrict the trespassing of recitation upon time intended for study, (2) to produce on the part of the pupil a much keener interest and a more aggressive attack on the lesson, and (3) to decrease materially the difficulty involved in seeing that pupils utilize the time in the study of the appropriate subject. Controlled experimentation seems to show that in content subjects, such as the social sciences and literature, the use of the S-R sequence yields superior results as measured by the progress of the pupils, and that there is little difference as far as the study of mathematics is concerned.[1]

Larger Units of Learning. The tendency to employ larger units of learning is evident in the Dalton contract (monthly unit), the project, the so-called Morrison, or "teaching-cycle," unit, and the Wisconsin High School "challenge." Where any of these plans are employed, daily recitation as such disappears. The cycle of assignment, study, and recitation covers from three or four days to several weeks, depending on the unit. From one to three days may be spent in what would correspond to assignment in the old plan: in introducing the students to the new unit; in laying out, coöperatively or otherwise, the learning activities involved in the new contract, project, or unit; and in presenting or teaching materials which

[1] *The Relative Effectiveness of Two Sequences in Supervised Study*, University of Oregon Publications, Vol I, No. 4. Abstract in *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol XVIII, pp. 239–245.

the pupil should know before beginning his study. The pupil's study of the unit, including the supervised study, may then be distributed over a number of days, possibly several weeks, with occasional group conferences, testings, or teaching periods of a few minutes to full periods in length. After this a period or several daily periods are given over to recitation or "checking up" in the form of oral or written reports, exhibition and explanation of projects, oral discussions, written tests, or cooperative evaluation.

In a few schools alternate days are given to supervised study and to recitation, conferences, and assignment. The plan has at least the advantages that it reduces the amount of time given to recitation and guarantees to the pupil at least half his class periods for supervised study.

Length of Period. Though the lengthened period, usually 60 minutes gross, is not necessary for various forms of supervised study (especially if large unit assignments are employed), it is very desirable, and its use has become more and more general. Where the period has been lengthened to 55 minutes or more, it has become conventional to discontinue the use of double periods for science laboratories, typewriting, bookkeeping, household and industrial arts, and fine arts, though in many schools one or two extra practice periods are provided for typing and shop subjects.

For most schools little increase in costs results from the introduction of the lengthened period. The load in the number of classes assigned to most teachers is usually decreased, but a larger number may be assigned to those whose classes involve but one period daily under the new plan as compared to two daily with the shorter period. In addition, because of the opportunity for individual contacts in the supervised study period it is probable that larger classes may be taught with more than equal effectiveness.

Also, because of the disappearance of double-period classes it is ordinarily no more difficult to make a schedule on the basis of a six-period day than with double-period classes on the basis of an eight-period day.

Training Pupils in Methods of Study. Many principals have found it profitable to assist in training pupils in habits and methods of study by one or more of the following means:

1. Preparing lists of study helps.
2. Requiring students to prepare study schedules.
3. Requesting parents to examine and approve pupil's study schedules, particularly the study hours scheduled for home study.

Lists of Study Helps. The following list of study helps is illustrative of those employed in training pupils in effective habits of study.

Suggestions for Effective Study

1. Make out a schedule for study, assigning the study of each subject to some definite hour in the day, and cultivate the habit of studying by schedule.
2. At the beginning of the study of a new unit or assignment, study closely the instructions given by the teacher, noting what is desired and what has been suggested as especially important.
3. As a safeguard against forgetting, write down in your notebook the assignment, taking full notes on both required or suggested tasks and suggestions on how to study the material. If illustrative examples are given, copy these.
4. Before launching into the study of a lesson determine what materials will be needed—reference books, paper, notebooks, writing materials, ruler, etc.—and have these at hand.
5. Form the habits of using the index of a book freely, of studying maps, and of looking up the meaning and pronunciation of difficult words.
6. Form the habit of beginning study with energy. Don't "dawdle" or "fiddle around."
7. Concentrate on the work at hand and don't permit your mind to wander. Resolve to master each lesson. Don't put off parts of the lesson because they appear unattractive.
8. In studying reading matter observe the following "efficiency" rules:

a. Read through quickly once to get the general thread

b. Read through again, trying to "react" in some way to everything read by agreeing, disagreeing, comparing with something else,

thinking up applications or the full meaning, outlining, taking notes, or rewriting, perhaps in condensed form.

c. Stop occasionally to see how well you can recall the more important points. Writing them down from memory or with as little help as possible from the book is a good plan.

d. Talk over the materials read with someone and take notes for question in class on points not understood.

9. Do not quit until you feel that you have *mastered* the assignment and are fully prepared.

10. In preparing your work emphasize those points which you believe the instructor thinks of most value and which are likely to be emphasized in class discussions

11. If you accept help from anyone be sure that you understand the subject in which you have been helped so well that you could master without help similar difficulties (which you are almost certain to meet).

12. In memorizing

a. Be sure that you understand the material thoroughly before you start to memorize.

b. Repeat the material only with complete concentration, using the book less and less as you are able to repeat without it.

c. Learn by large units, practicing on lines or short paragraphs only to fill in weak places.

d. When a period of a few hours has elapsed after you have "memorized" the material, see if you can recall it; bolster up the weak spots.

Such study lists may be distributed to the pupils in assemblies or roll-room groups with explanation and discussion, or through the medium of student handbooks, or through both avenues. They may be distributed through the teaching staff. Each instructor may modify the suggestions to fit his subject and may supplement it with additional suggestions peculiar to that subject.

Study Schedules. The use of a form for study schedules prepared and distributed to each pupil soon after the opening of the semester is thought by many principals to be well worth the effort required. After these forms have been filled in and

have received the approval and signature of the parent, they should be returned by the pupil to the principal or the group adviser for approval. The pupil schedules the preparation of some subject or subjects for each class period during which he has no class or laboratory, and he also indicates on his schedule what hours he will spend in home study. The study schedules are ordinarily not collected from the pupils until two or three weeks after the beginning of the semester, allowing them that time to experiment and to orient themselves before finally formulating their study schedules.

Study Halls and Supervised Study. The conventional study hall, while not emphasizing supervision of pupil study, is, nevertheless, related to the effectiveness of pupil study and may be modified so as to provide conditions for supervised study. In small schools the library and the study hall should be combined, thereby facilitating the use of the library by pupils and eliminating the necessity of employing simultaneously the services of two staff members for supervision which may satisfactorily be done by one. Study-hall groups may well be larger than instructional groups, as many as from 100 to 150 being easily accommodated in many schools.

Experience has shown that even in small study halls it is not wise for teachers in charge to assist or attempt to direct the study of pupils not in their own classes. In large schools special-subject study halls may be provided. A plan put in operation in the Hammond (Indiana) High School calls for five study halls equipped with departmental libraries: one each for English, science, foreign languages, and mathematics, and one for history, social studies, and commercial subjects. Each pupil is assigned to these library study halls for regular study in at least two subjects. Strong teachers from each department are given charge of these study libraries for two or more consecutive periods. These teachers are in close touch with the study problems and habits of the pupils under their direction and coöperate with the classroom teachers in stimulating pupils to improve their work.

Under the leadership of the principal uniform rules, con-

ventions, and standards should be formulated for the management of study halls. Uniform procedure so arrived at is not only likely to be superior to that developed by each teacher on his or her own initiative, but the very fact of uniformity assists the pupil to learn quickly what is expected of him, avoids the confusion likely to result when teachers employ different standards or conventional procedures, and eliminates undesirable comparisons of different study-hall teachers by pupils.

Below are given a few rules and conventions illustrative of the details upon which agreement and standard practice are desirable:

1. The study-hall period begins at the same time that classes begin for that period, and pupils late to study hall will bring admission slips from the office just as when they are late to class.
2. Absences from the study hall are regarded and treated as are absences from class.
3. Pupils leaving the study hall will obtain a traffic slip signed by the teacher in charge showing time of leaving the hall and the time of returning (a number of these should be signed in advance by the study-hall instructor, ready for use by pupils).
4. The standard of behavior in study halls is "good working conditions." Every member of each study-hall group is expected to use the period for study and to make it possible for others to work without distraction.

Study-hall teachers often attempt to agree on the details of what constitutes distractions; for example, noisy passage to and from seats, conversation other than very brief exchanges, and humming, but the general standard should be kept in mind rather than the detailed interpretations.

Many beginning teachers, and occasionally an older one, will profit from some supervision in connection with their management of the study hall. Often they tend to perpetuate practices which were born of a spirit quite dissimilar to that obtaining in the better schools today. Some are prone to take officious note of all petty and inconsequential infractions of conventions, some of which may have little relation to the work

atmosphere of the study hall. Some employ public reprimands of a caustic nature, which are in the long run more likely to constitute rather than prevent distraction. Others seem helpless—lack standards or confidence in their judgment or ability to cope with disorder. A few conferences and a visit or two to study rooms conducted by more skillful teachers may be of great help to such teachers.

Student coöperation in the management of study rooms and suggestions for making use of the assistance of pupils are discussed in Chapter XII.

Training Pupils to use the Library. The extent to which high-school pupils use the library depends to a large extent upon the nature of the assignments made and the interest otherwise aroused by members of the instructional staff, but supplementary instruction and training in the use of the library are of practical service. In many schools lessons on its use are given either as a part of the instruction in English or as a part of the guidance program. The time given to such training varies from a few periods to as much as eighteen lessons or more. On the following pages are given outlines for eighteen lessons on the library and its use, which were developed by a teacher-librarian in a small six-year high school. They were used for a number of years in that school without substantial revision and were believed to have resulted in much greater and more effective use of the library.

A Course in Library Use for Ninth Grade as Given in University of Oregon High School[1]

LESSON I

1. Introductory talk on libraries in general.

   a. Reasons for using books. *b.* The kind of books necessary to make a library useful.

2. The general arrangement of the library.

   a. Charging desk. *b.* Card catalogue. *c.* Books on one subject

[1]Gertrude Sears, "A Course in Library Use for Ninth Grade as Given in University High School," *The High School* (December, 1928), Vol. VI, pp 49–50.

placed together. (No explanation of classification here.) *d.* Reserves. *e.* Magazines. *f.* Picture collections and pamphlets. *g.* General reference books.

3. Comparison of school and public libraries.
4. Method of handling books.

a. Borrowing and returning of general and reserve books. *b.* Overdues. *c.* Fines.

5. General hints on using the library.

a. Reasons for rules. *b.* Why one should know how to find material himself

LESSON II

1. History of the book.
2. The physical make-up of the book. (An old book dissected is necessary to make this lesson clear.)
3. Care of the book

a. Opening. *b.* Marking place. *c.* Rough handling. *d.* Effects of moisture and heat. *e.* Cleanliness. *f.* Replacement (loss of time, expense).

LESSON III. STUDY OF A BOOK

1. Parts. (All pupils have the same textbook for this study.)

a. Frontispiece. *b.* Title page. *c.* Preface. *d.* Table of contents. *e.* List of illustrations. *f.* Introduction. *g.* Body. *h.* Appendix. *i.* Index. *j.* Bibliography. (Examine other texts for these parts.)

LESSON IV. STUDY OF A BOOK (CONT.)

1. Comparison of table of contents and index.
2. How to judge a book without reading it. (Each student gives a report on some book he has examined, but not read.)

LESSON V. ARRANGEMENT OF BOOKS ON THE SHELVES

1. Explanation of the Dewey Decimal System of Classification. (Each student should have a mimeographed copy of a brief outline of the ten classes. These outlines may be purchased at the rate of two hundred for twenty cents.)
2. More definite explanation of the classes most commonly used in the ninth-year work.

3. Explanation of class and author number (known as the call number).

4. Explanation of call number on book and on book card corresponding. (When the book is out of the library, it is represented by its book card in the charging tray.)

Lesson VI. Cataloguing

1. Explanation of various methods.
2. The card catalogue.

a. As an index to the library. *b.* Kinds of cards made for each book (depend on number used in the library). *c.* Arrangement of cards in the trays, with guides. *d.* Questions that one can answer by using the card catalogue. *e.* Connect with lesson on classification.

Lesson VII. Reference Materials

1. Unabridged dictionaries.

2. Comparison of ones in library in arrangement, completeness, date of publication, thumb index, guide words, divided page, addenda.

Lesson VIII. Unabridged Dictionaries

1. What one may find out about a word: spelling, pronunciation, definition, part of speech, capitalization, etc.

2. Other things to be found: phrases, biographical information, noted names in fiction, foreign words and phrases, etc.

Lesson IX. Encyclopedias (General)

1. Examination of ones in the library in scope, date of publication, arrangement, length of articles, reliability, signed articles, cross references, methods of keeping up to date.

2. Look up one topic in all the encyclopedias and compare in interest and comprehensiveness

Lesson X. Atlases, Directories, Gazetteers

1. Scope.
2. Key for using.
3. Most reliable ones.

Lesson XI. Yearbooks

1. World Almanac.

   a. General idea of contents and arrangement. *b.* Index.

2. Other yearbooks

   a. Daily News Almanac. *b* American Yearbook. *c.* New International Yearbook. *d.* Statesman's Year-Book.

Lesson XII Oregon Blue Book

1. Scope.
2. Arrangement
3. Where and when published
4. How obtained by schools

Lesson XIII. Who's Who in America

1. Scope.
2. Arrangement.
3. Abbreviations.
4. Comparison with Who's Who.

Lesson XIV. Special Indexes

1. Index to Poetry, Edith Granger.

   a. Key. *b* Arrangement: author, title, first line. *c.* How to use.

Lesson XV. Index to Quotations

1. Kinds: Bartlett, Familiar Quotations; Hoyt, Cyclopedia of Practical Quotations, Powers, Handy Dictionary of Quotations.
2. Index.
3. Arrangement.

Lesson XVI. Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature

1. Key.
2. Arrangement.
3. Value.
4. How published.

LESSON XVII. MAGAZINES

1. Kinds: literary, current news, general. Classify ones taken by library.

LESSON XVIII

1. Note-taking.

   a. When. *b.* How.

2. Bibliography.

   a. Purpose. *b.* How to make.

3. Robert's Rules of Order.

   a. Purpose.

4. Debate material

   a. Where obtained. *b* How to use.

Problems and Exercises

1. What are the arguments for and against the practice of exempting from examinations pupils whose class average is A or B or above 90? Do you believe in such exemptions?

2. What are the arguments for and against graduation honors? honor rolls?

3. In what way, if any, is the National Honor Society different from any other artificial incentive to scholarship?

4. Discuss and evaluate state scholastic contests. Do you believe that they are advisable? Can you give any suggestions for conducting such contests?

5. What would happen if pupils were not told their marks, all pupils were automatically promoted, and reliance for motivation were placed in the satisfaction of achievement, skillful teaching, and the pupils' interest in or feeling of need for the subject?

6. Apply the critèria for judging incentives to the National Honor Society.

7. What is the case for "credit for quality" and the arguments against it?

8. Would it be wise to offer two types of diplomas—one with college recommendation awarded pupils passing sixteen year units with

thoroughness and another without college recommendation for those who have spent four years in high school with reasonable application to four subjects each year?

9. Obtain the program of a small high school with periods of from 40 to 45 minutes and compute what percentage of increase in teaching would be represented by introducing supervised study with periods of 60 minutes gross each.

10. Explain how you would make use of study schedules, if at all, in improving study habits among high-school pupils.

11. Explain why the large-unit plan of supervised study will be likely to be more effective than the daily sequence or unit.

12. Make a list of the ten most important items of information or skill in connection with the use of the school library in which formal instruction should be given to high-school pupils.

XIV

Problems of Administration Related to Instruction: Ability Grouping and Prevention of Failure

1. ABILITY GROUPING

Though we are not yet able to pronounce judgment with any scientific assurance on the question of the relative results obtained by grouping pupils on the basis of ability for the purpose of better adapting instruction to the ability of the individual student, the available experimental data tend to show that grouping yields somewhat better results, though the superiority is not uniform or pronounced. It is difficult to prophesy to what extent grouping will prove superior when there are discovered better criteria for determining what pupils should be assigned to each group and better techniques of using criteria, and when teachers and supervisors have developed in practice a more adequate adaptation of materials and methods of instruction to the different groups. Under these conditions it seems fairly certain that grouping will be found desirable.

Criteria for Grouping. The criteria used most frequently for assigning pupils to groups in both elementary and high schools are, in the approximate order of frequency of use,

1. Scores on mental tests or mental age calculated from such scores.
2. Teachers' estimates of intelligence.
3. Teachers' marks.
4. Intelligence quotients.
5. Teachers' estimates of industry.
6. Scores in standard achievement tests.
7. Scores in prognosis tests.

If one believes that "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," the best basis for judging such criteria is the degree of

correlation between the criteria and the marks on final-achievement tests of the pupils.

Though there is considerable variability in the size of the coefficients measuring relationship between the same pairs of variables, it would appear that in relative validity the most useful types of criteria rank in the following order:

1. Special prognostic test.
2. School marks and teachers' estimates of ability.
3. Mental ages and I. Q.'s.

Investigation also indicates that (1) average marks in all subjects may be predicted more accurately than marks in one subject and that (2) combinations of two or three different types of criteria are more valid than any one; but that little is gained by increasing the number of criteria to more than three.

Mental Ages or I. Q.'s. Many do not distinguish between mental-test scores, mental ages, and intelligence quotients in using mental tests for grouping. Whereas mental ages and mental-test scores are approximately directly proportional, greater mental age always going with greater test scores, this cannot be said of mental ages and I. Q.'s, the former being a measure of mental maturity and the latter of brightness, and the two are proportional only when the chronological ages of the pupils are the same. For example, consider two children, one thirteen years of age and the other fifteen. Though both have a mental age of fourteen, the younger pupil has an I. Q. of 108, and the older an I. Q. of 93. In grouping, therefore, it is desirable to consider both I. Q. and M. A. If but one is to be used, it should probably be mental age.

Composite Scores. When two or more criteria are employed in grouping, it is convenient to combine the criteria scores or marks into a composite score. One cannot, however, add mental ages, I. Q.'s, and school marks. There are two methods by which composite scores may be calculated. One of these consists in converting criteria scores into standard scores, standard deviation scores, "T" scores, or some similar type of comparable units—and then adding or averaging these scores

and assigning weights if that is desired. The other method consists in converting the scores, I. Q.'s, or marks into ranks or percentile ranks and then adding or averaging the resulting rank indices. The first method is more accurate, but requires some training in statistical techniques beyond that generally possessed by high-school administrators; the second, though less precise, is very simple, particularly if ranks rather than percentile ranks are used, as may be seen from the following summary of a procedure which is very serviceable.

1. Determine the rank of each pupil among those to be grouped on each criterion to be included in the composite score, for example, I. Q., average mark, and teacher's rating. If two or more pupils have equal scores, assign as the rank of each pupil the quotient obtained by dividing the total of the ranks to which these pupils as a group are entitled by the number of such pupils; for example, the sum of 3, 4, and 5, for three pupils tied for third place, by 3.
2. Add or average the ranks so obtained.

For reasons apparent to those trained in statistical method, the averaging of ranks introduces errors which may in a few instances prove serious. The averages of standard scores are much to be preferred. A standard score is readily computed, being the quotient of the difference between the individual's score and the average score of the entire group and the standard deviation of the scores of the entire group; that is, standard score = (score − mean) ÷ standard deviation. The calculation of the standard deviation is very simple, and is described in any book on elementary statistical methods.

When prognostic-test scores are not available, a very reliable composite criterion may be obtained from the average rank in mental age, intelligence quotient, and average school mark of the previous year, weighting the rank in average school mark by multiplying it by 2, adding in the other two ranks, and dividing by 4. If it is desired to group in one subject only or in each subject separately, the average rank in mental age, intelligence quotient, average of all marks made during the previous year or semester, and the mark made in the subject

concerned furnishes a superior criterion for grouping. If the results of a prognostic test are available, as is desirable, these should be substituted for one of the other factors or added in as a fifth factor.

Supplementary Factors. The social-economic status of the parent, the health of the pupil, the amount of outside work or activities, and the number of subjects carried tend to influence the quality of work that may be expected. Ordinarily the first of these four factors is positively correlated with intelligence and adds but little to it in predictive value. To measure and classify economic status is also rather difficult. Attempts to do so are usually on the basis of the father's occupation. Activities and outside work in moderate amounts have little effect upon the quality of work. Pupils in poor health should not be encouraged to extend themselves too greatly. These factors should be employed only to decide border-line cases.

Grouping by Subject. Grouping separately by subject is almost certain to result in more homogeneous grouping than using the same criteria for all subjects. This is especially true if prognostic tests are available. Grouping for all subjects on the same data, however, facilitates schedule-making and is employed in many schools for that reason. It should be obvious, though, that if there is to be flexibility in grouping so that a student may be reclassified as his ability and effort justify, it is impractical to classify the pupil alike for all subjects, since in one or more of these he may do markedly better work or poorer work than in others.

Flexibility in Grouping. If at all possible within the limitations of scheduling, students should be grouped and scheduled so as to permit reclassification when that seems advisable. Not only do groups prove to be less homogeneous than desired and does reclassification of some pupils prove necessary, but when reclassification is not provided for, there is removed the incentive to work stimulated by the possibility of gaining or losing in classification.

No amount of evidence or set of criteria is sufficiently reliable to prevent considerable misplacement. Let us consider a

situation in which the correlation between the combined criteria and marks is as high as .72, a reasonable figure to expect if grouping has been well done; and let us assume that this coefficient of correlation when corrected for unreliability in teachers' final marks is .80. If, then, pupils are classified into three groups, bright, normal, and slow, on the basis of these criteria correlating with ability to the extent of 80 per cent, the percentage of pupils properly placed will be close to 66 per cent, those misplaced by one level 33 per cent, and those misplaced by two levels 1 per cent. On the same basis the corresponding figures for a corrected coefficient of .60 are 54 per cent, 41 per cent, and 5 per cent respectively. The percentage of misplacements is almost certain to vary between 30 per cent and 50 per cent, and it is clear that there will be need for reclassification even though the percentage of misplacements be closer to 30 per cent than to 50 per cent.

The Number and Relative Size of Sections. It should be obvious that attempts to classify pupils with distinctions finer than those involved in threefold groupings are hardly warranted, the available criteria being no more valid than is indicated in the preceding paragraphs, to say nothing of the difficulty in adapting courses of study to more than three levels.

The abilities involved in doing school work well, including industry and effort, are "normally" distributed. In other words, there are many pupils slightly above or below average, and far fewer distinctly superior or inferior. Therefore there should be many more pupils placed in the middle group than in the slow group or in the ablest group. Since the slower pupils demand per individual more time from the instructor, sections of slower pupils should be smaller than those of normal or of brighter pupils, perhaps not exceeding eighteen or twenty pupils. It would be a practical procedure to place from 12 per cent to 15 per cent of the pupils in the slow sections, from 20 per cent to 25 per cent in the bright sections, and the remainder in normal sections. If, of course, these percentages result in slow or bright sections too small to be economical, these sections should be filled out by increasing the percentages

allotted to these divisions until sections of sufficient numbers are obtained.

In many small schools and in others preferring not to group by sections, a somewhat similar result is secured by breaking up a section into three groups, one being a small number, preferably from five to ten, of slow pupils, another of corresponding size of brighter pupils, and the other of all the other pupils. Though such a plan facilitates ready reclassification and does not involve as marked distinctions, it is, nevertheless, classification. It also makes additional demands upon the instructor, since it requires the planning of three levels of work for every section taught. In addition, it does not permit the assigning of teachers especially adapted to slow or bright pupils exclusively. On the other hand, it operates to simplify problems arising from the failure of teachers to keep an adequate perspective in the matter of assigning marks.

Marking with Grouping. Pupils should not feel certain of receiving any given mark because of membership in any one type of section, nor should the better or poorer pupils in a slow section be assigned the same mark as the better or poorer pupils in a normal or abler section. One of the best devices as yet proposed to meet the difficulty of marking when grouping is employed is the use of a subscript to denote the level upon which the mark was earned When this is done, the marks assigned to any section may be distributed as in any other section of other levels. Equivalents may be worked out empirically or experimentally, such as $A_2 = B_1$, $A_3 = B_2 = C_1$, and $B_3 = C_2$, meaning that an A in a normal section may be regarded as equivalent to a B in the advanced section, and that an A in the slow section, a B in the normal section, and a C in the advanced section are equivalent, as are B in the slow section and C in the normal section.

A reasonable proposal has been made by a number of principals that instead of classifying all credits made in slow sections as not "college-recommending" units, all credits in which marks equivalent to C_2, that is, D_1 and B_3 or higher, are made be regarded as indicating a sufficiently high character of

work to warrant recommending that unit for acceptance toward college entrance.

Pupils who have not been able to earn college-recommending classification should, with rare exceptions, be restricted from choosing a second semester in elective studies in which there is considerable continuity, such as algebra, geometry, or any foreign language, even though that practice involves giving semester credits in those subjects.

Grouping merely a Plan of Organization. It seems quite clear in the light of results of informal and of controlled experimentation that superior results may be obtained from homogeneous grouping only when adequate and effective adaptation of instruction accompanies grouping. Grouping should be regarded as an administrative device which will facilitate the adaptation of instructional materials and methods to pupils of different levels of ability. It is a plan of sectioning which involves careful attention and much time. It is attended with several obvious dangers incident to any procedure which involves classifying pupils on the basis of mental abilities. If after grouping has been provided an adaptation of materials and methods is not effectively worked out, the procedure has been distinctly a liability rather than an asset.

Grouping should be employed only in those schools in which not only intelligent and careful attention is given to the technical phases of grouping but also in which the instructional force is both competent and willing to modify courses of study and methods of teaching to suit the needs and abilities of the different groups.

2. PREVENTION OF FAILURE

The rapid spread of the concept of universal secondary education to school people generally has, along with the results of elimination studies, served to focus attention upon means of preventing elimination and its close associate and chief cause, failure or retardation. Within the last twenty years almost a hundred articles dealing with the reduction of the number of

failures in high school have appeared in national journals of education. Many times that number include material or procedures relating to the prevention of failure. Scores of theses of graduate students have dealt with the problem.

Attempts to discover causes of failure have not been very successful. Reasons assigned by pupils or by teachers are not sufficiently valid. Pupils do not know with exactness why they fail, nor do their teachers. Failure is most likely to come about from a combination of causes, not all of which are associated with failure by the pupils. They, even more than adults, are prone to rationalize, even deceiving themselves to a great extent. Teachers' opinions are probably of no greater validity than those of pupils. But from all the investigations of all sorts it would seem that the principal causes of failure, somewhat in the order of their importance and the number of pupils affected, are as follows:

1. The subject is beyond the intelligence of the pupil.
2. Lack of interest and lack of appreciation of the value of subject.
3. Poor quality of teaching—failure to interest the child.
4. Poor quality of teaching—failure to understand the difficulties of the child.
5. Outside interests and activities, including work and social activities.
6. Marking standards of teachers.
7. Lack of good study conditions at home.
8. Lack of adequate previous preparation in subject.
9. Lack of good study techniques and of vocabulary-building habits.
10. Lack of reading skills and habits.
11. Teacher-pupil difficulties—poor personal equation.
12. Distractions—worry, daydreaming, etc.

The highest number of failures occurs in mathematics and foreign languages, and the smallest number in industrial and household arts and in business subjects. It is most probable that these facts are attributable to five causes:

1. It is very difficult for most students to believe that algebra, geometry, Latin, and modern languages are very important in the

lives of men and women. They see few people making any actual use of these subjects.

2. These subjects are decidedly verbal and abstract and require a higher degree of verbal intelligence.

3. These subjects have undergone least adaptation to the changes in the secondary-school population, its abilities and interests.

4. In industrial and household arts every pupil can achieve something worth while. There is very little necessary logical sequence.

5. In most business subjects progress is largely on an individual basis. Many pupils may be slow, but few fail to achieve considerable progress.

It should be apparent that the prevention of failure cuts across the whole field of teaching—teaching, management, guidance, supervision, measurement, etc. One thing is clear: if failures are to be reduced materially, not only must class teaching as such be improved, but it must be individualized. As a basis for this, teachers must have an abundance of data concerning each pupil.

Among the means for reducing the number of failures may be mentioned the following:

1. Better teaching.
2. Adaptation of content and methods of courses to lower levels of ability.
3. Segregation of failure prospects, that is, homogeneous grouping and careful individual attention.
4. Diagnosis and remedial teaching.
5. Educational guidance in enrollment.
6. Case studies of extra-classroom factors.
7. Personal conference.
8. Training in methods of study.
9. More careful supervision and guidance of advisers.
10. Change of teacher.
11. Close coöperation between school and parent.
12. Supervision and improvement of the marking by teachers.
13. Eligibility rules and similar incentives.
14. Placing pupils on probation or dropping them from regular high school.
15. Improvement of attendance.

It is obvious that to attempt to discuss all these causes would quickly carry us far beyond the scope of this volume, into methods of teaching, tests and measurements, supervision of health, and other fields. In other chapters of this volume discussions and suggestions appear related to a number of these approaches to the question. We must confine the discussion here largely to topics not treated in other sections of the volume.

Supervision of Teachers' Marks. One of the first places to which investigation should be directed in instances of more than ordinary proportions of failure is the use made of the marking system by the teachers concerned. It has been shown in numerous studies that the percentages of failing marks assigned by different teachers in the same school and in the same subjects in different schools contain variations so great as to lie beyond all possibility of the existence of a corresponding variation in the abilities of the different groups of pupils.

Careful supervision of the marks assigned by teachers may often reduce materially the number of failing pupils by causing instructors to adapt either the marks or the instruction until a more reasonable number of pupils are able to earn passing marks.

Adaptation of Courses to the Lower Levels of Ability. There is very likely much truth in the criticism that high-school courses of study and standards have not been readapted to take cognizance of the greatly increased percentage of pupils coming into high schools. Courses in mathematics and foreign languages are conspicuous in that respect, as may be observed from the large percentage of failures in these subjects.

As a means of preventing failure as well as a means of providing for the most capable pupils, courses of study should, wherever possible, be differentiated—those for the less able pupils consisting largely of the simpler and more practically useful materials and tasks, which inferior pupils may be expected to assimilate with reasonable degrees of success. In junior high schools special classes in all the academic subjects

should be formed of the pupils transferred from the elementary school without having passed the sixth grade satisfactorily and of the failing or near-failing pupils conventionally promoted. Courses of study should also be thoroughly adapted to the abilities and needs of these pupils. As pointed out in the previous section of this chapter, homogeneous grouping is likely to reduce the percentage of failures. The advantage of grouping for that purpose arises from the adaptation of materials and methods to the abilities and characteristics of pupils in the lower group.

Where the six-three-three plan of organization obtains, there is special need for particular attention to modifying the courses of the tenth grade. Owing to increased retention in the junior high school, pupils of inferior ability are being promoted into the senior high school in great numbers, many of whom are eliminated during the first year. These children should not be the victims of high percentages of failures; in the senior high school they should be able to find work adapted to their capacities and their probable future needs.

Segregation of Failure Prospects. It is not difficult now by means of mental tests and previous school marks to locate those pupils who are likely prospects for failure. They should not be placed in the same class sections with pupils of ordinary ability unless some definite practical means of adapting standards and instruction to them and of giving them individual attention is certain of functioning. Where such grouping is not possible or desirable, as in the smaller schools, these pupils should be located and their instructors notified that they should take cognizance of the presence of such pupils in their classes; when segregated, they should be placed in the hands of teachers who are sufficiently independent of textbooks to fit materials and methods to pupils and who seem best fitted to draw out efforts at learning from boys and girls suffering from defeat complexes of long standing.

Diagnosis and Remedial Teaching. Teachers should be encouraged and trained to practice diagnosis and remedial teaching: to construct tests which will enable them to bring into

relief the fundamental sources of pupils' errors and weaknesses and to formulate and administer learning exercises to eliminate such errors. Diagnostic-remedial methods are most fruitful in beginning classes in foreign languages and mathematics and in English. Teachers of shop and laboratory subjects may prevent much subsequent unsatisfactory work if they will observe their pupils closely in the first few weeks of their courses, to note those who seem unusually inept at handling the equipment they are called upon to use.

Guidance of Choice of Electives. One of the most prolific sources of failures is the tendency for large numbers of boys and girls of less than average ability to enroll for instruction in mathematics and foreign languages. More care than has previously been exercised should be taken to prevent certain and probable failures from enrolling in college-preparatory mathematics and foreign languages. Such pupils may be located with a fairly high degree of accuracy if proper methods are employed. At enrollment time advisers should have at hand data which will enable them to render useful guidance in this connection. Most useful of such data are the following: mental age, I. Q., prognostic-test scores, and previous ranking in scholarship. Unless those lacking in ability as indicated by these criteria show special aptitudes, as indicated by prognostic tests or previous marks in mathematics or foreign languages, they should not be permitted to enroll for those subjects.

Case Studies and Personal Conferences. Case studies and conferences serve two important purposes: (1) to discover factors contributing to failure and (2) to establish personal contacts and attitudes making for the personal influence of the principal, adviser, or teacher with the pupil.

Case studies of individuals who are failing may bring into relief factors which may be remedied or which will make further efforts of the pupil seem useless. Case studies may include any combination of the following types of data:

1. Reasons for dislike of school.
2. Conditions at home: mental, emotional, and hygienic phases.
3. Outside employment: nature and hours.

4. Health records and medical-inspection data.
5. Temperament and moral character.
6. Vocational plans or interests.
7. General mental ability.
8. Reading ability and study habits.
9. Extra-curricular participation.

Space will not permit a discussion here of the techniques of applying such data to individual cases.[1]

In every school there should be someone to consult all the available data of these types, and to gather other needed data by visitation or conference with pupil, parents, teachers, or associates, and to determine as far as possible why each pupil concerned is failing. In small schools the principal may carry on this work alone or assisted by the members of his staff who are interested in various individual cases; in larger schools advisers should be trained and encouraged for this work. With proper organization for guidance, the head of the guidance program should include it as one of his major responsibilities. The visiting teacher, if there be one, should be utilized as an important agency for obtaining useful data.

Perhaps the most usable organization for such guidance is that of the home-room or group advisers—each for his or her group of pupils. Failing work or deficiences likely to lead to failures should be reported directly to the advisers or to the office, from which the reports will be sent to the advisers concerned.

Careful analysis of such data will locate the remediable causes for a considerable percentage of failures, many of which are otherwise not readily discernible.

The following cases are illustrative of the causes of poor work and the remedial treatment prescribed.

Pupil A. Inability to read effectively. Remedy: Training in reading.

Pupil B. General poor health and lacking in vitality. Remedy: Light program; tactful management.

[1]The reader is referred to W. C. Reavis's *Pupil Adjustment*

Pupil C. Imaginary illness. Remedy: Enlightenment of parents and pupil on point; better attendance.

Pupil D. Stomach disorder, causing nervousness. Remedy: Medical treatment.

Pupil E. Worked in army store from 7 to 12 in evenings. Remedy: Lighter program; parents consulted about more sleep.

Pupil F. Engaged in milking and delivering milk from 5 to 8 A.M. Remedy: Lightening pupil's work program to from 6.30 to 8.30 A.M.

Pupil G. Dreamer in class—never paid attention. Remedy: Trained to check self; taking notes on trend of recitation; influenced largely by inspiration of adviser.

Pupil H. General lack of interest and of taste for school. Remedy: Personal interest of teachers.

Pupil I. Speech disability and emotional complications. Remedy: Special speech instruction, diplomatic handling by teachers.

Pupil J. Interested only in drawing—no interest in other subjects. Remedy: Change of program—dropping certain most distasteful subjects; talents employed in all school affairs.

Pupil K. Eyesight poor; headaches; disliked to study—made him nervous. Remedy: Glasses provided as loan from available fund.

Pupil L. General lack of interest. Parents, who were both employed, frequently quarreled; no check on boy, who spent time in pool halls and around depot. Remedy: Parents arranged to check more closely—to give more attention to boy and his interests; companionship and leisure in home.

Pupil M. Bright-looking girl with low I. Q., fooled teacher as to intelligence. Remedy: Changed program of study; teachers informed; given more help and attention in supervised-study period.

Pupil N. Disliked two teachers. Remedy: Transferred to other teachers.

In addition to discovering useful data that may explain poor work, conferences of pupils with the principal, advisers, or instructors very often, as a consequence of personal interest shown or of skill in arousing feelings of pride or shame leading to better efforts, result (1) in causing pupils to see the importance of going on with school and doing satisfactory work, (2) in breaking down antagonisms toward the school, the teachers, or principal, (3) in causing the pupils to see and appreciate the importance of their own delinquencies, (4) in

convincing them of the value of the subjects in which they are failing and (5) in stimulating them to think through their plans as a substitute for the drifting they have been doing.

Training in Methods of Study. Recent experimentation for the purpose of determining the relative value of training dull students in methods of study has not been encouraging. Yet the experiments do seem to show, as do individual case studies, that marked improvement often may follow training in methods of reading, using references, outlining, and taking notes. But the extent of transfer from the subject or even topic in connection with which the training is received to others is not, for slow pupils, as great as had been expected. Hence, general courses on how to study are not to be relied upon heavily as a means of preventing failure. Instead of this, specific deficiencies of failing pupils, in reading for example, should be watched for and remedied, and classroom teachers should be urged to give most detailed suggestions and instructions to slow students.

Close Coöperation between Parents and School. The administration of the school should proceed on the principle that the parents are even more concerned than the school with the pupils' failure. The fact that not all parents appear to appreciate the interest of the school should not be taken to mean that they will not coöperate or even that they are not actually appreciative. The disappointment and embarrassment of the parent often obscures the appreciation felt and serves often to delay the feeling and expression of appreciation. In Chapter XVI forms for calling attention of parents to failing or unsatisfactory work on the part of the pupil are shown and discussed. These should always invite conference for an exchange of data about the pupil to secure coöperative effort in being of more service to him. Statements of parents about the pupil's peculiar traits, favorable modes of approach, and failures of the school to reach the pupil in some way or another should not, as is often the case, be taken too lightly. Principals and teachers may often acquire from parents even more information about pupils which will be of practical use, if employed

properly, than parents may learn from the school. Of course allowances must be made for what may be known or thought to be the peculiarities of the particular parent.

Not only should parents be interviewed with a view to discovering causes of failure, but they should likewise be advised frankly as to how out-of-school factors may be improved to advantage, if there is sufficient basis to validate such suggestions.

Preferred Type of Means for Preventing Failure. In general, those means and devices which look to diagnosis of the causes of unsatisfactory work and specific remedial measures are preferable to those which are punitive or general in nature. The former often serve to bring to light attitudes unfavorable to the school, its staff, and its work which are at least a partial cause of the poor quality of the pupil's work. It is probably true that teachers and principals, like many others whose duties involve the management of human beings, are unwisely predisposed to employ too readily and too frequently methods which are based upon fear and punishment, whereas the psychology of the situation calls for forbearance, careful analysis, and the improvement of personal relations between the pupil and his teachers and principal. More often than not, when one considers the pupil's maturity, the most potent factor in failure is one for which he is not seriously to blame.

3. OTHER MEANS OF ADJUSTING TO THE INDIVIDUAL

Grouping according to ability and attempts to reduce the number of failures are only two of a large number of approaches to the problem of adapting the educational program to the individual. These two devices are intended primarily to make adjustments to differences in scholastic ability. Young people differ also with respect to interests, out-of-school background, vocational intentions, other future needs, etc.

To greater heterogeneity in these respects the great increases in high-school enrollment have contributed as heavily as to heterogeneity in general intelligence or general scholastic abil-

ity. The high-school student body of today is almost the entire population of young people of high-school age. They come from all varieties of homes, parents, and home backgrounds. They have every variety of interest, taste, and dislike to which young people are subject. Of great significance is the fact that they will go into every walk of life, into every occupation, and into every type of home and scale of living. Their future problems and needs are more heterogeneous than their present abilities.

In a treatise on secondary-school administration, it is not appropriate to go in detail into the problem of human variations. The reader is referred to good standard textbooks in secondary education and educational psychology. Nor is it appropriate to treat in detail, in this volume, course-of-study constructions, methods of teaching, tests and measurements, or supervisory procedures. It must suffice to indicate the types of procedure in those fields which are pertinent to the problem of adapting education to the individual and the responsibility of the administrator in relation to them. In addition, in the next few pages, other administrative procedures useful in meeting the situation will be referred to.

Curriculum Electives. Since the middle of the nineteenth century, there has been a strong swing toward the offering of a large number of courses from which the student has been permitted to choose in the hope that he would find subjects suited to his abilities, interests, and future needs. In recent years there has been some reaction to this trend, two causes of which deserve mention.

Students have, in considerable numbers, not elected the subjects most suited to them. Students with little probability of going to college have chosen college-preparatory subjects. Many have chosen their subjects on the basis of "easiness" and marking standards rather than on the basis of their needs or interests. Others have sincerely attempted to specialize according to their vocational intentions, only to discover themselves, later, in some other vocation.

If the elective system is to work, much more careful attention to individual needs, interests, abilities, and capacities must

be given at registration times. While most schools now have preregistration, at which registration is given more time, teachers are not at all well trained for this very important responsibility, needed data concerning individual students are not available, and the quality of advice is therefore pitifully unreliable and may be dictated by the departmental interests of the teacher. Teachers need to be much more modest in their claims for their subjects and much better informed with respect to the requirements for college entrance and for doing good work in the particular institution or curriculum.

It has also been recognized in recent years, to a greater extent than formerly, that there are certain great cores, or centers, of training which every student should follow and that under the elective system, as operating in the typical school, some aspects of these essential cores are, or were, being omitted or neglected by a large percentage of students. For example, every student must be a citizen and should be an intelligent one; he must be a consumer and a producer, and he cannot evade the problems of social security; unless he is exceptional, he will be a parent, rearing children and co-managing a home; he will need to understand his body and its care; he will live a richer, more satisfying life if he understands nature and knows something about the achievements and methods of science; and since he will have leisure to spend, he will be happy more or less on the basis of his tastes and leisure interests. Every student, therefore, should receive education along each of these lines.

While there should be electives, provision for individual differences should be made by adapting instruction in these important areas rather than by the student's choosing to take or not to take such instruction. In other words, there should be a large body, at least half, perhaps two thirds, of the student's total program devoted to the social studies, general and consumer science, health, home living and management, the mathematics of everyday life, and recreational interests. The electives should be largely in the fields of foreign languages, vocational subjects, and the arts.

Variation in Student Load. Careful investigations have yielded two clear and very important conclusions: (1) abler students, probably the upper fourth (in average mark and intelligence-test score) of the average high-school student body, may with diligence do superior work in five full-unit (solid) subjects and the upper 10 per cent in five and a half or six units; (2) students doing poor work with four subjects do very little, if any, better with the three subjects remaining after one is dropped.

The brightest students should be identified and sent to college after three years or three and a half years of high school. It is uniform experience that such students acquit themselves well in college. If there were more of them, the possibilities of social maladjustment while in college would not be so great. As it is, the phenomenon of social maladjustment is not nearly so common as many high-school principals and teachers think. It is confined largely to individuals of mediocre ability, whether accelerated or not, who do not find college instruction engaging.

For the student who is doing unsatisfactory work in his subjects, some approach ordinarily should be discovered that is more effective than having him drop a subject. Dropping a subject, to be successful, should be resorted to only in cases where the student is doing very much outside work or possesses a violent dislike for a particular subject.

Adaptation and Administration of Courses of Study. One of the best approaches to the problem of individual differences lies in provision for students to work in subjects or materials suited to their interests, abilities, needs, and backgrounds. It is unfortunate that teachers seem to be so inept in this type of work. They need much in-service training. Occasionally a specialist should be called in for a few days or a week, if not for a semester or a year, to lead the way. Most teachers seem to get little farther than prescribing more or less of the material of the regular course, usually pitched at the level of the high middle group in the class, or, at best, harder or easier materials, with little consideration of pupils' interests, tastes, needs, or backgrounds.

Among the various kinds of adjustment of this type are the project method, the Morrison plan, the Dalton plan, the differentiated assignment, the three-level contract, the flexible, or indeterminate, assignment. Teachers should be encouraged to inform themselves about these procedures and to perfect their techniques in them.

The chances of success with these methods are much greater if the school is operating on a long-period supervised-study plan in which teachers spend not more than half of the class-period time in "recitation." This affords the teacher time for individual and small-group conferences in which special assignments are given and individual interests discovered. Also at this time, the teacher has opportunity to become better informed concerning the nature and causes of the weaknesses of the individual student and perhaps to give a little individual instruction. Better pupil-teacher relationships may be developed as the outcome of more personal contact and the opportunity afforded to demonstrate interest in the individual pupil.

Appropriate Teaching Methods. Teachers also need to be encouraged and trained in methods which recognize the individual. Fundamental to such methods is a wealth of knowledge about each individual, his tests and achievement record, his extra-curricular and out-of-school interests and activities, his opportunities at home and elsewhere for looking up topics, getting information from others, and carrying on projects.

The teacher should be encouraged to employ all sorts of adaptations in the distribution of individual assignments, in distributing questions in class discussions, in her methods of motivating the individual, of encouraging him, and of discouraging misconduct or undesirable tendencies, and in every contact. She should be encouraged to employ supervised-study time in such a way as to have personal conferences, establishing good relations, discovering areas and causes of unsatisfactory achievement in terms of the individual's capacities, etc. She should be given every encouragement to do diagnostic testing to provide remedial instruction, particularly in sequential subjects, such as foreign languages and mathematics.

Special Classes. In addition to the differentiated classes where ability grouping is employed, a considerable number of larger schools have operated to advantage different types of special classes: (1) restoration classes for pupils who have normal intelligence but who, at least for a time, need to have special help in one or more subjects—for example, mathematics or English; (2) classes for the blind; (3) classes for the hard of hearing; (4) accelerated classes for capable pupils who have been absent for a long time as the result of illness or injury; (5) classes for unusually unruly youngsters; (6) classes for cripples who cannot get around the building and to whom the teachers come.

The number of schools able to conduct such classes is small, and there are special techniques for dealing with each of these groups. For these reasons, administrators interested in these special classes should write to the United States Office of Education for publications and bibliographies of materials on the subject and for the names of schools in which such classes exist.

Remedial-Reading Classes. Another type of special class which has been employed in a rapidly increasing number of schools in recent years is the class in remedial reading—for defective readers. Because of the importance of reading ability in the study of nearly all subjects, one of the most common causes of unsatisfactory work has been found to be poor reading ability and reading habits. Remedial classes have been found to contribute materially to the scholastic success of most pupils enrolled in them. Reading tests should be given to pupils in the lowest fourth of all pupils, and to all others whose achievement is well below expectation from their I. Q.'s. Those found to have reading ability definitely below that normal for their I. Q. and mental age should be encouraged, if not required, to enter, at least for a few months, a remedial-reading class. Teachers of such classes, if not possessing special training for remedial-reading work, should be encouraged to read the recent literature in that field.

Promotion Practices. Promotion by subject is almost universal in all four-year and senior high schools. Almost universal also,

at one time, in junior high schools, it has in recent years lost ground at that level. It seems that the practice is sound in the senior high school, but of less validity in the junior high school, where there are few electives. The use of promotion by subject also results in some pupils' finishing some ninth-grade subjects before completing the requirements for entering senior high school.

Skipping a grade should very rarely be done in the junior high school because of the importance of all these years in mathematics and English. If any secondary-school grade is to be skipped, it should probably be either the ninth or the eleventh grade, and then only by the very superior youngster who would find the work of his normal grade not so difficult or challenging as the desirable stimulation of his growth calls for. Bright youngsters should be identified at the beginning of the ninth grade and encouraged to carry extra subjects and complete four years in three, or three years in two, or two in a half. Such pupils should probably be required to skip a grade in English and to take at least two subjects in which the majority of the enrolled pupils are seniors.

Home Visitation. In gathering information concerning the individual pupil, home visitation is one of the most fruitful procedures. Information of a type not otherwise available and special insights are obtained. This is particularly the case with problem youths. Not only is information concerning the youngster obtained, but useful information concerning the home and parents, which may throw much light upon behavior at school and enable the teacher to think better in terms of what she can expect or not expect in the way of home work.

Frequently, too, a relationship of effective coöperation is thus established between home and school, enabling them to pool their resources in working with the individual boy or girl. Teachers need to be trained for home visitation. It can be harmful or wasteful, as well as very useful. Teachers must be most judicious in discussing children with parents. In fact, teachers must learn to be discreet listeners rather than talkers.

Other Discussions in This Volume. Some aspects of the problem of adapting school materials and procedures to the individual are discussed in the chapters on guidance, extra-curricular activities, personnel records and related problems, and stimulating and directing pupil study. The reader is encouraged to examine those chapters and the bibliographies for them at the back of the book for further and more detailed discussion of some of these matters.

Problems and Exercises

1. How do you account for the variation in correlation coefficients obtained between the same two variables by different investigators?
2. What are the objections to homogeneous grouping, and what importance do you attach to each?
3. What is a standard deviation? a "T" score?
4. How would you use economic status in grouping? For example, where would you classify a pupil whose father is a well-to-do lawyer?
5. Do you believe grouping in the high school should be by subject or for all subjects simultaneously? Give reasons for your answer.
6. Into how many sections of each level would you distribute 135 pupils enrolled in first-year French?
7. What could you do to reduce failures caused by faulty standards of marks of teachers in the school?
8. Obtain and compare for some school the number and percentage of failures in different subjects.
9. Obtain from Reavis or some other reference the data in a case study and tell what could be done to reduce the probability of failure for the pupil.
10. If you were a parent and received notice from the school that your boy was failing in a subject because of lack of application, what should you be likely to do?
11. In a recent article in the *School Review* an author advocates that all parents be required to pay for all the time required by pupils to complete school beyond the time pupils normally take. What can you say for or against such a plan?

XV

The Principal and his Office

1. OFFICE AND EQUIPMENT

The Principal's Office. The range and variety of duties and opportunities of the high-school principal have multiplied and expanded so rapidly within the last quarter of a century that it is difficult to visualize the typical high-school principal of today; there are so many degrees and varieties of him. Certainly he is no longer the old-fashioned schoolmaster so frequently met in literature—honored only for his scholarship and despised for his lack of business appearance, ability, and thinking. It is hard to say that he is either supervisor, manager, or administrator. He should be something of all three. With the development of the techniques and opportunities of guidance and of extra-curricular activities, the increased variety of school supplies and equipment employed in libraries and in industrial, commercial, and physical education, the increased school services in the field of health, and the consequent problems of organization, management, accounting, and administration, he has become less exclusively a leader in classroom affairs and more definitely an organizer and administrator concerned also with the business side of his school.

The modern principal's office[1] is therefore distinctly unlike that of the typical principal of a quarter of a century ago. It can no longer be a classroom or a mere cubbyhole with a table or roll-top desk and chair. What the principal's office and its related equipment should be, and something of how it should be used, will be the subject of this chapter. In Chapter II, "Housing the High School," suggestions were made for the location of the principal's office. In this chapter we shall be concerned with what equipment it should include, how the

[1]In this, as in many other discussions in this volume, the term "principal" is thought of as applying in smaller districts to the superintendent of schools in those phases of his activities that apply to the high school.

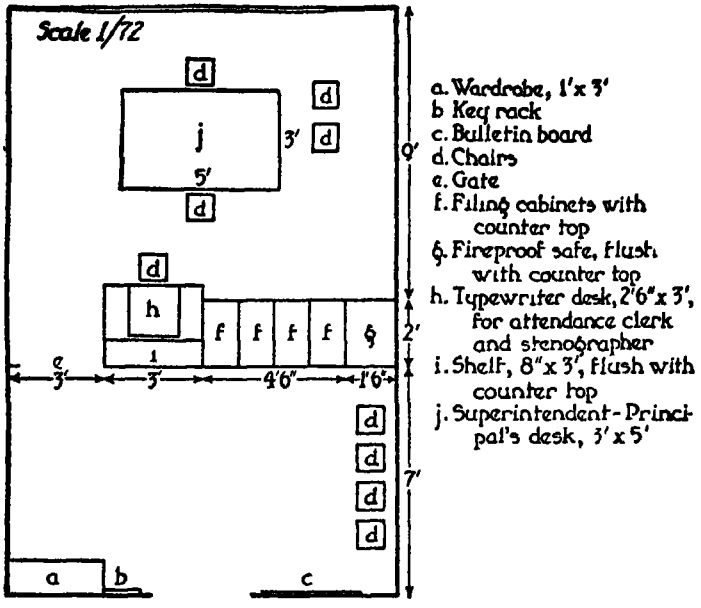
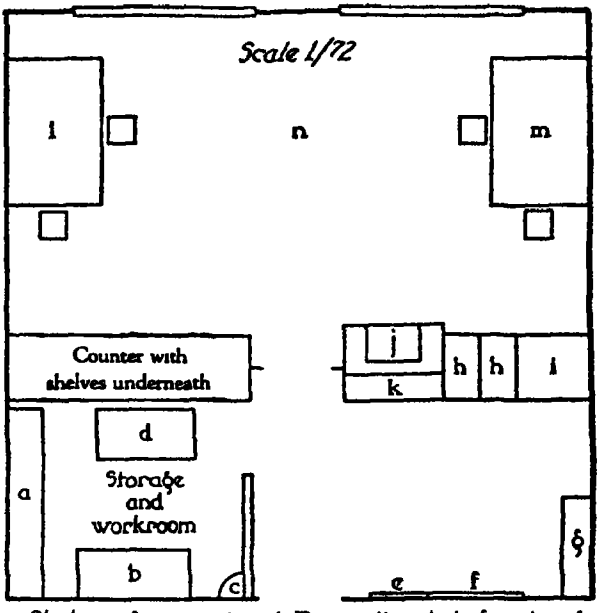


FIG. 4. Diagram of Principal's Office for School of less than 100 Pupils

equipment should be arranged for efficiency, and how the principal may carry on his office work most effectively.

The amount of space that should be assigned to the principal's office will, of course, be determined by the size of the school and the degree to which the superintendent of schools participates in the actual administration of the school. In schools of fewer than 75 or 100 pupils the principalship and the superintendency of the city schools are almost uniformly vested in one individual. In schools where this condition exists the principal's office should be equipped for the duties of both positions. The amount of space which may be appropriately allotted to the administrative office in a small school must be small, or else it will be disproportionate to instructional space. It may consist of a single room, as shown in Fig 4.

In slightly larger schools, an additional administrative officer who is also a part-time teacher, is usually found—the high-school principal—and a share in the administrative and super-



a. Shelving for storage
b. Mimeograph machine
c. Lavatory
d. Small table
e. Key rack
f. Bulletin board
g. Wardrobe, 1' x 3'
h. Filing cabinets
i. Safe
j. Typewriter desk for stenographer and clerk
k. Shelf, extension of counter formed by cabinets and safe
l. Superintendent's desk
m Principal's desk
n. Space for adding machine or other equipment

FIG 5. Diagram of Principal's Office for School of from 100 to 250 Pupils

visory duties is assigned to him. Since he will in all likelihood also teach several classes daily and will therefore be unable to occupy an office more than two or three hours a day, it is not parsimonious to provide him office space and a desk in the office of the superintendent. By so doing a more convenient and economical joint use of equipment is facilitated. An alternative plan is that of providing desk and office space with the clerk. Such an office is illustrated in Fig. 5.

In still larger schools the principal is essentially an administrator rather than a teacher, and should therefore be provided with a separate office, as illustrated by Fig. 6.

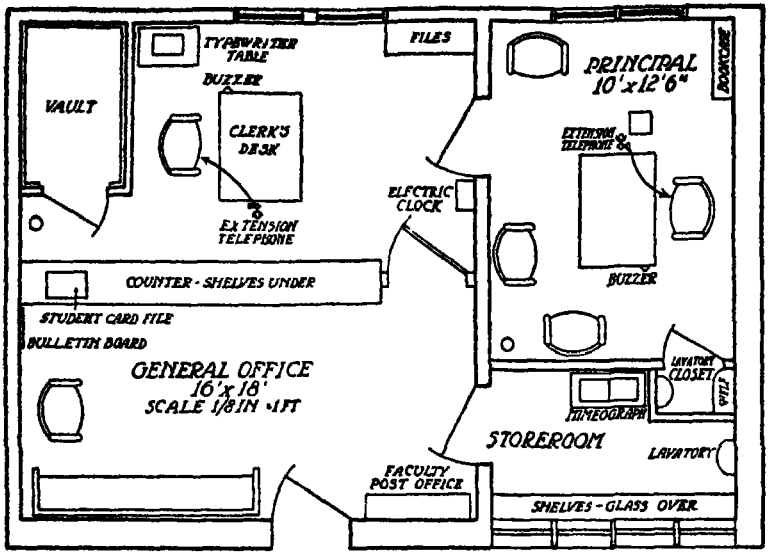


FIG. 6. Diagram of Principal's Office for Schools of from 250 to 500 Pupils

In large schools, let us say of 500 or more pupils, vice principals or other assistant administrators become very desirable if not absolutely necessary. In schools of this size it is also desirable that the superintendent of schools have an office centrally located, usually down town and not in the high-school building at all. An arrangement similar to that shown in Fig. 7, with slight modifications, may be employed, the assistant administrators occupying one office and the principal the other. In schools of this size the dean of girls, the boys' adviser, and the vocational counselor should be provided with office room or space very close, if not adjacent, to the central administration unit in which the school records are kept.

Office Equipment. It should go without saying that while the furnishings need not be numerous, elaborate, or expensive they should be suitable and sufficient to give the office dignity and cheer. They should include at least a respectable hat and coat rack or a closet, a floor covering of some sort if the floors are not in excellent shape, and two or three well-chosen large pictures in neat frames. Furniture should be substantial and of

good finish. Blinds or curtains should not be torn or dirty, or otherwise suggest lack of care. Reasonable working equipment proportional to the services attempted and the size of the school should be provided.

Among the items of working equipment which should be in the principal's office of all but very small schools are

1. A large flat-topped desk with drawers and a chair.
2. Chairs for visitors.
3. An auxiliary table or two.
4. A telephone located conveniently to the desk usually occupied by the principal.
5. A program clock.
6. Some sort of duplicating machine adequate to the needs of the school and a stapling or clipping machine.
7. A memorandum tickler.
8. Filing cabinets sufficient to house all records, professional pamphlets, bulletins, and correspondence.
9. A typewriter.
10. A paper and cardboard cutter.
11. An adding or calculating machine.
12. Hand rubber stamps as needed.
13. A vault or safe large enough to hold the most important records.

Among other desirable items of equipment frequently found in principals' offices are the following:

1. A numbering machine.
2. A dictaphone.

Reavis and Woellner report the use of certain labor-saving devices in such percentages of 522 schools as are shown in Table X, on page 369.

Other tables presented by Reavis and Woellner show that with the increase in the size of school the percentage of schools using each device increases; for example, adding machines were found in 95 per cent of schools of over 2000 pupils, in 75 per cent of those of from 500 to 700, in 35 per cent of those of from 100 to 200, but in only 11 per cent of those of less than 100.

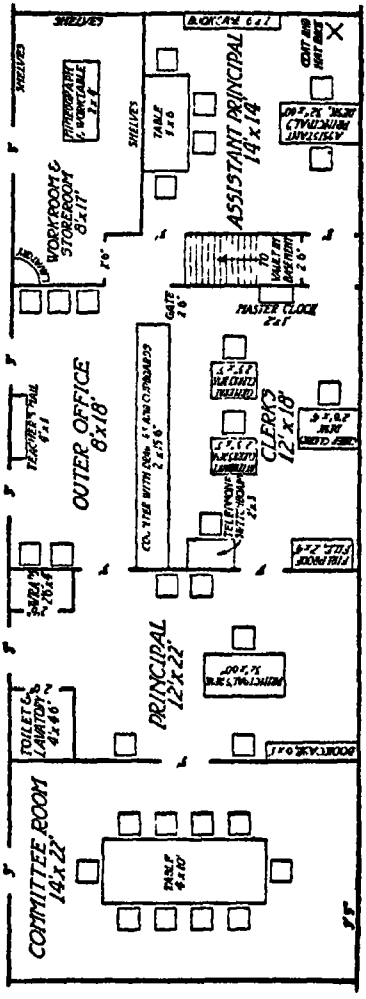

COMMITTEE ROOM
14'x22'
TABLE
4'x10'
TOILET & LAVATORY
4'x46"
PRINCIPAL
12'x22'
OUTER OFFICE
8'x18'
WORKROOM & STOREROOM
8'x17'
TYPEWRITER & WORKTABLE
3'x6'
SHELVES
TABLE
3'x6'
ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL
14'x14'
CLERKS
12'x18'
MASTER CLOCK
2'x1'
VAULT IN BASEMENT
7'6"
2'6"
GATE
2'6"
COUNTER WITH 100 FT. FILING CABINETS
2'x35'6"
TELEPHONE SWITCHBOARD
2'x1
TEACHER'S TABLE
4'x1
FILING CABINET
2'x1'6"
FILING CABINET
2'x1'6"
FILING CABINET
2'x1'6"

Table X. Labor-saving Devices used in Office Administration

Device	Percentage of Schools	Device	Percentage of Schools
1. Typewriter	98 1	14. Mimeoscope	20.9
2. Filing cabinet	95 6	15. Neostyle	19.9
3. Telephone	94.3	16. Multigraph	19.2
4. Mimeograph . . . :	91 6	17 Efficiency desk . .	17.8
5. Desk calendar	86 6	18 Comptometer . . .	17.6
6. Program clock . . .	85.8	19 Work organizer . .	17.0
7. Hand stamp . . .	75 5	20 Cash register	13.2
8 Adding machine . . .	71 3	21. Dictaphone . . .	8.0
9 Stapling machine .	61 5	22. Bookkeeping machine	5.6
10 Numbering machine	38 5	23. Addressograph . . .	3.8
11. Memorandum tickler	35 6	24. Stenotype	2.1
12. Visible file . : . . .	31 6	25. Card-sorting machine	1.1
13 Ditto machine . . .	26 1	26. Mailometer	0 6

One should not confuse modal with ideal practice nor accept modal practice as satisfactory. The progressive principal will develop the working equipment and conveniences of the office on the basis of what is needed and of what is economical in view of its uses, rather than upon the number of principals' offices in which the items are found.

The Principal's Desk. The most important unit of equipment in the principal's office is his desk. This desk should be of the flat-topped variety, of ample width and length to accommodate papers and materials employed for reference, as well as to accommodate the desk files and afford the writing space frequently needed when at work on a problem. Storage space in the drawers should be ample. The principal should not be required to leave his desk for needed materials oftener than is necessary. Since he is not usually provided with clerks to run errands at the touch of a buzzer, he requires more storage space in his desk than the average business man. If a deep drawer is included, it should be used as a file for materials in folders, not as a catch-all. The glass desk-top does not make a satisfactory writing surface. The linoleum top is to be preferred. Drawers should be set aside for certain purposes, and the habit formed of using them for these purposes,—for example, one with compartments for small items, such as clips,

pencils, and rubber stamps, another for small 3 by 5 inch or 4 by 6 inch files, and another possibly for certain flat files.

During the day there should be kept about the desk a "Work Organizer" file consisting of from eight to ten compartments for the filing of flat papers, the compartments being so arranged that the separating walls extend each about three fourths of an inch beyond the one above, providing a place for labeling. This file should go a long way toward keeping the top of the desk clear without danger of misplacing or misfiling material which will be needed or which should be attended to in the near future. In these compartments may be filed separately such papers as "Letters to dictate," "Postponed correspondence," "Correspondence to be filed," "Papers for matters coming up today," "Reports from teachers," "Ideas to be thought out later," or other classifications adapted to the principal's manner of handling his office routine. A folder file established in a drawer of the desk is often used for this purpose.

Another essential is the memorandum tickler either of the pad type or the spindle type. It is useful in calling to mind duties which otherwise would escape attention until after the desired time for attending to them had passed. It should go without saying that at least one typewriter should be included in the list of essential equipment.

Other Desirable Equipment. Certain of the other items invite brief discussion. The duplicating machine, preferably a standard mimeograph or its equivalent, is an important economy as well as a convenience. Such a machine will be very serviceable for duplicating assignment and instruction sheets and examination questions of the objective type for teachers, notices and bulletins to members of the staff, school songs and programs, instructions to students and advisers at registration and other times, notices of various sorts to parents, including notices of meetings of parent-teacher or similar organizations, and many other types of materials.

For the housing of records, card files of a size to fit the card records kept in the school should be selected and built into a

complete file unit. There should also be files for correspondence and for pamphlets, bulletins, journals, and other professional reading materials. The latter may be of three types: shelves for books, journals, and catalogues; small cardboard boxes to be labeled and placed on shelves for bulletins and pamphlets; files similar to correspondence files for notes, and perhaps also for bulletins and pamphlets containing material relative to professional subjects if the box containers are not available. There should also be a card catalogue of good references on various professional subjects, jotted down as an index to articles in journals or other material as this is received and read. In the correspondence file or deep-desk-drawer files there should be compartments for the filing of papers and notes relative to the various problems of administration; for example, Athletics, Activities, Staff Meetings, and Teachers' Meetings.

Important records, such as the achievement records of the present pupils and recent graduates, financial accounts, and any others which may be impossible, difficult, or expensive to replace should be protected by fireproof and burglar-proof housing in a safe or vault. Such space also provides for the safekeeping of valuables, such as funds from entertainments, valuable jewelry of visiting athletic teams, and unusually valuable laboratory supplies.

2. CLERICAL HELP

Desirability of Clerical Assistance. Good business management provides clerical help to perform all such duties as may be delegated to it by members of the organization who represent a distinctly more highly paid class of worker. The schools have been tardily but surely following the example of commercial organizations in this respect. Wide variations still exist, but almost all the larger high schools are furnished the services of one or more full-time clerical or stenographic assistants. Reavis and Woellner found that out of 522 high schools studied, 441, or 84.5 per cent, employed clerks, and that 22 per cent of the schools enrolling less than 100, 67 per cent

of those enrolling from 200 to 300, and 99 per cent of those enrolling over 700 employed clerks. These workers take over the tasks related to the entering and filing of records, correspondence, telephone communications, errands about the building, receiving visitors and providing information to them, looking after the school post office, duplicating machines, tabulations for records and reports, making appointments, and other similar duties. They are also, when properly trained, able to render valuable service in handling the details of many phases of administration and management in connection with the storage and distribution of books, materials, and supplies, tardiness and attendance, lockers and locker keys, the sale of tickets for exhibitions, entertainments, and contests, and keeping the records incidental to such problems. A good secretary will soon learn to assist the principal in remembering various little things that would otherwise escape his attention.

Student Clerical Help. In many small schools with limited funds student help is often employed for such service. Pupils in commercial curricula are assigned regular periods in the office as practical laboratory training for their future occupation and as a part of their regular courses in stenography or office management. Such assistants are useful and certainly much better than none at all, but distinctly inferior, on the average, to the regularly employed assistants, even if these be also pupils carrying some studies in the school. The usefulness of clerical assistants is certain to be much greater on the average if they may be held to account as a paid employee may be. The chances are not great that pupils who spend no more than an hour a day in the office will become sufficiently trained in the duties to be equal in effectiveness to the employee who gives full time or even half time to such work. When pupil assistants are employed, it is better for the assistants and for the school to have in charge one full-time office secretary as supervisor and director who can coördinate the work, train the assistants, and assume general responsibility for the activities of all. If the secretary is not a student, but a more mature person, the extent to which he may safely be assigned duties

of management in problems of attendance and tardiness, supplies, and other matters is much greater. The wise principal will delegate to office clerks as many of his routine duties as possible and thus free himself for the better discharge of responsibilities which cannot be delegated.

Correspondence. Effective school administration requires that the principal have sufficient clerical assistance to provide for a reasonable amount of business correspondence. Such correspondence should be neatly typed in approved business form. A carbon copy of every letter issued should be filed and kept, along with selected letters received, for future reference. The need to refer to these may not be frequent. but when occasion does arise, possession of such copies is extremely desirable. It is frequently well worth while to submit to others in the system memoranda of discussions and agreements and to file carbon copies of these.

3. RECORDS AND STATISTICS WHICH SHOULD BE KEPT IN THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE

Records. The principal's office should be the central bureau of records pertaining to his school. Because of greater flexibility in locating the records of given individuals and for withdrawing and adding records, card records are greatly to be preferred to books. Safe and convenient housing should be provided there for all records in the form of card cabinets of various sizes built into units, and drawers and compartments for ledgers, vouchers, and other book or non-card records. They should be of standard sizes, depending upon the space needed for the data. Standard sizes which are most convenient and for which cabinets are most frequently constructed are 3 by 5 inches, 4 by 6 inches, 5 by 8 inches, and 8½ by 11 inches. As much as possible of the following data should be obtained, properly recorded, and filed:

1. Names of pupils registered: sex, age, race, date of birth, address, and the names, nativity, address, telephone number, and occupation of parents.

2. Courses for which students are enrolled.

3. Marks and credits of pupils by subjects and date.

4. Intelligence, achievement, and prognostic test scores of pupils: name of test, date, derived ages or quotients.

5. Records of personality traits of pupils: honesty, initiative, industry, cooperation, cases of major discipline.

6. Guidance records: vocational choices of pupils, employment, etc.

7. Physical and health records: disease history, results of physical and medical examinations, immunization, and school accidents.

8. Attendance records showing extent, courses, and dates of absence.

9. Extra-curricular activity record: participation of each pupil, membership, and adviser.

10. The social and activity calendar of the school.

11. Records of graduates: college attendance and marks, occupation, and address.

12. Data concerning the experience, preparation, appropriate personal items, and teaching assignment of the staff.

13. Supervisory records of observations, interviews, minutes of teachers' meetings.

14. Teachers' records of materials used in instruction in various classes.

15. The schedule of classes.

16. Requisitions of supplies by various departments of the school: amounts, date, persons or departments.

17. Receipt and removal of supplies and equipment date, description, and from whom received or to whom delivered.

18. Inventory of portable equipment, including a card catalogue of library books.

19. Accounts of all funds of the school and student-body organizations not handled by the treasurer of the board of education.

20. Records of employment service, work permits, and similar data.

In many high schools the system of records goes materially beyond the list given here. Reavis and Woellner report the percentages of schools keeping each of eighteen types of records which are shown for certain sizes of schools in Table XI.

Table XI. Percentage of Schools in Each Enrollment Group which keep Each of Eighteen Types of Records of Individual Pupils

	Enrollment Groups			
	100–200	301–500	701–1000	1501–2000
Number of Schools in Each Group	29	75	87	57
1. Attendance	96.6	98 7	94 3	93.0
2. Tardiness	100 0	98 7	96.6	93.0
3. Unexcused absences	86.2	85.3	80.5	84.2
4. Period transfers	51 7	78.7	79.3	80 7
5. Cases of discipline	65.5	68 0	71.3	78.9
6. Participation in extra-curriculum activities	72 4	60 0	58.6	63.2
7. Special permits	44 8	69.3	67 8	86.0
8. Unsatisfactory work	82 8	85.3	78 2	89.5
9. Period reports to parents	82 8	86.7	86.2	87.7
10. Cumulative record cards	93 1	84.0	93 1	86.0
11. Cumulative folders	37 9	42.7	41 4	38.6
12. Achievement tests	58 6	66.7	72 4	61.4
13. Psychological tests	55 2	72.0	82.8	78.9
14 Medical examinations	65.5	73.3	62.1	66 7
15 Physical examinations	41.4	65.3	56.3	70.2
16 Immunization	34.5	37 3	32 2	56.1
17. Accidents	3 4	30.7	27 6	38.6
18 Daily programs	89 7	94.7	98 9	94.7

Purchase of Record and Report Forms. There are three principal sources of supply for forms of school records and administrative notes and communications:

1. Local printing firms supplying forms to order.
2. Supply houses furnishing standard forms in quantity.
3. The printing department and the duplicating machines of the school.

In general the sources named above are in order of the relative cost, though if supplies are ordered in quantities of a thousand or more there will ordinarily be little difference between the first two, especially if it is desired that the name of the school or any deviation from a standard form made up by the supply house appear on the card or form. If the quantity is small, as in the case of school-attendance registers or other record books, the necessary cost per register or per book will be so great as to make printing them locally prohibitive.

The principal should obtain catalogues or specimen sets of forms and records from a number of firms specializing in these. A list of such firms may be made up from the advertisements in journals intended especially for school executives, such as the *American School Board Journal* and *The Nation's Schools.* The publishers of the journals just mentioned will forward the names and addresses of school officials to firms distributing supplies in which the officials are interested. Excellent record forms are often suggested by the specimens submitted by the better of these concerns.

Satisfactory admission slips and similar forms not to be employed as permanent records may be prepared at great saving in the school printing shop or on the school duplicating machine, especially if it is a type equivalent to the mimeograph or the multigraph.

Permanent records, unless of the book type, should be entered on durable cards. If card files of uniform size are employed for different purposes and are likely to be confused, different colors may be employed to advantage.

Most Essential Statistics. From his records the principal should compile or have compiled statistical information which he will find of service from time to time. What should be compiled will depend upon the various projects of publicity, administration, and supervision, the types of reports the principal is called upon to make, and the investigations he is making in his particular school, as well as the types of records he has at his disposal. Thompson conducted a study of what statistical data principals and students of high-school administration thought ought to be kept in the office of the principal.

In Table XII, which is reproduced from that study, the entries in the three columns represent the numbers of principals out of a total of 63 who keep the various types of statistical records or compilations (K), who do not keep them but believe it desirable to do so (D), and who do not keep them and do not believe it necessary to keep them (N).

Other types of statistics mentioned but not included in the list used in the study are the following:

1. Record of building inspection.
2. Record of pupils employed while in school.
3. Proposed occupation of students.
4. School nurses' reports on emergency cases.
5. Data on costs of library, cafeteria, etc.

Desirable Additional Statistics. In addition to the records mentioned computations from them similar to the following should be useful in the principal's study of his school:

1. Age-grade table showing percentages of pupils at age, accelerated or retarded one, two, three, or more years.

2. Mental age-grade table, the same as the age-grade table, but employing mental ages of pupils instead of chronological ages.

3. Statistical tables showing trends in enrollments over a period of several years by subjects, by classes, and so on.

Table XII. Statistics which ought to be kept in the Office of the High School Principal (From Thompson)

	K	D	N
1. Enrollment by grades	57	3	1
2. Enrollment by curriculum	38	14	10
3. Enrollment by subject	33	12	18
4. Elimination during the summer	34	18	11
5. Elimination during the year	50	10	3
6. Causes of 4 and 5	30	23	10
7. Follow-up record of repeaters	28	30	5
8. Record of teaching load	52	10	1
9. Follow-up of graduates	15	37	11
10. Intelligence scores	38	20	5
11. Distribution of marks by subjects	42	12	9
12. Distribution of marks by teachers	39	13	11
13. Distribution of marks by grades	27	12	14
14. Correlation of marks with intelligence	16	34	13
15. Attendance records	60	0	3
16. Results of College Entrance Examination Board Examination	41	15	6
17. College records	32	25	6
18. Pupil participation in extra-curricular activities	32	25	6
19. Costs of instruction	20	18	25
20. Records of teachers' training and experience	50	10	3
21. Conduct record of pupils sent to office	36	17	10
22. Proper accounting of funds not appropriated by the board of education	53	4	6
23. Historical record of school	17	31	15

4. Statistics showing attendance and tardiness over a period of years by months.

5. Statistical tables showing the participation of pupils in extra-curricular activities.

6. Statistical tables showing the percentages of failures over a period of years by subjects, by grades, by ages, and by I. Q.'s.

7. Statistical tables showing the retention of pupils in school over a period of years by age at entrance, by I. Q., and by occupational and social classification.

8. Statistical analysis of schedule of classes, with tables showing the frequency of class sections of various sizes, teachers' loads, etc.

The preparation of such statistical computations, tables, and graphs will be serviceable in stimulating and guiding the principal's analysis of his school and its achievements and problems. They will enable him to furnish promptly upon need data regarding any one of a large number of problems that may arise in connection with faculty meetings, newspaper and other publicity opportunities, and requests from the superintendent, the board of education, or organizations. In addition to insuring that he knows his school, its problems, and, indeed, the causes and sources of them, and its trends and tendencies in many respects, this information enables him to speak authoritatively regarding these things upon any occasion and upon a moment's notice.

4. DISTRIBUTION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S TIME

Delegating Routine. The administrator must learn early the importance of his own time and the great desirability of the most effective proportioning of his time to his many duties. In addition to the desirability of economizing time in connection with visiting parents and teachers, as discussed in Chapter XX, he must acquire as soon as possible the tendency and the ability to delegate as much of his work as can be done effectively by others—assistant principals, supervisors, department heads, teachers, student officers, and clerical help—without interfering with the effective discharge of his responsibilities,

directly or indirectly, and without requiring too much of his subordinates. For example, he should, whenever possible, delegate such work as recording, filing, or tabulating data, the supervision of extra-curricular activities, and the handling of office routine in connection with absences, tardiness, report cards, lockers, textbooks, supplies, and standard achievement and intelligence tests. When the services of capable assistants among his lieutenants and teachers are available he should utilize them in making investigations, in managing teachers' meetings, in classroom visitation, in managing assemblies, and in enrolling, advising, and registering students. With good organization and good advisers he may be relieved of a great deal of administrative routine and educational, personal, and disciplinary guidance. The young principal desirous of demonstrating his versatility and ability in the activities of the school will find this extremely important lesson a very difficult one to learn.

Apportioning Time. The principal must set aside some time each week, if not each day, as reserve time—for two purposes: (1) for such unforeseen emergencies or demands on his time as are certain to arise almost daily; (2) for reflection and study of his school and his problems, and for planning-time when he may, as an important business executive told one of his division subordinates, "shut his door, cock his feet upon his desk, and think out better ways of doing things." He must rarely let himself become so beset by calls upon his time that he works ineffectively and creates the atmosphere of desperate hurry and lack of organization. He must learn early not to spend valuable time in relatively unimportant or unnecessarily long conversations with pupils, patrons, and teachers. He must develop skill in being able to bring such conversations to a close pleasantly and without offense, but promptly. Suggestions made by him that in a few minutes his presence will be needed elsewhere, preliminary motions of rising from the chair, turning the conversation toward a rational termination, and care in avoiding digressions are helps which in some instances may have to be supplemented with pleasantly bidding the

visitor good-by, or inviting him to call again, expressing pleasure at having him come, unostentatiously leading the way to the door, or other more impressive suggestions.

Office Hours. The principal should maintain stated office hours at which he may be found regularly. These should be such as will not interfere systematically with the visitation of classes at any one period in the daily schedule. They should include at least some time each week after the close of school for conferences with teachers who cannot conveniently come at office hours during the regular school day. The amount of time spent in regular office hours need not be great, but designated office hours should be kept conscientiously. At times when not in the office but elsewhere in the building, he should keep his clerk informed as to where he may be found and when he will be back, training her not to interrupt supervisory visits except in case of importance. He must learn to plan his activities ahead, monthly, weekly, and daily, making and keeping notes of his plans. He must at all odds save himself from becoming so immersed in the details of his daily work that he loses perspective. He should accustom himself to look ahead and to prepare for the work of the next day, the next week, and the next year. He should constantly strive to reduce the number of situations where preparations for closing school, for board or staff meetings, for examinations, or for various other functions have been overlooked until too late or until he has been compelled to make them so hastily that he could not give them sufficient thought.

The data of the study conducted by Reavis and Woellner show that the typical principal arrives at the office at 8 A.M. and leaves at 5 P.M. He devotes from three to five hours a day to office work. The chances are 2.7 to 1 that he does not maintain regular office hours for pupils, 3 to 1 that he does not maintain regular office hours for teachers, and 5 to 1 that he does not maintain office hours for patrons. The chances are 3 to 1 that he does not publicly announce his office hours; and they are slightly greater than even that he does not keep office hours on Saturday. On the whole these facts do not speak well for

high-school administrators, but there are indications that the younger and better-trained principals tend to excel in several of these respects.

5. OFFICE RELATIONS

Cultivating Professional Good Will and Respect. The principal must also learn to maintain poise and reserve in his relations with members of the staff and pupils, even under annoying or humiliating circumstances. This does not imply that he should be austere or pompous, but that he should maintain a professional attitude unruffled by the details of the day's work, however disconcerting they may be. He should be neither quarrelsome nor chummy, but pleasant and businesslike, at once inviting confidence, respect, and good will. He should not aggressively attempt to impress either pupil or teacher with his superior position or knowledge. If he possesses knowledge and the qualities of leadership, recognition of these will be an incidental but certain outcome. Above all, he should not bluff; dignified silence is much more serviceable as well as more honorable.

The principal should not have to learn by sad experience that the office should not be a loafing place either for students or for members of the faculty. Work should proceed even when "company" is present if the company has no business to transact. Visitors should be encouraged to depart as soon as their business is finished. To attain this desired condition necessitates establishing the convention without exception during the first few weeks of office by the new principal. Establishing such habits of procedure not only operates to conserve time, but surrounds the office with an atmosphere of dignity which is useful upon many occasions.

The Principal and his Office Relations with Patrons. Upon all occasions the principal should be careful in his comments about his pupils and teachers and other people in the community. What he actually says may pass through several intermediaries and undergo an astounding transformation. Praise of pupils and teachers should be given in moderation—negative criti-

cism rarely, even if it is no more than agreement with such criticism by the visitor. Praise given should never permit interpretation as favoritism or "politics."

The problem of the complaining or irate parent or other visitor furnishes a crucial test of the administrative ability of the principal. The most successful administrator never forgets his professional poise and balance, even in the face of angry, unfair, or personal criticism. He realizes that the complainant is very often misinformed, and that if he is properly approached he is likely not only to be appeased but to be sorry for his mistake and respectful of the patience with which he was received, even though his pride may prevent him from giving any indication of it upon the particular occasion. On the other hand, the loss of temper and patience on the part of the principal only serves to alienate the visitor and to stimulate him to hostile activities, even though he may later learn that his original grievance was without adequate foundation. The principal should keep before him the example of the well-poised, self-contained business head who receives angry complaints of important customers in a relatively unruffled manner and by so doing arouses feelings of respect. Consideration of the cause of complaint should always be promised and given. A noncommittal position should be taken until opportunity to get all the facts in the case and the other side of the story is available. Complaints given in an emotional frame of mind over the telephone should be received politely and the complainant promised an investigation, given an explanation, or, perhaps better still, in all appropriate situations urged to call at the office, thus allowing time for the angry father or mother or other individual to cool off before going into the matter. Only upon very rare occasions should complaints be countered with pointing out the misbehaviors of the complainants' children. This practice should be confined to instances in which the misbehavior is a factor in, or pertinent to, the subject of complaint. Even then the counter complaint should be made without show of personal anger.

The spirit of these principles of handling official or business

visitors should be instilled into the members of the staff. Certain conditions make this project one that requires skill and caution. Among high-school teachers there is a high percentage of novices, and as a class they are more than ordinarily sensitive and conscious of their intellectual training. In general they possess a marked aversion to servility. It is difficult for them to acquire the desired professional poise and emotional control in the face of sharp or unwarranted criticism. As the professional leader of his staff the principal should, without demanding servility or appearing to demand it, assist his teachers to see the value of, and to acquire, calm, professional "bigness."

6. OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

Summer and Preopening Preparation. The principal (or superintendent in smaller schools) should in his first year make out a list of things to be attended to in the summer before school opens. He should begin to make this list the year before. He should consult his superintendent about these responsibilities. Each year he should revise and add to this list. It will most likely include such things as items for the first teachers' meeting or preopening bulletins to teachers; checking up on repairs, supplies, orders, etc.; items of publicity to parents and students relative to opening day; committee assignments; the school calendar of events and activities; seeing that textbooks and supplies are ordered and available; sending out notices to teachers concerning day, hour, and place of the preopening staff meeting and meeting at the end of the first day; checking up on football schedule; etc.

He will want to arrange for and publicize times when new students and parents may see him just before the opening of school. He will want to lay plans for the home rooms and assemblies for the first few weeks or see that such matters are being planned by committees.

If the school is a large school, let us say with more than 500 pupils, the principal should be available for at least a

week after the close of school and two weeks before the opening of school to consult with parents and social workers, to continue to work on the school schedule, to prepare transcripts for students going to college, to help graduates and other students in obtaining positions, to attend to various aspects of ordering and receiving supplies and equipment, to give guidance service to students and former students, and to consult with teachers about their work for the coming year. In a very large school, let us say with more than 1500 pupils, these duties will require at least half of the summer.

The Teachers' Handbook and New Teachers. In many schools, principals, or principals and superintendents jointly, prepare teachers' handbooks containing a great deal of very useful information, particularly with reference to beginning the school year. In some schools the handbook is prepared by a committee of teachers. This handbook is particularly valuable to new teachers. It should contain complete information about such matters as home rooms, extra-curricular activities, attendance checking and excuses for absence and tardiness, supplies, requisitioning, extra classroom responsibilities of teachers, standards of conduct of students, assemblies, the marking system, report cards, and guidance activities.

Where such handbooks are not available, special supervisory bulletins should be prepared and distributed to teachers. It is advisable to have a special meeting for teachers new to the school and to go over all these matters with them, explaining procedures and answering questions.

Closing the School. The last few weeks of every school year are hectic weeks, in which the beginning and inept principal will forget many things and make many mistakes unless he is very forehanded and does much planning. Below is a list of some of the duties that are peculiar to this time of the year.

1. Getting inventories from members of the staff of library books, major pieces of equipment, textbooks, and supplies.

2. Requiring and auditing reports and accounts of all funds in the keeping of student officers or members of the staff.

3. Requiring and administering requests or requisitions for instructional supplies and equipment for the following year, especially such as should be on hand at the beginning of the school year.

4. Seeing that members of the staff check in keys and other school property lent to them for their individual use.

5. Getting from the staff requests for needed repairs and replacements.

6. Arranging for janitorial work during the summer, particularly for plants, landscaping, and aquaria.

7. Getting the summer addresses of members of the staff.

8. Getting from members of the staff names of textbooks and descriptions of supplies needed for students at the opening of school.

9. Seeing that textbooks are ordered by the bookstore or, if textbooks are furnished students, by the school.

10. Planning or supervision of planning of senior day or senior week or other senior activities.

11. Seeing that all grades and other reports are turned in by members of the staff, including brief synopses of work covered in each class for the semester or year.

12. Getting necessary data for the awarding of honors, scholarships, and prizes.

13. Planning and making arrangements for commencement and other year-closing student activities.

Commencement. The commencement, or closing, exercises are discussed elsewhere in this volume.[1] The principal should begin early in the year to plan for the commencement exercises. He should have the help of a faculty committee and a student committee, or a joint student-teacher committee, and the superintendent. Among the committees sometimes used to advantage may be mentioned the following: program, finances, caps and gowns, invitations and tickets, line of march and seating, class day, and reception.

It is customary for the principal, on behalf of the faculty, to recommend the class to the superintendent, for the superintendent to present the class to the board, and for a member of the board to present the diplomas, with the principal calling each name and the student proceeding to the center of the plat-

[1]See pages 505–506.

form and receiving his diploma from the representative of the board. The audience should be requested to withhold applause until all diplomas are awarded, especially if the class is large.

Problems and Exercises

1. List, in the order of importance, the items of office equipment you would consider standard for a high school of 100 pupils or less; for one of 1000 pupils.

2. Make a list of all the types of activity which you think a principal may safely transfer to teachers, clerks, or pupils in a school of 100 pupils; in one of 350 pupils.

3. What would you consider the standard amount of paid clerical service for a high school of 200 pupils? of 500 pupils? of 1000 pupils?

4. Arrange the items of data listed in the third section of the chapter in three categories, as follows:

a. The minimum for even the smallest schools.
b. The minimum for most schools.
c. Desirable but not necessary.

5. Be able to describe how each type of statistical information given in Table XII is prepared.

6. Outline a practical organization of a principal's time for a typical week, showing the amount of time, the time of day, the day of the week, and the nature of the activity.

7. Draw a diagram of a principal's office or suite for a school of a size set by yourself.

8. Criticize the author's suggestions on office relations with patrons, pupils, and teachers.

XVI

Personnel Records and Related Problems of Administration

1. THE PURPOSES AND ORGANIZATION OF ACCOUNTING

With the development of the office of city superintendent and that of high-school principal into professional and technical positions, the practices of school administration and supervision have spread rapidly to include certain types of activities which for some time have been taken for granted in other types of administration of business or public affairs. Among these may be mentioned the activities relating to personnel records and business accounting. From the keeping of very simple and rudimentary records of attendance and credits, these activities as employed by progressive school officials have developed into very elaborate and useful types of service.

The Purposes of Records and Accounting. Systems of personnel records and business accounting serve many types of valuable purposes, prominent among which may be mentioned the following:

Personnel records

1. Aiding in studying the individual pupil

a. As a means to the adaptation of instructional means and materials.

b. In matters of moral, educational, and vocational guidance.

2. Reporting to pupils and parents

a. Progress and status in school.

b. School attendance, behavior, and effort.

3. Discovering and assisting in remedying

a. Physical defects.

b. Mental ill health.

c. Incipient disease.

4. Aiding in determining the classification and promotion of pupils.
5. Furnishing data for determining the awarding of rewards for scholarship and attendance and of recommending graduates for college entrance.
6. Promoting attendance and punctuality.
7. Providing data for educational research.
8. Aiding in the management of an administration of pupil traffic within the building.

Business accounting

1. Preventing theft and waste of materials and equipment.
2. Rendering an account of the stewardship of supplies, equipment, and funds.
3. Furnishing a basis for budget estimates.

In this chapter will be discussed accounting and related administrative problems and procedures as follows:

1. Those relating to the enrollment and registration of students:

a. General registration of students.
b. Students' choice of subjects.
c. Students' schedules.

2. Those relating more directly to instruction and educational activities of pupils:

a. Marks and credits.
b. Scores on standard achievement, intelligence, and prognostic tests.
c. Records of instructional materials used.
d. Reports to parents.

In Chapter XVII accounting and administrative problems and procedures discussed will include.

1. Those relating to attendance and punctuality:

a. Attendance records and reports.
b. Forms for the administration of attendance and punctuality.

2. Those relating to the passage of pupils to and from various parts of the building:

a. Passage about the building.
b. Excuses from class.

3. Those relating to health and physical welfare:

a. Examination records.
b. Forms for the administration of health supervision.

4. Those associated with guidance:

a. Records from intelligence, achievement, and prognostic tests.
b. Records concerning traits of personality and character.

5. Staff personnel:

Experience, training, assignment, and other information.

Business accounting, which will be treated in Chapter XVIII, includes discussions of problems

1. Relating to supplies and equipment:

a. Budgets and requisitions.
b. Inventories.
c. Records of receipt.
d. Requisitions and distributions.
e. The library.

2. Relating to funds intrusted to principal, teachers, and students:

a. Petty-cash funds
b. Student-body funds.
c. Payments made by pupils for materials, supplies, deposits, and fines.

Forms and procedures involved in the administration of extra-curricular activities were discussed in Chapters IX and X. Those related to classroom supervision are not treated in this volume, but should be considered in connection with a discussion of supervision.

The Filing of Records—the Packet System. Practically all records employed in educational accounting are kept on cards of standard size ranging from 3 by 5 inches to 8½ by 11 inches. These are commonly filed in filing cabinets, each type of record by itself. Of late a number of schools have begun to employ what is called the packet, or folder, system. In this plan most of the records of one child are kept in one packet or folder.

The packet system has one outstanding advantage and several limitations. More often than not, when it is desired to investigate the records of a pupil, more than one type of record is needed. Where the packet system is employed, it is necessary to look in but one file—the packet file—to locate all the records. Among its disadvantages may be mentioned that its use makes the recording of records cumbersome and requires more time. Moreover, when one investigator wishes to examine one complete set of records (for example, the records from achievement tests) he ties up the entire file, preventing other workers from employing any of the records of the same pupils unless he takes the trouble to remove all the achievement-test cards from the packets, to be returned later when he has finished with them.

Colored Cards. Many administrators have found the use of different colors in their card-record systems to be of great convenience. Different colors may be used to designate different types of record cards or to identify pupils as belonging to a certain grade or sex. If unexcused-absence slips are of a different color from excused-absence slips, the possibility of confusion will be materially reduced.

Centralization and Standardization. The discussions of this chapter and Chapter XVII are not intended to convey the impression that each secondary principal should set up for his school an independent system of records and related procedures. It should be realized that it is decidedly in the interest of economy, of preventing confusion, and of good administrative organization and relations that these problems be considered for the school system as a whole rather than for each school separately.

Uniform record systems and procedures should be the result of coöperative study and decision in which principals of secondary schools are consulted, especially upon points relating to their schools. Each principal should therefore be familiar with the most modern and most efficient forms and procedures and be prepared to recommend such for inclusion in the standard system for all the schools. There are many phases of records,

forms, and related technique which are of peculiar significance to the secondary school as compared with the elementary school. It is with these things in mind, as well as the fact that this volume will no doubt be read by a number of superintendents of schools, that the following discussions are offered.

2. REGISTRATION AND ENROLLMENT

General-Information Record. All students should be required immediately upon entering school for the first time to furnish certain miscellaneous information for various types of uses from time to time. What information should appear on such records may be implied from the form (Form V) suggested for that purpose.

Form V. Form for General Information concerning Pupil (3 by 5 inches)

GENERAL-INFORMATION CARD

Richmond High School

Pupil _____ _____ Address _____
Last name First name

Date of birth _____ Place of birth _____

Name of parent ____ Address of parent _____ Telephone No. ___

Nationality of father _____ Nationality of mother _____

Which parent, if either, is not living ___ Occupation of parent _____

Last school attended _____ Last grade passed _____

Date of last vaccination for smallpox _____

Occupation you think you are most likely to follow _____

Do you intend to graduate? _____ go to college? _____

These cards should be collected from students or advisers at the beginning of the term and filed alphabetically by classes. In a great many schools pupils are asked to fill out such cards at the time of each semiannual or annual registration. This practice serves to keep the cards up to date and to put into the hands of the adviser information useful in advising in the selection of courses.

At the time of registration for courses for the coming semester forms should be provided for that purpose. In many schools the parent is requested at least to note and approve the student's choice of courses. Provision for that purpose characterizes Form VI.

Not only may the number of forms be reduced by one, but much clerical labor in filling the pupil's schedule card may be eliminated if the pupil's schedule card as illustrated in Form VII is employed also as a registration or "selection of subjects" form. In that case the pupil is instructed to make no entries in columns 2, 3, 4, and 5. The labor involved in filling in column 1 is saved, since entries in this column are made by the pupil.

Form VI. Registration for Subjects. (3 by 5 inches)

REGISTRATION FORM

LEXINGTON HIGH SCHOOL

PUPIL _____ _____ DATE _____
Last name First name

GRADE CLASSIFICATION _____ ADVISER _____

CURRICULUM _____ AGE _____

			To be filled in in the principal's office Do not write here	
	PRESENT COURSES	COURSES ELECTED	SECTION	PERIOD
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

To pupil: Please designate courses specifically; for example, English 7, Algebra 8, etc.

Signature of parent _____ of adviser _____

Pupil-Schedule Cards. It is often convenient to have filled out in the office the schedule cards of pupils showing to which sections they have been assigned, the names of instructors,

Form VII. Pupil Schedule. (*3 by 5 inches*)

PUPIL-SCHEDULE CARD

NAME OF PUPIL Cawsky, Mary Jane SEMESTER 1st

CLASS Junior LOCKER NO. ____

STUDY	PERIOD	DAYS	ROOM	INSTRUCTOR
Algebra 3	1	D	16	Miss Blake
Study hall	2	D	B	Miss Andrews
Physics	3	M W F	28	Mr. Smith
Physics lab	3 & 4	T Th	29	Mr Smith
Physical ed	4	M W F	Gym	Mr. Hansen
Music	5	M W	Art	Miss Fawkes
Study hall	5	T Th F	B	Miss Wilkins
English 5	6	D	21	Miss Jones
Amer. Hist 5	7	D	14	Mr. Auld

and the recitation, laboratory, or shop rooms. While many principals employ for this purpose the registration form shown above, which requires only making appropriate notations in the last two columns, others make use of a more elaborate form as shown in Form VII. If such a form is used, the last two columns may be omitted from Form VI. This card should be made in duplicate, one copy being given to and retained by the pupil. It is convenient to have this information on the reverse of the general-information card illustrated as Form V. It is convenient also to have the schedule card handed to the pupil bear on the other side a different type of schedule form for his daily program, as shown in Form VIII.

Changes of Schedule Forms. In the larger schools it is desirable that pupils desiring to drop or add courses or to rearrange their schedules be required to write out for record an application for such change. As a matter of convenience for correcting pupils' registration forms or schedule cards as filed in the office, as well as for furnishing records and registration changes, a proper form for this purpose is very serviceable and may be very inexpensive, as illustrated by Form IX.

Form VIII. Pupil's Daily Program. (3 by 5 inches)

DAILY PROGRAM										
Period	Monday		Tuesday		Wednesday		Thursday		Friday	
	Class	Room	Class	Room	Class	Room	Class	Room	Class	Room
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										
8										

3. EDUCATIONAL-ACHIEVEMENT ACCOUNTING: MARKS, TEST-SCORES, AND REPORTS OF MARKS AND SCORES

Marks. Since teachers' marks play so important a part in the administration and management of high schools, it is incumbent upon the principal to see that marking is so done that the marks will be as valid and reliable as possible for the purpose to which they are put. A review of the purposes which

Form IX. Applying for Change in Registration or Schedule (3 by 5 inches)

CHANGE OF SCHEDULE APPLICATION

Name of Pupil _____ Date _____

1. I desire to add _____
2. I desire to withdraw from _____
3. I desire to change the hours of my schedule as follows:

_____

_____

_____

Approved _____ Signature of parent

Approved _____ Adviser

Approved / Rejected _____ Principal

school marks serve seems to support the following principles underlying an adequate system of marks and marking:

1. The marks assigned in school subjects should measure achievement in the subject concerned. School marks should not be directly based upon attendance, behavior, effort, or any other characteristic of achievement other than progress or status in the course. Any other procedure is certain to result in or contribute to

a. The misleading of investigators in educational research.
b. Lack of objectivity and validity of marks
(1) As measures of achievement and progress.
(2) As bases for promotion and classification.
(3) As data for educational and vocational guidance.
(4) As bases for college recommendations.
c. The misleading of pupils and parents as to pupils' achievements.

If it is desired to reward industry, citizenship, or achievement in proportion to ability, supplementary marks should be used.

2. Marks assigned by different teachers should represent as nearly as possible the same relative degree of achievement. Since there is no reliable method of directly equating degrees of achievement in different subjects, efforts in that direction must employ some indirect method. The method employed with greatest success is that of basing the distribution of marks on the assumption of approximately normal distribution of ability in typical classes.

3. The distribution of marks should be based upon the assumption that the courses of study for different year levels are equally well adapted to the ability of students for whom they are intended. Ninth-grade pupils should receive about the same proportion of low and of high marks as seventh-grade pupils in junior high schools and about the same proportion as eleventh-grade or twelfth-grade pupils in the traditional four-year high school. Any other condition implies one of two things: either (1) that marking is improperly done or (2) that the courses of study need revision and rebalancing in relative difficulty.

4. Final marks for a semester, quarter, month, or six-week period should represent the best possible estimate of achievement and status in the subject. This objective is not best attained by recording as the final mark the mechanical mathematical average of weighted or unweighted selected factors, such as daily class grade, final examination, written quizzes, and notebook work. The practice of assigning arbitrary weights to different ones of a group of factors considered and employing them mechanically in the determination of a final mark is not a reliable practice. Such weightings should be employed only to give pupils a general idea of the relative importance of such different factors and in a general way only as weights for averaging the factors for final marks. Weights should vary with the size of the class, the nature of classroom procedure, and, indeed, from individual to individual, depending upon what data may happen to be available for each individual. Frequently a pupil, after getting off to a poor start, will improve markedly, not only doing the later work better, but mastering that which he failed to master earlier in the course. The safe criterion to employ is that which uses whatever evidence is available in whatever way will result in the most accurate estimate of the progress and status of each given pupil at the time when the mark is assigned.

Marks in Terms of Ability. At least a few senior high schools and a number of junior high schools have attempted to convey through marks information regarding the relation of the pupil's achievement to his ability. Such a relation is often expressed as an achievement, an educational, or a subject quotient, which is the mathematical quotient of the pupil's achievement, expressed in terms of the average age of pupils attaining the same achievement, divided by the mental age of the pupil. The I. Q. becomes more or less meaningless for pupils above the age of fifteen or sixteen, and few high-school tests submit to the calculation of subject or educational ages. Hence the educational quotient is not useful in senior high schools, and it is of limited value in junior high schools.

Another device, useful at least in reports to parents, is the

notation on the report card, along with the mark, of ability to do much better work. Such a notation may take any brief and arbitrary form agreed upon, such as a circle around the mark, underscoring, or the use of colored ink. If the pupil is achieving as well as may reasonably be expected for his mental age, intelligence quotient, or previous school record, the lack of such notation will indicate that fact. It is not necessary to distinguish between those who are doing as well as was to be expected and those who are doing better than that, nor is it practical to attempt finer distinctions with data no more reliable than those ordinarily available. In fact, to do as much as that, teachers should have at hand such data as the mental ages and intelligence quotients of pupils.

The Standardization of Teachers' Marks. Most principals are aware of the fact that teachers' marks, even final marks, are unreliable, different teachers assigning different marks for the same quality of achievement, and even the same teacher assigning different marks, though in a less degree, for the same achievement at different times. It has also been shown that supposedly equivalent examinations covering the same subject matter vary so much in difficulty that the mark of the pupil is determined largely by the relative difficulty of the examination. Because of the fact that in schools where departmentalization exists each pupil is marked by several teachers, there is unusual need for coördination of the marking of members of the faculty so that marks of different teachers shall indicate about the same degree of effort and achievement. Studies of marks in various schools have shown that in a given school one teacher may assign so many more high marks and so many fewer poor marks than another teacher assigns to the same pupils that the "B" of the one teacher is equivalent to a "C" or an "A" of the other. Various means have been employed to remedy this undesirable condition. Among the best is the practice of basing the distribution of marks on what is frequently called the normal distribution, or normal curve, though there still exists much misunderstanding with respect to its merits and the technique of its use.

Fundamentals of Normal-distribution Marking. Space will not permit here an extended discussion of the theory and application of the normal distribution as applied to marking systems. It is based upon very sound fundamental principles, chief among which are the following:

1. Intellectual ability and educational attainments are so distributed among individuals that when large numbers of individuals are considered they approximate very closely the normal distribution.
2. Smaller groups of from twenty to thirty individuals in typical high-school sections almost invariably resemble the normal distribution more closely than any other type of distribution or curve, and the presumption is therefore in favor of approximately normal distribution's being present in any given class.
3. The average achievement of classes of fifteen or twenty or more students is much more nearly equivalent than the average marks assigned to pupils in such groups when marking is not based on the normal curve.

The misunderstandings concerning the application of the normal curve to marking ordinarily center round the following points:

1. The erroneous belief that the use of the concept and fact of normal distribution in marking implies that the marks assigned to each class must be proportioned exactly according to true normal distribution.
2. The erroneous belief that the use of the normal curve should be confined to the distribution of marks to pupils of many classes and not to any one class.
3. The erroneous belief that achievement in some subjects is distinctly not "normal" in distribution, that is, that all typewriting students are either good or bad, that there are no "excellent pupils" in Latin, or that all pupils in shop work are of equal ability—no failures and no outstanding pupils.
4. The erroneous belief that the use of the "normal curve" makes pupils' marks conform to a "theoretical" curve and thereby prevents the assigning of marks according to their deserts.
5. The erroneous belief that the application of the normal-distribution idea to marking implies a certain relative proportion of marks to each level; for example, 7 per cent A's, 23 per cent B's, 40 per cent C's,

23 per cent D's, and 7 per cent F's rather than 5 per cent A's, 20 per cent B's, 50 per cent C's, 20 per cent D's, and 5 per cent F's.

Observance of the following facts will go far to prevent mistakes due to such misunderstandings:

1. Normal distribution of mental capacities and attainments is not a theory, but a clearly proven fact.

2. The distribution of the achievements of a single class of twenty or more pupils almost invariably approximates normality to such an extent that with reasonable modifications it may be applied to single classes.

3. In assigning marks to pupils of a given class the instructor should make up his mind in what details the class is not "normal" and should make his distribution of marks accordingly; for example, if it is clear that in the class there are more inferior (or superior) pupils than normal, more inferior (or superior) marks should be assigned; if it is clear that no pupils should be marked as failing, no failures should be recorded.

4 The reported conclusion by a given teacher that section after section of pupils are distributed in ability in some one manner different from normality is almost conclusive proof that the supposed deviations in ability are really fallacies in judgment of the teacher; for example, the cases of those teachers who believe a large majority or even all classes taught by them are superior, inferior, concentrated at the extremes, or unduly congested in the middle of the scale of marks.

5. The application of the normal probability curve of marking permits a wide variety of plans of proportioning marks to the various levels and a variety in the number of different levels; for example, any one of the following plans:

1	2	3	4
E = 5 per cent	A = 10 per cent	95 to 100 = 7 per cent	D = 3 per cent
S = 20 per cent	B = 40 per cent	85 to 95 = 23 per cent	A = 12 per cent
M = 50 per cent	C = 40 per cent	75 to 85 = 40 per cent	B = 35 per cent
I = 20 per cent		65 to 75 = 23 per cent	C = 35 per cent
F = 5 per cent	F = 10 per cent	Below 65 = 7 per cent	E = 12 per cent
			F = 3 per cent

E = excellent
S = superior
M = medium or good
I = inferior
F = failure

D = distinction
E = unsatisfactory
F = complete failure

Improving and Administering the Marking System. Every department head and principal should study the marks assigned in his department or school. Very often this may well be assigned to a committee for study and report in group conferences. Unless the distribution of the marks of the various members of the staff has in the natural course of events come to approximate normality, as it often does, the peculiarities of the situation should be studied closely with a view to changes in the marking practices. If it is decided that the reforms needed in the marking of the school call for a change to a plan based on the "normal distribution" idea, not only should the principal familiarize himself thoroughly with the theory and practice of such marking schemes, but he should also spend some time in orienting his teachers thoroughly in it, since practice has shown that it is easily misunderstood.

From time to time, probably about once a year, the distribution of marks by various teachers and departments should be made the subject of study. Teachers whose marks vary consistently from the plan may be asked to account for the deviations, and effort may be made to convince them of the fairness and the desirability of uniform standards throughout the school.

Other types of peculiarities should also be studied, such as the tendency to base marks upon factors not a part of the marking system as agreed upon or prescribed for the school, such as attendance, effort, or other factors not essentially a part of school achievement, and the tendency to favor pupils in more advanced classes over younger pupils.

It should be impressed upon teachers that the final marks in the course should bear a close relationship to those assigned at the conclusion of six-week or monthly periods. It is difficult for parents to understand why a pupil who has been receiving passing marks for the greater part of his work in a semester or year should be given a final mark of failure.

The Percentage of Failures. Neither the "normal distribution" nor any other plan of marking enables one to decide definitely what constitutes a reasonable percentage of pupils

who should fail. Nor are there available any scientific data that will justify placing the failing work at any given point or the percentage of failures at any given number. There is much truth in the statement which has been made that one must determine rather arbitrarily about what percentage of pupils should fail on the average and adapt the marking system and practice accordingly. In recent years there has been a strong trend to the practice of failing few pupils, and the general average would probably not exceed 10 per cent. It would seem that much could be said for failing no pupils who stay in the course to the end of the semester if some form of weighting credits according to quality were employed so that those of poorest achievement would be given less than full credit for their work, let us say .5 or .6 of normal credit, and others of better performance would be given proportionately more credit.

Classes or departments in which unusually large percentages of pupils fail should be made the subject of study, the reasons ascertained in so far as is possible, and efforts made at readjustment of courses of study, better methods of instruction, or adjustment of marking practice.

Reporting and Recording of Marks. The variety of effective methods and forms used for reporting marks by the instructors to the central office and recording them on report cards and in the office is so great as to defy classification. A most effective procedure calls for a form which may be referred to as a "section-mark sheet." A portion of this form, sufficient for illustration, is shown as Form X.

If desired, provision for reporting attendance data, class standing, or final-examination marks may be made by substitution of approximate column headings for "Citizenship" and "Industry" or by providing additional columns.

These class-section sheets should be kept on file in the office until a few days before the close of each marking period, when they should be delivered to the appropriate instructors with instructions to make the appropriate entries and return to the office on or before a given date. As soon as enough of these sheets arrive in the office clerical help may be employed in

Form X. Form for Reporting Marks. (8½ by 11 inches)

SECTION-MARK SHEET

CLASS SUBJECT _____ SECTION _____ INSTRUCTOR _____

SCHEDULE PERIOD _____ YEAR _____ SEMESTER _____

NAME OF PUPIL	1ST PERIOD			2D PERIOD			3D PERIOD			FINAL EXAMINATION	FINAL MARK		
	Subject	Citizenship	Industry	Subject	Citizenship	Industry	Subject	Citizenship	Industry		Subject	Citizenship	Industry
1.													
2.													
3.													
Etc. to 35 or 40													

Summary.	A	B	C	D	E	Inc.	Total
Number of marks							
Percentage of pupils							100%

Work covered and text used during semester:

_____

_____

_____

entering the marks upon the report cards of the pupils. If no clerical help is available, teachers should be provided working space in or near the office for this task. Only in very small schools is it satisfactory to permit the teachers to take report cards to their homes or rooms for this purpose. Even where this practice is employed, the class-section sheet should be employed for the following reasons:

1. It provides a record of the work covered by various sections on sheets with the names of the pupils in each section so that a record of the curricular materials to which any pupil has been exposed is always available.
2. It provides an office record of pupils' marks other than the final mark, from which duplicate report cards may be prepared.
3. It provides a convenient source of data for checking up on the marks assigned by teachers.

At the end of the semester the section-mark sheets should be filed as a permanent record of curricular materials.

4. PERMANENT RECORDS AND REPORTS OF PUPILS' ACHIEVEMENT

Permanent-Credit Records. In every school of any size or type there should be provided and kept a file of permanent records bearing a complete statement of the credits and final marks of every pupil for every subject. These records should be card files or of the loose-leaf ledger type rather than of the ordinary ledger type. There should be a card for each individual pupil. The card should provide spaces for recording the title of every subject taken by the pupil, the final-semester mark, the amount of credit earned, and the year in which the subject was taken, citizenship ratings, and the method by which the pupil has finally withdrawn; for example, graduation, expulsion, suspension, transfer to another school, or withdrawal without transfer.

Form XI is intended for use in districts maintaining more than one junior high school and one senior high school. The form contemplates the delivery of the record to the senior high

Form XI. Permanent-Credit Record. (5 by 8 inches)

PERMANENT-CREDIT RECORD

WILLIAMSPORT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

_____ JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL WILLIAMSPORT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

NAME OF PUPIL _____ DATE OF ENTRANCE _____
Last name First name

DATE OF BIRTH _____ ADDRESS _____

SUBJECT	1st Sem.		2d Sem.		3d Sem.		4th Sem.		5th Sem.		6th Sem.	
	Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___	
	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr.	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr
Citizenship . .												
Total												

SUBJECT	7th Sem.		8th Sem.		9th Sem.		10th Sem.		11th Sem.		12th Sem.	
	Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___		Date___	
	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr.	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr.	Mark	Cr	Mark	Cr
Citizenship . .												
Total . . .												

Graduated in class of _____ Transferred from _____ High School

Entered from _____ Elementary School

Transferred to _____ High School _____ 193__

Expelled
Suspended } _____ _____
Withdrawn
Date Cause

school attended for all graduates of the school who attend a higher school, and classification of the pupils in the senior high school. The name of the junior high school may be either

printed in for each junior high school or entered with a rubber stamp. If there is but one junior high school, the name of the school should be printed on the card. If the school is a traditional four-year high school or if the records are not to be sent on to the senior high school, these two items should be omitted from the card, the name of the school, junior or senior, appearing at the top of the card, and the sections provided for the marks of each semester be reduced from twelve to eight. When these cards are printed, a supply of them on ledger paper should be ordered for use in forwarding credits to schools outside the district.

Credits earned in other schools should be entered in red ink and the name of the school entered in an appropriate place. Permanent-credit cards should be filed in separate "active" and "inactive" files. It is convenient to maintain two types of inactive files, one for graduates and one for students who have not graduated. The active file should be subdivided into year or semester classes. The inactive files of nongraduates may be grouped in periods of five or some such number of years. Files of graduates should be arranged by years or classes of graduation. All files should be kept in alphabetical order. If desired, the standard-test record or the activity record, or both, may be printed on the reverse of the permanent-credit card.

Teachers' Class Books. Teachers should be furnished with class books in which they should keep records of the following items:

1. Attendance.
2. Receipt of admission slip showing excused absences.
3. Classification of pupils as to school grade
4. Records of marks of pupils on tests, examinations, papers, notebooks, etc.
5. Period and semester marks.
6. Other items that may seem desirable.

Where possible, the office should undertake to enter in the class books of instructors the names, in alphabetical order, of all pupils enrolled in each class.

Standard-Test Records. For purposes of guidance, supervision, and investigations of various sorts a record should be kept of all intelligence tests given and the computations of mental ages and intelligence quotients made from intelligence-test scores. All students should be given at least one such test. Records should also be kept in the office of the scores made on all prog-

Form XII. Standard-Test Record
(4 by 6 inches or 5 by 8 inches)

STANDARD-TEST RECORD

ENGLETON HIGH SCHOOL

PUPIL _____ CLASS OF _____
Last name First name

DATE OF BIRTH _____

INTELLIGENCE TESTS

NAME OF TEST	DATE GIVEN	SCORE	M. A.	I. Q.

ACHIEVEMENT AND PROGNOSTIC TESTS

NAME AND FORM OF TEST	DATE GIVEN	SCORE	INTERPRETATION

nostic and standard-survey tests, particularly reading and vocabulary tests. Form XII will be found useful for that purpose.

Instructors and others giving survey, prognostic, and intelligence tests should report results of tests to the office to be entered on the pupils' record cards at the earliest convenient time. The form provided with test for the recording scores is a very serviceable blank. The standard-test record is often made a part of the permanent record and the form printed on

the reverse side of the permanent-record card. Perhaps it should be mentioned here that it is wise to require that all instructors receive permission from the principal before giving any tests other than those related to the subjects they teach.

Reports to Parents. The most common practice in secondary schools is that of sending to parents at the end of each month or six-week period a report on the progress of pupils. Such reports almost uniformly reveal the pupil's standing in his various courses for the period covered, a brief explanation of the marking system, the number of half-days the pupil was absent, and the number of times he was late. A few provide space for a brief communication to parents setting forth the probable reasons for the pupil's failure to receive higher marks. Below is reproduced a type of serviceable form for such reports.

Form XIII. Scholastic Report to Parents (4 by 6 inches)

REPORT TO PARENTS

Harrisburg High School

PUPIL _____ SEMESTER _____ YEAR _____
Last name First name

SUBJECT	PERIOD 1	2	3	FINAL Exam.	Mark	Cr.
Industry						
Citizenship						
Half-days absent						
Times late						

To parents This report is sent to you as a means of keeping you informed concerning the progress of your son or daughter. Will you please examine it, note the marks received, sign it, and return to us at your earliest convenience?

EXPLANATION OF MARKS

A = Distinction, achieved by only 7%
B = Superior, achieved by the next 23%
C = Good; average, satisfactory
D = Inferior — lowest passing mark
F = Failure

PARENT'S SIGNATURE

1. _____
2. _____

When it is desired to use one card for two semesters, a duplicate of the space provided for marks may be provided on the right half of the card and the note to parents, the explanation of marks, and space for the signature be placed on the reverse side of the card. It is still better and cheaper, perhaps, to have the form given above (Form XIII) printed on both sides of the card, using one side for each semester.

Some schools offer an additional service to parents by entering after each mark a subscript, 1, 2, 3, 4, denoting the quarter of the class in which the pupil stands with respect to his

Form XIV. Special Report of Scholastic Deficiency

REPORT TO PARENTS

This is our way of performing an unpleasant duty; namely, of informing you that the work done by - - - - - - - - - - - - - - in the following subjects

- -

has not been { at all up to his ability. / such as will earn a passing mark. } We feel sure that you wish to help in any way you can to interest him in making more satisfactory progress and are therefore bringing the matter to your attention. Can you give us any suggestions which may help? Assuring you that we are interested in

- , I am,

Sincerely yours,

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
Principal

achievement. This information is helpful when parents have difficulty in evaluating marks assigned by different teachers. If it is employed, an explanation of it should be given in the note to parents appearing on the card.

Another type of report sent to parents is a form properly filled out calling attention to poor work on the part of the pupil and asking coöperation. Such a report should be in the nature of a note, printed on paper and mailed to the parent. A suggested form is shown as Form XIV.

Though principals differ as to the usefulness of notice to parents for this purpose, many employ some such form as the following for chronic disciplinary problems. Many prefer not to use a printed or mimeographed form.

Form XV. Report to Parents of Deficiency in Citizenship

TO THE PARENT

It is my unpleasant duty to inform you that _____'s conduct and attitude at school have not been such as we should expect from {him / her} or any other good school citizen. It is naturally affecting {his / her} work. Can you be of any assistance to us?

NATURE OF OFFENSES

_____ Sincerely yours,

_____

_____
Principal

Readings in English and in Foreign Languages. It is often useful to know what pupils have read in previous courses in literature and in foreign languages, especially when the course of

Form XVI. A Pupil's Report Card. (7 by 8½ inches)

PUPIL'S NAME _____

Yr 19__ 19__		FALL TERM						
		First 6 Weeks		Second 6 Weeks		Third 6 Weeks		Term Standing
Days Absent								
Times Tardy								
SUBJECTS	Credit earned	%	**	%	**	%	**	
English								
Mathematics								
Latin								
French								
German								
Spanish								
Natural Science								
Social Science								
Geography								
Bookkeeping								
Shorthand								
Business Arithmetic								
Typewriting								
Industrial Arts								
Mechanical Drawing								
Home Economics								
Dramatics								
Journalism								
Music								
Art								
Physical Education								

EXPLANATION OF SYSTEM OF MARKING

Progress in School Work (Scholarship) * (S)

Ex — Excellent U — Unsatisfactory
S — Satisfactory F — Failure

Reasons for Progress Rating * (R)

1 Shows initiative, thinks things through for himself
2 Does accurate, neat work.
3 Makes worthy contribution to group work
4 Is in the right place at right time equipped for work
5 Makes up work promptly after absences
6 Makes earnest effort but not up to grade level
7 Makes no positive contribution to class work
8 Fails to give attention to explanations, directions, and assignments
9 Lacks adequate daily preparation.
10 Fails to hand in work on time
11 Fails to make up work after absences
12 Lacks confidence and determination
13. Shows little interest in school work.
14 Has too many absences from class.
15 Has too many outside interests.
16 Wastes time during class and study periods.

Form XVII. Pupil's Report Card. (4 by 6¾ inches)

Pupil's Report Card
Central High School, Muskogee, Oklahoma

Pupil's Name _____

Subject _____ Folio No _____

Teacher _____ Phone _____

Adviser _____ Phone _____

Hour _____ Room _____

School Year 19 ____ 19 ____

Term _____

	Recitations Attended	Recitations Missed	Unexcused Absences	Times Tardy	Unexcused Tardies	School Citizenship	Scholarship Mark
First Period							
Second Period							
Third Period							
Examination							
Total or Average							
Credits							

Teacher's Comments

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Plan of Estimating Credits

Recitations missed not to exceed	0	2	5	10			
Citizenship grade—minimum	A—	B—	C—	C—	D—	E	
Scholarship grade—minimum	A—	B—	C—	C—	D—	E	
Credits Allowed	6	5½	5	4½	4	0	

Explanation of School Citizenship

The Good Citizen In Our School Is	1 Pd	2 Pd	3 Pd	Sm Rt
1 Constructive in attitude and influence loyal and helpful in the service of our school				
2 Considerate of rights and welfare of others and careful in the use of public property				
3 Cooperative democratic sociable tolerant, optimistic and adaptable—works well with a group				
4 Industrious alert diligent, persevering energetic thorough definitely interested [illegible]				
[illegible]				
6 [illegible]				
[illegible]				
9 (Special Items)				

In this special analysis of school citizenship
1 = Very commendable
2 = Very satisfactory
3 = Unsatisfactory needs improvement
5 = Definitely unacceptable must improve

Explanation of Scholarship Marks

A—Excellent record as a student thinks and works creatively
B—Very good record as a student very satisfactory
C—Good to fair—regularly accepted for normal credit
D—Poor—unsatisfactory not a recommending mark accepted only with credit reduced
F—Very poor—definitely unacceptable—no credit allowed

In the case of subjects not counted as units (miscellaneous credit only) the marks H P P— and F are used and correspond generally to the foregoing scale, e g H = A to B etc

Address and Signature of Parent

Address _____ Phone _____

First Period _____

Second Period _____

(Front) (Back)

study in these subjects is rather flexible. If the readings are uniform for all pupils of a given class the "section-mark sheet," if similar to that illustrated earlier in the chapter, will be of service. If no such provision is made for such records, it is probably wise to provide for each class in each subject a card record which will show the class readings. If different pupils read different books or materials, as is usually the case with outside readings in literature, such records must be for individual pupils. Few schools actually keep these individual records, because of the work involved and the infrequent use actually made of them.

Credits for Outside Work. Requests are quite often made for credit for educational work done outside the school. Credit for doing home chores was advocated seriously and practiced

Form XVIII. One Section of a Pupil's Report Card
(5½ by 8½ inches)

In giving credit for work the school does not consider the performance of the act to be of chief importance. The attitude and interest of a child should figure largely. The Mark X is placed opposite to citizenship trait to which attention is called or if referring to a specific subject the number of the trait is placed in Column C under Scholarship and Effort

		1st Period	2nd Period	3rd Period	4th Period
	ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL WORK				
1	Very commendable				
2	Shows improvement				
3	Too many outside interests				
4	Does not do enough home study				
5	Gives up too easily				
6	Work carelessly done				
7	Wastes time				
8	Gets too much help				
9	Indolent				
10	Attendance irregular				
	RECITATIONS				
11	Very satisfactory				
12	Shows improvement				
13	Grade too difficult				
14	Work falling off				
15	Tremendous in charge				
16	Inattentive				
17	Seldom does well				
18	Appears not to try				
19	Can do much better				
2	Comes poorly prepared				
	CONDUCT				
21	Very good				
22	Showing improvement				
23	Whispers too much				
24	Annoys others				
25	Rude or discourteous				
26	Inclined to mischief				
27	Restless inattentive				
28					
29					

in a great many schools fifteen or twenty years ago. Credit for outside instruction in music and Bible study is still granted in many schools. Ordinarily this practice is wise only when safeguarded by relatively objective and uniform procedure, such as state approval of instructors and the requirement of the passing of state examinations. Theoretically the granting of credit for outside instruction is wholly justifiable. By so doing many pupils may, without overloading or interfering with their school work, receive very valuable instruction as well suited to their needs and interests as instruction in one or more of their regular school subjects. Yet it is very hard to determine objectively just what amount of instruction the

pupil actually received and what the quality of instruction was. Under any circumstance credit allowed for out-of-school instruction should not exceed a small total, perhaps two-year units.

Problems and Exercises

1. What purpose of records and accounting can you add to those given in the text?

2. In a school system in which there is provided a uniform system of forms and records which do not seem adequate to a high-school principal, what should be his policy and procedure?

3. Make a summary of the arguments for and against the practice of not taking attendance, effort, or behavior directly into account in determining subject marks. Should you be willing to defend in debate the basing of marks partly on any of these items mentioned? Which one?

4. Make a list of five disadvantages accruing from different standards of marking among teachers in the same school.

5. What are the principal objections to the use of a marking system based upon the "normal" distribution concept? What is the best answer that can be made to each of them?

6. Outline a series of steps showing how you would proceed to install a new marking system in your school. Where should you find illustrative data showing that practically all mental abilities and achievements are normally distributed?

7. Are there any conditions under which you would approve "passing" all pupils in the high school?

8. In case no section-mark sheet is employed, how would you have teachers' marks recorded on pupils' report cards and permanent records? Under what conditions would you advise against the use of a section-mark sheet?

9. Suggest a change for the better in the "permanent-credit record" given in the text.

10. Draw up a form for a "report card to parents," incorporating deviations from that given in the text which you think are for the better.

11. Evaluate each of the report cards illustrated, pointing out their strong, weak, and dangerous points.

12. What is the philosophy behind the trend toward new-type report cards?

XVII

Personnel Records and Related Problems of Administration (Continued)

5. ATTENDANCE AND TARDINESS

The relationship of regular attendance to the progress of pupils has been established by a number of careful studies as being positive and significant, though not as great as it is generally believed to be. The desirability of punctuality is obvious, though not in proportion to the emphasis placed upon it by a very considerable percentage of elementary-school teachers and principals and high-school principals. It devolves upon the administration of a high school to keep delinquency in attendance and in punctuality at a minimum, and every principal faces that responsibility. There are three avenues of approach to the reduction of absences and tardinesses:

1. Through the pupil.
2. Through the parent.
3. Through the attendance officer.

Devices will be discussed in the order of the types of approach to which they belong.

Through the Pupil: (*a*) Making School Attractive. If school work could be made sufficiently attractive for all pupils, there would be no serious problem of absence and tardiness. To make school so interesting seems impossible. Yet schools vary widely in their relative attractiveness. A complete discussion of how to make school attractive leads into practically all phases of classroom instruction and school administration, and would necessitate a volume in itself. Other things being equal, the desire to attend school will be greater on the part of those pupils who are enrolled in schools in which the teachers and supervisors put forth more than ordinary effort to make the task of learning interesting and engaging. Attendance is less

a problem in those schools in which assigned tasks are definite, appeal to natural desires, and allow for initiative and freedom of planning, in which teachers and principals are able to establish pleasant relations with their pupils, and in which ample recognition is made of the pupils' efforts, achievements, and difficulties. Schools with well-managed programs of activities and assemblies have less vexing problems of attendance than others. Schools which arrange for enjoyable opening exercises have less difficulty with tardiness.

Through the Pupil: (b) Indirect Incentives. School can seldom be made so attractive that through the pupils' sheer preference of school activity to all alternatives at all times all cases of excessive absence may be avoided. Artificial incentives seem to be a necessary supplement.

Among positive devices may be mentioned conference with pupils, in which the relationship of attendance to progress is discussed and in which the coöperation of the pupil in contributing to the record of the school is appealed to. Pointing out in individual conference that courtesy demands punctuality puts tardiness in a new light for some pupils. Some high schools award special recognition to punctual and regular pupils. Heck suggests the following devices of a positive type for improving attendance: honor rolls on blackboard or in newspaper, contests between groups, classroom or roll-room organization to improve attendance, holidays for pupils with perfect attendance, certificates of perfect attendance. These devices are likely to be more effective in junior high school than in senior high school, though many high schools employ one or more of them and feel that they are worth while. If exemption from examination is to be employed at all, regular and punctual attendance may well be made a condition of exemption.

Penalties for Unexcused Absences and Tardiness. Unfortunately it must be admitted that positive means will not reach all absentees and tardy pupils, and recourse must be had to negative devices. Of this type are making up time for unexcused absences and tardiness, detention after school for a

half-hour or some such period for each offense of tardiness, withholding the privilege of making up work missed while absent, requiring excuses from parents, and setting up "red tape" for admission to classes. In many schools a set number of unexcused absences during a given period automatically places the offender upon probation for a given period. Additional offenses of a similar nature call for suspension from school. The wisdom of such measures is questionable, since they are no deterrent to the worst offenders, who usually welcome the opportunity to terminate their school careers. Similarly dubious is the practice of artificially deducting from the pupils' marks as a punishment for absence, though there are many schools in which each half-day of absence carries with it automatically a reduction of one per cent in term standing, unexcused absences being penalized by greater reductions.[1] Preferable to such penalties is the revocation of exemption from examinations, and similar privileges. Still more preferable, and probably more effective, except in a very few aggravated cases, are positive incentives, such as showing an interest in good attendance records.

Through the Parent. Frequently parents are able to remove the cause of absence or tardiness or to use their influence with the pupils in bringing about regular and prompt attendance. At any rate they should be notified of absence and tardiness. Even in those cases in which parents cannot or will not aid in the matter, it is good policy to make it impossible for them to say truthfully that they were not aware of the pupil's absence or excessive tardiness

The most common means of bringing the absence or tardiness of a pupil to the attention of his parents is by requiring the pupil to present, shortly after returning to school after absence or tardiness, an application for the excuse of the delinquency. This application should be made on a form especially prepared for the purpose Such a form should furnish the parent with information about the absence or tardiness, carry a statement of the importance of punctual attend-

[1]On this point see discussion of marks in Chapter XVI, pp. 305–306.

ance, and provide for a statement by the parent of the cause of absence or tardiness.[1]

Reasons for absence or tardiness which constitute valid excuses in most schools are confined to the following:

For absence

1. Illness of pupil.
2. Serious illness or death of a member of the family.
3. Grave emergencies calling for the services or the presence of pupils at home.
4. Unusual opportunities for educational experience, such as trips and excursions not available at other times.

For tardiness

1. Occasional (not frequent) unavoidable and unforeseen delays in transportation—failure of automobile or unusual congestion or delay of traffic owing to accidents, storms, bad roads, detours, etc.
2. Occasional emergency calling especially for services of pupils before school—fires, accidents, recovery of escaped live stock, etc.

The coöperation of parents may also be stimulated by newspaper publicity regarding attendance records of the school or of groups, and the relation of punctuality and attendance to progress in school. Similar information may be furnished at meetings of parent-teacher associations. Parents may also be impressed when report cards are sent by calling attention to poor progress owing partly to absence.

Some enterprising principals employ the telephone as a means of reaching parents. As soon as the report of absence reaches the office, the office clerk is instructed to call the home and to announce that she is calling in behalf of the principal. She informs the parent that the absence has been noted and expresses the hope that nothing serious has caused it. The reasons given for the absence should be recorded in blanks provided for that purpose and be made a part of the pupil's attendance record. This service may be rendered as well by the roll-room or group adviser. It is more effective than the

[1]Illustrated and discussed on pages 423 and 424 of this chapter.

use of the written excuse for application owing to the greater embarrassment of the parent in reporting trivial causes for absence over the telephone. It also precludes the possibility of forged or delayed applications. Another advantage lies in the fact that the parent is aware of the absence at the time that it occurs and in cases of truancy may make prompt and more intelligent investigation. Short letters may be sent to those parents who have no telephone. Some principals employ the letter exclusively. It is somewhat more expensive, but is more personal and prevents the use of forged notes purporting to be from the parent. As a means of checking up for forgeries some principals keep a file of parents' signatures on cards obtained at enrollment time and occasionally compare these with signatures on excuses, including all cases arousing suspicion.

Through the Attendance Officer. The services of the attendance officer should be employed only as a last resort. Many parents are unnecessarily offended at the practice, and it is expensive. The majority of schools do not have the services of such an officer, and he is effective only in connection with absences of children of compulsory age.

Nothing in the foregoing paragraph should be thought of as applying to the new type of attendance officer or "visiting teacher." This type of official, trained for his work and going into the home to discover causes of absence in a helpful way, is likely to be of considerable assistance to the principal in diagnosing not only attendance but many other (including disciplinary) problems and the failure of pupils to achieve in school subjects according to ability.

The older type of official, now passing out of the picture, was more often than not a political appointee or "pensioner" —a man not only untrained for his work but usually of the typical low-grade police type, performing perfunctory and ineffective service or employing crude and threatening methods and language. Resort to such an officer puts the matter on a low plane and invites antagonism rather than coöperation. At most he should be employed only in the most extreme cases, where all other means have failed.

Records and Forms. The records and report forms most desirable for recording and promoting attendance are the following:

1. An attendance register.
2. Teachers' report forms for absence and tardiness.
3. Applications for excuse for parents' use.
4. Admission slips.

The two most commonly employed forms for keeping records of pupils' attendance in high school are (1) individual cards and (2) group registers. The individual card, ordinarily 4 by 6 inches, is ruled so as to provide a square for each school day of the semester or year. In these squares notations of absences and tardinesses are made, usually by the following marks: —(absent A.M.); /(absent P.M.); +(absent all day); T(tardy). Space is provided at the top of the card for the pupil's name and the semester. Compared with the register, the card record requires more time for making entries and furnishes a less convenient form for computing attendance data for reports to the superintendent's office. Among preferable types of attendance registers is one with pages measuring about 12 by 18 inches, each double page of which resembles that shown in part as Form XIX.

Space similar to that below is provided from left to right for five months or, if desired, for nine or ten months, thus making

Form XIX. Attendance Record

ATTENDANCE REGISTER

Salem High School

SEMESTER_____ YEAR_____

NAME OF PUPIL	GRADE	SEX	FIRST MONTH FROM										TO									
			M	T	W	T	F	M	T	W	T	F	M	T	W	T	F	M	T	W	T	F
1. Abel, W. A.	10	M																				
2. Ash, Joan	10	F																				
3. Etc.																						

it necessary to write the pupils' names but once for each semester or year and facilitating computations for those periods. At the extreme right are provided columns for totals of days and days attended by each pupil and at the bottom of each page are lines providing for page totals of the absences and number of tardinesses for each day. To facilitate entry on report cards or reports to the superintendent's office, columns may be provided after each month or six weeks for subtotals of absence or attendance of each pupil, and at the bottom of the page for page totals. The register may also be made up into longer pages, each containing many names, thus reducing the amount of page-turning involved in locating pupils' names.

It is also very desirable to employ with either the card or the register a notation for designating with dates the pupils who enter after school begins, those dropped or withdrawn, and those who reenter; for example, E, D, W, and R. Such data are useful for many obvious purposes, including the determining of the number of pupils belonging at any given time to the school. It is customary to drop from the roll names of pupils after a number of successive days of absences, the number varying with different schools from three to five days. Pupils returning after such periods have elapsed are recorded as "reentered" pupils. The practice results in reducing the reported number and percentage of absences.

In some of the larger schools a number of such registers or files of cards are kept, each home-room adviser keeping a register or file of cards for her group. Except where attendance is checked only at roll-room periods, this method is not very desirable

The Teacher's Attendance Report. Entries on such registers or cards are normally made from attendance reports made by teachers. Common practice is divided between (1) having such reports made daily or for half-days by roll-room or home-room advisers, to whom pupils report at the beginning of each daily or half-day session, and (2) having reports come from each teacher each period. Many principals prefer to keep in close touch with absences and therefore provide for the col-

Form XX. Daily-Attendance Report. (*10 by 5 inches*)

CLASS-ATTENDANCE REPORT

DATE _____ A.M / P.M.

INSTRUCTOR _____

NAME	PERIOD	LATE
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

(*Up to 35 or 40*)

To the instructor. Designate the period in the appropriate column. Designate tardiness with a T in the last column.

Form XXI. Period-Attendance Report. (*6 by 4 inches*)

CLASS-ATTENDANCE REPORT

DATE _____ CLASS _____

INSTRUCTOR _____

PERIOD _____

To the instructor, Mark absence in the column at the right with an A. Mark tardiness with a T.

lection of reports during each period from hooks (placed near the door of the classroom) on which the teachers file their reports shortly after the beginning of the class. Others prefer to have the reports collected only at the close of each daily or half-day session and checked on that basis. In order to discourage the practice of "cutting" study halls, study-hall supervisors should make reports similar to those made by the classroom teachers.

For these reports forms similar to Forms XX and XXI are serviceable. By employing the symbol T for tardiness an economy is made possible; namely, that the instructor at the time of class may record the names of those not present, later entering a T after the names of those who come in late. Attendance reports should be printed on medium-weight paper and furnished the teacher in packs of fifty or one hundred.

Absence reports should be posted daily in the register by the office clerk. From these reports a list of pupils absent should be prepared. After this list has been used for posting absences and tardinesses it should be preserved and each absence on it checked off as it is excused.

Application for Excuse for Absence. Many principals prefer to provide blanks to be used by parents in "writing excuses," or applications for the excuse of absence. Though the use of such forms complicates the procedure, since it compels the student to obtain a blank form upon his return and to take it to his parents before the latter are able to apply for excuse, it insures the statement of reasons for absence and prevents any misunderstanding with respect to the dates covered by the excuse. The student should be required to obtain a copy of this form when he applies for a slip for admission to class upon his return after absence; when it is received with proper entries and the signature of the parents, it should be filed in the office. Form XXII is serviceable for the purpose.

Application for Excuse for Tardiness. If so desired, the form for application for excuse for absence may also be used in connection with tardiness by printing the words "tardy for" or "tardiness" beneath the words "absent from" and "ab-

sence" in such a way that one of the two expressions "absent from" or "tardy for" may be canceled by the principal or office clerk at the time when the slip is issued. Many principals, particularly those of senior high schools, deal directly

Form XXII. Absence Slip. (3 by 5 inches)

ABSENCE SLIP

Bedford High School

To the parent: _____ was absent from _____ classes _____. Will you please use this form to apply for excuse of this absence, stating the reason for the absence Since even occasional absence constitutes a handicap to the student in his progress we know you will cooperate in keeping absence to a minimum.

Name of pupil _____ Half-days absent previously this semester _____

Reason _____

_____

Excused / Filed } in office _____ Date _____ Signature of parent

with the pupils in problems of tardiness, a form like that shown as Form XXIV being employed.

Admission to Class after Absence. Teachers should be instructed not to admit pupils on the second day after absence without an admission slip from the office. A form useful for this purpose is given as Form XXV.

The slip to be used for admitting pupils to class after absence may also, with modifications corresponding to those made in the form of application for excuse, be used to admit pupils after a tardiness as indicated in Form XXIII.

Form XXIII. Admission Slip after Tardiness. (3 by 5 inches)

ADMISSION SLIP—TARDINESS

_____ Name of instructor Please admit to class _____ Name of pupil

Time of day _____ Date _____

Reason given for being late _____

_____ Principal or office clerk

Form XXIV. Application for Excuse for Tardiness (3 by 5 inches)

APPLICATION FOR EXCUSE FOR TARDINESS

CENTRALIA HIGH SCHOOL

NAME OF PUPIL _____ DATE OF TARDINESS _____

Times tardy this semester _____

Will you be kind enough to excuse my being late at class? My tardiness was caused by _____

_____

Realizing that tardiness causes inconvenience of others and is not courteous to instructors, I will endeavor to be on time in the future.

_____
Signature of pupil

Excused } in office _____
Filed } Date

Form XXV. Admission Slip after Absence

ADMISSION SLIP — ABSENCE

[This slip is to be presented to each class from which the pupil was absent, the signature of each teacher obtained, and then filed by the pupil in the office]

Name of pupil _____ Date _____

Date of absence _____ Periods _____

Reason given for absence _____

Application for excuse { has / has not } been received from parent.

Acceptable _____

Not acceptable _____

PERIOD	SIGNATURES OF INSTRUCTORS
1.	
2.	
3	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	

_____
Principal or clerk

Teachers should be trained to consult the attendance records in their class books at the beginning of each class period and to require appropriate admission slips. When the admission slip indicates that no application for excuse has been received from the parent, the slip serves to admit for the day only, and the instructor is to insist upon a temporary admission slip on each of the following days until the admission slip indicates the receipt in the office of the application from the parent. Slips of different colors, one to indicate temporary admission and another to indicate receipt of application for excuse, will be of convenience to classroom teachers.

The absence is not regarded as excused in the office until the pupil returns his admission slip signed by all the instructors concerned. This procedure places the burden upon the pupil and enables the office to check up on the coöperation of instructors.

Many principals who do not desire to force teachers to take the time to sign such slips employ similar forms in which no place for signature is provided except for that of the principal or the attendance clerk. It is convenient to have this slip in two colors—one for "satisfactory" authorization of admission and the other for "unsatisfactory" authorization.

6. BUILDING TRAFFIC

Carrying on the work of the day in a modern high school involves the passage of pupils to and from classrooms at times other than the time for the regular passing of classes and, in addition, the occasional permission of students to spend a period in some room to which they are not regularly assigned for that period, such as the library, the laboratory, the gymnasium, or a rehearsal room. In order that this privilege may not be abused or that the pupil may not be reported as "cutting," it is necessary to provide some method of checking on such traffic. A most serviceable plan in common use is that of providing a form of pass such as Form XXVI.

By the use of such permits teachers may be protected from exploitation by adventurous pupils, pupils may be protected

from suspicious teachers, and the principal or any instructor, by asking such pupils to show their passes, may check on any

Form XXVI. Building Pass. (3 by 5 inches)

BUILDING PASS

_____ CHECK: *Day* *M T W T F*
Name of pupil *Period* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Excused from _____ to _____
Purpose _____
Time of leaving _____ time of arrival _____
Signature of person authorizing pass _____
[To be collected by the receiving teacher and filed in the office at the close of the day]

pupils found about the halls or grounds when they may reasonably be expected to be in class or study hall. Principals may also check on the extent of interruption of regular classes or study hall for various purposes: rehearsal of plays, athletics, errands for teachers.

The consideration of this item brings to mind the necessity of notifying instructors and study-hall supervisors in regard to pupils who for varying purposes have been excused from class or study hall by the principal's office. When pupils are excused from class or study hall or a part of either, the instructor concerned deserves the courtesy of a notice. This may well be in a form similar to the one given on the following page as Form XXVII.

Another type of form found useful in most schools is the telephone-call slip. Since in most schools pupils or teachers are not called from classes to answer the telephone except for very important calls, the need for this form is obvious. The notice is sent to the instructor of the appropriate classroom at the close of the period. Usually pupils are not permitted to employ the telephones during school hours, except in emergencies, though in many schools they are permitted during study-hall periods to respond to "call notices" from their parents.

Form XXVII. Excuse of Pupil from Class. (3 by 5 inches)

EXCUSE FOR ABSENCE FROM CLASS

To _____:
Name of instructor

Please excuse _____ from
Name of pupil

_____ from _____ to _____
Class or study hall Amount of time

On account of _____ _____

_____
Principal (or clerk)

Form XXVIII. Telephone-Call Message. (3 by 5 inches)

TELEPHONE CALL

For _____ Date _____

Room _____ Period _____

Called by _____

Message:

_____
Name of person answering telephone

7. HEALTH ACCOUNTING

Peculiarly unfortunate today are the pupils attending schools in which the program of health education has not gone further than classroom instruction. Committed to the principle that the conservation and improvement of health constitute one of the major objectives of education, administrators have moved rapidly within the last few years to provide more practical means of health education and supervision. These include, in addition to formal class instruction and attempts to salvage organized athletic activities from their status as educational liabilities, two closely associated types of health conservation —diagnostic methods and remedial measures. Diagnostic methods include medical examinations by those trained in

medicine, physical inspection by those trained in physical education, dental inspection usually given by dentists, and psychiatric clinics given only by trained psychiatrists. Each of these types of examination or clinics involves the problem of management and accounting, to which some attention will be given here.

Time for Giving Examinations. It is probable that medical and physical examinations should be given annually or at least biennially and at the beginning of the year in order that the follow-up may be more effective, though local physicians and dentists have often noticed that the response from parents and pupils in attending to defects is greater when the examination is given at the close of the year, owing, no doubt, to the tendency to have such matters looked after at a time when school work will not be interfered with by absence. This difference, however, is not so marked in cases of high-school boys and girls, who are employed in large numbers in the summer months. Examinations given at the beginning of the school year may better be followed up with appropriate contacts by school nurses and communications from the school to parents and the results more regularly recorded. This choice of time also operates to furnish examinations to new pupils from other schools who might otherwise go through the year without adequate attention. Owing to lack of service, it may be necessary to give examinations throughout the year. However, in schools not having complete equipment, it is better to schedule examinations in such a manner that borrowed equipment will be employed for a short period only.

Who should give Examinations? If the school enjoys the services of a school physician and a school dentist on full time or part time and one or more school nurses, the responsibility for planning and directing the examination should be assigned to the physician and the dentist, assisted by the nurses. In case the school employs a physician, no nurse, but a trained director or instructor of physical education, the latter may examine or interrogate pupils with respect to matters less technically medical, such as weight, height, posture, hearing and

vision defects, and health history, leaving to the physician the examination of tonsils, heart, lungs, skin, and nose, inspection for symptoms of goiter and nervous disorders, and the laboratory tests of urine and blood if such are made. If there is no school physician or school dentist, one of two plans may be followed: (1) either an arrangement may be made with the local physicians and dentists (preferably through their local professional society, if one exists) for coöperative free services, or (2) additional responsibility may be placed upon the instructors of physical education appropriate to the degrees of their training. If the first plan can be arranged, it is, of course, to be preferred. If there are no such properly trained instructors, an appeal to the local physicians and dentists may result in obtaining examination services gratis.

Giving the Examination. Examinations must be conducted with great care. A physical and medical examination is a very delicate matter, to which many people are extremely sensitive. No person must be assigned any detail of examination which he may not by training be expected to perform carefully with observation of all sanitary precautions. Children should be examined in the nude, if at all, only by physicians and under such conditions as are likely to be least objectionable to them and to their parents. If parents so desire, examinations by private physicians should be accepted in lieu of school examinations where the data are recorded in the same manner as in the school examination and furnished to the school as a part of its records. Although it calls for unusual diplomacy, all pupils should be required to undergo an examination either by the school examiner or by a private physician or dentist.

Proper rooms and equipment must be planned and provided for the examinations. The examining officer should be asked to designate the equipment needed, its arrangement, and the necessary supplies.

Examination Records. The records will, of course, vary with the type of examinations given. A typical record form is shown as Form XXIX.[1]

[1]Published by C. F. Williams & Son, Educational Printers, Albany, New York.

Form XXIX. Physical-Examination Record

PHYSICAL RECORD

CHILD	Last Name	First Name	Native Country	Parent's or Guardian's Name	B G	Month Day Year (Birth)	W Y B

Address _____ School _____

Date of examination							
Grade							
Height (inches)							
Weight							
Vaccinations							
Left eye							
Right eye							
Left ear							
Right ear							
Adenoids							
Tonsils							
Teeth							
Scalp							
Skin							
Posture							
Spine							
Chest							
Heart							
Lungs							
Feet							
Chorea							
Digestion							
Nutrition							
Temperature							
Other defects							
Examined by							

(Front, see page 430 for Back)

Remedial Measures. If the school enjoys the services of the school physician and the school dentist, a certain amount of simple and inexpensive treatment, especially for emergency cases, may be furnished by them. This type of service must either be kept at a minimum or be given only to pupils whose parents are known to be unable to pay for such services. To

Form XXIX. Physical-Examination Record (Continued)

PERSONAL HISTORY (dates, when possible)

C. pox _____ Deformities _____ Diphtheria _____ Grippe _____
Headache _____ Malaria _____ Measles _____ Meningitis _____
Mumps _____ Pediculosis _____ Pneumonia _____
Scarlet fever _____ Smallpox _____ Tonsillitis _____ Toothaches _____
Tubercular _____ Typhoid _____ Whooping cough _____

FAMILY HISTORY

Alcoholism _____ Tuberculosis _____ Insanity _____
Epilepsy _____ Home conditions _____

RECORD OF ADVICE TO PARENTS AND RESULTS

Date	How Notified		Defect Reported	Advice	Action	Result
	Card	Call				

(Back)

provide medical, surgical, or dental services beyond these limits is almost certain to arouse vigorous protest by local physicians and surgeons against what they consider unfair competition, although the opposition is weakening in this respect. In other schools remedial measures are confined to

1. Individual advice and instruction as a part of the health program.

2. Reports to parents of the defects and the needs for treatment that are found, with a request that in each case the parents take the initiative in obtaining treatment and in adjusting the home life of the pupil (illustrated by Form XXX).

3. Adjustments in the instruction and administration of physical education (for example, restricted or corrective exercises) and adjustments in other phases of school life but indirectly related to health (for example, lighter programs, excuse from extensive reading or home study, less pressure for better scholarship, and special fresh-air classes).

Immunization Measures. To prevent the spread of contagious diseases, it is necessary when cases of certain diseases occur in the district to require that every child attending school be immunized. In some large city districts, or smaller districts in which a fairly large number of the inhabitants live in crowded sections, and in districts located in parts of the country in which smallpox is usually very severe, it may be wise to insist that all pupils be vaccinated against the disease. Of course such requirements should in every instance be authorized by the local board of education after it has been ascertained that the state laws and court decisions support such a requirement. The parents should first be notified and given ample time to obtain the immunization treatment privately before the child is excluded from school. Many schools arrange through the school physician or through the city or county health officer to provide immunization at cost to pupils. The consent of the parents in writing, on a form similar to that shown as Form XXX, should always be obtained before such treatment is given.

Form XXX. Parent's Consent to Immunization

To parents of pupils of the _____ *School:*

The school is prepared to offer immunization against _____ at the nominal cost of __ cents per pupil. If you desire to take advantage of this service, please sign below and return this slip to us.

JAMES F. AHORN,
Principal

_____
Signature of parent

Reports to Parents. The results of the examination should be reported at the earliest convenience after it has been held. Such reports should not be extensive, detailed, or technical, but should be confined to the more important and remediable defects; for example, defective vision or hearing, undernourishment or underweight, heart defects, kidney diseases, infected or enlarged tonsils, adenoids, goiters, etc. A simple form such as Form XXXI will suffice.

Form XXXI. Report of Health Defects to Parents
(3 by 5 inches)

HEALTH-EXAMINATION REPORT

Dear _____:
Name of parent

Within the last few days _____ was examined and found to _____

_____
Name of defect, disease, or weakness

We feel sure that in the interests of the health of your { son / daughter } you will want to investigate the matter further. Will you be kind enough to report to us that you { have consulted a physician. / are giving the child attention at home. }
(Please check one or both.)

_____
Principal

Where treatment is furnished by the school, a blank upon which parents may request that treatment be furnished should accompany the report.

Athletic Permits. In order to prevent pupils from participating in athletics when to do so would endanger their health and also to protect themselves from being made to shoulder all blame in cases where pupils are hurt or become ill from participation in athletics, many principals require the parents of all participants to furnish their consent, and the same form is often used to make certain that the pupil has been given a physical examination. A suggested form is reproduced as Form XXXII.

Excusing Pupils from Physical Education. In handling excuses from participation in regular physical education Form XXXIII is serviceable.

Experience has shown that if the school has a physician such excuses should come from him rather than from the family doctor. It has also shown that the use of such excuses need not be encouraged by unnecessary publicity. Most instructors of physical education today are not only interested in seeing that no pupil should participate in work that is likely to be

Form XXXII. Permit to Participate in Athletics
(3 by 5 inches)

PARTICIPATION IN ATHLETICS

Name of pupil _____ Type of athletics _____

Physical examination shows pupil to be in no unusual danger from participation.

_____

(Signed) Family physician (Check one)
School examiner

Consent for participation is given.

_____

(Signed) Parent (Check one)
Guardian

Form XXXIII. Certificate of Physical Disability
(3 by 5 inches)

PHYSICAL-TRAINING DISABILITY

Name of pupil _____

Nature of illness or physical disability _____

Probable duration of illness or physical disability if not permanent _____

_____

Signature of school physician, nurse, examiner, or family physician

_____

injurious to him, but are also able to examine pupils and locate most deficiencies likely to be of consequence relative to participation.

8. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Classification of Pupils and Individual Needs. Pupils of the same class—for example, the freshmen or seniors—are not sufficiently homogeneous with respect to needs and interests to be assigned at random for the purposes of physical education. The following types of classification are frequently used:

1. *Sex.* The interests, as well as the capacities and abilities, of boys and girls are so different that few schools have boys and girls in the same classes.

2. *Age.* Formerly a rather good criterion when there were more retarded and more accelerated pupils. Today pupils in a given school grade are practically all within one and a half years of the median or average, that is, within a three-year span. Hence there are better criteria, although age should not be overlooked.

3. *Size and Weight.* In some schools larger boys are classified together and smaller ones together. This plan is subject to the limitation that some tall and some large, heavy boys are not well classified with smaller, more active boys.

4. *Tests of Skills.* Perhaps the best criterion is a test or rating on motor skills and athletic ability, with age and size as subsidiary criteria.

One of the most important contributions to modern practice in physical education is the tendency to study the individual pupil for physical defects and limitations, and to recommend to him remedial exercises or proscription of certain types of exercise likely to be harmful to him. For this, medical-examination results are useful.

Administrative Practices. Some types of classes in physical education may safely be larger than in the academic and vocational subjects. Classes in general exercise, either indoor or outdoor, may well run up to 50 pupils or more. Other classes, where individual attention is needed or where sports are being taught, should be much smaller.

Periods of less than 40 minutes are usually too short for anything but intensive physical exercise, after time for undressing, bathing, and dressing is deducted. Some daily exercise is very desirable. Hence, where possible, a daily period of 45 to 60 minutes is recommended for youngsters who get no other physical play or real exercise. In practice, however, two or three periods a week constitute the time allowance in the majority of secondary schools.

Classes in physical education should include some time given to lectures and discussions of exercise, recreation, and elementary problems of health. They should, however, be free from propaganda of the salesman type, and should be well planned and illustrated.

Intramural Sports. Intramural sports have been developed very rapidly in recent years and might well be substituted for interscholastic athletics in which a number of coaches give much time to the over-development of a small number of athletic boys. Perhaps the most important suggestion for intramural athletics is that they should be well supervised, and under no circumstances should pupils be permitted to engage in basketball, swimming, soccer, or track events without careful examination of the heart and, if possible, a general medical examination, or without adequate preliminary conditioning. Otherwise more harm than good is likely to result.

9. CONCERNING STAFF RECORDS

The offices of many principals contain no records of data concerning the instructional staff other than their names, their places of residence, their telephone numbers, and their teaching assignments. In many others the only additional data are those of one or more of the following types: institutions in which they were trained, the amount of teaching experience, and the nature of the certificate held. To be sure, these are very well worth recording, but, as suggested in Chapter IV, they are not enough. There should be more detailed data in regard to the nature and extent of the professional and academic training of each member of the staff and also more specific records of their professional experience, including subjects or grades taught and activities supervised. If these are obtained by the employing officer, they should be filed with the high-school principal so that he may refer to them at various times when he is planning the assignment of classes or activities to teachers. If, as unfortunately is occasionally the case, these data are not obtained when the teacher is engaged, then the principal should obtain them and make them a matter of record.

Especially in those districts in which teachers are permitted only a limited number of days' absence with full or partial pay, records should also be kept of absences. It is also useful

upon occasions to have in the office, particularly in large schools, records of committee service and of publications of members of the faculty.

Problems and Exercises

1. Outline the main features of a correlated program for improving the attendance of a high school of from one hundred to five hundred pupils.

2. What punishments or penalties should you suggest for unexcused absences and tardiness?

3. State the relative advantages of the following plans for notifying parents of absence:

a. By telephone.

b. By letter.

c. By requiring a written excuse.

Which plan do you prefer?

4. What do you consider legitimate excuses for absences from school?

5. For a high school of a certain size plan a superior system for checking attendance.

6. Do you believe that senior-high-school pupils should be required to bring excuses from their homes for tardiness? that junior-high-school pupils should be required to bring them?

7. Outline a satisfactory system for taking care of the needs for excusing pupils from class or study hall for various legitimate reasons.

8. What items might be included in a physical examination by trained instructors of physical education?

9. To what extent does the law uphold barring children from school when suffering from contagious diseases? To what extent does it uphold compelling them to be immunized from disease?

10. What should you do if parents of a pupil refused to furnish a certificate of physical disability to take part in physical education and also instructed the pupil not to report to classes in that required subject?

11. Under what conditions should pupils be called to the telephone? Under what conditions should telephone messages be given to pupils?

XVIII

Business Accounting and Administration

In addition to the problems involved in personnel records and related administration, the modern high-school administrator faces a responsibility for another type of accounting and related duties which we may call business accounting and administration. This group of duties includes participation in making the financial budget, requisitioning, storage, accounting for equipment and supplies, and the care of, and accounting for, school funds which come into his care or into the hands of pupils or teachers.

The High School as a Unit in Centralized Business Administration. In every school district there should be sufficient centralization of control and uniformity of procedure to prevent duplication, waste, and confusion, to insure articulation, and to develop lines of responsibility. On the other hand, there should be sufficient freedom of initiative to allow for the capitalization of the personality and ingenuity of individuals.

The details in the application of these two important principles will have to be set up in the light of the particular type of activity and of the size and organization of the school system. It should be obvious, for example, that complete uniformity in method of instruction is valuable only in demonstration or experimental high schools, whereas complete lack of centralization in the purchase of chalk and erasers would result in loss and waste with no compensating benefits. It is clear also that the value of centralization in purchases and of uniformity of records and related procedures increases with the size of the school system and the consequent increase in the number of schools and quantity of supplies. Though considerable centralization of authority and uniformity in the administration and accounting of pupil personnel are desirable, it should be obvious that the field in which least is to be gained

from decentralization or freedom and initiative, and in which the greatest necessity exists for centralization and uniformity, is that of the business administration of the schools—in the purchase of supplies and equipment and in methods of accounting for funds and materials.

Throughout this and the two preceding chapters the point of view is taken that as far as there exists a uniform or centralized system the high-school principal should coöperate earnestly in its administration. If it is inadequate in some respects, two courses are open for him to follow in conserving the interests of his school and his own administration. One of these is to participate by suggestion in the improvement of the central or uniform system and at rare times, when occasion seems clearly to demand it, to request that his school be permitted to deviate from the district system. This should never be done except after careful deliberation has resulted in the constructing of an irrefutable case for such exceptions.

The second avenue of procedure, which is desirable to some extent in all districts, is that of building up for the local school a supplementary system or of working out details with which to assist in the better administration of the central system and to take care of certain responsibilities not provided for by the central administration. Illustrative of legitimate applications of this course are the following cases:

The organization of a system of accounting for library books in the high-school library in districts in which no uniform system is provided.

The development of a system of accounting by pupil officers for funds of pupil organizations.

The organization and maintenance of a principal's "budget" book by entries and balances in which he may supervise the expenditures of teachers and departments within his school.

Other such applications will be suggested later in the chapter.

The two fundamental principles to be kept in mind are (1) centralization in matters of business administration is desirable, and where it exists it should take precedence over

local initiative of the individual school; (2) yet in the large number of schools in which a uniform organization or system of accounting forms and procedures is but partly developed, the principal and his staff should set up such supplementary forms and procedures as will enable them properly to discharge their responsibilities for the conservation and accounting of supplies, equipment, and funds.

1. THE HIGH-SCHOOL BUDGET AND ITS ADMINISTRATION

The High-School Budget. The principal (in small schools the superintendent) should ascertain when the budget for the schools of the district will be presented to the board of education. Sufficiently far in advance he should begin the study of the needs of his school for the coming year. He should survey general needs, such as additional housing, repairs, office equipment, and general reference works and other library needs. He should attempt to estimate the specific needs of various members or departments on his staff. If authorized by the superintendent of schools, he should ask each department head or (in the smaller schools) each teacher to prepare and submit a list of needs for the coming year. At the time this request is made it should be made clear that each teacher or head should be prepared to justify every item on his list, and that only in very exceptional instances will it be possible to obtain supplies or equipment beyond that allowed in the budget.

Criteria for Approval of Items. The principal should then study these lists, questioning teachers about items for which the need does not seem obvious. In coming to conclusions as to what recommendations he will make concerning the proposed items, he should observe the following considerations:

1. The total amount of the lists as compared with expenditures for similar purposes the previous year.

2. The financial ability of the particular district as compared with other districts: the school tax rate, the assessable valuation behind each pupil, and similar data.

3. The relative proportion between amounts requested by different departments, making allowances for differences to be expected in the light of the nature of the subject taught. Larger expenditures are necessary for instruction in science and shop work than in foreign languages, mathematics, English, and history, though in the schools where the most modern instruction is found the library facilities for the last two subjects are decidedly superior to those of the average school.

4. The probability that the teacher or teachers will make effective use of the materials or equipment involved.

5. The number of pupils served and the number of times a year the materials or equipment will be of service. For example, the expenditure of several hundred dollars for expensive units of laboratory equipment for certain experiments in physics, to be employed but once or twice a year by a few pupils, is illustrative of the lack of good business sense of some teachers and principals.

6. Most important of all, the probable increased effectiveness of instruction resulting from the proposed addition of equipment.

The Completed Budget. After having been informed by the superintendent of schools or the board of education of the maximum appropriation he can hope to receive, the principal should then prepare two lists from the items turned in by his teachers, one made up of the items selected for approval for the coming year, and the other, of those items which apparently will have to go over at least a year. From the former he is then ready to submit his estimated minimum needs in the form requested. This form may involve estimates by departments or by nature of items to conform to the central accounting system, or it may call for an unsummarized list of items. Along with this list he should present a list or summary of the requested items which were omitted from the budget as being desirable but which probably would have to go over to another year. In some districts it may seem desirable, in order not to be discriminated against because of a practice of having all original budgets returned for reduction, to submit at first a complete list of needs. When the budget has been approved in final form, the principal should discover what proportion of his

"budget" he should be able to count on. With this figure in mind he is then able to pare his original amount if that should prove necessary. He is now in a position to allot to his various departments the amounts for which he will approve requisitions during the year.

Requisitioning of Supplies. The requisitioning of all equipment, supplies, and materials should pass through the principal's office or, in the smaller schools, through the office of the superintendent of schools, for approval. Having supervised the preparation of the budget estimates for various departments in his school, the principal is familiar with the allotments to departments and other units in the construction of the budget as finally approved. He should install a method of accounting by means of which he may know at any time what portion of the funds intended for each department still remains unexpended. He should also be in a position to act as technical adviser in requisitioning, in discouraging the purchase of relatively unnecessary or expensive equipment (at least until it is certain that more practical needs will be taken care of), and in preventing unnecessary duplication in equipment.

The author once took over the superintendency of schools in a district maintaining a high school of about two hundred pupils in which there had been considerable confusion and waste resulting from the failure to observe good business procedures. At the first meeting of the board of education at least an hour was spent in an effort to discover who was responsible for various purchases for which statements of account had been submitted by various local merchants and out-of-town concerns. It developed that each department head in the high school had been accustomed to make on his own initiative and without requisition small purchases at the local stores, and that although the superintendent and the clerk of the board of education were both authorized to make larger purchases, there was no coördination between those two offices and no record of requisitions in the principal's or the superintendent's office.

Times without number suspicion has attached to teachers,

principals, and superintendents, usually without basis, in connection with purchases charged to the board of education. As a protection both to teachers and school administrators and to the district funds, a definite system of requisition accounting should be employed.

The installation and administration of a businesslike system of requisition accounting will tend to

1. Eliminate the possibility of, and the temptation to, dishonesty on the part of teachers and principals.
2. Restrict expenditures to the amounts intended for each department when the budget was constructed.
3. Make possible careful supervision of expenditures by the principal, and thus make for apportioning the available funds to most pressing needs.
4. Bring about closer contact of principal with teacher and department head and with their plans through discussions of the needs of the various teachers or departments.
5. Strengthen the position of the principal as the head of the school.
6. Eliminate politics or favoritism as frequently practiced by school clerks when teachers make all requisitions directly through the clerk.

Requisition Forms and Budget Records. Requisition forms should be prepared and employed, showing the date, nature, and amount of the purchase, the name of the dealer, and the department or teacher recommending the purchase. Most districts large enough to maintain high schools of more than six or eight teachers employ requisition blanks for all purchases. In case such a plan is used the principal should have these forms made out in sufficient duplicate so that he may retain one for his records. In case it is not, he should devise such a form for use in his school or, in lieu of that, a record book in which requests for supplies and equipment are set down as they pass through his office. He should collect and keep in his office for his own use and the use of his teachers, catalogues of all dealers in, and manufacturers of, all types of school equipment, books, and supplies.

Form XXXIV is illustrative of the better type of requisition blank employed in many schools.

In school systems in which all purchases are made by the school clerk or business manager, the requisition may be addressed to that individual, and a blank provided for the approval of the superintendent of schools by means of his signature just below that of the principal.

The Filing and Recording of Requisitions. The requisitions should be made in triplicate, one copy being filed in the office of the principal and the other two going to the superintendent or clerk. One of these will be returned later with accurate information as to the cost of the items ordered, thus enabling the principal to keep accurate records of the expenditures of the various departments in the school. In those districts in

Form XXXIV. Requisition for Supplies or Equipment

REQUISITION

Glassboro High School

DATE _____

To the superintendent of schools:

There will be needed by the _____ Department of the Glassboro High School the items described below before the dates indicated. To be purchased from

_____ (Name of dealer) _____ (Teacher or head of department)

_____ (Address of dealer) _____ (Principal)

QUANTITY	DESCRIPTION OF ITEM (CATALOGUE NUMBER)	DATE NEEDED	ESTIMATED COST	ACTUAL COST

which the principal is authorized to make small purchases without resort to the superintendent or clerk, the form given above should be used and a statement written on its face that the goods have been ordered directly by the principal.

The copies of the requisitions retained by the principal should be filed in one of two files—those of goods received and those of goods not received. By consulting the file of requisitions from time to time for goods not received, the principal may render valuable service to teachers by checking up with the clerk or dealer goods ordered but not delivered, the time of the need for which is close at hand.

The Principal's Budget Book. The amounts of requisitions should be recorded in what may be called the principal's budget book. In larger schools this book should include separate accounts for each department. The accounts should be in two columns, one for "balance of budget remaining" and the other for entries of requisitions with their numbers. A statement from these accounts sent monthly to department heads should be of service. In the smaller schools such a record should probably be of the nature of a single account for the school as a whole, serving the purpose of informing the principal as to where he stands with reference to the amount of his budget allowance remaining unexpended. Form XXXV illustrates such a record. In high schools where a competent clerk

Form XXXV. Budget Records

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION			
Date	Items	Credit	Debit
August 1, 1928	Budget allowance	$400.00	
September 2, 1928	Parallel bars, Requisition No. 412		$46.90
September 9, 1928	Playground supplies, Requisition No. 418		112.00
			$158.90
October 1, 1928	Balance, $241.10		

is employed, the keeping of such a record may be delegated to him.

The amounts of requisitions may be entered in pencil at the time of issuance, permanent entries to be made in ink when the actual costs are known.

2. STORAGE AND ACCOUNTING OF SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT

The Receipt of Supplies. Upon the delivery of supplies to the building the principal, or someone delegated by him (usually the janitor), should examine them as well as can be done before the package is opened, and if they are in bad order, note should be made of this in the receipt given to the delivering agent. The principal or his agent (preferably the person at whose instance the supplies were ordered) should check the contents of the package when it is opened, to note (1) what contents are delivered (that is, to check on shortages), (2) whether contents are exactly as specified in the requisition, and (3) whether contents are complete and in good condition.

A ledger for the purpose of recording the receipt of all supplies and equipment should be provided, and each delivery should be entered. Such entries should include the date, the name of the person or concern furnishing the supplies or equipment, a description of the supplies or equipment, and any notes that may seem desirable with respect to the three points suggested above.

The Storage and Distribution of Supplies. In the larger city districts storage places and plans for the requisitioning and distribution of supplies will probably be worked out for the entire school system. In districts where no such plans are in operation the principal should install some simple, practical system which will safeguard the supplies from theft and waste and enable him to make accounting for them.

Storage space should be provided that will give adequate protection to supplies and equipment not in use. Supplies stored in the principal's office, in a storage room, in laboratories

or shops or their stockrooms, or in the janitor's quarters should be kept in rooms, cases, or cabinets that can be locked. Keys to places of storage should be in the possession of those responsible for the safekeeping, distribution, or use of supplies—janitors, heads of departments of science, household arts, manual arts, fine arts, commercial and physical education, etc. Supplies left over from the previous year should be used before those for the current year to prevent deterioration and waste.

Free Textbooks. In schools furnishing free textbooks at least three types of records are necessary: (1) a record and an annual inventory of all textbooks belonging to the school, (2) a record of all books lent to each pupil, and (3) an account of all funds received for lost or defaced books and the disposition of such funds. The first record may consist of a card catalogue, the card for each title showing the number of copies purchased for the school and entries made at the time of the annual inventory. A record book is clearer and simpler. Comparisons from year to year are facilitated if columns for successive and yearly inventories are provided.

The second type of record may be a card or loose-leaf system, one card or leaf for each pupil showing the books received and those returned or paid for, the card being delivered to the pupil as a receipt on the annual closing of his account. However, if a permanent ledger is employed for this purpose, it will facilitate auditing the accounts of funds received from pupils. Such records should include the dates, numbers, and names of books delivered to pupils, credits with dates of books returned, and sums paid by pupils.

Equipment Accounting. An accurate description of all major pieces of equipment that are portable should be recorded in the principal's office for future reference. In this category fall typewriters, computing and duplicating machines, dictaphones, phonographs, radios, pianos and other musical instruments, filing cabinets, machines for use in shops, sewing and washing machines, household furniture and other equipment for instruction in household arts, batteries, transformers, microscopes and other equipment for instruction in science, projec-

tion machines of all kinds, cameras, expensive drawing sets, and other similar equipment and apparatus.

The record kept should include the trade name of the article, model name or number, serial number if it has one, and the name of the manufacturer, as illustrated by the hypothetical entries reproduced in Form XXXVI for smaller schools.

When any piece of equipment is removed from the building or returned to the building after having been removed, appropriate notation should be made and attached to the record. At the close of each school year the principal should conduct an inventory to insure that all such equipment remains in the building or is otherwise satisfactorily accounted for.

Supply and Equipment Accounting by Department Heads. The careful principal will also require the heads of various departments to keep equipment records for their various departments similar to that below and to file with him at the close of each school year inventories of the more valuable supplies and portable pieces of equipment. While not yet established in school-administration practice, this procedure is no more than good business procedure, and is based on principles almost invariably observed in business institutions, the inventory in the schools in June corresponding to the annual inventory in business concerns in early January.

Such records discourage waste and theft; protect teachers, department heads, and principals from rumors or accusations of waste or misappropriation by careless or mischievous

Form XXXVI. Form for Recording Inventories

INVENTORY OF EQUIPMENT

DATE OF INVENTORY. _____

1. Efficiency Duplicator — Model 4, No. 1634
2. Superba Radio — Model 91A — Superba Mfg. Co.
3. 6 microscopes — Model 13A, 2341, 2369, 2370, 2963, 2994, and 3465. Jones Lens Co.

pupils, patrons, or others; furnish a means of locating lost or stolen supplies and equipment; and provide an excellent basis for estimating the needs in the way of replacements and supplies in connection with budget-making.

No teacher or principal should object to such a procedure on the ground that it implies lack of confidence in his honesty, care, or efficiency in the management of supplies. To do so would only make him appear ridiculous, in view of the extent

Form XXXVII. Pupil Athletic-Equipment Records
(4 by 6 inches)

ATHLETIC-EQUIPMENT RECORD

NAME OF PUPIL _____ LOCKER NO. _____

SPORT: Football ____ Basketball ____ Track ____ Baseball ____

ARTICLE	NO.	DATE ISSUED	CONDITION	DATE RETURNED	CONDITION	CHARGE	PAID
Pants							
Jersey							
Shoes							
Socks							
Helmet							
Shoulder pads							
Sweat shirt							
Blanket							

to which such practices are uniformly observed in all phases of the business world, even when most successful, responsible, and reliable bankers or business heads are concerned. These matters are part of the business side of school administration and should be administered in a businesslike manner.

Those phases of supply-accounting which involve payments by pupils will be discussed in the next section as one of the types of situations calling for the accounting of intraschool funds.

Accounting for School Equipment Furnished to Pupils. For shops, household arts, commercial, athletic, and physical education, and other departments, in which equipment and supplies

are lent or sold to pupils, there should be carefully kept adequate records of the nature and amounts of supplies and equipment, and similar data relative to supplies or equipment returned. Form XXXVII is a practical form for a card-catalogue record of athletic equipment issued.

3. LIBRARY-ACCOUNTING AND RELATED ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

Library-Accounting and Records.[1] Though the elaborateness of library-accounting will vary with the size of the library and the available time of the librarian, certain records should be installed at the earliest possible opportunity. They include

1. An accession book in which are recorded the title, author, publisher, date of receipt, and cost of every book received and the classification, or call number, assigned to it.
2. A standard card catalogue, preferably employing the Dewey decimal system or the Library of Congress numbers.
3. A record of all money received for fines and lost books and expenditures from the fund.
4. A mark for identifying the ownership of the book, both on the back of the book in the form of its call number and inside the covers in the form of the stamped name of the school.
5. A charging card with pocket, to fit into the back of the book and to be kept on file at the librarian's desk when the book has been borrowed. This should provide spaces for entering the name or number of the borrower and the date of the loan; and preferably a second card, to be left in the book, on which may be stamped the date upon or before which the book should be returned.

Principals of very small schools who are, for the time being, unable to provide the minimum in the way of library-accounting should at least make adequate provision for some mark of school ownership in every book, a charging card, and a record of fines received from pupils and teachers.

[1]The necessity and procedures of acquainting pupils with the system and routine employed in the library, as well as with the ways in which they may profit most by the use of the library, are discussed in Chapter XIII.

The accession book serves to record receipts, to check the length of service of books, and to constitute a check list of all books in the library with the cost price and the name of the publisher or jobber from whom they were purchased—very useful data in assessing for lost or damaged books and for reordering to replace lost or damaged books.

Without a card catalogue a library of respectable size for a four-year high school of more than a hundred pupils or a junior high school of more than two hundred pupils is certain to be of distinctly less service than it should be, owing to the difficulty of finding books readily and of discovering what may be available in the library in any given field and whether or not given books are among those belonging in the library.

Placing some distinctive library mark, preferably on the outside back cover as well as inside the book, will assist materially in reducing the loss of books owing to carelessness and theft.

Without an adequate charging system of records standard library service is impossible. Books disappear, to return after long periods if at all. Cards constitute superior charging records and are almost universally used for that purpose. They may be filed by catalogue number, dates, etc., and are more economical in that they render unnecessary the writing of the name and number of each book, as is done in the book systems used in many small schools.

Forms of library records are not illustrated here. There exists such a high degree of uniformity for those more frequently employed that almost everyone is familiar with them. They may be obtained from any library-supply house, addresses of which any public or college librarian can readily furnish.

Books should be charged on several alternative bases: some fortnightly with the privilege of renewal if no other person has applied for the book, some overnight, some during one class period, and some for periods of twenty-four or forty-eight hours, depending on the time available and the number of students to be accommodated. What books should be placed in each category will turn on the ratio of the numbers of copies to the calls for the book at the time. Books borrowed by mem-

bers of the teaching staff should, without exception, be charged to them, though it may be useful to provide longer loan periods to members of the faculty, terminable at the instance of other members of the faculty who may wish to call in the book for reserve use in connection with class instruction. A locked box or a slot in the library door with a bin on the inside should be provided for the return of books at times when no librarian is on duty.

The Selection and Purchase of Library Books and Journals. Supervision of the expenditure of money available for library accessions should be a responsibility of the principal, who should utilize the advice of his school librarian. Some attempt should be made to determine the relative completeness of library references for the different courses and to allot library-budget items to courses or departments on that basis, tempered with the tendency to provide liberally for progressive teachers who make use of library books in daily instruction. Standard reference works suited to the ages of the pupils of the school should come first in building up a library—encyclopedias, dictionaries, and atlases. In states in which there are state libraries and state librarians, advice may usually be obtained concerning the purchase of books as well as concerning other matters of library management. The facilities of such central libraries may be taken into consideration in ordering books for the high-school library.

Checking Delinquencies. Once a year, preferably toward the close of the school year, the shelves should be read and a report filed in the principal's office of all books unaccounted for. With good library management, even in schools with superior instructors who make wide use of library books in class work, the percentage of books unaccounted for should rarely exceed 1 per cent of all the books in the library. Toward the close of the year efforts should be made to have all books charged to students or teachers returned or paid for. Lists of books charged to faculty members should be sent to them with requests to return all books by a specified time, usually some time during the last week of school.

In spite of the disagreeable features of a system of fines for books not returned when due, most librarians find it indispensable. Fines should be reasonable and yet constitute a penalty—for example, two cents a day for two weeks' books and ten cents an hour for overnight reserve books. Recognizing the forgetfulness of young people, some librarians issue a personal memorandum to each pupil through his roll-room adviser, through bulletin boards, or through other means, serving the pupil with such notice on the day before the book or books are due. In some schools pupils are required to return to their homes for books overdue a specified number of days and for overnight reference books upon failure to return them before the beginning of the first period on the following school day. To aid in the collection of fines, various measures may be suggested, including the suspension of library privileges after a period of warning and the deduction of fines from a small library deposit made at the beginning of the year. One effective means is the withholding of credits earned until fines, along with other money owed the school, have been paid.

4. FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING

The problems of financial accounting involved in secondary-school administration are various, and may be classified as belonging to one of two types: (1) those which are problems of the whole school system or are so completely removed from the immediate administration of the high school that they are not problems of the principal or his staff; (2) those which are essentially problems of the immediate administration of the school. In the latter category are the following:

1. Those associated with accounting for petty school funds which are not deposited with the treasurer of the board of education—for example, collections, funds resulting from entertainments, library fines and fees.

2. The accounting of funds associated with supplies and materials of instruction in various departments, particularly in household arts, manual arts, and art departments.

3. Those associated with accounting for funds of the student-body or student-organization activities.

It is the principal's responsibility to see that funds of these three types are systematically accounted for by a system which will permit easy objective auditing. In no instance should the management of any fund falling in any of the types given above be carried on without adequate accounting, consisting of a complete detailed record of all receipts and expenditures. No principal, teacher, or pupil should be placed in the position of not being able to account adequately for every penny of any fund or of not being subject to an objective auditing of any funds in his care.

Funds intrusted to the Principal. The principal should maintain an account of all receipts and expenditures in connection with any funds in his care. These records should show separately each amount received, with the date of receipt, the person or organization from whom received, and the occasion for the receipt of the amount. They should also show the amount of each expenditure, to whom paid, the purpose or object of payment, and the date. The principal should insist upon being able to render a statement of such funds once a year, and if they total any significant amount, upon having his account audited and approved, such audit and approval to be recorded in his account book.

Moneys collected by Teachers. The principal should insist upon similar accounts from all teachers or department heads to whom any moneys are paid or intrusted in connection with the sale of books, materials, or supplies. These also should be audited annually and the audits properly recorded. The principal should either specify or examine and approve the accounting systems employed. A good type of record system provides a card for each individual pupil in each class where supplies or equipment are charged to pupils, similar to that shown on page 448 of this chapter. On such a card should be entered all charges for supplies, the dates, the nature of the supplies, and all credits for supplies returned and payments made by pupils

for any purpose, showing from whom received and for what and to whom paid. It is much more satisfactory in larger schools that all moneys paid on such accounts be paid to the chief high-school clerk, who issues receipts for it to be presented to the instructor in charge. When this is done, it is perhaps better for instructors to use as records of payments made by pupils slips which may be made in duplicate rather than cards. The duplicate, upon which the amount due to the school will appear, is then presented to the clerk along with a payment to cover the amount. The use of such a plan relieves the instructor of the responsibility of carrying and accounting for money paid in by pupils. The clerk is required to keep such an adequate ledger of receipts and disbursements as will facilitate ready summaries by departments of amounts paid in, as well as a ready reference to payments made by any pupil or pupils,

Student-Activity Funds—the Central-Treasurer Plan. Even more important is it for the principal to see that every fund of any sort intrusted to any student officer or faculty adviser of any student activity be the subject of an adequate accounting system. Experience has definitely shown that the failure to do this constitutes an invitation to dishonesty or carelessness, which not only is distinctly harmful training to young people but reflects discredit on the administration of the school.

A plan suggested by specialists in extra-curricular activities and employed in a large number of secondary schools involves the depositing of all funds with a school or student-body treasurer and the keeping of separate accounts of receipts and expenditures by the treasurer of each organization. In this plan, as it is frequently administered, the organization treasurer deposits all receipts immediately with the school or student-body treasurer, taking a receipt therefor. All receipts are recorded as separate items in the account kept by the organization treasurer, and numbered and signed receipts showing amount, date, and person for each payment are given by him to all persons making payments, often in the form of entries in books similar to bank books and kept by the treasurer of each organization.

Pupils or officers are authorized to incur indebtedness only by means of requisitions signed by the president or the secretary (whichever has been designated by the charter or constitution) and the adviser for that organization. The requisition form should on its face advise the person or firms to whom it is issued to file it as the basis for statements rendered to the organization or student body. It should be issued in triplicate, one copy going to the central treasurer and one being kept by the local treasurer or secretary. Payments for goods or services are provided by means of requisitions upon the central treasurer for warrants or checks. These are to be issued only for items for which, as shown by his records, authorization or requisitions have been issued by the officials authorized by the organization and the faculty adviser. At stated intervals (probably monthly) the central treasurer should send to each organization treasurer a statement of the account of his organization showing receipts, expenditures, and balance. Such a system calls for the following records or forms:

1. A ledger kept by each organization treasurer showing all receipts of funds with dates, amounts, and the names of the contributors; deposits with the central treasurer; and requisitions for warrants addressed to the central treasurer.

2. Forms for requisitions or authorization to incur indebtedness made in triplicate, showing the date, the person or company whose goods or services are to be purchased, and the signatures of the authorized official of the organization and of the principal or adviser.

3. Forms authorizing warrants, to be drawn upon the central treasurer, showing the name of the person or the company to whom the warrant is to be made payable; the date, the amount, the purpose or object of expense, the number of the requisition, and the signatures of the local treasurer and the adviser. These requisitions are to be made out in duplicate, the copy being retained by the local treasurer as part of his records.

4. The ledger of the central treasurer, in which are entered in separate accounts for each organization all receipts, showing the amount, the date, the person and organization from whom payments are received, and all warrants or checks issued, showing the payee, the amount, the day, upon whom drawn, and the object of payment.

5. Forms for receipts to be made out to the local treasurer for all money deposited with the central treasurer. These should show the amount, the date, and the organization from whom received, and should be made in duplicate, one copy being retained by the central treasurer as a part of his records

6. Forms for receipts to be issued by the organization treasurer to all individuals paying money into the funds of his organization.

The accounts of the central and organization treasurers not only should be audited by a competent person frequently (perhaps quarterly) but should also be supervised by some competent member of the faculty. Frequently a member of the staff of the commercial department is asked to assume the responsibility for general oversight of the accounts and the audits, prescribing the types of account books and instructing treasurers how to keep their books.

Such a system of accounting insures all the safeguards of adequate accounting already mentioned and, in addition, introduces student officials to the responsibilities and procedures of such phases of business with a minimum of opportunity for carelessness or dishonesty, the funds themselves not being carried on the person or otherwise constituting a danger of loss and a temptation to divert for private purposes In some schools this feature is emphasized by the provision for the payment of all funds directly to the central treasurer instead of to the treasurer of the organization, the former issuing numbered receipts therefor in triplicate. One copy is forwarded to the local treasurer, who enters it on his ledger as a credit against which, when duly authorized, he may issue requisitions drawn upon the central treasurer.

Procedure where there is no Central Organization. When any or all organizations manage their funds separately, the same general principles should apply. It will be found wise to authorize expenditures only by means of requisitions signed by the student officer designated by the organization for that purpose and by the faculty sponsor. All checks should also require the signature of the organization treasurer and perhaps that of the faculty sponsor, and should be issued only for

properly requisitioned items. Copies of all requisitions should be filed with the treasurer at the time of issuance as memoranda for the authorization for issuing checks when statements are rendered the organization.

Event or Ticket Sale Accounting. It may be found desirable to authorize managers of entertainments or athletic events to receive funds and to make expenditures in connection with a particular event without formal authorization for each item. Every such person receiving funds for any student activity should be required to submit a report of receipts and expenditures. The student council or other central organization or, in the absence of any such central organization, the principal should require from the manager or treasurer a report for each event or sale. In instances of athletic contests, debates, plays, entertainments, sales, or trips made by representatives of the school, a form similar to that shown as Form XXXVIII should be employed.

Under the disbursements should be listed items of expenditures for fees of officials of athletic contests, traveling and other expenses of such officers, supplies, transportation of contestants or participants, meals and rooms of contestants or participants, miscellaneous labor, printing of programs and tickets, rental fees for costumes, halls, or fields, royalty fees, and similar items. These should be segregated as suggested by the foregoing list of heads.

Such a form may be used both for contests or events held at home and for those held in other cities to which the local school has sent representatives. To make exceptions to the regular system of requisitioning all purchases, however, operates to create confusion on the part of local merchants and others selling to school organizations, and it is very likely that employment of this type of blanket authorization should be restricted to expenses incurred upon trips away from home. Reports on receipts of money for ticket sales may be employed separately and the form correspondingly adapted.

The Activity Budget. Many schools have adopted a budget plan for extra-curricular activities. As it is usually operated

Form XXXVIII. Financial Report on School Affairs

FINANCIAL REPORT ON SCHOOL AFFAIRS

Bedford High School

NATURE OF CONTEST OR EVENT _____

DATE HELD _____ PLACE _____

Receipts

From sale of tickets _____

From other schools _____

From other sources _____

TOTAL _____

Disbursements _____

Advertising _____

Transportation _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

TOTAL _____

TICKET REPORT

Number of tickets issued	Adult _____	Student _____
Number of tickets sold	Adult _____	Student _____
Price of tickets	Adult _____	Student _____
Tickets returned	Adult _____	Student _____
Tickets unaccounted for	Adult _____	Student _____

_____ _____

Signature of approving officer Signature of reporting officer

there is but one student fee for all activities of the semester or year. This feature reduces the amount of time spent in selling tickets and operates to insure better attendance at the less popular activities. On the basis of estimates of expenditures and receipts from various sources in previous years, and with due allowance for new activities or factors which, it may be foreseen, will increase or decrease receipts or expenditures, the estimated receipts for the school year are distributed to the various activities or organizations according to their needs and the programs planned for each for the year. It is customary to allow first for class funds for social affairs usually in propor-

tion to the number of paid-in members of each class. A portion of the total receipts is reserved for emergency or unforeseen expenditures. All unexpended allotments revert to the central fund at the close of the season of activities of the organization.

The budget should be approved in final form by the central organization and the faculty sponsors only after representatives of every organization have had the opportunity to submit budget requests for their respective organizations and to protest against what seems to them to be inadequate budget allowance. This often necessitates budget "hearings." When it is finally approved, organizations should not be allowed to exceed their budget allowances, though from time to time requests for budget increases to take care of unexpectedly small receipts or large necessary expenditures should be heard by the council or whatever central organization is provided for that purpose.

Inventory at the Time of Taking over a New School. Upon taking over the responsibility for a new school a principal should take an inventory of all equipment and funds turned over to him. If his predecessor has kept an inventory book, it should be verified and any discrepancies noted and reported to the superintendent of schools, in order that disappearance of any equipment may be charged to the proper administration. If no such record is available, an inventory should be taken at once. In the case of funds, receipts should be given to the preceding principal or treasurer in duplicate, and he should be asked to return one with his signature as a memorandum.

Summary of Principles underlying Records and Accounting. In deciding upon serviceable procedures in the various types of accounting treated in this and the two preceding chapters it is necessary to keep in mind the school for which they were intended and the conditions under which the procedure, forms, and records would be employed. The principal should therefore bear in mind that the conditions existing in his school, unusual projects or procedures, or peculiar demands by outside authorities will necessitate modification and adaptation of the suggestions to fit his particular needs and conditions.

Whatever procedures or forms are employed, there are several simple fundamental principles which should be observed. Among them are the following:

1. Every form or procedure should be thought through in the light of the administrative, supervisory, guidance, or instructional activities it is intended to facilitate.

2. Forms and accounting procedures should be as few, conservative, and simple as will adequately take care of the needs. There should be no forms or items on forms or record-keeping for which there is not sufficient need to warrant the expense and time involved in their use.

3. Corollary to 2, forms should be employed in all situations in which their use will result in a net saving of time and money in the management and administration of the school.

4. The use of records and accounting should be sufficiently ample to insure effective and honest stewardship of all property and funds.

5. The records, forms, and associated procedures should involve the least possible expenditure of time and afford the least opportunity for neglect and carelessness on the part of teachers and all others involved.

6. As far as possible the use of forms, records, and accounting procedures should make a minimum demand upon the members of the staff for work of a clerical nature. As far as possible the clerical phases of all accounting should be performed by clerical help.

5. PUPIL SUPPLIES AND FREE TEXTBOOKS

Practically all schools furnish some supplies free. The majority of schools furnish textbooks free, and many supply materials at cost and textbooks on a rental basis All these accommodations involve accounting responsibilities on the part of the administration.

Instructional Supplies for Pupils. If pupils are furnished materials at cost,—for example, materials in home economics, laboratories or industrial-arts shops,—careful accounts must be kept for each pupil of all supplies disbursed and of all amounts paid. Ordinarily, payments should not be made to teachers. It is much better if payments are always made to

the principal's secretary, or better still to the clerk, secretary, or treasurer of the board of education—at least to someone who is trained and accustomed to keeping accounts and handling funds. The administration should organize a system of accounting. In addition, the administration should see that accounts are audited at least once a year and the funds deposited.

If supplies are furnished free, there should be developed some per-pupil amount as a reasonable allowance. Otherwise per-pupil costs may be excessive or unwisely distributed as among teachers or departments. Among these supplies are such things as paper, chemical supplies, art supplies.

The School Store. In many schools, stores are conducted for the convenience and benefit of students, supplying books, paper, pencils, composition books, art supplies, and the like. Usually the store is operated on a coöperative basis, selling at cost or converting profits into dividends or contributing them to some fund. The store should be put on a strictly business basis so far as accounting is concerned. There is no such thing as "the honor plan" in business. To pretend that there is in school is bad business training and an inducement to immature students to forget where the lines are that separate their own property from that of others.

Even if stores are temporary and operated by some pupil organization or club, the administration of the school should insist upon strictly business methods, including rigid accounting and the auditing of the records of everyone who handles either cash or goods. This includes the sale of tickets for any type of event, candy, refreshments, sandwiches, and all such things. Any pupil who undertakes selling must be made to realize that he is financially responsible for any shortage of funds.

Free or Rented Textbooks. Whether textbooks are furnished free or rented, the accounting is very much the same. An individual account must be set up for each pupil, preferably on a card in a file. Records should be made of each book delivered to the pupil, with the date and an entry on the condition of the

book, such as "New," "Good," "Fair," or "Poor." Rental charges should ordinarily be collected in advance. It is a good practice to insist upon a deposit to cover the cost of the books, —or most of it,—to be returned to the pupil minus the rental charge and any charges for damage to the books beyond ordinary wear and tear.

Frequently books are distributed through the home-room teachers. If so, the teachers must be instructed carefully about charging and crediting in the individual pupil's account. It is better to have books issued through the store or the office.

6. THE PRINCIPAL'S ANNUAL REPORT

The Principal's Annual Report to the Superintendent. Each year the principal should make at least a brief report to the superintendent of schools. Such a report may well include the following items of data, the starred ones being those which any report should include, even in smaller schools:

*1. Data covering enrollments in various classes and departments.
2. Data covering marks of individual teachers and departments.
*3. Age-grade tables.
4. Test results—achievement and intelligence—by grades etc.
5. Changes in instructional materials and procedures.
6. Extra-curricular activities, including publications, teams.
*7. Financial statements on funds handled by administration, students, or members of the staff.
8. Library additions.
9. Parent relationship and parent-teacher-association activities.
*10. Needs of the school: (*a*) plant, (*b*) materials and equipment, (*c*) books.
11. Recommendations with respect to curriculum.

Detailed, unnecessary statistical data should be avoided. The report should be such as will be read. In some schools it is mimeographed in attractive form and distributed to parents. In many communities sections of it are published from time to time in the local newspapers. In some, the high-school annual and the principal's report are combined as a joint enterprise.

Problems and Exercises

1. Draw up a requisition form suitable for a certain school of your own selection and describe the related procedure you would recommend.

2. To what end and in what particulars should records be kept of general supplies; for example, chalk, paper, cleaning materials, etc.?

3. Outline a talk you might give at a faculty meeting in explaining the introduction of a system of accounting for major pieces of equipment and money collected from pupils.

4. Explain how the records of athletic equipment furnished to pupils might be administered, including discussion of who would make entries and when, how financial adjustments would be made, etc.

5. Select a school of a certain size and make recommendations relative to the library, including librarians, records, forms, fines, and purchases.

6. Select some department (for example, manual training, foods, sewing, science, art, etc.) and outline a plan for having teachers sell supplies and materials to pupils as needed. Describe in detail forms and records you would install.

7. What adaptations would you recommend in applying the "central organization" plan of student-activity accounting to a school you might name or describe?

8. Make a list and sketches of forms or records needed in the central-organization system.

9. What are some of the dangers of having one general student fee and one budget for all activities? What are some of the advantages? How might the dangers be avoided or minimized?

10. Make a list of forms and one of records to be employed for all purposes in a high school (1) of from 75 to 100 pupils; (2) of from 250 to 500 pupils, (3) of over 1000 pupils.

XIX

Supervision and Management of the Building

Not the least important group of duties of the high-school administrator are those which center in the supervision of the school plant and the noninstructional relations of the pupils and teachers to it. For the purpose of discussion these responsibilities may be classified as (1) those relating to safety, (2) those involved in the management of pupil traffic within the building, (3) those related to automobiles parked near the building, (4) those associated with the problem of providing lunch at school, (5) those pertaining to the supervision of janitorial service, (6) and (7) care and use of the building.

1. SUPERVISION RELATED TO SAFETY

Means of insuring the safety of the human contents of school buildings should be carefully planned and administered. Wherever people congregate in large numbers in a building, there is unusual danger to life and property from fire and panic. Although most school buildings are constructed so as to be at least semi-fireproof, there still remains the need for precautions against fire and for plans for emptying the building of pupils and teachers quickly and safely in case of fire or panic.

Fire Prevention. Although the major responsibility for maintaining conditions which make fires unlikely should be borne by the janitorial and engineering employees, the principal should give sufficient supervision to make sure that there exists within the building no condition or practice which is likely to cause fires or to increase the danger from fires if they should start. Among the more prominent causes of fires or agencies contributing to their rapid spread are the following:

1. Storage of highly inflammable or explosive material—paper, gasoline, kerosene, or paint—in the heating plant or other rooms un-

protected by fireproof walls from the rooms in which the boiler, furnaces, or other fires are housed.

2. Storage of similar materials, oils, and oily rags in closets or vacant spaces, particularly under stairways, where there is strong temptation to utilize the otherwise unused room for storage closets.

3. Storage of inflammable motion-picture films in non-fireproof booths or containers.

4. Defective wiring.

5. Defective flues.

6. The use of matches rather than electric lights near collections of paper or exposed inflammable oils or gases.

It is the responsibility of the principal as the chief administrative officer of his building to see that no unusual fire risks exist in his building. From time to time he should inspect all the closets and storage space; and though he should not "strain at a gnat" in such matters, he should be firm in seeing that whatever highly inflammable materials are found there are removed. He should be extremely conservative in permitting anyone except a competent electrician to install any electric wiring in the building, perhaps refusing uniformly to permit any wiring to be so installed unless it is in plain view in some room or hall where people will be found a number of times throughout the day. He should know that his boiler or furnace engineer sees that the flues are kept sufficiently clean to be safe. He should at all times strictly enforce rules passed regarding the use of matches or other exposed fire in the building.

Safety in Case of Fire. The principal should make certain that in case of fire in any portion of the building, there will be adequate opportunity for all pupils to leave the building within three or four minutes without danger from other sources. This consideration makes it necessary that he install some carefully worked out plan of exit in case of fire. Ordinarily this means a definite plan for the passage of pupils from each room to the outside of the building. In many schools pupil or teacher assistants are trained to assume certain stations and to direct the passage of pupils after a plan worked out with a view to saving time and to distributing the pupils according to the

capacities of the stairways and exits. In high schools, where the problem is complicated by the fact that the pupils go to all parts of the building for their various classes and study halls, the brief directions prepared for each room as to the route of exit are typed and posted in a convenient and conspicuous place, usually about the level of the eyes, on the inside of the door through which pupils pass on leaving the room. Many principals have stimulated the organization of pupils with selected representatives as fire chief, hose men, traffic guides, and fire-drill committee to work out the plan and to guide activities during a fire.

Fire drills should be held occasionally to test the plans for emptying the building and for practice. They also serve to reduce alarm and the possibility of panic in case of a fire. The chief consideration should be orderly passing, not speed. The mistake has been made in many schools of arousing interest in fire drills by competing with a time record.

Buildings should be equipped with inside fire hose, the key inclosed in a glass case close by for prompt use in case of fire. The hose should be given a thorough testing annually to insure that the fabric or the rubber has not deteriorated. In older buildings not having this provision, at least one fire extinguisher should be located on every floor and the principal should make certain that a number of persons, either pupils or teachers, understand thoroughly how to use it.

At least once a year the principal should see that all rails and balustrades on stairs are given a vigorous testing. He should be sure that they will support not only the weight of a number of students against them in ordinary passing but also such considerable pressure as might be put upon them in case of a panic during a fire.

2. SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TRAFFIC

Traffic Planning. In most buildings space has been economized so that the passage of pupils between classes requires some conventions, just as does pedestrian traffic on down-

town streets. In many crowded or large buildings it is wise to determine what stairways should be used by pupils leaving certain rooms for another floor. Usually in such schools pupils are asked to keep to the right in passing along halls and up steps until they reach a point opposite the locker or the door of the room to which they are going. In assigning rooms at the time that the schedule is constructed, it is frequently possible with a little care to reduce materially the distance of both vertical and horizontal traffic in the building.

Order in Hall Traffic. Different schools and principals have different ideas as to what constitutes orderly passing in the halls and as to the means of securing it. The legitimate purposes of supervision of passing in the halls are to avoid rowdyism and waste of time. Except in rare instances of very poorly constructed or very badly crowded buildings it is not necessary to insist upon formal, over-dignified passing of lines of pupils. "Between classes" should be a time for a few minutes of relaxation, informality, conversation, and good feeling within the bounds set by the two purposes suggested; namely, having the pupils arrive in the next class in reasonable time and without rowdyism.

The principal who aims to prevent a pupil from slapping the back of another or to prevent the students from gathering in small groups for discussion or from eating candy or from doing other little things that help to relieve the tension of the classes, to keep young people's souls alive, and to make school seem less oppressive is borrowing trouble as well as misdirecting his own energies and those of his staff. A much better practice is that employed by principals who think less of conventional discipline and more of the practical side of the matter; namely, that of allowing all such privileges to those who will not abuse them and developing in assemblies and hall supervision a sense of pride and dignity in each individual relative to his own state of maturity and ability for self-control.

Assigning teachers to hall stations for supervision of student traffic is thought necessary in many schools; but it is probable that in most of these the teachers could be relieved of such

disagreeable policing if attention were directed toward developing in the students desirable attitudes which, with individual treatment for special cases of rowdyism, would result in a desirable hall morale.

Methods and records employed in the control of student traffic within the building other than that involved in the regular passing of classes are discussed and illustrated in Chapter XVII.

3. SUPERVISION OF STUDENTS' AUTOMOBILES

Student-Driver Problems. With the increasing number of pupils who drive to school in automobiles a number of problems have arisen. Cars and parts are stolen, cars are borrowed by friends without permission, students leave during school hours for joy rides, loafing and "petting" in the cars have become frequent, careless driving results in frequent injuries, and confusion in parking brings about numerous minor problems.

Some schools have attempted to solve the problem by forbidding pupils to park cars in the vicinity of the schools. This rule, however, usually results in much opposition, and in many schools it is definitely not practical. In other schools various plans of regulation and management have been employed to minimize the dangers and problems arising from the parking of machines near the building.

A Plan of Regulation. A plan based upon one employed at Beverly Hills, California, with modifications as suggested by practices in other schools, may be briefly described here.

All pupils driving automobiles to school are required to obtain a permit from the principal of the school. The continuance of this permit is dependent upon observance of the code set up for automobile drivers.

Parking zones on streets about the school and on school property are set aside, and each car is assigned a definite parking place. Parking rectangles large enough for one car are marked by painted lines and numbered.

Student officers appointed by the student safety committee of the

building are assigned at different periods to guard parked cars. No one is permitted to enter a car or take one from its parking place at times other than when the entire school is being dismissed except upon presentation of a permit from the principal's office.

No one is permitted to loaf in cars during hours when the school is in session.

The automobile drivers' code includes such points as the following:

1. Observance of city traffic regulations.
2. Parking in assigned parking space.
3. Lending and borrowing cars.
4. Riding on running boards.
5. Overloading cars.

All applicants for a permit are requested to file such information concerning their car as will be of service in case the car is stolen. This will include the make, the engine number, the year model, the type of body, the license number, the color of the body, the make of the tires (right front, right rear, left front, left rear, and spare), the mileage reading, the spotlight, the horn, the upholstery, the bumpers, and special marks of identification.

Officials of the Beverly Hills High School reported after a fair period of trial that the plan had resulted in practically 100 per cent elimination of parking in alleys, vacant lots, and in front of apartments and private residences, loafing in automobiles by students, driving automobiles without a driver's license, riding on running boards, lending and borrowing cars, and headlong driving around in search of a place to park. While many schools seem to get along without any such plan, others have adopted plans similar to that outlined above.

Cars of students, teachers, and other employees are safeguarded from theft and trespass. Careless and reckless driving has been materially reduced and the plea of "couldn't find a place to park" as an excuse for tardiness has all but disappeared.

4. SUPERVISION OF THE LUNCH ROOM

Lunch at School. Within recent years a rapidly increasing percentage of high schools have made provision for supplying the school lunch at cost as a school service contributing to the more primary functions of the school. Among the arguments which may be advanced for the practice are the following:

1. The time taken for lunch may be reduced and the desired longer school day realized without requiring pupils to come at an inconveniently early hour or to remain at school for classes at a late hour in the afternoon.
2. The school lunch permits a financial saving for pupils who would otherwise purchase lunches and enables others to eat a warm, fresh lunch at school rather than to eat a cold lunch brought from home.
3. Neighborhood lunch rooms and restaurants do not offer a desirable environment to high-school boys and girls—encouraging, as many of them do, smoking, gambling, and other undesirable practices.[1]
4. The lunches purchased by pupils at commercial eating places and at confectionery and soft-drink establishments are frequently not desirable from the standpoint of health.
5. The short lunch periods made possible by serving lunch at school restrict the opportunities and temptations to pupils to engage in questionable practices either within the building or outside it.
6. There is almost certain to be a material reduction of automobile traffic at the lunch hour, especially of pupil-driven machines.

Almost all the larger high schools have provided cafeterias, which are preferable to the uniform school-lunch service, owing to the differences in the tastes, dietary needs, and ability to pay existing between pupils. In smaller schools faced with the necessity of providing lunch for too small a number of pupils to warrant economical operation of cafeterias, a few warm dishes are provided for those pupils who bring their lunch from home. With careful operation, however, it has been

[1]A Texas Supreme Court decision upheld the right of the boards of education to rule that pupils may not patronize lunch wagons and to suspend pupils who persist in doing so. See *American School Board Journal*, Vol. LXXXI, No. 2 (August, 1930), p. 90.

found that the school cafeteria may be operated for a very small number of people (in some instances for as few as 25 or 30) at a cost lower than that necessary in commercial eating houses. Some small schools collect in the assembly held at the beginning of the school day slips of paper signed by pupils who will wish (1) an entire lunch or (2) whatever special warm dish or drink is to be provided for those who bring their lunches.

Management of the School Cafeteria.[1] Experience with school cafeterias under both systems has led principals to the conclusion that it is not wise to place the management of the cafeteria in the department of household arts, but to employ a woman from outside whose capacities for managing the problems of purchasing and for planning menus and service for large groups of people in the cafeteria recommend her for the position. In the larger schools the position requires practically the full time of the manager for purchasing, planning, and supervision, so that if this work is assigned to a member of the teaching staff, it leaves her little or no time for classroom service. In a number of schools the best-qualified member of the staff in household arts serves in an advisory capacity to the manager and chef in matters of diet and methods of preparing food; in other schools, chiefly smaller ones, the cafeteria is placed under the supervision of such a member of the faculty, and she is directly responsible for it.

In the smaller schools the demands made upon the individual in charge of the cafeteria are not so great. In the larger of these a cook may be employed to prepare the meals under the direction of a member of the staff who assumes the problem of managing funds and service. In still smaller schools the amount of cooking is so small that the services of an outside cook are neither economical nor necessary.

Though there are numerous exceptions, as a usual thing no member of the staff is available who is sufficiently experienced in planning and cooking for large numbers, and teachers do not usually look with favor upon the active duties or the responsibility.

[1]The housing of the school cafeteria is discussed in Chapter II.

The use of pupils registered for courses in cooking for assistance in cooking and serving the food or for washing dishes so often results in complications arising from the reluctance of some pupils to perform these duties for others, or of their parents to have them do so, that ordinarily it is not considered good policy. The conventional practice is to pay for all work done, a policy which makes it possible to hold each employee to strict businesslike account for service, even though pupils are very generally employed for the work.

The cafeteria should be self-supporting. Prevailing principles underlying the use of public moneys do not justify the sale of food or other supplies below cost. In usual practice, however, housing charges are not made against the cafeteria's funds, nor are salary items of individuals giving part time to instruction usually distributed so as to charge to the cafeteria part of the expenditure for their services. All items of supplies, fuel, labor, and management services by individuals not on the instructional or administrative staff should be paid from cafeteria funds. Equipment, repairs, and replacement are often supplied from regular school funds; but it seems logical that all equipment not needed for instruction should be paid for from cafeteria receipts, though at the time of the establishment of the cafeteria loans must be made for purchasing equipment.

A system of accounting for all funds and expenditures should be installed and operated from the beginning, and there should be an annual auditing of such accounts.

Other Places for Eating Lunch. If adequate housing is provided in the way of lunch room or cafeteria,—housing that affords comfort and opportunity for privacy to pupils eating lunch within the building,—all pupils should be required to eat their lunches there except in good weather, when, in schools where there are suitable places, they are permitted to eat on designated portions of the grounds their lunches brought from home.

In case the school does not provide cafeteria service, some convenient room or rooms should be designated for the purpose and pupils should be restricted to these rooms. In some large

high schools pupils are forbidden to eat their lunches at any commercial eating place and, in some instances, are not permitted to leave the grounds during the lunch period. The advantages of such a plan readily suggest themselves.

Pupils' Use of the Building during Lunch Hour. In those schools in which all pupils are required to eat at school and a short lunch period obtains, the problem of supervising the activities of pupils during the lunch hour is relatively simple. The time not employed in eating lunch is relatively short, and usually all teachers are in the building at this hour. In schools in which a considerable number of pupils and instructors go home to lunch and a longer lunch hour is therefore necessary, it is more complicated.

In order that temptation to disorder in the building may be kept at a minimum, one or more of the following suggestions are likely to be found useful as types of legitimate pupil activity during the lunch hour:

1. Remaining in the lunch room for orderly conversation.
2. Studying or reading in the library.
3. Playing or loafing on the playground.
4. Using a room set aside at the lunch period for chess, checkers, and other games.
5. Dancing in the gymnasium or on some other suitable floor.
6. Reporting to the classroom at a stated time (for example, fifteen minutes before the end of the lunch period) for study or conference with the teacher in charge
7. Singing in the music room.
8. Attending the "lunch-hour assembly" (for example, from 12.40 until 1 P.M.), where programs are given, including assembly singing; where talks by speakers from outside the school, by members of athletic teams, and other representatives of the school's prospective games or trips are made; where slides or motion pictures are shown; and where school yells and songs are practiced.
9. Using the halls for quiet conversation and passing only.

Faculty Coöperation. When lunch is provided at the school, it is not unreasonable to require all members of the staff to remain in the building during the lunch period, though most

of them will do so even when they are not required. If a lunch period of an hour or longer obtains, those going out for lunch should be required to return in time for room "office hours" of about fifteen minutes. When teachers leave the building for their meals, it will probably be found desirable to ask each teacher to take his turn in being responsible for supervision of the building during the lunch period. It is better to have such turns cover a period of a week than a lesser period, as it is easy to forget daily assignments even when they occur on the same day of the week. To prevent confusion due to failure to remember turns, it may be found useful to begin each weekly shift on Tuesday and to provide that the teacher just completing his shift remind on each Monday the teacher who is to be in charge for the coming week.

As in the management of the study halls, it is good practice to develop, perhaps by a committee appointed for that purpose, a set of standards and procedures to be made uniform in supervising the building during the lunch hour. When such uniformity exists, the pupil knows what is expected of him, and misunderstandings on that score, as well as between teachers, will be materially reduced.

In an increasing number of schools definite plans of organization for the noon hour have been inaugurated which provide for activities by the students under leadership of teachers and older students. The program usually selected by a committee of students, teachers, and principal, with not too much faculty domination, includes such activities as dancing, shuffleboard, chess, checkers, arts and crafts, library reading, work in shop or laboratory, play rehearsal, band or orchestra practice, and discussion groups. In some schools a room is set aside for ordinary conversation by pairs or small groups.

5. SUPERVISION OF JANITORIAL SERVICE

One of the smaller but vexatious problems of the building principal is the supervision of the cleaning of the plant. In the supervision of janitor service he often wishes for standards

which he can set up for janitors with a feeling that he is not requiring too much or requiring less than the plant should receive. He also needs to be able to evaluate such service in terms of proper methods employed. Only in the larger city school system is a special official employed for this type of supervision.

Floors. All ordinary floors should be treated with oil to keep dust down and to facilitate cleaning. Intelligent oil treatment also aids in preserving the floor. Oiling should always be preceded by a thorough scrubbing and the floors should be allowed to dry thoroughly before the oil is applied. A thin coating of hot oil should be applied with a brush or atomizer and rubbed in with a felt pad or woolen cloth, the oil that is not absorbed being wiped up. Two applications are sufficient, and such constitutes the mode of practice in schools. Unless vacuum-cleaning is employed, a sweeping mixture of dampened or oiled sawdust, sand, and disinfectant should be used. For sanitary and rapid cleaning, brushes (not brooms) from sixteen to eighteen inches wide for classrooms and wider for halls should be used. Floors of all occupied rooms and all halls should be brushed or vacuum-cleaned once a day, and in muddy weather some halls should be cleaned twice a day.

Floors should be scrubbed twice or three times a year; and if they are not oiled, one scrubbing a month is not too often. Every school should be provided with a scrubbing machine. It will save its cost in labor in a short time.

Furniture, Windows, and Walls. All furniture should be dusted once each school day, and all woodwork once a week. A more thorough dusting of the furniture every other school day may be substituted to advantage. The dusting, which should be attended to in the morning, should be done with a manufactured short-cord duster treated with furniture polish or kerosene the evening before. The desks of teachers, as well as those of pupils, should be dusted. Desks and seats should be washed twice a year. During vacation all desks showing bad scars should be sanded off and revarnished. Failure to do so invites further mutilation.

Walls, ceilings, picture frames and moldings, and window shades should be dusted or vacuum-cleaned with proper tools two or three times a year.

Windows should be cleaned on the outside with warm water containing a little ammonia. This should be done from two to four times a year, depending on the amount of dust and soot in the neighborhood; on the inside they should be cleaned every month or six weeks. Glass in doors should be washed once a week. Cheesecloth for washing and chamois for drying are very satisfactory for cleaning glass.

In buildings heated by hot-air furnaces with registers in or close to the floor, the registers should be cleaned twice a month.

Blackboards and Erasers. Blackboards should be cleaned once a week, and those used more frequently twice or three times a week. They should be washed with a heavy cloth or towel and immediately wiped with a dry cloth to prevent absorption of the water. The use of kerosene, except on slate blackboards, is not advised owing to the danger of making the board slippery.

Erasers and chalk trays should be cleaned from one to five times a week, depending upon use and condition. An inexpensive vacuum cleaner will save 90 per cent of the labor involved in cleaning erasers.

Toilets and Drinking Fountains. Toilet floors, if of tile or concrete, should be flushed or mopped daily. Urinals, toilet bowls, and seats should be washed and disinfected daily. The janitor should be instructed to take care that toilet paper and towels are supplied for lavatories. Deodorants need be used sparingly, if at all; if proper care is taken of the equipment there will be little need for them. Wash bowls, drinking fountains, and sinks should be cleaned daily. All metal work should be polished occasionally, never being permitted to tarnish. In cold weather the janitor should take every precaution, by draining toilet reservoirs and urinal tanks and by opening all faucets slightly, to prevent pipes from freezing.

Special Rooms. Manual-training rooms should be thoroughly swept every day, and shavings, sawdust, and rubbish removed.

The cooking room, including the pantry and the dining room, should be scrubbed once a week, and the garbage containers emptied and cleaned each day that the room is used.

The Grounds. After snows the janitor should be expected to have cleaned paths on all walks and steps about the school premises at least 45 minutes before the time for opening school in the morning and to clean all snow and ice from the steps, walks, and fire escapes as early as possible—not later than noon of the day after the snow falls or ice is formed. He should also see that the lawns are kept cut and rubbish raked and carried away.

Time for Cleaning. Floors should be cleaned in the evening, after school. Ordinarily no cleaning should be done until after school is out. Both janitors and principals will find it convenient to compromise on a plan which permits janitors to clean classrooms and auditorium during any periods in which they are unoccupied after lunch, and halls and corridors after 2.30 in the afternoon, and which in return allows for the undisturbed use of a few classrooms and the auditorium until 4.30 or even 5.00 o'clock. Dusting should always be done in the morning.

The scrubbing and oiling of floors, the dusting of walls and pictures, and the washing of windows on the outside should be attended to at the three vacation times: the Christmas holidays, the Easter, or spring, holiday, and the summer months.

The cleaning of blackboards and other weekly duties should be reserved for Saturday morning.

Heat Regulation. The principal should leave to his engineer, janitor, and teachers as much of the problem of heating and ventilating as is possible and consistent with necessary conditions of temperature and air in the building. He should see that the temperature in all classrooms and other rooms in which pupils are at work remains between 65 and 72 degrees, preferably between 68 and 70 degrees. He should train his teaching staff to the necessity of avoiding overheated and stuffy classrooms. Especially with older teachers who enjoy rooms with a temperature of 75 degrees or warmer, this is difficult to

do and requires firmness and persistence. He should train them in window ventilation if there is no system of artificial ventilation, urging them to allow for some fresh air at all times except when closing is necessary to prevent the temperature from falling below 65 degrees. Windows should be lowered from the top rather than raised from the bottom, as the latter practice may expose some children to drafts. Lowering several windows slightly is to be preferred to lowering one all the way. Student monitors seated close to the room thermometer may be appointed by the teacher and relied upon to look after such matters more closely than the teacher himself is likely to do.

Teachers should be trained not to tamper with the radiator or valves except as advised by the janitor or heating engineer. When insufficient heat is being supplied, the proper course is to send for the janitor and have him make adjustments. Many heating systems are so constructed that tampering with valves or steam inlets or opening windows interferes with the heating of other rooms as well. Teachers should be urged to observe these cautions. It is a realm in which the authority of the janitor or engineer should be respected and full responsibility placed upon him.

Fuel Economy. There are certain phases of the problem of schoolhouse heating that are different from those of heating other types of buildings. In addition, many janitors or engineers in small schools are not yet masters of their calling and have no adequate supervision. In such schools the principal, if tactful, may assist them in their work by calling to their attention in a friendly and diplomatic way some of the conclusions of experienced heating engineers and of scientific studies made of heating problems. Parkinson and Dockendorff, school architects at La Crosse, Wisconsin, have issued a list of suggestions on fuel economy.[1] A few of these are reproduced below with minor modifications.

1. Do not overheat the school. Save steam, and you save fuel.
2. Corridors may be kept cooler than classrooms.
3. Shut off artificial ventilators when school is not in session.

[1]See Ward G. Reeder, *Business Administration of a School System*, pp. 357–361.

4. Do not fire coal in sizes larger than a hen's egg or a man's fist; break up larger lumps.

5. Do not shake the grate any more than is necessary to keep the ash from fusing into clinkers.

6. Do not let ashes accumulate in the ash pit.

7. Keep all tubes and smoke passages clean.

8. Wash out the boiler in the spring and again in the fall.

9. Fire evenly and regularly.

Other publications furnishing information about heating problems and ventilation may be passed on to the janitor.[1]

Relations of Principal and Janitor. The relations between the janitor and the principal are more important than would seem at first sight, for these reasons:

1. The principal has a responsibility for seeing that the janitorial service of his building measures up to standard efficiency.

2. In many communities the good will of the janitor may be an important influence for good for the principal and his school.

3. Understanding coöperation between the principal and the janitor is contributory to mutual convenience, prestige, and enjoyment of professional life at the school.

A very excellent statement of *good* principles which should govern the relations between principal and janitor is given by Cubberley in his *The Principal and his School*, portions of which follow:[2]

1. Make your janitor feel that you are open to suggestions, and will welcome any ideas as to procedure that he may offer. If they are good, thank him and tell him so; if you cannot use them, explain to him why. The janitor often knows pupils and teachers well, and in addition possesses a fund of practical experience that can be made to contribute to the efficiency of the school.

2. The principal should stand ready to make the janitor's work as

[1]Kenneth G. Smith, *Short Course for Janitor Engineers* (Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin). 106 pages. C. E. Reeves, *An Analysis of Janitor Service in Elementary Schools* (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City). 194 pages.

[2]Pages 214–216. Riverside Textbooks in Education, Houghton Mifflin Company.

light as reasonably good service permits. To this end he should insist that he be provided with as good quarters and as good supplies as possible.

3. Keep in mind that his hours are long, and that he gets tired and sleepy just as other people do. Try to help him to adjust his work to a good schedule so as to lighten it when possible, and do not allow teachers to delay him unnecessarily in his work or make it difficult for him to do.

4. Protect him as far as possible from the fussy teachers of the building. Some women are never pleased with anything a man does, particularly in the line of housekeeping. Ask them not to find fault with him, especially in the presence of their pupils.

5. Do not address him as "janitor" or "George," but as "Mr. Strowbridge," and ask your teachers to do the same. When you give him instructions, do not say "Do so and so," but rather "Will you please do so and so." Don't forget to say "Good morning" to him, and if he tells you that his wife or baby is sick, ask him occasionally how they are getting along. If he works well and is attentive to little things, express appreciation from time to time. In showing visitors about the building do not ignore him, but ask him to explain things, though you might easily do it yourself.

6. Cultivate in him a feeling of ownership in the building and grounds, and occasionally take orders from him. You can afford to let him be a little important and officious provided he is rendering efficient service. Occasionally ask him if everything is all right, if he needs anything, how the furnace is working today, or how much coal was burned last month, and how that compares with a year ago. Teach him to read the meters, if he does not know, and to figure out something as to maintenance costs. Occasionally give him an artcile relating to his work, or show him a picture of some new school or school appliance.

7. Cultivate in him a pride in doing his work, and help him to find better and more economical ways of doing things. Sometimes the suggestion that you will furnish the paint or varnish for some little job will start a regular clean-up about the building. If he is interested in having some flowers in the yard let him put them out, and if necessary train the pupils to let them alone.

8. It pays well in service if the teachers and principal and janitor can work harmoniously together, to show the janitor some little courtesies occasionally that come as the joint thoughtfulness of teachers

and principal. A turkey at Thanksgiving, a box of cigars or some piece of wearing apparel at Christmas, and when the fine spring days come and there are no fires to keep up, a few days off until late afternoon to go fishing or to set out his garden, and the saving of some refreshments for him when these are served at the school, are little attentions that are much appreciated and pay big dividends.

To these may be added the following:

1. As far as possible provide a convenient and cheerful office and workroom and necessary tools and supplies. When we realize how long the janitor's hours are (often from 6 or 7 in the morning until 5 or 6 at night), it is not unwise to provide or permit him to provide a lounge for a midday nap.

2. As far as possible prevent complaints concerning a willing and conscientious janitor from reaching the superintendent of schools or the board of education. Help him to improve his weaknesses and solve his problems. Usually such a policy calls forth renewed efforts to make good and a spirit of gratitude on the part of the janitor.

The principal should attempt to discover what requirement and conditions of work of janitors and heating engineers obtain in other schools in the city and in other comparable cities. In many districts the board of education has printed rules and regulations regarding these matters which may be obtained for the writing.

The Check List of Duties. For the convenience of the janitor and also to make clear and objective the standards for the cleanliness of the plant, a schedule of cleaning duties may be prepared and given to the janitor to be posted in his workroom. In such a schedule the various cleaning activities should be classified according to the standard frequency of their performance, as daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly, or annually. Certain duties performed quarterly or annually may be scheduled for certain periods of the year. Some of those to be performed weekly may be scheduled for Saturdays.

In the larger schools it is often desirable to employ a formal method of calling attention to extra or special duties, such as repairs, opening or heating the building or certain parts of it

for evening use, and similar responsibilities. A schedule sheet will be found convenient on which items are checked as soon as attended to. In some schools order pads are employed, one copy of the dated order being retained in the office and the other sent to the janitor to be returned to the office when the duty has been performed. Form XXXIX is illustrative.

Form XXXIX. Service Request. (4 by 6 inches)

REQUEST DATE------

To----------

------ Principal

REPORT DATE------

Performed as requested----------

Signature of janitor
(or other service employee)

6. REPAIRS AND REPLACEMENTS

Detecting Needs of Repairs and Replacements. The part the principal should play in detecting the need for repairs and replacements and in requisitioning them will differ according to the organization of the "property," a business department of the school. In large schools the larger part of this work may be handled by the janitor or the mechanician, or the school carpenter through the property or business official of the board. In smaller schools these officials do not exist, and such matters should be reported through the principal. In any school, requisitions for certain types of repairs and replacements will come through him, such as those related to his office, the materials and equipment in classrooms, laboratories, and shops, which are closely related to instruction.

Instructors or heads of departments should report such needs to the principal, and in many instances he should utilize their services in planning the type of repair or replacement needed. In small schools janitors also should report through the principal, who may find their judgment very useful in specifying the details of needed repairs or replacements.

The principal, with the assistance of his staff and janitors, should make an annual survey of the plant in the late spring for repairs and replacements, which should be made in the summer months. Similarly, surveys for repairs should be made just before the Christmas and spring vacations. He should make a careful inspection of the plant, noting needed repairs and replacements and inspecting those reported to him. The janitor should occasionally accompany him on trips made for that purpose. The principal should study the relative necessity for such expenditures, selecting those to be recommended on the basis of the relative merits and the funds thought to be available. As far as possible in his recommendations he should be able to make detailed specifications as to exactly what is desired. By so doing he will increase the chances of obtaining approval for his recommendations as well as of obtaining repairs and replacements of a desirable type. He should also attempt to arrange, as far as possible, for inspection of the repairs and replacements at the time that they are made, either by himself, by his janitor, or by the member of the staff asking for them.

Need of Making Repairs Immediately. Many repairs should be made immediately. Lack of care on the part of the school management and the appearance of needed repairs invite rough usage or vandalism. Pupils tend to respect well-kept buildings and equipment. The plant should be kept attractive and never permitted to assume a run-down appearance. Not only is it bad financial policy, but it also serves to complicate the problems of discipline and to create an unfavorable attitude on the part of the pupils toward the school and its administration. Pupils should be held personally accountable for all unnecessary damage occasioned by breakage or neglect. Charges should be rendered to them and their parents after

the practice of a business firm, and future attendance in the school or receiving credits for work completed should be conditioned by the payment of the amounts due.

7. COMMUNITY USES OF THE BUILDING

The high-school plant of today is excellently suited for various types of community activity, with its gymnasium, dressing rooms and showers, its auditorium, little theater room, kitchen and cafeteria, library, music room, and shops. The thinking of school people is undergoing a long overdue change to a very sensible point of view with respect to community uses of the school plant. Until recently, there has existed an unwarranted feeling that the school plant and resources were intended to be used only for "school" purposes, during the "school" day, and with "school" children. It escaped those who shared this view that the school plant belonged to the entire community and might well be employed for any purpose of the community, particularly if that purpose partook in any way of an educational or recreational nature.

With the expansion of adult education, the use of the school plant for other than classroom instruction of regularly enrolled pupils has increased greatly. Among the community uses of school buildings may be mentioned the following:

1. Forums and discussion groups.
2. Regularly organized classes in adult education.
3. Youth clubs of various kinds—Boy Scouts, 4-H Clubs, Y. M. C. A., etc.
4. Rural life organizations—the Farmers' Union, the Grange, etc.
5. Community dancing.
6. Civic and municipal concerts, and committee meetings.
7. Parent-teacher association and various community improvement organizations.
8. Athletic organizations of out-of-school youth—basketball, soft ball, etc.
9. Non-public nurseries.
10. Mothers' clubs, service clubs, and various similar clubs and organizations.

11. Various occasional meetings—political meetings, lectures, addresses by representatives of state and national governments.
12. Community musical and theatrical organizations.
13. Public-library service.

While there is no uniform financial schedule employed, in general the following practices are most common:

1. To require a fee to cover heat, light, and janitor service, to be paid into the general funds, from all organizations capable of paying such a fee, but to charge no public admission.
2. To require a very small fee or no fee from groups of school age.
3. To require a fair commercial rental from all organizations for use of the plant for occasions on which the public is charged admission.
4. To have a fixed rate of fees or of rentals for each portion of the building used—for example, the auditorium, the gymnasium and showers, the library, the little theater.
5. To require all organizations to pay, over and above fees or rentals, for all damage to plant or equipment, above ordinary wear and tear, done by anyone using the building or equipment, regardless of whether he is a member of the organization or not.
6. To place the responsibility for the supervision of the building upon the organization and its officers, relieving the school and its staff from extra service except janitorial service.

The wider the use of the plant by the community, the more favorable is the attitude of the community likely to be toward the financial support of the school and indeed toward its entire program. It is a good public-relations policy to encourage use of the building and equipment and to regard the school as a community center.

Problems and Exercises

1. Sketch roughly the floor plans of a high-school building and plan such a course of exit of pupils from each room to the outside as would be desirable as a plan for fire drills. Also, write out a list of suggestions to be employed in fire drills for this building, including plans for pupils or teachers to render assistance in case of fire.

2. Inspect some school building and check all the features you can think of with reference to their relation to fire hazards.

3. Draw up for some particular high school a plan for handling the school lunch, including such points as time of day, rooms, supervision, after-lunch activities during lunch hour, and other points discussed in this chapter.

4. Describe and evaluate the plans employed for lunch at school and the lunch hour at two different high schools.

5. Describe and evaluate the practice of some one school in the various items of cleaning described in this chapter.

6. Write out a list of the points on which you would disagree with or question the suggestions made in this chapter.

7. Visit some high school and make a list of needed repairs. Write up the specifications for two or three of these as you would turn them in.

8. Upon what grounds could you justify the entrance of the school into competition with commercial eating places by providing lunch at cost in the school?

9. What would you consider a practical plan for preserving orderly conditions in the building at the time of the passing of classes?

10. Draw up a set of standards representing what you think might be agreed upon as a working code by a faculty, or by a faculty and pupil group, for behavior during lunch hour.

11. Mention a number of specific examples showing how a principal might make himself appear officious in educating his janitor to better methods of cleaning.

12. Write out a number of suggestions to be observed by principals in managing the relations of teachers to janitors.

XX

Utilizing Community Data and Relationships

1. SURVEYING THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

The high school is in many ways a local institution. It is true that it is a national institution in the sense that it is found in all parts of the United States and that wherever it is found it resembles what may be regarded as a national type as to organization, curriculum, and methods of management and administration. It is true also that it may be regarded as a state institution in the sense that the legal basis and source of power of public education in general lies in the states and in the sense that public high schools are subject to state control, which is exercised in varying degrees in different states. Yet after all, with the exception of a very few states, the amount of financial support of public high schools is determined largely by the legal voters of the local community, either directly or through their elected representatives, and the control of the high school within limits set by the state lies in the hands of local boards of education and their appointed administrative officers. In addition the extent and type of need for secondary schools and secondary education vary with the local districts, their resources, population, economic pursuits, and other local conditions. Hence the principal or superintendent must realize that carrying on a successful administration of a high school involves successful relations with, and leadership of, the local community; that it involves a study of the local community: its needs, its possibilities, and the means by which leadership may be most effectively exercised.

Community Resources and the Educational Program. Upon taking over the responsibility for a local high school the principal should inform himself as to the assessed valuation of the district, the relation of assessed valuation to true valuation, the

present tax rate, and the indebtedness of the district. These figures should be studied and interpreted in the light of similar figures for comparable districts in the state and in other states. A careful study of the state school law should be made, with a view to ascertaining the sources of school funds and the extent and conditions of state aid and funds for secondary education. All these facts should be taken into consideration in outlining a program of secondary education.

Let us consider a concrete example. In District X, a small town district with a population of 2200, the assessed valuation, approximately 60 per cent of the true valuation, is $1,400,000. The high school has an enrollment of 210 pupils, about 70 of whom are nonresident pupils whose tuition is paid for at the rate of half the total cost per pupil. The cost per pupil for high-school instruction, including proper charges for buildings and grounds, is $145 a year; the tax rate for schools ranges round 38 mills on the dollar; and there is a bonded indebtedness of $95,000 falling due at the rate of roughly, $15,500 a year, including interest. Upon a study of these conditions and comparison with similar figures for other districts, it will be apparent that the amount of true wealth behind each child in the district is small, the bonded indebtedness large, and the tax rate unusually high. Expansion or other development which involves new buildings or increase in the teaching staff—the two chief elements in costs—must be confined to the most essential things. Attention must be turned to the study of the possibilities of economies: for example, to the tuition of the nonresident pupils and to the possibility of reducing the size of the teaching staff by eliminating small sections.

In another part of the state is District Y, of similar size. A large amount of railway property lies within the district limits, as does a large manufacturing plant assessed at $400,000. The valuation of $4,200,000 is much less than half the true valuation of the district. The district has a bonded indebtedness of $70,000, the remainder of an original issue of $140,000, and a high school of 170 pupils, of whom about 40 come in from other districts and pay a tuition of $150 a year. The cost of

secondary education per pupil is $160 a year and the tax rate is only 12 mills. In such a district higher salaries, a larger variety of electives with smaller sections, the six-year high school with junior and senior divisions, housing additions to provide adequate gymnasiums and auditoriums, and other means of improving educational organization and service may be recommended with more freedom than would be wise in District X. Building plans may be more adequate and complete for District Y than for District X. In general a program perfectly feasible in District Y will, if ever attained, have to be introduced slowly and carefully in District X.

These and other similar problems make it a part of professional wisdom to make a careful study of the resources of the community interpreted in the light of comparable data before formulating the educational program for a high school, in order to avoid the possibility of recommending or initiating a program which is not in keeping with the ability of the local district to pay for education.

Community Activities and Needs and the Educational Program. Not only should a program of secondary education be based upon the ability of the community to pay for it, but it should also be thought through in the light of the activities and needs of the community. The most judicious principal will exert himself in getting clearly in mind the peculiar composition and needs of the district served by the school. He should soon come to know the principal facts regarding

1. The industries and occupations of the people of the district.
2. The racial composition of the population of the district.
3. The religious composition of the population.
4. The attitudes that are taken toward
   a. Secondary and higher education.
   b. Culture and things intellectual.
   c. Public and private schools.
5. The "lines of cleavage": political, religious, social, commercial.

Though it is very easy to lay too much stress on the matter of adapting the program of studies of the high school to the

needs of the community, it is nevertheless of considerable importance. It is true that the population of most communities is not sufficiently stable to warrant adapting the offerings of the school at all closely to the principal industries of the district; yet this factor should not be overlooked, particularly in communities in which one or two types of occupations are unusually prominent, such as agricultural districts or those in which manufacturing or mining constitutes the chief occupation. Even more important in course-of-study making is the necessity of keeping in mind the general background of the homes from which high-school pupils will come, the type and level of culture, the variety of common knowledge that may be taken for granted, and the types of knowledge, ideals, and attitudes that are comparatively lacking. For example, it seems incumbent upon the school to provide, through the avenues of subject matter and in the housing environment, greater and richer stimuli to æsthetic and cultural development for children coming from homes in which these things are relatively lacking than in districts the high-school children of which are largely from homes of relatively cultured parents.

It should be obvious too that these facts are of great significance in any practical scheme of guidance. Though it is desirable that not only the principal but all the teachers be familiar with their community in these respects, the liaison officer is the principal. It is he who must interpret the community to his staff, his teachers, his course-of-study makers, and his guidance assistants.

Racial peculiarities likewise are influential in the determination of the type of subject matter which will be most useful in developing independent, loyal, social-minded citizens capable of enjoying life on the higher levels.

The type of program offered—at least the rapidity with which it is developed—will also depend upon the attitude of the people toward things educational and cultural and toward public secondary and higher education Relative zeal for secondary education, a desire for the best, and faith in the institution must not only be matters of education, but the present

status of these matters in different quarters must also be studied and known.

Community Attitudes. The shrewd principal also studies his community for other types of data. Realizing that he must command the support of his community for his school and his program for it, he is careful to avoid crucial mistakes due to his ignorance of the divisions which exist among the people in his district. These divisions may be religious, racial, political, fraternal, or commercial: Protestants and Catholics, Methodists and Baptists, Negro and white, Jews or Italians or Irish or other "foreigners" and "Americans," Democrats and Republicans, Masons and Knights of Columbus, rival banks of financial cliques, two sides of the railroad, two sections of the retail district, or the "wets" and the "drys." In a great many communities a majority of these types of division exist in some form or other, mild or acute. In the large majority of village or town districts one or more types of division are fairly acute. The principal or even the teacher who consciously or unconsciously allies himself with one or the other faction assumes immediately a burden or handicap which more often than not is sufficient to offset what may be gained by the support of the faction favored.

Very often the "alliance" is unconscious or only apparent. During his first principalship in a small Missouri town the writer occasionally "dropped in" for a half-hour at one of the two banks in the village and sat in a sort of lobby which was a social meeting place for business men after banking hours. The practice was cut short when he was "tipped off" that he was coming to be regarded as allied with the "Brown" crowd.

Unfortunately four of the six members of the board of education in this district belonged to one church. It was practically impossible to refuse to renew the contract of any teacher of any other denomination, no matter how inefficient the teacher, without being suspected of "playing up to the board." In this village the writer happened to find his closer social friends among people who were regarded as "wets"; and therefore he became the target of the "drys" and, on several occasions, the

subject of discussion at meetings of a Christian temperance organization.

In another district where Catholics lived in material numbers and apparently no discrimination was made in the selection of teachers, it was called to the attention of the writer, who was superintendent, that he was being severely criticized for the growing percentage of Catholic teachers numbered among his faculty, a fact to which he had previously given no attention.

The attitudes of districts toward many things—religious and political beliefs and social practices, for example—vary. Although seemingly trivial they are in reality very important in determining the success of the principal or the superintendent in the administration of a school. In the first school in which the writer taught he and his wife were thought unsocial and "high-hat" because they failed to partake of the liquid refreshments served at a party given at the house of the clerk of the board, though this was partly offset by participation in dancing. In the next district it would have been equivalent to professional suicide for any teacher to dance or to let it be known that he was not a teetotaler, and the blinds were always carefully drawn when friends came in to play bridge. In one community the writer was taken to task by some individuals for his lack of enthusiasm for denominational warfare and his lack of zeal in combating the heresies of science, and criticized by others for his defense of Christian ideals as a proper outcome of school instruction.

It is not wise for the school man who holds dear his program for his high school to flaunt his beliefs in the face of community prejudices. Discretion is often the better part of valor. To fail to know what these undercurrents of prejudice are or not to take them into consideration is more than likely to place the school man in a position in which his influence and leadership as a school man are seriously impaired. It might seem that the school man must be a sort of spineless citizen of no opinions or beliefs regarding anything but school affairs. To assume that this is true is only to exhibit annoyance with the fact that any type of public service necessitates a great

many inhibitions. Even the physician, the attorney, and the business man must know their community and adapt themselves to it. The school man is in a special position of being a public appointive officer who is dependent for his support on the confidence and good will not of a mere fraction of his community, but of his entire constituency. He is also in a peculiar position owing to the fact that it is almost impossible for him to demonstrate the value of his services to his patrons in an objective way, even to the extent that a physician or an attorney or a merchant may do, and thereby to retain support in spite of personal antagonisms. The new principal should be cautious in establishing himself. He should be slow to make affiliations not absolutely necessary, and diligent in discovering what the "lines of force" are. Even in the selection of his home and the banks and stores he is to patronize he is exposed to dangers in the smaller communities.

Sources of Information. Data, as indicated above, will be available in varying amounts from various sources. Among the sources are the following:[1]

1. Data concerning financial aspects of the district—the state school law, the county superintendent, the county treasurer, the district clerk and his records, the state department of education and its reports.

2. Data concerning the economic and social aspects of the district—publications of the local chamber of commerce, service clubs, or other promotion bodies, data from records of students showing occupations of fathers, conversation with business and professional men of the village or city.

3. Data concerning religious and racial composition of the population—registration cards of school pupils, city census data, conversations with business and professional men of the village or city.

4. Data regarding attitudes of the people toward things cultural and educational, lines of cleavage, key men and women and organizations—conversations, newspaper items, and pointers and information picked up on all occasions by generally keeping one's eyes and ears open.

[1]If the principal is not also superintendent of schools, he may and should obtain much of the data from the latter, particularly those relating to financial matters.

2. THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS COMMUNITY AFFILIATIONS

Participation in Religious Activities. As just indicated, an important factor in establishing professional leadership is the character and nature of the religious, business, fraternal, and social affiliations made in the new community. Too vigorous assertion of independence in these matters may not serve any good purpose in the interest either of personal freedom or of the school.

No school man should undertake a position in a community in which his preferred religious affiliation is likely to be a serious handicap to him professionally. It is fair neither to his church nor to his school. He should not hesitate to follow his conscience in the matter of membership and attendance at his favorite house of worship. Beyond that point participation in religious affairs may or may not be wise from the standpoint of his professional success. At any rate, participation in any denominational strife is not only undignified but also almost certain to prove disastrous to professional leadership. Acceptance of religious office or duties which serve, even if unfairly, to stamp him as a denominationalistic leader is very likely to prove embarrassing. Perhaps in most instances there are others in the church equally able to fill the office well, who, unlike the principal or the superintendent, have little or no other opportunity for social leadership and whose daily calling will in no way be incompatible with the vigorous discharge of the duties of the church office.

Participation in Business Affairs. It is not suggested that the school man must be servile or allow himself to be victimized in his business dealings, but it is a mark of the possession of diplomatic qualities to be able to carry on all one's business relations in a small community in such a way as not to arouse antagonisms which are strong enough to alienate support of the principal and his educational program.

It should go without saying that the principal should not attempt to assist in the conduct of any commercial enterprise as a side line to his profession during school months. Time

and energy so spent would be better used in improving his school, his own professional knowledge, or in leisure and recreation. Neglect of the school will likely be charged to him by dissatisfied patrons and other unfriendly persons even where such is not the case. Rare, indeed, are the instances of the school man who has forged ahead in his profession and at the same time has been actively interested in commercial enterprises. If the business is a competitive one, there is likely to be a carry-over to his professional life of feelings of antagonism engendered in business competition. The principal who intends to remain a school man cannot afford to assume a dual vocational rôle.

Participation in Fraternal Activities. The decreasing importance attached to fraternal organizations operates to make that question one of less concern than formerly. It is unlikely that the progressive and growing school man will find time to take active part in such organizations. The practice of becoming a "joiner" has not been particularly successful in protecting or promoting the professional interests of inferior or mediocre school men, and today the failure to belong to any such organizations has only in rare instances constituted any appreciable handicap to the success of more capable principals.

Under any circumstances placing one's reliance for professional success in fraternal organizations is a shortsighted policy, a policy that is likely in the end to result in professional atrophy. Perhaps more principals have failed to succeed because of the consequent neglect of their schools and growth in a professional way than have managed to hang on or to make limited or local progress through fraternal friends or influence. As a means of coming to know men and women of the community, membership and attendance in fraternal organizations are not without value, though perhaps less effective than membership in more representative organizations, such as the chamber of commerce.

Participation in Political Affairs. Independence in political affairs has become so general among men of learning that, except for those who have political ambitions, party regularity

and political partisanship, particularly of an active sort, involve many dangers and promise few benefits. The rôle of the disinterested educational leader is hard to reconcile in the public eye with that of the party politician, and the tendency to divorce school affairs from other political affairs is a desirable one which should be encouraged.

In general, the political activities of principals should probably be limited to independence and freedom of views and voting. Public partisan expression of political beliefs is not only somewhat undignified but is also conducive to making few friends and many enemies. It does not serve to gain much ground for the party or cause, and its chief value is the personal gratification of the individual in asserting himself, in participating in arguments, and in attracting attention.

Nothing here is meant to imply that the principal should remain mute on all political or civic matters. Certainly in those questions which relate to the health or to the civic and moral welfare of the local community he should have a citizen's interest. In those affecting young people particularly he should have a leader's interest. He should, however, always weigh the good he may do to the particular cause against the harm he may do his school and his professional leadership by actively taking sides in an issue

A Positive Program of Community Leadership. The study of the community should be made to reveal as accurately as possible the key men and women and the key organizations. In every community there are men, women, and organizations that are outstandingly influential in determining community attitudes and actions. The principal must not neglect to know these people and to gain their confidence and their interest in his educational program. First among these are the members of the local board of education. These men and women are those who should be, and usually are, most influential in school affairs, being delegated by the voters as their representatives in these matters. These individuals should be studied somewhat, and their views, ways of thinking, degrees of progressive attitude, ideas regarding financial support of education and the

several types of educational enterprises (physical education, school activities, vocational education and guidance, superior teachers) ascertained.

Likewise they must be educated to, and interested in, specific phases of the school program for the future. Not all of this may be done in board meetings, though much may be accomplished there if the board may be persuaded to meet regularly and fairly frequently and to call for reports on the school and its progress and needs. Much may be done, particularly if there are key men on the board, by private conversations at which the board member is permitted to do much of the talking, revealing his views, attitudes, and modes of thinking, and during which the principal is "selling" his school and its good points to the trustees. These men may often be "felt out" on new policies or enterprises in order to prevent open opposition in board meeting. If possible, opposition should be overcome before the new idea is presented to the board in meeting. Often a board member may be permitted to advantage to present the idea to the board as his own. One successful superintendent of schools in a large city has frequently stated that his best work for the school was done on a golf course an afternoon every other week with a member of his board. He learned to know his board and simultaneously won an important member to his educational philosophy and program.

In many districts the board members or the voters, or both, are sensitive to the influence of a few men, women, or organizations in the community What men, women, or organizations these are should be learned early, though not by too direct means, and they should be studied and contacts with them established. In one community known to the writer a banker, a real-estate man, and a former school clerk dominate the school thinking of the community and its board of education, though none of them are actually members of the board. School ideas sponsored by all three of these individuals are certain of support and approval. Agreement of the three, however, is rare, and the deciding influences are the parent-teacher organizations, the service clubs, and the newspapers.

The principal must ever keep in mind that his program must be thought through not only in relation to the schools but also in relation to the community and its reactions. He must realize that in overt action he can progress only slightly in advance of his community, particularly of the board of education and other influential citizens. By the very nature of the organization of public education this is a principle which is of necessity true, and to fail to observe it and take advantage of it is likely to lead to temporary successes followed by discouraging or disastrous reverses.

The Principal's Relation to his Superintendent in Community Contacts. It should be noted that in the foregoing paragraph little distinction has been made between principal and superintendent, and little distinction will be made in the following paragraphs. In small districts the actual major duties and responsibilities will be discharged by one person; in larger districts the chief responsibility for policies of the school's out-of-school contacts will lie with the superintendent. This does not mean that the principal should not have informal contacts with board members, with key men, and with organizations; it does mean, however, that such program, policies, new departures, or plans concerning the school as are discussed with such men or organizations should bear the approval of the superintendent. The superintendent as chief executive officer of the school should determine, either independently after conference with the principal or upon his recommendation, what the program for the high school shall be. Even in the education of the community to that program the principal should be in close consultation with the superintendent, always obtaining his approval of his program and working largely under his direction.

With reference to contacts with the board of education, the superintendent of schools is the official representative of the principal and of the teachers, and it is questionable professional ethics for the principal to appear before the board except upon invitation of the superintendent, or to carry on educative activities with board members except as a part of a coöperative plan of superintendent and principal.

3. THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION AS A KEY ORGANIZATION

The Parent-Teacher Association as a Responsibility. The most logical and convenient organization for obtaining support for the program of the high school is the parent-teacher organization. This association has already become an adjunct of a very large number of high schools, so that the high-school principal has in many instances practically no choice as to whether the organization shall be represented in his school or not. Wherever the organization exists it constitutes a responsibility which may prove either a liability or an asset.

Though logically an organization for the improvement of the school, such associations always furnish the risk of being directed by individuals who are really less interested in the school than in personal enterprises of various natures—individuals or organizations with special axes to grind, such as the reduction of taxes, the dismissal of the superintendent or the principal or one or more of the teachers, the defeat of certain members of the school board, the promotion of certain departments in the school in which these individuals may be interested, possibly because of personal relations or friendships with the teachers or heads of those departments.

Sometimes the organization falls into the hands of fanatics belonging to temperance or patriotic organizations or of people desirous of defeating certain recent changes in the organization or administration of the school which in reality or in their imaginations are not to their personal interest, such as developments which require students to walk farther to school, a longer school day, free dental or medical inspection, or homogeneous or ability grouping. The writer recalls an instance in a city of ten or twelve thousand people in which control of practically every parent-teacher association in the city was obtained by the industry and propaganda of dissatisfied elementary-school principals and misled members of parent-teacher associations as a political protest against the establishment of junior high schools and was used to bring about the recall of the entire

board of education and the dismissal of the very competent superintendent of schools.

The high-school parent-teacher association is particularly open to this danger. The genuine interest of the majority of parents wanes perceptibly after their children have passed through the first few years of the elementary school. The percentage of those attending high-school associations who are open-minded and genuinely interested in the whole welfare of the school is likely to be smaller. As a result it is easier for those who wish to exploit the organization for personal or partisan purposes to turn out and to command a majority of those attending and thus to secure control of the chapter. For this reason if for no others, the principal must give the organization careful and constant attention.

The Parent-Teacher Organization as an Asset. On the other hand, the association may be a very valuable advisory body or council, serving as a means of sampling representative thought in the community regarding the school, interpreting the community to the principal and teachers, and interpreting the school to the community of which it is representative. Some principals have been successful in instilling into the more regularly attending members of the association the idea that they are his lieutenants in winning the community to desirable innovations. Protests and reactions in the association meetings may be very valuable forewarnings of possible unfavorable community reactions to administrative devices and teaching plans. Proposed plans, innovations, or changes may be discussed with the parents attending the meetings before their adoption is advocated or put into effect. Community attitudes favorable to proposed changes may be developed in the meetings of the chapter, the innovations being explained and justified before the group. Through the organization pride in the school and its achievements may be developed. The meetings may be employed as opportunities to inform the public of the progress, honors, and achievements of the school, its staff, and its pupils. Through it the community may be educated to demand more effective or more modern developments: super-

vised study, art, music, physical education, junior high schools, provisions for guidance, and better housing and equipment.

In many schools the activities of the parent-teacher organization consist largely in obtaining money to purchase school equipment which the district is too poor or unwilling to furnish out of the regular funds, including playground equipment, drinking fountains, pictures, books, and other things. These activities are usually regarded as a sort of busy work calculated to provide a harmless substitute for undesirable meddling and to promote the growth of friendly attitudes and interest in the school. Usually the value of the "gifts" is not proportional to the time, energy, and money spent by those having to do with them in producing plays and entertainments, in cake and candy sales, or other enterprises. Often the pupils and teachers do a very large part of the work, which constitutes a distraction disproportionate to the sums of money raised.

The Guidance of Parent-Teacher Associations. If the parent-teacher association seems intent on forcing upon the board of education or the superintendent of schools improvements or changes, or preventing changes authorized by the board of education to which its members are opposed, the principal must keep clear of rendering assistance or encouragement in any way, if he does not actually attempt to dissuade the leaders. Only under extremely rare circumstances should he openly or secretly instigate the association to force the board or to oppose it in matters upon which it has made definite decisions. Often, however, the psychology of human nature places a premium upon having such associations urge upon boards of education changes or improvements which will be acceptable to them rather than having the demand for them appear to originate with the board, the principal, or the superintendent.

Under any circumstances the parent-teacher organization of whatever nature is of sufficient importance to warrant the careful attention of the principal. Care should be taken to get attendance which is representative and open-minded and to prevent the offices from falling into the hands of those with axes to grind. The program of the meetings should be utilized

to contribute to the valuable functions mentioned above and to minister to the development of support for the proposed program and policies of the school. Teachers, heads of departments, and outside speakers should be utilized in presenting new ideas to the meetings and in explaining new departments, plans, devices, or proposals. At all times the work of the pupils and the teaching staff should be kept in the foreground.

The principal should be active in furnishing assistance to parents and teachers who appear upon the program for papers and addresses, helping them to obtain the most useful material from local libraries, the state institutions of higher learning, and the state library. It is fortunate if he is appointed as a member of the program committee.

The principal should cause the teachers to see the importance of assisting in making the meetings profitable from the standpoint of the school—in being present, meeting the parents, and taking part in the meetings. It is legitimate and probably advisable to dismiss school a period early on days of the meetings so that the teachers will not regard the meetings as "extra work."

Parent-Teacher-Association Programs and Meetings. The programs should be sufficiently attractive to invite attendance. In addition to the more serious papers and talks, there should be provided at every meeting entertaining features such as musical numbers, dramatic skits, one-act plays, costume dances, and similar pleasing types of activities. In most large high schools there is almost always something already prepared for assembly or other purposes which may be repeated at parent-teacher meetings.

Some schools provide a period just before or just after the meeting during which parents may visit teachers in their offices or classrooms and confer with them about the work of their children. Where this is done, and, indeed, where it is not, the programs should not be too long and should not encroach upon the time usually spent by many mothers in preparing the evening meal.

The principal should also utilize the opportunities afforded

by meetings of the association to meet parents and patrons and to form acquaintanceships and friendships with them, learning to call them by name and to associate them with their children who are pupils in the school. Such casual meetings or conferences should be friendly, brief, and businesslike rather than overdignified, garrulous, or prolonged.

The principal should expect to encounter individual and group complaints, suggestions, or protests by members of the association. These must be handled tactfully, heard with tolerance and patience, examined for what they are worth, promised consideration and given it, and usually taken under advisement with as little impromptu discussion or committal to any course of action as is possible except in those instances where explanations may be given which, it is rather certain, are sound and will not expose the principal to unnecessary attack or arouse antagonism. Under any conditions arguments are to be avoided. Argument is likely only to fix and emotionalize unfavorable attitudes. A tolerant silence or some trivial pleasantry is much more likely to be effective.

One of the most valuable contributions of a parent-teacher association lies in its usefulness in stimulating parents to a study of information useful in enabling them to be of most service to their children in an educational way. The school as the chief ally of the home should assist in every way to make the association useful in that direction.

4. ALUMNI ORGANIZATIONS AND CONTACTS WITH PARENTS

Alumni Organizations. One means of establishing cordial relations with an interested group of people in the district is the organization of, and contacts with, alumni of the school. Such organizations already exist in many communities, though they are not always utilized for values in this direction. In fact, in many instances the feeling of alumni toward more recent administrations and their ideas and policies is unsympathetic. "The good old school has gone to the dogs."

Annual or semiannual meetings may be held which afford opportunities for keeping the "old boys" and "old girls" informed about the school and its progress, educating them to the forward march of the school, its innovations and changes, promoting personal good feelings and school loyalty, and, if properly managed, imparting to the undergraduate, through the agency of the graduates of the school, such ideals and traditions as will make for progress and higher standards of conduct and scholarship in the school.

Meetings of such organizations are held most often during the Christmas holidays and at commencement. With the increasing number of high-school graduates going to college who return to their homes for the holidays but who are not at home at commencement time, the former time of the year is becoming more popular. Talks by the principal, a conventional and natural part of the program, should not only include remarks about the achievements of former classes, organizations, teams, and students but should also focus attention upon the achievements of the present student body and the school of today. The talks should in all cases be well prepared, interesting, not too long or in too serious a vein, and should exhibit a good sense of humor. Under no circumstances should they be apologetic or deal with internal or local controversies.

Contacts with Patrons as Callers. Many principals are chosen as principals largely because they understand how to meet and handle people. Many have been unsuccessful because they did not meet and handle parents and patrons properly. Not only should the principal at all times welcome the opportunity to meet parents and citizens of his community, but he should also see that all contacts operate in his favor. Especially must he take care that such contacts as take place in the school about school affairs become a credit to him rather than a liability.

Under no circumstances should he forget to be courteous and human as well as dignified and businesslike. Quarrelsome or stiff, owl-like behavior is as unfortunate as is that which characterizes the over-agreeable, garrulous type. It is well to be an appreciative listener and to let the caller do much of the

talking. It is well to be patient with, though not too much interested in, his ideas of how the schools should be operated. The principal must make callers feel welcome, and yet he must possess a sense of time. Shorter personal visits will do more than longer ones to stimulate the desired attitudes as well as to conserve the time of the principal. With a little study and experimentation he will learn to bring such interviews or visits to a close without offending the visitor. The visitor will expect to find the principal a busy man and desirous of conserving time, yet, on the other hand, the brusque manner which some principals obviously assume to impress their visitors is frequently overdone and is ludicrous and annoying in effect. Certainly the appearance of being in a disorganized hurry is not the desirable impression to create.

The occasions of the visits of patrons should be quite regularly used to bring to the attention of the visitors one or two phases or events of the school work and life of which the principal is proud and which he thinks would be most likely to interest the particular visitor. Such discussions should not take the nature of a high-pressure sales talk, but of a moderately enthusiastic discourse. Perhaps the visitor may be shown certain phases of the work of the school in which he may be interested. Often properly trained student guides may be employed for this service, though one should be certain that visitors will not feel humiliated at being turned over to pupils. Occasionally a teacher is available for that service.

5. COMMENCEMENT EXERCISES AS PUBLIC RELATIONS

One of the most favorable times of the year to appeal to and develop pride in and good will toward the school is at commencement. At graduation time a good representation of the adult population of the community gather under conditions making them very receptive to efforts to put the school and its program in a good light through the medium of the loved young graduates who are the product of the school. Among the characteristics of a good commencement program, from the point

of view of its public-relations possibilities, may be mentioned the following:

1. Opportunities should be utilized to emphasize the achievements, honors, and high quality of the student body in general, the graduates in particular, and the faculty incidentally.

2. Acknowledgment of the cooperation of the community should be sincere, clear, and definite.

3. Praise for, or exhibition of, individual students should not be such that by comparison some pupils will be humiliated or parents disappointed.

4. Some mention should be made in some way of the special features, philosophy, or objectives of the local school program, especially of those emphasized currently—in the year just past and the year to come.

5. The program should not be too long, should be carefully planned, and should be devoid of dry or uninteresting features. Commencement speakers should be carefully chosen and instructed.

6. A considerable amount of formality and ceremony is very appropriate if not too time-consuming and if carefully rehearsed.

7. The commencement exercises should be in a very attractive hall, adequately decorated, and with superior acoustical properties.

8. The costs of commencement to the individual student or family should be held to a minimum which should not embarrass any student or his parents.

9. Care should be taken not to arrange a program which will offend any individuals or groups, any church, or any prominent local musician.

10. The board of education should be given adequate recognition and opportunity for participation. The superintendent or principal should not be too conspicuous.

Good suggestions for commencement programs may be obtained from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., and from the files of the *Extra-Curricular Activities*, a monthly professional periodical. The "vitalized" commencement idea has had much vogue in recent years and should be explored for possible suggestions.

Community Data and Relationships

Problems and Exercises

1. Obtain data pertaining to the community resources of some district comparable to data given in the text and suggest ways in which they would affect the educative program of the district.

2. Do the same for the racial composition of a district.

3. Cite a district in which factional conditions exist which a principal should take cognizance of, and suggest what policies he should follow.

4. Criticize the advice given in the text on the principal's

a. Participation in church affairs.

b. Participation in business affairs.

c. Participation in fraternal organizations.

d Participation in political activity.

5. In what ways may the principal legitimately make use of "key" individuals in a community?

6. Cite three concrete examples illustrating the correct relationship of the principal to the superintendent in matters of publicity.

7. Make a summary of the six most important suggestions on realizing the most from parent-teacher organizations.

8 Cite a typical example of complaint occurring in a parent-teacher meeting and suggest methods of handling it.

9. Make a list of five topics suitable for discussion in a parent-teacher program relative to assisting parents to a better understanding of the problems of home training of high-school boys and girls.

10. Outline briefly a proposed plan or program relative to alumni organizations.

11. Make a list of seven suggestions on how to receive patron visitors at the office.

XXI

High-School Publicity

1. VALUES, PURPOSES, AND TYPES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUBLICITY

Not only should the principal study his community, its resources, its people, and its organizations, but he should also keep it informed regarding his school and the work of the school. The public is too busy to find out by its own unaided effort just what the schools are doing; it is entitled to know without exerting itself to find out. It may reasonably expect to be informed by those in whose hands the administration of the schools is placed. The fact that the public does not take time from its other pursuits to study the schools should not be taken to indicate that it is not interested in the work of the schools. Nor is it safe to assume that interpretation of the schools and their work to the board of education as representatives of the people is sufficient. The American people do not intrust to their boards of education complete and final power in regard to the finances and management of the schools; indeed, boards of education are usually very sensitive to public opinion about the school. The success of many enterprises of the school, even of the most professional type, is in greater or less degree dependent upon understanding and favorable attitudes on the part of parents.

Publicity in Other Enterprises. The value of well-planned publicity has been recognized and its importance appreciated by all sorts of enterprises dependent upon public opinion for their support. The railroads, telephone and telegraph companies, electric and gas corporations, traction and transit companies, and other forms of public-utility organizations have come to maintain "public relations," "publicity," or "educational" departments, which take great care and often expend considerable sums of money in creating a sympathetic and appreciative popular mind toward their undertakings. Though

it may be fairly accurate to term such efforts "propaganda," in most instances the work is confined largely to making a reasonably fair presentation of the value of their services and to informing the public about their objectives, procedures, and accomplishments. A number of departments and divisions of the Federal departments of government and service find it useful to keep the public informed as to the value of their services. It would be superfluous to go into details in pointing out that all organizations interested in the sale of products of all sorts find it good business to spend very large sums of money, often running into hundreds of thousands of dollars for a given product, in molding the public mind in the direction of purchasing the particular commodity.

Peculiar Need of School Publicity. Not only is the school especially dependent upon public appreciation of its procedures and results, but also, unlike most other social institutions for which the public provides support and which render service to the public, the direct contacts of the school with the adult public are few. What information the public gets about the school is in very large part second-hand, coming chiefly through the medium of the children, who are little able to report the school program accurately to their parents, much less to interpret it. It is largely because of these things that the plans, methods, and procedures of the school are often misunderstood, wrongly suspected, and therefore subjected to unfair criticism.

The fact that the results of teaching are so much more intangible and difficult of measurement than material goods and services adds to the difficulties of the public in judging the merits of school methods and procedures, and likewise increases the necessity for special consideration of the problem of bringing the achievements of the school to the attention of the public. Schools are often judged by hearsay and rumor only slightly correlated with the truth. The work of the school is often judged by the criteria of "discipline" and the personal popularity of the principal and his staff. In the absence of the proper sort of school publicity the public is not in a position to pass intelligent judgment on its schools. In fact, in this con-

nection the public must be protected from itself by the professional school man.

Purposes of School Publicity. As was also indicated in Chapter XX, the public must be educated to the program of the administration of the school. At least a good portion of the community must understand and have faith in changes and improvements. It is a shortsighted policy to launch for the local high school progressive plans for which the way has not been paved in the popular mind.

The purposes of school publicity may be summed up as follows:

1. To give to the public the information to which it is entitled about its schools.
2. To prevent the spread of misunderstanding and false apprehensions.
3. To limit the influence of malicious misrepresentation about the school by disgruntled or pernicious individuals.
4. To pave the way in the home for the support of new policies, organization, developments, and methods.
5. To obtain financial support for the schools.
6. To increase school attendance.
7. To protect the teaching and administrative staff of the school from unfair criticism and misjudgment.

Continuous or Campaign Programs of Publicity. Definite programs of school publicity are usually of the campaign type. Publicity is neglected until the time when a special emergency arises, such as the need for the increase of teachers' salaries, a new high-school building, a new gymnasium or auditorium, or the installation of a junior high school. Whereas in most instances such campaigns are more effective than no publicity at all, efforts at molding public opinion by such methods labor under special handicaps that do not confront the more regular and natural program of publicity. This is especially true when the publicity campaign is not based upon a policy of continuous publicity. The special campaign tends to place the disinterested individual on his guard if not actually on the defensive. He suspects it to be propaganda. Usually the campaign is a two-

sided affair, and open-minded people are made conservative, cautious, incredulous, and inclined to discount whatever is presented as being partial and purposeful.

When no particular campaign is being made, the individual, even if he is not particularly friendly to the school, is much more open-minded and likely to take the published facts at their face value. In the language of the boxing ring his "guard is down." The facts soak in without being associated with any special schemes on the part of the administration of the school. When the emergency arises and the time comes for the special campaign, the background or foundation has already been laid: friendly and appreciative attitudes, pride in the school, and confidence in the administration have already been established, and the work of the campaign is more likely to be effective.

2. PUBLICITY THROUGH THE PERSONNEL OF THE SCHOOL

Publicity through the Pupils. Whether or not they will admit it, most parents form their impressions of the high school largely through the reports of their children. The high-school pupil is old enough to be more reliable as a source of information than the elementary-school child, and what he says about the school carries more weight. The affection of the parent for the child also injects the emotional factor into the situation, and this insures the pupil a sympathetic audience at home. Every student entertains opinions that are certain to crop out in his conversation about his teachers, the principal, the control of the school, the methods of teaching, the student activities, and other phases or incidents of school life.

It is wise, therefore, to give some attention to the matter of assisting high-school pupils to understand the school and its procedures and to induce them to take pride in its progress and achievements. It is highly desirable that there be developed in the student body good will and respect for the administration and the staff and pride in the educational side of school life and the educational achievements of the school.

Many principals, aware of the value of creating good will and confidence on the part of pupils, have employed various types of procedures for the realization of these ends. Among avenues for bringing to the attention of the student body the achievements and good points of the school are assemblies, roll-room meetings, exhibits, bulletin boards, contests, commencement, the school paper, and school news in the local papers.

Through these avenues such items as the following may be made the subject of announcement and congratulation: results of standard tests; victories of individuals and teams in interscholastic contests; achievements and honors of recent graduates of the school at college, in business, or in public life; favorable comment by visitors, inspectors, or other outsiders on the work of the school or the conduct of the students; and honors or special achievements of the faculty.

Upon occasion the students may be taken into confidence in regard to proposed or new plans or methods, which may be explained to them and discussed as modern improvements.

In such activities emphasis should be placed upon selling the school, not any given individual, to the student body. It is bad ethics as well as bad psychology to use such occasions to promote the individual interests of any particular members of the faculty or the principal or the superintendent.

Though it will have to be conceded that much mention must be made of athletic victories, special effort should be made to arouse pride in achievements in other fields of endeavor, particularly in scholastic achievement and honors.

At all times the value of maintaining good will and a good spirit on the part of the students should be appreciated. It should go without saying that good will should not be cultivated by lowering academic standards, by frequent holidays, by unusual laxity, by fanatical athletic enthusiasm, by special privileges to undeserving leaders, or by other questionable means. Among legitimate means may be mentioned a general attitude of dignified friendliness on the part of the administration and faculty toward the students and their activities, a

reasonable display of confidence in them, abstinence from petty snooping and nagging, a coöperative attitude in many phases of the management of the school, particularly those in which very often a part in the management is given to the students. It should be taken for granted that the students are interested in the good name of the school and in its honor in all its endeavors, even though this may not always be exactly the fact.

Publicity through the Faculty. The members of the teaching staff and even the janitors and clerical assistants constitute important avenues through which the public gathers its information regarding the school. That principal is indeed fortunate, though not rare, who can achieve the feat of obtaining on the part of all teachers and other employees the spirit of good will toward the program of the school, a feeling of confidence in it, and a "booster" spirit for it. To discuss the many ways in which progress in that direction may be made would quickly carry us far afield into the realm of supervision, and elsewhere. Briefly, members of the faculty should understand and believe in the undertakings in the school. Progress rarely should be forced upon them, but they should grow to or with it.

Just as in the case of the pupils, the faculty should be brought to possess a spirit of good will toward the administration, its activities and ideas, and a sense of pride in the achievements of the school. Similarly, as in the case of the students, it is probably too much to expect all teachers to respond to measures calculated to produce that situation, but the returns are in most instances well worth the effort.

Pleasant and dignified personal relations should be preserved between the administration and the staff. Keeping informed and expressing appreciation of work well done by members of the staff are not only fair but wise. Unnecessary heartaches and discouragements should be avoided, as should, of course, superficial flattery or misguided or extreme "good fellowship" and democratic flourishes.

The teachers should be kept informed by an enthusiastic leader of the achievements of the school, the student body, and the teachers, and of the success of new ventures.

As far as possible the personal element should be kept in the background. Invidious comparisons should be avoided. No teacher should be martyred by being made to appear the object of favoritism. Above all, care should be taken to avoid making such efforts appear as reflecting glory on the administration. The glory will follow indirectly, and any direct or obvious attempts in that direction will usually operate as boomerangs. This is especially true of schools located in villages or small cities. It may be mentioned, both as the next step and as a means, that the principal should be constantly on the lookout for opportunities to furnish members of the staff with good contacts that will facilitate legitimate publicity; for example, arranging for public talks and demonstrations by members of the staff that will enable them to present favorably the work of the school. On every occasion the principal should keep himself more or less in the background, avoiding the appearance of taking undue credit or arousing the feeling on the part of the teacher that he is doing so.

3. EXHIBITS AS A MEANS OF PUBLICITY

Exhibits as a type of publicity are convincing and effective if they are well managed and if the things exhibited are really of merit. To discuss in detail the technique and suggestions for successful exhibits of various sorts would require a volume in itself. A summary of the more important points is given here.

Types of Exhibits. Among the types and places of exhibits are the following:

1. *Materials Placed in Halls and on Bulletin Boards of the School.* These are largely for the purpose of developing in the pupils, faculty, and visitors a knowledge and appreciation of the work and achievements of the school, its departments, students, and faculty. Appropriate newspaper items, pictures, articles in journals, and exhibits of good work in various departments should be placed in prominent places where they may be easily seen by passers-by. An effort should be made to place on exhibit as many really creditable things as possible.

A committee of faculty and students may often be of assistance in the search for exhibit material.

2. *Visiting Days.* Special visiting days several times a year for parents and patrons to visit the school, to inspect the class work, to be entertained at assembly or roll-room programs, and to meet the staff and the principal are employed to excellent advantage in many high schools.

3. *Contests and Entertainments.* Exhibits of talent, skill, or prowess in athletics, dramatics, debate, pageants, group-dancing, instrumental or vocal music of individuals, bands, orchestras, quartets, glee clubs, and operettas are usually interesting and, when well done, create good impressions. Free entertainments in the way of assembly programs should often be made the occasion of inviting the public or selected parents and friends.

4. *Programs before Non-School Organizations.* Various service clubs, women's clubs, church brotherhoods, and other non-school groups are usually willing to have appropriate phases of school work presented on their programs. They particularly prefer musical numbers, speeches by members of winning teams or by pupils who have achieved unusual distinction, and booster talks by high-school pupils. To be effective, these should be brief, snappy, and well rehearsed. The principal should not be reluctant to suggest possibilities to chairmen and program committees of such organizations when they are available, and he should not be discouraged or hurt if occasionally no place may be found on the program of the organization approached at that particular time. Upon such occasions, as always, the principal should exercise care to give students and teachers full credit and to avoid the appearance of inserting himself unnecessarily in the limelight.

5. *The Show Windows of Business Houses.* Show windows of business houses may often be obtained for the display of trophies, awards, letters of especial commendation, or the products of shop, laboratory, kitchen, or sewing room. The business-house display is especially valuable to the school in that it reaches many people who would not or could not visit the

school. The willingness of merchants to furnish valuable display space should not be abused by employing it for commonplace or uninteresting exhibits, and all exhibits should be removed after a brief display.

6. *County Fairs and Exhibits.* Schools are usually welcome to space at fairs and industrial, agricultural, and commercial exhibits, and here also many people who would otherwise not be reached may see the exhibit. If possible the high school should exhibit as a unit or, at any rate, have a unit exhibit emphasizing the school as a school. The most commonly exhibited items are products of the manual-training and metal shops, the household-arts departments, material projects of classes in history, geography, science, literature, and other subjects, posters, charts, and pictures.

7. *Community Parades, Celebrations, and Entertainments.* In the typical communities large enough to maintain a high school, there occurs during the year at least one general community celebration or public function in which high-school pupils may assist in a way possessing publicity value. Of this nature are historical pageants or parades, health demonstrations or parades, "old settlers" days, conventions, and homecoming parades.

Particularly in smaller communities the talents of high-school pupils may find a place in public entertainments of various sorts. Glee clubs, bands, orchestras, dramatic clubs in one-act plays, amateur magicians, readers, comedians, and speakers are possibilities for this purpose. Though it is entirely proper for the principal to offer to assist in such functions, or to encourage the students and faculty to do so, it should be remembered that only good performances will reflect credit upon the school, and that it is unwise to offer talent when it is reasonably certain that the only interest of the audience will be the interest arising from a sense of duty to encourage the efforts of young people.

8. *Exhibits in Other Schools.* Recently the practice of exchanging exhibits or programs of various types has grown up among schools in many localities. Some high schools exchange

with neighboring schools, at least once a year, a program of from 60 to 70 minutes involving such items as one-act plays and short entertainments by their musical organizations. This exchange furnishes incentive to organizations in each of the participating schools and promotes friendly interests and relations, and the fact that such programs should be desired by other schools impresses the local patrons when news items relating to the trips appear in the local papers.

Perhaps even more effective and less likely to interfere with the regular school work of the participating pupils is the exchange between high schools of the same city. The principal will readily recognize the possibilities in this direction that attach to the display of talent, training, and opportunities of the senior high school at the junior high school or of the high school at neighboring elementary schools.

4. NEWSPAPER PUBLICITY

The Press as an Avenue of Publicity. Next to the pupils and staff of the school, the most important avenue through which the public receives its information about the school is the local newspaper. Like the impressions created by the pupils, those created by the local press may be either very desirable or very undesirable. The principal should recognize early that his relations to the representatives of the local papers are most important. He should coöperate with them in news regarding the school and inform himself concerning what is news, what are news values, and how news stories are prepared. He should keep in mind that because the school is a public institution in which a great majority of the readers of the paper are interested, it may receive, free of charge, newspaper space for which commercial organizations must pay considerable sums of money, and he should realize the possibilities of that opportunity. He should also realize that because of the fact that the newspapers are read in practically every home and the news therein taken practically at face value, the local paper usually constitutes a powerful factor in the molding of public opinion.

Because of the greater interest readers take in high-school pupils and their activities than in those of the elementary school, the problem of relationships with the local press is particularly important to the administration of the high school.

Relations with the Press. Not only should the principal welcome friendly personal and business relations with the local press, but he should also actively seek to achieve and maintain such relations. The newspaper must occasionally print news which does not reflect credit upon the school, its achievements, or its administration. Occasionally it does not agree with the administration in matters of finance or management. The newspaper reporter in his effort to get "all the news that is fit to print" appears to pry into matters which the school man would prefer not to have exposed to public view. Because of these things many school men develop an aversion to reporters and editors which is unwise and often costly. The reporter or editor is much more likely to be sympathetic toward the arguments for withholding from publication certain stories or phases of them if the principal has been consistently coöperative in assisting the paper to get at stories of high news value and has more or less frankly confided in and trusted the responsible representatives of the paper.

Very often the personal friendship naturally growing out of such relationships will result in attitudes on the part of newspaper men which prove fortunate in times of need. It is not at all unusual for reporters or editors, appreciating coöperation and being in a position to be especially well informed on community attitudes and opinions, to offer privately very useful advice and information, to "tip off" the principal concerning expressions of dissatisfaction heard in the community regarding policies or methods of the school in time to place the principal on his guard, and even to suggest ways and means of counteracting unfavorable publicity and of conducting publicity campaigns. Concrete examples of the wisdom of such a policy may be furnished from the professional experience of practically every school man who has followed it, as may also examples of unhappy experiences of school men whose relations

with the press have been unfortunate. These experiences frequently extend to the extreme of running attacks upon the principal or his administration by editors who have been antagonized, to the closing of the columns of the paper to all stories but those of highest news value, in which category usually fall undesirable stories, such as a misunderstanding between members of the faculty or faculty and students, and stories of scandalous conduct of teachers or pupils. Where friendly relations exist, stories are published frequently the news value of which is hardly sufficient to warrant printing.

Dealing with Reporters and the Press. Among the concrete suggestions relative to establishing good working relations with the local papers should be mentioned the following:

1. Seek to know personally and to establish on your list of personal friends the editors and managers of the local paper.

2. Avoid facetious remarks about any local paper even if it is imperfect in many ways or even if your remarks are not intended to be unfriendly or to be taken seriously.

3. Avoid controversy with the editorial policy of the paper in matters that do not affect the welfare of the school or the things for which it stands. Learn to disagree with papers and people without showing annoyance, personal feeling, or other emotional instability.

4. If the local paper has a job department, do not encourage the giving of printing patronage of pupil organizations or the school to concerns outside the district. Attempt to effect an equitable division of such patronage among the newspapers in the district.

5. Make the reporters welcome in their visits to the school and assist them to conserve time in getting at news. They will appreciate this help. Remember that the reporter's "beat," or "run," is ordinarily long in relation to the time at his disposal and that ordinarily the school is not considered one of the most fruitful sources of important news stories. Occasionally drop your work or interrupt teachers in order that reporters may get their facts with a minimum expenditure of time and effort. Remember that the school is getting valuable space at no cost.

6. Attempt to avoid favoring any one paper over any other with reference to news stories. Be actively impartial. Do not have stories "break" consistently in favor of an afternoon paper as opposed to the morning paper, or vice versa.

7. Educate reporters slowly and patiently but enthusiastically to your program and to the projects and achievements in the school.

8. Do not pester the reporter because of his failure to give school stories more space or to play up the features of the story you wish played up. A casual, good-natured expression of disappointment is much more effective than "crabbing."

9. Study the interests of the reporter and the paper until you understand his scale of values in news stories.

The Conservation of News Opportunities. Many school men have neither a well-developed sense of what constitutes news nor a technique or system for realizing the possible publicity values of happenings in and concerning the school. When the reporter calls personally or by telephone and inquires for news, the principal is likely to reflect a moment and reply, "Well, I don't think of anything, Mr. Hayward," or relate some commonplace incident of doubtful news interest. Often days or weeks later the news possibility of an event or development occurs to him. By that time it is no longer news.

Many principals make a canvass of the faculty members and student officials most likely to furnish data for stories, either just before the expected call of the reporter or, more usually though not more desirably, when he calls.

Some principals have formed the useful habit of constantly thinking of all things going on in the school as news possibilities and of keeping memoranda of all that promise to be acceptable to the paper, so that when the reporter calls these will not be overlooked. Some have trained their staff to report to the office data which might be useful as news, and a few have actually given attention in teachers' meetings to developing a news sense. A very effective stimulus to thinking of possible stories is the school-news calendar, such as the following:

Publicity Calendar for Junior and Senior High Schools

AUGUST

General plans for the coming school year
School improvements made during the summer
Alterations and new equipment

High-School Publicity

New departments and courses offered
Fall-registration instructions
Names of faculty and departments
Staff changes or additions
What teachers have done during the summer
High-school graduates going to college
Value of high-school education

SEPTEMBER (BEFORE OPENING OF SCHOOL)

Announcement of opening day
Prospects for football team
General procedure for registration, textbook lists
New plans of instruction, supervised study etc.
School-attendance laws
Information about working certificates for leaving school
Fall-registration announcements
Courses and curricula offered
First teachers' meeting

SEPTEMBER (AFTER OPENING OF SCHOOL)

Registration statistics
Organization of classes
Student organizations
Organization of various clubs, girls' league, council, etc.
Football schedule
Football turnout and practice
Selection of cheer leader
"Pep" meeting to learn cheers and songs
Work of physical-education department
Parent-teacher association first meeting, officers
Fire drill and protection
Punctuality of pupils in the schools: first week
First issue of school paper
Calendar for coming school events
Staff of school paper chosen
Work of the glee club gets under way
Exhibits at state fair
School orchestra
Organization of school band
School credit for private music lessons
Reception for new teachers
Vocational-guidance program
Value and progress of health inspection

Announcement of class advisers
Report of Smith-Hughes agricultural projects carried on during summer
Boys in agricultural classes visit state fair
Organization and prospects for debate
Evening school and Americanization work
Testing program
School gardens
Rotary loan fund
Assisting pupils to find work
Teachers' institute week
Saturday institute
Teachers' directory
Dinners and receptions for teachers
University-extension lecture courses
County fair, any vacation or change of session
Frances Willard Day
Arbor Day and Bird Day
Constitution Week
Freshmen boys' mix or other student social events

OCTOBER

Statistics from records of physical and health examinations
Enrollment statistics compared, first month with previous years
Lyceum course this year
Outside speakers in assembly
The school bank
Story of thrift in school
Columbus Day
Publicity stories for football; results of games
New clubs started
Rallies
Dramatic club selects play
Progress of new departments in school
Fire-prevention week
Increased enrollment
Student dance or reception
Other social activities
Serving milk to pupils
Report of convention attended by superintendent
Halloween festivities; respect for property; etc
Comparative study of enrollments
Extension work of staff
Teachers' institutes
Issuance of reports to parents

High-School Publicity

NOVEMBER

School programs; changes
Better-English Week
National Education Week
School exhibits; open hours
Explanation of classification of students
Urge parents to visit schools
P.T.A. meeting
Interclass debates
Class parties
Football season ends: big games; season record
Letters earned
Football-team banquet
Armistice Day program
Net proceeds of football season
Civics class and election day
School plans for sending Thanksgiving baskets to the poor
School play
Hot lunches, cafeteria, etc.
Honor roll, six weeks' report
Radio concert given by school musical organizations
Speed contests: commercial department
Announcement of coming school carnival
Physical examinations of pupils completed
Results of physical and medical examinations and inspection
Special accomplishments of students
Thanksgiving Day: vacation and program
First basketball meeting: prospects
Suggestions on prevention of colds by department of physical education, school physician, or school nurse

DECEMBER

Sale of Christmas seals opens
Football banquet
Athletic awards
Out-of-doors recreation
Question announced for interschool debate
Physical education for cold months
Interclass basketball games
Basketball practice and prospects
Students' health reports
Christmas program

Personals on teachers' vacations
Schools close for holidays
Unusual events
Alumni meetings and contests
Suggestions on winter diet by household-arts department
Report of Christmas-seal sales

JANUARY

New Year's resolutions
Resuming school work
Preregistration
P.T.A. activities for past half-year
Glee club and orchestra
Temperance Day
Examinations
Student reports and elections
Child-labor week
New subjects offered for second semester
Mid-year promotions to high school
Reports of basketball games
Results of first semester
Address made to high-school assembly
Epidemics of communicable diseases; value of school nurse
Name of honor student in first semester
News from graduates in colleges and universities
Attendance record

FEBRUARY

Formation of boys' radio club (activities)
Lincoln's Birthday
Valentine's Day
Washington's Birthday
Basketball games
Try-outs for senior play
Evening school for parents
Better-English Week
Annual staff organized
Interschool debate
Operetta
Evening citizenship schools
Mid-year commencement exercises in large schools (see items for June)

High-School Publicity

MARCH

Baseball news and schedule
Election of teachers
Typing contest
Basketball tournament
Review
Basketball season reviewed
Clean-up week
Declamation contest
School gardening
First call for baseball and track
Senior-play practice
Parent-teacher entertainment
Debating
Wearing of the green, St Patrick's Day program
School fair
Field trips of science class
Spring music festival
Track news and schedule
Campaign to prevent dropping out
Easter program
Vacation of teachers

APRIL

First baseball game
Local institute
Budget meeting
Arbor Day
Home-economics luncheon
Camp Fire Girls and Girl Scout organizations
Easter vacation
School exhibit
Boy Scout week
Plans for May Day festivities
Senior class commencement plans
Father and son banquet
Annual goes to press
Agricultural Club banquet
Oratorical contest
Track practice
Preparation for class stunt night
Athletic awards; basketball
Janitor's efficiency

Style shows
Clerical assistants
Home-beautifying
Travel tips
Physical-education reports

MAY

New officers of P.T A and report of year's activities
May Day exercises
Mothers' Day and mother-and-daughter banquet
Where resigning teachers are going
Track meets
Baseball games
Sale of school annuals
Stunt night
Physical-efficiency tests
Athletic awards
Preregistration statistics
Financial report
Memorial Day

JUNE

Examination schedule
College plans of graduates
Summary of progress of school year
How student government worked during the year
What pupils will do during the summer
Preparing for fair exhibit
Value of high-school and college training
Alumni who graduate from college
Teachers who are going to summer school
Commencement-plan announcements
Senior play
Junior Prom
Class Day
Senior banquet
Baccalaureate sermon
Commencement exercises
Scholarship awards
Honor students
School closes
Review of achievements of year
Needs of the school for the coming year
Attendance record

High-School Publicity

JULY

Building alterations
Teachers in summer school
Improvement of grounds

THROUGHOUT THE YEAR

Election of officers
Social events
Athletic events and other contests; other public entertainments
Assembly programs
New organizations
Achievements of graduates at colleges
Programs and activities of clubs and organizations

Writing News Copy. Particularly in small cities or villages where the reportorial staff is small and visits are not frequent, it is good policy for the principal to write the copy for news stories and take it or send it to the local papers while the stories are still news. This practice possesses the virtue of reducing to a minimum the chances of "garbling," inaccuracies, or misunderstandings likely to occur frequently in the smaller papers, where relatively inexperienced reporters are employed. It also furnishes an objective record by which to settle all arguments as to what the principal actually did say.

What Constitutes News? The school man, like other laymen, is not well qualified by training to know what the readers of a paper desire, and that is the principal criterion by which editors select what shall be printed. High-school principals are usually "a little highbrow," and their interests are not typical of the large bulk of newspaper readers. They are likely to think first of classroom and administrative developments from the standpoint of educational values and philosophy. They are also prone to overlook items of great news value because they do not understand the interests of the typical reader.

Among the more acceptable types of news data are the following:

1. Stories relating to contests of all sorts: athletics, debating, typing, and dramatics.

2. Unusual occurrences or situations; for example, achievements in spite of handicaps, records broken, superlatives,—the youngest pupil or the tallest,—queer, odd, and freakish occurrences or problems.

3. Contrasts and comparisons; past and present; the local school test scores and state or national averages or norms.

4. Human-interest stories. achievements of the blind, the crippled, the self-supporting; marriages, deaths, serious illnesses, accidents; pretty girls and athletic boys.

5. Things that appeal to community pride: results of standard tests; distinctions or honors of pupils or faculty, particularly of individuals; comments on the school and its work by people from a distance, particularly officials, eminent people, or people well known in the community.

6. Stories about individuals or pupils or teachers related to individuals already in the public eye and stories about events related in some way to peculiar interests of the moment or of the locality, for example, relatives of famous aviators, athletes, public officials, and men or women prominent in industry, finance, or business, or events related in some way to a forthcoming community celebration or to "drives."

7. Stories that permit of interesting illustration with pictures.

8. Stories that are "live"; that is, those that are still fresh news.

9. Stories that affect the interests of large numbers of individuals in the community: proposed changes in tax rates, new buildings, the transfer of units or grades from one building to another, changes in the time of opening or closing school and in the school day.

10. Stories that center about and include the names of individuals are preferable, especially if individuals are prominent in the community or are related to those who are.

In short, news value is largely dependent upon the relation of the data of the story, or the turn which may be put upon them, to instincts of combat or contest, to the instinct of curiosity, to the interest in individuals as human beings (especially in their aspects of sex and personal characteristics), to the interest in things affecting the reader's own routine or interests, and to the interest in the present as opposed to the past or the future.

Pictures. The reporter should be assisted in getting good pictures. Often these must be taken and furnished to the reporter, who cannot be present when the picture must be taken, as at rehearsals or exercises of various sorts. Action pictures are preferable to stilted posed pictures. Particularly desirable are pictures which depict the individual or individuals in some action relative to the principal item of the story; for example, an athlete kicking a goal, making a put-out, winning a race or field event, or pupils in their parts in a play, or working on a "project," or receiving an honor or award. Pictures of pretty girls, athletic boys, and prominent persons are preferred, as are those taken of individuals in costume appropriate to the story.

Preparing News "Copy." In writing news stories the following suggestions should be observed:

1. The space required to print the story must be proportionate to the news value of the story. Long or detailed explanations, alibis, introductions, or descriptions should be eliminated.

2. The chief items of interest which answer the reader's curiosity as to what, when, and where, and occasionally why and how, must ordinarily be placed in the first few sentences and the details worked in later.

3. The style must be interesting, simple, and easy to follow. Long sentences, dangling, remote, or multiple modifying clauses and phrases, and unusual words should be avoided. Educational ideas, practices, and movements must be written in terms that the average reader understands readily. They must be discussed in a not too technical manner—"put on the lower shelf" and made to appeal to the interest of the great mass of newspaper readers.

4. Stories should be written with the interests of the reader in view rather than directly from the point of view of logical propaganda. The "propaganda" aspects of the story must be incidental to its news development. Above all, the stories should be free from any suspicion of being written for the purpose of "tooting the horn" of the principal.

5. The principal should obtain from some source (possibly the local editor) a "style book" which will furnish him with the more important typographical and other conventions for writing news stories. These are often different from the usual school-composition

style and differ somewhat from paper to paper; for example, Richmond High School or Richmond high school.

6. The point of emphasis in the story often depends upon the freshness of the data and whether some phase of the story has been run previously. For example, a morning paper would be likely to say "William Jones, head of the department of history in the Central high school, who was yesterday struck down by an automobile, was at the point of death at the Mercy hospital at an early hour this morning," whereas the evening paper of the previous day would have emphasized the accident itself, its location, the driver, and the circumstances rather than the condition of the victim. The writer of news copy must keep in mind that news stories must appear to be *news*. Very often the form of a news story is determined by the relative recency of different items or phases of it.

7. Many events warrant two stories: an advance story announcing coming events and the "follow-up"—an account to follow immediately after the event. The details and style of the story should, of course, be appropriate to the type.

Unfavorable News. It is desirable at times to withhold news, at least temporarily and occasionally permanently. Examples include news affecting the reputation of pupils and teachers, or stories relative to expansions or changes an early announcement of which would embarrass the administration of the school. The professional newspaper man who has absorbed the ethics of his calling is appreciative of these considerations and is quite willing to weigh the matter of publication and often to soften the story or to withhold it altogether. However, news is the paper's stock in trade and to fail to publish interesting news is as if a grocer were wantonly to destroy his wares. Consequently one must not expect too great sacrifices by the local papers in the interests of mercy or of the administration of the schools.

Certain ways of approaching this problem are distinctly better than ways that are frequently employed. It is naturally more logical to request coöperation in such matters if the school has pursued a consistent policy of aiding the paper to get the news. It is distinctly unwise to threaten the paper in any way. Most newspaper men are very sensitive to attacks

on the "freedom of the press," and should such threats be successful (and ordinarily they will not be), the status of friendly relations is seriously impaired. The best approach is to present the argument for withholding the news in a calm and pleasant manner, appealing to the human and logical side of the editor or reporter. Though, of course, the principal may for various reasons wisely refuse to talk for publication, particularly if he is to be quoted, it is not wise to attempt openly to block the papers from getting at the story except in instances where those in charge of the papers have no sense of ethics or in dealing with a paper of the sensational and scandalmonging type. In a majority of instances fair treatment of the representatives of the paper will result in at least "toning down" the objectionable phases of the story, and frequently complete frankness and confidence will not be abused.

If the story does appear in a form less desirable than is expected by the principal, little is gained by making it the occasion for bitterness or a quarrel. Such a procedure is not likely to prevent similar treatment in the future in like situations and is likely to arouse a more critical attitude toward favorable school stories of less news value. The calm, friendly expression of disappointment is much more likely to achieve beneficial results.

The principal should not be too sensitive to stories that appear about him and the school. They cannot all be lavish in praise, personal or otherwise, even were that desirable. More often than not, what seems to him a doubtful compliment or a reflection upon him or his school does not appear so to the busy casual reader. If only complimentary news stories appear, they are likely to be discounted.

5. PUBLICATIONS WITHIN THE SCHOOL

Of not nearly so great importance for purposes of publicity as the newspaper but fairly useful and worthy of attention are

1. The student publications: the school paper, the monthly, and the annual.

2. Official school reports.
3. The house organ.
4. Other published material: catalogues, bulletins, and handbooks.

Because of limitations of space and the minor importance of these means of publicity, and the similarity of many fundamental principles to those discussed in connection with other agencies of informing the public, only very brief discussion will be given here.

Student Publications. All school publications are potential liabilities as well as potential assets in influencing public opinion about the school, its staff, work, and pupils. As an agency for publicity the value of student publications is secondary to their educational value. As they are little read by others their chief values for publicity lie in the selling of the school to the pupils—arousing school spirit and pride and furnishing information and orientation with reference to the school.

The principal factor in the success of these enterprises is the presence on the staff of a teacher who is reasonably well trained in journalism and English, who can be relied upon to comprehend the significance of publicity to the school, who knows the values and dangers of school publications, and who is able to establish leadership with the student editors and managers.

Influence must be exercised to keep at a minimum the trivial and ultra-juvenile material and the abortive attempts at humor which give undesirable and false impressions of the life of the school, and to bring about the inclusion of such material as will give some idea of the character of the more important work of the school.

Unless the school is of good size its newspaper will probably be a mimeographed product little read outside the school, and the school magazine or journal is likely to prove financially impossible. The annual will perhaps constitute the chief school publication. Effort should be exerted to make this a creditable production, reflecting credit upon the school, the pupils, the teachers, and the principal. In instances where it is desired to increase the number of non-resident pupils, it is not a bad in-

vestment for the board of education to purchase a limited number of high-school annuals for distribution to the rural schools likely to send pupils to the local high school.

Official School Reports and the House Organ. Reports of the principal to the superintendent are often incorporated in his report to the board of education, printed, and distributed to interested citizens. The practice is not widespread; and the reports are little read, owing at least partly to the uninteresting material and its unattractive presentation. Tabular statistics should be kept at a minimum and the really important statistics presented in correct and simple graphical form. The material should deal with the more important phases of the work of the school and its most important needs, noting outstanding distinctions and achievements of the year. Fairly intensive reports on a few main topics are preferable to comprehensive reports scattered over all phases of the work of the school. Many principals or superintendents employ this plan, alternating from topic to topic in different years. Copies of the report may, with the permission of the superintendent or the board of education, be furnished to the local papers, or parts of it modified for a series of articles or news items.

The House Organ. The house organ, ordinarily published only in the larger metropolitan school systems, is intended for the improvement of the morale and effectiveness of the teaching staff of the entire school system. Such publications vary from small four-page mimeographed folders to printed journals of several times that number of pages. In addition to stimulating the staff to professional improvement and furnishing a means of making announcements, the house organ is a useful means of developing pride in, and disseminating information about, the achievements of the schools.

Good examples of house organs of public schools are *Better Teaching*, Cincinnati schools, and the *School Bulletin*, Minneapolis. For the smaller schools teachers' meetings, the bulletin board, and the assembly serve the purpose of the house organ.

Unless the principal or the superintendent has sufficient time to make such a publication a real success (and no little time is

required), or unless he has available a competent, mature, discreet, and loyal assistant who can furnish the necessary time and talent, the wisdom of issuing a house organ is doubtful.

The content of the publication should be confined largely to the following types of materials: suggestions on techniques and devices of instruction; teaching projects and successful devices employed by various teachers in the school; news of the faculty and of the school; book reviews and notices; abstracts of, or excerpts from, inspirational and practical addresses of experts and nationally known educators; notices of meetings and other announcements; and reports of local research projects written in simple form. All articles should be relatively short, should not be too technical, and should be as definitely practical as possible.

The Handbook and Other Publications. In addition to its use for guidance, the high-school handbook constitutes an avenue of publicity, giving to parents, prospective and present pupils, and other readers the more important facts about the schools, including curricula, objectives, organizations, conventions, and other phases of school life.

Various other types of printed material are distributed by different schools, including all sorts of pamphlets, bulletins, and courses of study. These operate to establish in their respective limited groups of readers impressions about the school—its activities and personnel. One general principle should be observed in connection with all these; namely, that unless sufficient time, effort, talent, and money are available to make them attractive and forceful they had better remain unpublished.

Education Week. Each year a week in the fall is designated as "Education Week." Because of the publicity given the week and the fact that it is observed on a nation-wide scale, it affords an excellent opportunity for the employment of various agencies for bringing the work and values of the school to the people through many of the channels just discussed. The *Journal of the National Education Association*, the official publication of the national teachers' organization, with headquarters at Washington, D. C., usually furnishes in the columns

of an issue preceding Education Week many very practical suggestions for realizing the possibilities of the week and sources of material for addresses and programs. Churches, local papers, school functions and exercises, and other avenues of reaching the people are utilized to excellent advantage in a great many schools at this time.

The Basic Analysis. Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon have aptly pointed out that there is wisdom in the practice of analyzing the local field carefully as a guide to the public-relations program, and have listed the following items as those to which consideration should be given:[1]

1. The number of students completing their elementary-school 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 non-resident elementary-school graduates living within its sphere of influence.
7. The nationalities represented in the community, the 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.

Parents' Days. In recent years many schools have found it useful to have "Dad's Day," "Mother and Daughter Day," or "Father and Son Night." Upon these occasions some sort of exhibition is usually planned; for example, "Father and Son Night" in many schools is principally given over to exhibitions of wrestling, boxing, tumbling, perhaps an intramural basket-

[1] J. B Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, p 483. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

ball game or two, occasionally a short talk on father-and-son relationship, and sometimes a dinner or "banquet." Mother-daughter programs are of correspondingly appropriate nature. In some schools there is a Mother's Night, which is not confined to mothers of girls, but includes also mothers of boys.

School Films. With the development of amateur movies the film field has been invaded by school publicists. In an increasing number of schools or school systems, carefully planned "shots" of school activities have been filmed, titled, and used for the purposes of school publicity. Among the types of "shots" are commencements, athletic events, parades, shop activities, school plays, home-economics activities and products, agricultural-class projects, exhibits, winners of honors, statistics on enrollments indicating progress or growth of the school, and the faculty and board of education.

Short sequences are shown at the local movie theater and longer sequences at meetings of P.T.A.'s, of service clubs, of the student body, and to prospective students in lower schools.

Summary. No principal of any type of high school can afford, in the interests either of the school or of himself, to neglect the possibilities for good or evil of the various avenues for informing and impressing his community concerning the work, objectives, and achievements of his school. It is folly for him to believe that the saying "If a man make a better mousetrap than his neighbor, though he live in the depths of the trackless forest, the world will make a beaten path to his door" applies to modern school administration. The criteria by which mousetraps are judged are more objective than those which may be applied to education. Schools occupy a unique position with reference to the public, since they are undertakings of the people, supported by the people, for the children of the people. Most important of the agencies for influencing public opinion are the pupils and the teachers themselves and the local newspaper. Other important agencies include exhibits and demonstrations of a wide variety of types, such organizations as the parent-teacher associations, and various publications of the school.

High-School Publicity

The training and qualifications of the most successful principals must include a knowledge and appreciation of the possibilities of the avenues of publicity and a knowledge of, and skill in, the technique of school publicity, types of qualifications not natural to the typical school man. He should take a leaf from the book of successful corporations, public utilities, and industries, which are also dependent for success on widespread public support, and master the techniques of this important phase of his responsibility as the leader in his school and its interpreter to his community.

Among the fundamental principles or factors of publicity programs and techniques are the following: continuous publicity rather than emergency campaign publicity, the conservation of the opportunities for publicity, the establishment of good contacts and relations with publicity agencies, an impersonal point of view centering credit more upon the board of education, the staff, and the pupils than upon the principal or the superintendent, and an understanding of the interests, attitudes, and other characteristics of the audience to be reached.

Problems and Exercises

1. Think of a concrete situation showing the need of publicity for each of the seven purposes given in the text.

2. List in parallel columns the relative advantages and disadvantages of campaigns and of continuous publicity.

3. List a few typical examples of how a principal might fail to realize opportunities for publicity through the pupils of the school.

4. Prepare a list of topics and occasions upon which members of the different departments in the high school might talk to lay groups in the community.

5. Select some department in the high school and prepare a list of exhibit material for that department.

6. In what respects do you question the wisdom of the suggestions given in the text relative to relations with the local representatives of the press?

7. Prepare a list of from five to ten additions that might well be made to the items on the publicity calendar given in the text.

8. Write a story about some school happening in a way which you think well adapted to publication in a local weekly newspaper.

9. What do you believe should be the policy of a high-school principal in dealing with publicity concerning a breach between representatives of the student body and the principal? concerning the expulsion of two boys for theft? concerning the expulsion of a girl for smoking? concerning a strike of pupils?

10. What do you think should be the minimum size of a school attempting to employ each of the publications mentioned in the first paragraph of section 5?

11. With a committee of fellow students prepare a hypothetical four-page issue of a monthly house organ for a high school of from seven hundred to fifteen hundred pupils

12. Describe a special (real or hypothetical) occasion suitable as an unusual publicity project.

XXII
The High-School Principal

1. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP

The concept of the professional administration of secondary schools is one of relatively recent development. Available records relating to early secondary schools and what corresponded to them in still earlier times reveal the fact that there existed no office corresponding to our present-day high-school principal or city superintendent of schools. Like the latter office, the high-school principalship as we now know it—an office of much administrative responsibility and many technical tasks, requiring special technical knowledge and skills—is a product of the developments in education of the last century and particularly of the last thirty or forty years.

Reasons for the Slow Development of an Administrative Office. Until recently secondary schools were small institutions and were simply organized. Most of them were one-teacher schools. Each master, like Plato in his academy, gathered about him his following of pupils, and these constituted the school. When pupils became too numerous one of two things occurred: ushers or minor assistants were employed or, as frequently was the case, another master offered himself to receive applications. Secondary schools were largely private institutions, privately owned or endowed and privately managed, and everything favored the multiplication of small schools and decentralization. In those instances in which two or more "masters" taught in the same school and one was known as the headmaster, he was in reality merely a teacher of superior rank enjoying the title of headmaster, a salary slightly higher than that of the other masters, and a minimum of administrative authority granted as a concession to, and a reward for, his superior scholarship, personality, and teaching proficiency.

The "committee" or "governors" of the school delegated but little of their administrative duties and responsibilities. Mas-

ters were scholars whose duties were to teach, not to organize, administer, or supervise. The organization of the school, all the various phases of its administration (with some exceptions as to curriculum and discipline), the supervision of instruction and the progress of pupils were activities carried on by members of the board. They frequently examined the pupils as to progress, observed the instruction, and generally left little opportunity for the exercise or development of administrative functions by the master. The problem of pupil control was delegated to the master because of its close relationship to the teaching process and because of its demands for constant attention. Ezekiel Cheever, of whom a recent biographer writes, "He taught, flogged, and wrote," was a type of the early master. With respect to the complexity of the problem and organization of administration, the vast majority of secondary schools until the middle of the nineteenth century may well be compared with the one-teacher and two-teacher rural schools of today.

The Beginnings of Administrative "Masters." Though it is true that Johann Sturm, who was called to Strasbourg in 1528 to organize and administer secondary education in that city, was given much opportunity for initiative in organization, administration, and supervision, he was the distinct exception to the rule and did not materially affect the practice of his time. Until the middle of the nineteenth century we still find headmasters little more than head teachers, with the occasional exception, though they did come to exercise more and more direction of the life of the school, particularly in the most important larger private secondary schools of England, the so-called great "public" schools. Most of the larger secondary schools in England were boarding schools; and the consequent necessity of larger responsibilities for the extra-classroom life of the pupils paved the way for larger administrative and supervisory responsibilities by the headmasters. But since most of the earlier schools in the colonies were not boarding schools, even these problems of administration were not prominent in our early secondary schools.

No doubt headmasters then as now frequently asked for extensions of their powers as necessary for most effective service. Boards, however, were loath and slow to surrender adminstrative duties other than those relating to the discipline and supervision of student life, except in the rare instances where there existed a combination of a more liberal governing board and an outstanding headmaster in a large school. We find, for example, as noted a headmaster as Richard Mulcaster resigning his position after twenty-five years of outstanding service at Merchant Taylors' owing to friction with his governing board because of their refusal to extend his administrative authority.

Recent Developments contributing to the Development of the Position. Within recent years, however, developments have taken place which have operated to transform the organization, administration, and supervision of secondary schools into a professional field. The more important of these are:

1. The increased size and complexity of the school and the problem of management.
2. The expansion of the program of secondary education.
3. The change in the nature and quality of the high-school student body.
4. The increased stock of professional information relating to principles and techniques of school administration.
5. The changed attitude of people generally toward specialization.

The Increased Size and Complexity of the School and Its Problems of Management. In contrast to the earlier secondary schools in this country, modern high schools are complex institutions with staffs ranging up to beyond two hundred teachers and with enrollments ranging as high as eighty-five hundred students. As late as 1850 the faculties of American secondary schools consisted on the average of only two teachers as compared to more than ten teachers to a school today. The majority of them were one-teacher schools. The increase in the size of the school has in itself magnified the problem and need of technical administration and supervision. In the first place, we may note the problems of coördinating the departments and

activities of teachers and pupils which naturally result from an increase in the size of the schools, problems of schedule-making, reports, common standards, procedures among teachers, increased burdens of routine relative to absence and tardiness, and others of like nature. The increased amount of labor and time involved in the selection and supervision of large numbers of teachers and in other administrative tasks formerly performed by boards of education has discouraged members of governing boards from the attempt to exercise these functions personally, and they are now very commonly delegated to professional educators and administrators—the principal and the superintendent of schools.

Expansion of the High-School Program. The development of the elective system and the tendency to regard the function of the high school as much broader than merely preparing students for college and university have resulted in much wider offerings in high schools. This fact has necessitated expert administration of such problems as educational guidance, requirements for graduation, and the standardization, placement, and careful supervision of the newer subjects. These are matters which require more training and attention than boards of education are prepared to give them.

A second significant type of expansion of the high-school program is the rapid development of group activities of high-school students—extra-curricular, student, or collateral activities, as they are variously termed. Beginning with the more popular organized sports and the literary and debating societies, this type of educational activity has grown to include scores of forms of clubs, publications, sports, and social, musical, dramatic, and civic organizations and activities. These call for careful supervision and direction, and the duties incidental to them constitute in many schools the major single responsibility of the high-school principal.

Taken together, the widened scope of the curricular and extra-curricular opportunities and the consequent problems arising from the fact that all this expansion has been and still is in the fluid state have operated to introduce into the ad-

ministration of the upper schools very complicating factors calling for knowledge and skills not possessed even by the more capable classroom teacher.

Changes in the Nature and Quality of the High-School Student Body. The doubling of high-school enrollments every decade since 1890, resulting in an increase in enrollment of some 1400 per cent of that of 1890 as compared with an increase in population of less than 90 per cent, has operated to bring about material changes in the average and range of the student body in many respects. The pupil personnel of the high school of today dips into lower economic, intellectual, and cultural levels than that of a generation ago. The presence in high school of this new type of boy and girl has proved a tax upon the administrative genius of those who administer high schools. High-school students today are in all probability a less homogeneous group with respect to ability to do intellectual work, with respect to probable future occupations, and with respect to interests, outlook on life, and home training. They represent different social groups of varying degrees of Americanization. Problems of curricula, courses of study, methods of teaching, and management have grown apace. Homogeneous grouping, special and short courses, the Dalton plan and similar large-unit or individual-instruction plans, supervised study, and educational and vocational counselors are illustrative of the technical developments growing out of the need for readjustment of instruction and guidance to the student body of today.

The Increased Stock of Professional Information Relating to Principles and Techniques of School Administration. Partly because of the lack of administrative problems or of the failure to realize their significance, the techniques of organization, administration, and supervision in the early stage of the development of high schools were even more meager, unorganized, unpublished, and less known than those of the elementary school. A number of sources and influences have contributed to the development of a store of such information which now approaches a science in itself. Among these should be men-

tioned the development of normal schools and the subsequent development of departments of education and graduate work in education in colleges and universities, the development of professional and research organizations of school men, the growth of educational research and its special techniques, the raising of professional standards for certification and employment, and the increase in the number and quality of periodicals and books on the professional aspects of education.

The last twenty-five years have witnessed an increase in the number of persons studying educational problems in the graduate schools of the United States from a few dozen to as many thousands. There are at least two living authorities who have written more on school administration than was published previously to 1890. A student may, if he wishes, acquire in a single summer session more technical information about high-school administration than anyone knew fifty years ago.

The increased equipment of professional knowledge of the better-informed high-school principals and superintendents of schools has gone a long way toward encouraging boards of education to relinquish the professional administration of the schools to their management. The modern type of administrator whose knowledge is not confined to academic fields, discipline, and his own experience, but who rivals the engineer, the physician, and the lawyer in his grasp and knowledge of professional problems, principles, and techniques, has won the respect of the layman for a professional in a way that the old schoolmaster was never able to do.

The Changed Attitude toward Specialization. Another factor contributing to the development of professional secondary-school administration has been the marked change in the attitude and practice of people generally toward specialization. We have abandoned the idea of resorting to the specialist only in unusual cases of emergency and the practice of doing as much for ourselves and neighbors as possible, including the production of all foodstuffs, the making of clothes, medical treatment, and mechanical service. Instead we have rapidly become specialists, each in his line, confining our activities

to our specialties and resorting to other specialists for most of our needs.

In short, the public is prepared to accept the specialist in the administration of the public schools, which have so long been, almost as much as democratic government and politics, the plaything of the American layman. The public is today presented with numerous alternatives for leisure occupation and interests; and, as an effect of the urbanization of the country, there has been removed the close contact of the layman with the management of the schools. Thus it has been made possible for school men to educate the general public, including boards of education, to the idea that school administration is a field of specialization requiring particular and technical knowledge, skills, and experience.

The Modern High-School Principalship. These developments have played an important part in developing the opportunity and need for an administrative officer, professional in occupation and training. This officer—the superintendent of schools, except in those instances where consolidation for high-school purposes only has been effected and the principal of the high school is the chief officer—has gradually taken over powers commensurate with increased responsibility and problems. Those that relate more particularly to the high school alone he is passing on to his lieutenant in charge of that division—the principal of the high school.

Owing largely to these developments the position of the high-school principal has undergone profound changes within the past quarter of a century. From that of a head teacher a little more skillful than his fellows in handling boys and girls and their parents, and charged with keeping records and attending to the more unruly children, the position has become one that requires much technical skill and training. The principal of today must be a student of problems of school finance, accounting, achievement and mental measurement, educational and vocational guidance, extra-curricular activities, supervision, course-of-study construction, building and housing problems, homogeneous grouping, publicity and community relations,

schedule-making, and other technical activities involved in modern high-school administration. Graduate departments of schools of education are organizing the scientific knowledge relating to these problems into specialized courses to supplement the brief general courses in education which constituted the bulk of the professional training available a decade or so ago. The high-school principalship is rapidly becoming a position demanding not only administrative personality but also specialized, intensive professional training beyond the bachelor's degree, comparable with that of the dentist, physician, and attorney. Already in a number of states administrative certificates have been provided to furnish recognition of special training for educational administration and to insure at least some such training on the part of those occupying administrative positions. The training required for these certificates should be thought of as constituting not the optimum or ideal amount of training, but only a minimum.

The Training of the Modern High-School Principal. It seems most probable that the high-school principalship of the near future, along with the school superintendency, will constitute a calling which will be truly professional, requiring not only distinctly superior mental and personal characteristics but continued technical and professional training, and affording responsibility and prestige on a par with that of the more generally recognized professions of medicine, law, and architecture.

The time is close at hand when principals of all but the smaller high schools will in the large majority of instances have the equivalent of a year or more of graduate professional training. The trend toward the master's degree as minimum equipment for secondary-school principals is indicated by Table XIII.

In a study of the degrees held by the administrative heads of 658 public high schools in Illinois (exclusive of Chicago), accredited by the University of Illinois, 1940–1941, Clement, Clevenger, and Price found that 84 per cent of these officers had master's degrees as compared with 48 per cent in 1934–

Table XIII. Distribution of Principals by Degrees and by Geographical Sections of the United States, 1940–1941[1]

Section	None	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctor's
Eastern	3.0	27.1	62.2	7.7
Southern	1 5	25.4	70.5	2.6
Lake States	.7	13.4	81.5	4.2
Plains	1 1	24.7	71 6	2.7
Western	2.4	28.7	65.4	3.4
United States	1.8	23.3	70 4	4.5
United States, 1930–1931	4.7	47.0	46.0	2.2

1935, and 1.5 per cent had doctor's degrees. Even in the schools of 100 or fewer, 76 per cent had master's degrees.[2]

The steady increase in the number of universities making provision for the degree of doctor of education (D.Ed.), a degree comparable with that of M.D. for the physician and of J D. for the attorney, suggests that three years of graduate professional training will be sought by many principals and superintendents who are desirous of becoming experts in school administration.

2. THE OUTLOOK OF THE BEGINNING PRINCIPAL

The Danger of Inbreeding. The man just entering upon his first high-school principalship should realize that if he wishes to render the highest type of service to his school he cannot afford to model his school administration after the administration of the school which he attended or even after that obtaining in a school in which he has taught. Such great progress has been made in the theory and practice of high-school administration that a very large percentage of principals lag ingloriously in the rear of the leadership of a much smaller

[1] J. R. Shannon, "Academic Training of Secondary-School Principals in the United States."

[2] J. A. Clement, A. W. Clevenger, and J. W. Price, "Facts Relative to the Heads of Accredited Illinois High Schools, 1940–1941," *School and Society*, Vol. LV, pp. 537–539.

percentage of men and women who have studied carefully, diligently, and systematically the objectives, principles, and techniques of the organization, administration, and supervision of secondary schools and who have been blessed with ambition, energy, and courage in such quantities as to cause them to lead in the development of new practices.

The "Practitioner" Principal. Many of the principals of high schools of the passing generation received their college training in a day when little was taught about high-school administration, and that little was studied by relatively few men and women engaging in that work. Many principals of the passing generation were men and women who were certificated with little or no professional preparation as teachers and who succeeded to high-school principalships through the quality of their personalities, their success as teachers, and their popularity in their communities. Because of superior qualities of personality a number of them have enjoyed more than average success. Their personal qualities, not their principles and practices, in school administration, are the things worth imitating.

Such principals stand in the same professional position as the old family practitioner in medicine, who, while his science has swept ahead of him, still has a comfortable practice and still achieves reasonable success in many types of illness and injury—a useful man in his field, but certainly no model for the young physician of today.

The young principal will find that as yet it is difficult for the public and even for many teachers and principals not well trained in modern school administration to distinguish between the modern trained skillful specialist in high-school administration and the passing type of principal. Any given public, and many teachers, are acquainted with but few schools and few principals and therefore have little basis for comparison. The direct contacts of the public with the school are not close and frequent. The relative effects of different types of school administration are not easy to discern and measure. The fact that the public continues to tolerate, even to approve, the

methods of a passing type of administrator is no evidence that those methods constitute modern effective administration.

A Common Fallacy. Because these things are so, the beginning principal, who in so many instances has been trained professionally for teaching and only in an elementary way, is easily drawn into the fallacy of perpetuating practices which have been outgrown. He must realize that usually he should go far in advance of his predecessor. To stand still is in effect to deteriorate as the development of techniques races on about him. Although the principal under whom he began his teaching achieved apparent success with his methods, the new principal must acquire the methods of the present and the future. He must assume new responsibilities and meet them in new ways. He must master the modern theories of organization and administration of extra-curricular activities, educational and vocational guidance, homogeneous grouping, building-planning, school publicity, and child-accounting. He faces the responsibility of training teachers in new methods of instruction, supervised study, problem-project methods, visual instruction, large-unit assignments, such as contracts, challenges, and units, and in the use of objective and diagnostic tests.

Vocational Opportunities. For the properly qualified individual there are very excellent opportunities for employment. Not only are hundreds of vacancies created annually by the resignation of high-school principals to accept other positions, but hundreds of new high schools are established each year. With the rapidly increasing feeling that the modern principalship demands a man not only of peculiarly adapted personality and character but of special professional training, those properly trained are discovering that they now possess a vital advantage over ambitious candidates from among those trained as teachers but not as administrators in secondary education.

In addition to the principalship itself, there are many other types of position to which the trained high-school principal may safely and properly aspire, including city superintendencies, county superintendencies, assistant superintendencies, high-school inspectorships, assistant principalships, positions on the

faculties of teachers' colleges and other colleges engaged in training teachers, directorships of various bureaus, divisions, and departments, and positions with concerns furnishing textbooks and school supplies and equipment.

Pecuniary Rewards. Administrative positions, of course, pay much greater salaries than teaching positions. Although these are not to be compared with the salaries of business executives, which frequently range from $10,000 to more than $100,000, annually, the probability of attaining well-paying administrative school positions without large investments of capital is much greater.

The salaries paid to high-school principals (superintendents of schools in the villages) will average sufficiently high to permit of comfortable living and savings, being rarely less than $2000 and ranging to $15,000 a year. In Table XIV are given the median salaries of certain administrative officers in 1942–1943.

Other Rewards. The high-school principal has also other rewards. More often than not, he is a leader in his community, consulted about public and community affairs of a civic and social nature. He is usually invited to become a member of one of the local service clubs and is often made an officer or committee chairman in that club, the local chamber of com-

Table XIV. Median Salaries of Certain Administrative Officers in Cities in the United States, 1942–1943[1]

Administrative Officer	Cities of over 100,000	Cities 30,000–100,000	Cities 10,000–30,000	Cities 5000–10,000	Cities 2500–5000
Junior-high-school					
Principal	$4422	$3303	$2776	$2159	$1757
Assistant principal	4138	3014	—	—	—
High-school					
Principal	4913	4118	3418	2746	2317
Assistant principal	3909	3211	—	—	—
Superintendents of schools	8542	6200	4993	3902	3359
Assistant superintendents	6083	4317	3525	3233	—

[1] "Salaries of City School Employees, 1942–1943," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXI, pp. 6–10.

merce, and other organizations of public affairs. He is regarded as one of the more prominent representatives of culture and learning. Confidence in his integrity and character is almost ex-officio.

In addition to these desirable attachments to his position, his work is of such a nature that he cannot fail to realize that he is a leader in what is probably the most useful, important, and honorable enterprise in his community. He may justly enjoy the satisfaction that comes from the knowledge that his services and those of the persons whom he directs are almost certain to result in more permanent benefits and to be the source of more happiness and satisfaction to human beings than those resulting from the efforts of any other calling.

The opportunities for leadership and direction of the growth of others are great. There is splendid opportunity for initiative, originality, and self-expression and for organization, direction, and management. To any individual who demands avenues of expression for his personality and imagination and who enjoys the challenge of an important task, no other calling can offer more.

3. THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Perhaps in no other profession is there greater need for continued professional study and growth after actually entering the calling than in school administration. This statement is probably true in spite of the fact that those engaged in other callings find it necessary or desirable to continue study. Members of the medical profession find it necessary to continue study throughout their professional careers, reading journals and books, attending clinics and professional meetings, and occasionally withdrawing from actual practice to study abroad or at some center in this country. Architects who failed to continue to study would soon be hopelessly out of touch with modern developments in building materials and schemes, changes in taste and fashion, and modern conveniences in lighting, heating, disposal of waste, and in other similar fields. It

is often said that the graduate of the law school is just ready to begin the study of the practice of law. Dentists who do not continue professional study are soon left behind by their more progressive fellows.

Inadequate Initial Training of Administrators. One should also remember that the professional training of school administrators is rather abbreviated as compared with other professions of a high level. Most administrators find their way into administrative positions from service in the classroom, their professional training having been directed toward the latter. It is possible that such a condition is satisfactory and that it is better for professional training for administration to be completed after several years of experience in teaching rather than to precede such experience entirely. The important consideration is that it be completed.

The high-school principal should not consider himself properly trained for his work until he has familiarized himself with a very large number of the important problems and practices of high-school organization, administration, and supervision, including those discussed in this volume and those related to supervision. Many of them should be made the subject of special study, more intensive than is possible in a volume similar to this or in courses based upon it. Such study may be of the nature of experience involving study of the immediate practical problems, or it may consist in the informal study of books, articles, and other published material or of talks made at various meetings, or it may be done in regular professional courses at teacher-training institutions.

Experience as a Method of Study. Experience in administrative work constitutes a very desirable type of stimulus to professional growth. It is an indispensable supplement to any other type of professional preparation or study, regardless of how complete or efficient the latter may be. Formal professional training will be complete only when it has been related in practice to the problems which arise in actual administrative experience.

However, experience alone as a means of professional growth

leaves much to be desired. It is a slow, uneconomical method of growth. Just as children need an artificial institution—the school—to short-cut natural experience, so the administrator should not depend upon administrative experience alone as an avenue to professional growth. The experience of any one person is not sufficiently varied. There are too many plans, methods, principles, and schemes which have been the result of the experiences of many years of many people. To neglect to study these in the hope that one's own experience will lead him to discover all these things is impractical and unwise.

It is also true that experience will be most useful if it parallels the study of the results of experience and research of others, being thus enriched by trial of many of the ideas and plans of others. Experience not so stimulated is likely in many cases to lead to crystallization of practice only partly effective and to the early termination of professional growth.

Formal Study in Educational Institutions. There has for some years been a growing tendency for principals to continue formal training for at least one year beyond the collegiate degree, and a number of institutions for professional training are establishing curricula, not essentially of a research character, for the increasing number who are going on for three years of graduate training.

The principal who intends to stay in the profession permanently and to qualify himself for the places of greater responsibility should not postpone completion of the first year of graduate training. By attendance either during the academic year or during summer quarters, he should reach that status at his earliest opportunity. The possibility of additional formal training should be given careful consideration; and if encouraged by those with whom he worked in his first year of training, he should (preferably some time between his fifth and tenth year of teaching and administrative experience) obtain a leave of absence and obtain this advanced training.

Informal Study. The mistake should not be made of thinking that it is necessary for continued study to be carried on in courses in some educational institution. The same books

articles, and other material may be read and studied independently of any institution. The problems or exercises set may be adapted to work in with problems faced in the daily work of the principal. For many administrators study beyond the first graduate year may have to be postponed indefinitely, if it ever is realized. For such individuals continued and constant informal reading and study are most essential.

Though graduate professional training is highly desirable, it by no means eliminates the necessity of continued study of new developments as reported in current books and periodical literature. Indeed, it is very likely that those with a year or more of graduate training do more professional reading from year to year than those with less.

Professional Reading. The high-school principal should invest at least fifty or sixty dollars a year in professional books, journals, and organizations. Such an expenditure may be safely regarded as an investment which in the long run will, for individuals fitted by personality to administrative work, prove many times more profitable than any other way in which the corresponding amount might be invested. In the following paragraphs some suggestions will be made as to the more useful types of books and journals.

In the main the recommendations are centered upon the improvement of the individual as an administrator of secondary schools; but since he must always look upon himself as a possible city superintendent of schools, that possibility has been kept in mind.

Periodical Literature. The most detailed literature is to be found in the journals. Many articles report the experiences of individuals with special plans or methods. Among journals which are likely to be of most value to the high-school principal are the following:

Relating Definitely to Secondary Education

The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Published monthly, October to May, inclusive. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Wash-

ington, D. C. $3 a year. [Each issue contains a fairly large number of articles chiefly concerning practical problems of all aspects of secondary education. Rather complete lists of new books of interest in secondary education.]

The Clearing House. Published monthly, September to May, inclusive. The Inor Publishing Co., Inc., 207 Fourth Avenue, New York City. $3 a year. [Specializes in shorter, more vitalized articles, usually of a progressive or controversial nature. Good reviews and news notes.]

The Junior College Journal. Published monthly, September to May, inclusive. The American Association of Junior Colleges, 730 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. $3 a year. [Contents devoted to problems of junior-college organization, administration, and teaching.]

The School Review. Published monthly, September to June, inclusive, by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. $2.50 a year. [Devoted to contributions of general or special significance to secondary education, including a large number of scientific or semi-scientific articles written so as to be understood by the large majority of principals. Excellent book reviews and editorial news.]

In addition to these journals, there are several which circulate largely in limited areas.

California Journal of Secondary Education. Published monthly, October to May, inclusive, by the California Society of Secondary Education, 170 South Van Ness Avenue, San Francisco, California. $3 a year. [Articles and committee reports relating to organization, administration, and teaching.]

High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City. Published by the New York City Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York, issued each month of the school year to all teachers in the high schools of the city of New York. [Articles by teachers and officials in New York City high schools largely pertaining to work done in their schools.]

The High School Journal. Published monthly, October to May, inclusive, by the School of Education, the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. $1 50 a year. [Articles and research reports in secondary education.]

The North Central Association Quarterly. Published quarterly by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, 4012 University High School Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan. $5 a year. [Reports and papers read at meetings, and reports of committees appointed for investigations by the association.]

The University High School Journal. Published quarterly by the University High School, 57th and Grove Streets, Oakland, California. $1 a year. [Articles and researches in all phases of secondary education.]

Emphasizing Administration

The American School Board Journal. Published monthly by the Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. $3 a year. [Articles on all phases of school administration and supervision, specializing in those relating to buildings and equipment and to the financial and legal phases of administration News notes of what other schools are doing Advertising material very useful in keeping abreast of developments in school equipment.]

The Nation's Schools. Published monthly by the Nation's Schools Publishing Co., Inc , 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. $2 a year. [Similar to the *American School Board Journal*, though specializing a little less in articles relating to building and equipment and somewhat more in the educational phases of administration. Articles of the latter type of a superior grade.

The School Executive. Published monthly by the American School Publishing Corporation, Orange, Connecticut $2 a year. [Shorter articles on all aspects of school administration]

Of a More General Nature

Curriculum Journal. Published monthly, except June, July, August, and September, by the Society for Curriculum Study George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee $2 50 a year [Short articles and news notes on various aspects of curriculum and supervisory theory and practice]

Progressive Education Published monthly, October to May, inclusive, by the Progressive Education Association, 221 West 57th Street, New York City. $3 a year [Articles are non-technical, usually relating to some aspect of child-centered or society-centered practices]

The Journal of Educational Research Published monthly except June, July, and August. A S Barr, editor, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. $3.50 a year [Devoted to articles of a definite research nature relating to all fields of education Book reviews, news notes, and abstracts of research articles in other periodicals.]

The state journal should come regularly to the principal. No other publication will keep the principal informed about movements, developments, and events in the state. In most states the local journal is the official organ of the state teachers' association, and is active in improving state educational conditions and facilities. It serves to keep teachers and administrators alive to local educational problems and to establish professional

solidarity. When under competent leadership it should be supported in every way by every teacher and every principal.

A desirable balance of types of journals should be maintained. For example, a good combination might consist of the *School Review* or one of the other journals of secondary education, the local journal in the field, one relating directly to administration, one of the special-subject periodicals (for example, *The Mathematics Teacher*, *Social Education*, and *The English Journal*), the local state journal, and one of a more general nature. The cost of such a combination should not exceed twelve or fourteen dollars annually. Files of back numbers of all journals should be arranged by volumes for future reference.

Bulletins and Circulars. Some of the most useful and practical educational literature appears in the various series of educational bulletins and circulars. Perhaps most prominent are those of the Office of Education of the Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. Single copies of current numbers may be obtained free. Every principal should request that his name be placed on the mailing list for this series of bulletins. Copies of certain back numbers may be obtained at small cost from the Superintendent of Documents at Washington, D.C. A list of all the available publications of the office may be obtained for the asking.

Among the various series issued by institutions of higher education are those of the bureaus of educational research of such schools. The series of bulletins and of circulars of the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, Walter S. Monroe, director, are outstanding in point of practical value to the profession. Each bulletin or circular is devoted to a single topic.

Another outstanding series is the *Educational Research Bulletin*, published fortnightly by the College of Education of Ohio State University at Columbus. This bulletin is in the form of a journal containing short articles, editorial comment, abstracts of articles, and book reviews.

Though these two most useful publications were originally intended for those engaged in education in the states of Illinois

and Ohio, respectively, as yet no charge is being made for single copies of current issues requested by administrators from other states.

Building up a Professional Library. The progressive principal or superintendent of today, like the physician, the lawyer, and the architect, is finding it profitable to have at hand a great deal of professional information for reading and reference in the form of the latest books written on subjects in which he is interested. A few principals have standing orders with leading publishing houses to send them a copy of every publication relating to secondary education. Many others follow the book reviews in their periodicals closely and order promptly all books which seem worth while. Whereas twenty years ago the professional library of the average principal rarely consisted of more than ten or a dozen books, most of which were purchased while the principals were students of courses in education, it is quite common to find the high-school principal of today equipped with a professional collection of a hundred or more of the best and latest books in his field.

Suggested Books for the High-School Principal. In selecting professional books it is desirable to have all the major fields represented. Below are given a few of the better books in each of a number of such fields.

General Secondary Education

BENT, RUDYARD K. and KRONENBERG, HENRY H. *Principles of Secondary Education.* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

DOUGLASS, A. A. *Modern Secondary Education: Principles and Practices.* Houghton Mifflin Company.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America.* American Council on Education.

FERRIS, EMERY N. *Secondary Education in Country and Village.* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc.

The Inglis Memorial Lecture Series. Harvard University Press.

MONROE, W. S., and WEBER, OSCAR. *The High School.* Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc.

The High-School Principal

High-School Administration

CARPENTER, W. W , and RUFI, JOHN *The Teacher and Secondary-School Administration.* Ginn and Company.

EDMONSON, J B , ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School* The Macmillan Company.

JACOBSON, PAUL B , and REAVIS WILLIAM C. *Duties of School Principals.* Prentice-Hall, Inc.

KOOS, L V , and others. *Administering the Secondary School.* The American Book Company

NEWSOM, N WILLIAM and LANGFITT R EMERSON (Editors) *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* The American Book Company.

REAVIS, W C , and WOELLNER R. *Office Practice of High School Principals* Laidlaw Brothers, Inc.

Methods of Teaching

BOSSING, NELSON L *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools.* Houghton Mifflin Company

DOUGLASS, HARL R *Modern Methods in High School Teaching* Houghton Mifflin Company

GOETTING, M L *Teaching in the Secondary School* Prentice-Hall, Inc.

UMSTATTD, J G *Secondary School Teaching* Ginn and Company.

Tests and Measurements

GREENE, HARRY A., JORGENSEN ALBERT N., and GERBERICH, J. RAYMOND. *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School.* Longmans, Green & Co

HAWKS, HERBERT E , LINDQUIST, E F , and MANN, C R *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations* Houghton Mifflin Company

LEE, J MURRAY *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools.* D. Appleton-Century Company Inc

ORLEANS, JACOB S. *Measurement in Education* Thomas Nelson and Sons.

ROSS, C C *Measurement in Today's Schools* Prentice-Hall, Inc.

SMITH, EUGENE R., and TYLER, RALPH W *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* Harper & Brothers

Guidance

DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and MILLER, LEONARD M *Guidance Methods for Teachers in Homeroom, Classroom, Core Program.* International Textbook Co., Scranton, Pennsylvania.

HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E. *Guidance in the Secondary School* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc

JONES, A. J. *Principles of Guidance*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and HAND, HAROLD C. *Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Company.

KOOS, LEONARD V., and KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N *Guidance in Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Company.

LEFEVER, D. WELTY, TURRELL, ARCHIE M , and WEITZEL, HENRY I *Principles and Techniques of Guidance* The Ronald Press.

MYERS, GEORGE E. *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

REAVIS, W. C. *Pupil Adjustment*. D. C Heath and Company

Supervision

ALBERTY, H. B., and THAYER, V. T. *Supervision in the Secondary School*. D. C. Heath and Company.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H *Improving Instruction· Supervision by Principals of Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Company

DOUGLASS, HARL R , and BOARDMAN, CHARLES W *Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Curriculum

DRAPER, EDGAR MARION. *Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Making*. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc

SPEARS, HAROLD *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction*. The American Book Company

WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. *The New High School in the Making* The American Book Company.

Activities

FOSTER, C R. *Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School*. Johnson Publishing Company.

FRETWELL, E K. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. Houghton Mifflin Company.

MCKOWN, H. C *Extra-Curricular Activities*. The Macmillan Company.

ROBERTS, A. C., and DRAPER, E. M. *Extra-Class and Intra-Mural Activities*. D. C. Heath and Company.

ROEMER, JOSEPH C , and ALLEN, C. F. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. D. C. Heath and Company.

TERRY, PAUL W. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

WILDS, E. H. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. D. Appleton-Century Company.

General School Administration

CUBBERLEY, E. P. *Public School Administration* Houghton Mifflin Company

ENGELHARDT, FRED. *Public School Organization and Administration.* Ginn and Company

ENGELHARDT, N. L., and ENGELHARDT, FRED. *Public School Business Administration* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University

MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *School Administration.* Houghton Mifflin Company.

REEDER, WARD G *The Business Administration of a School System* Ginn and Company

REEDER, WARD G. *Fundamentals of School Administration* (Revised Edition). The Macmillan Company

Psychology of Secondary Education

BLOS, PETER. *The Adolescent Personality A Study of Individual Behavior.* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc

COLE, LUELLA. *Psychology of Adolescence* Farrar & Rinehart Inc.

DIMOCK, HEDLEY S *Rediscovering the Adolescent · A Study of Personality Development in Adolescent Boys.* Association Press, New York.

GARRISON, KARL C. *The Psychology of Adolescence.* Prentice-Hall, Inc.

PARTRIDGE, E D. *Social Psychology of Adolescence* Prentice-Hall, Inc.

ZACHRY, CAROLINE B *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence.* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc.

Professional Organizations. The principal should early ally himself with at least three professional organizations. Among these should be mentioned the National Education Association[1] and the local state association, which he should support not only in the rôle of member but also in assisting to give it leadership and direction. The former organization issues to all members monthly, except July, August, and September, the *Journal of the National Education Association*, a journal containing articles of timely interest on all phases of education, the intent of which is to keep all members informed of the current movements in education.

[1]1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D.C.

The third organization with which all principals should affiliate themselves is the National Association of Secondary-School Principals,[1] a department of the National Education Association. The bulletins of this association, which are issued monthly, October to May, inclusive, specialize in abstracts of articles and other publications relating to secondary education. One large issue annually contains the papers and talks given at the annual meeting in February.

Another organization to which many principals belong is the American Association of School Administrators,[2] a department of the National Education Association. The membership fee of five dollars includes the research bulletins, issued five times a year; and a copy of the annual yearbook of the organization, in which are published, either in full or in abstract, the papers and addresses given at the annual February meeting.

In many large cities, organizations of the high-school principals or of all the principals of the city have been formed for the study of their common problems as principals and for professional stimulus and growth. In many sections of the country principals and superintendents in neighboring districts have formed School Men's Clubs or similar organizations for the same purpose. In some states there also exist high-school principals' associations. All these organizations may be made the means of very considerable professional development by the ambitious principal.

Dangers of Professional Atrophy. The high-school principal is especially susceptible to the danger of professional stagnation, or atrophy. He is under constant temptation of being so drawn into the details of his daily routine as to fail to see beyond his immediate tasks and the local community. He has few fellows who serve to stimulate him to continued growth. Often the nearest principal is in the next town.

Very often his early successes serve to turn his head and to lead him to underestimate the need for increasing his profes-

[1] 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

[2] 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. Formerly the Department of Superintendence.

sional knowledge and for improving his professional techniques. The ignorance of his constituency in matters of technical phases of administration make it easy to procrastinate and to let well enough suffice. The importance of making friends in the community leads some to put all reliance in this mode of getting on. Particularly is the younger principal, when flattered by the opportunities offered to him to assume leadership in many community enterprises or organizations, prone to fill his leisure hours with activities which, while valuable to his community, contribute little to increasing his permanent professional efficiency.

Each year there may be found coming as students into summer sessions of the universities older men who, after years of professional stagnation and neglect, have decided to make an effort to regain the ground lost in ten, fifteen, or twenty years of standing still. The pathetic thought that comes to the minds of their instructors is that they are waging an uphill battle. Their records are against them, as employing bodies and individuals are prone to be suspicious, feeling that the fact that they have got no farther along indicates lack of ability.

The time to begin to grow in service is the day that the principal enters upon his first work. The time to stop is when he has gone as far in his profession as he desires to go and is willing to let the procession move ahead without him. There is no alternative for the high-school principal of the middle of the twentieth century. If the thought of the necessity of continuing to study and to improve is distasteful to him, he had better turn to some other occupation.

It is needless to point out here not only that the whole field of education is in flux, but also that secondary education is undergoing a most rapid and thorough transformation. Organization, curriculum, methods of teaching, extra-curricular services, methods of administration and supervision—all are in the process of becoming quite different from what they were a few years ago. A great deal of the specific training received twenty years ago in education is already out of date. Research bureaus, subsidized investigations, and researches of profes-

sors, graduate students, superintendents, principals, and teachers are daily producing new information, new techniques, and new materials with which the principal must keep abreast.

Experimentation in the classroom is overturning old ideas and presenting new procedures to be mastered. The application of the psychology of learning and of the principles of business administration, public finance, publicity, public health, and other fields to education, has served to develop whole new structures of procedures that mount from year to year to make uncomfortable the old *laissez-faire* administrator, who is content to trust to his own common sense, the ignorance of his patrons, and good luck to maintain him and his school.

The day of the schoolmaster is rapidly passing, and is being succeeded by that of the professional school administrator trained for technical and professional practice. The principal who would be wise is he who *will* be wise.

The Principal and his General Reading. The school man has a special responsibility for keeping informed concerning what is going on in the world, about the trends in all phases of life with which the average citizen is likely to be concerned, and about the problems which the generation of pupils now in school will most probably face in future years. His responsibility is much greater in this respect than that of the physician, the lawyer, and the business man, who are more specialized in their work and interests, and whose work is more concerned with the present and the immediate future. The profession of school administration has marched far beyond that of schoolmasters. The administrator of today must lead in curricular revision and organization, and to do that he must be oriented in all phases of public interest.

Unfortunately, conditions exist which tend to prevent the school man from fulfilling his obligation in these respects. In the first place, the majority of school men are not broadly educated, being either graduates of teachers' colleges, with much work in education, or graduates of colleges and universities, highly specialized in some teaching field, for example, chemistry or physical education. To make matters worse, in his

post-college professional life, he tends to be concerned altogether too exclusively with the details of his job, public relations, finances, hearing teachers' and pupils' troubles, handling correspondence, and extra-curricular activities.

Under these conditions, he tends to become a headline-reader. Too often in his earlier and formative professional years in small school systems, he tends to become a small-town mind along with the hardware merchant, druggist, garage man, and banker. He talks boldly about matters concerning which he has had no experience and reads very little reliable material. He gives voice to opinions which are no more than reflections of his newspaper and the opinions of the leaders in his little community—equally unread and uninformed but equally naïvely cocksure. The typical school man reads the *Reader's Digest*, *Time*, and the *Saturday Evening Post*, and keeps in superficial touch with current happenings as narrated in *Time* and absorbs something of the reactionary opinions of the *Digest* and the *Post*. Occasionally, he reads a book—not many—usually a novel or a textbook in his teaching field or on education.

There are, however, many well-informed men among secondary-school administrators. Here is a typical reading program of such a man:

1. One high-grade, relatively reliable daily newspaper, such as

The Minneapolis Star-Journal	*The St. Louis Post Dispatch*
The Chicago Sun	*The Des Moines Register*
The Louisville Courier	*The Raleigh News-Observer*

2. At least one weekly or monthly periodical in each of three classes:

a. Conservative and reactionary

The United States News	*The American Mercury*

b. Liberal or progressive, such as

Survey Graphic	*The Nation*
The New Republic	*Common Sense*

c. Middle-of-the-road, or neutral:

Current History
Harper's Magazine
The Atlantic Monthly
Fortune

This secondary-school administrator finds that there are excellent small books or pamphlets, such as

CHASE, STUART. *Goals for America: A Budget of Our Needs and Resources.* The Twentieth Century Fund, New York, 1942.
CHASE, STUART. *The Road We Are Traveling, 1914–1942.* The Twentieth Century Fund, New York, 1942.
The Headline Foreign Policy Books. Foreign Policy Association, New York.
The Public Affairs Pamphlets. Public Affairs Committee, New York.
WELLS, H. G. *The Fate of Man.* The Macmillan Company, 1938.
WILLKIE, WENDELL. *One World.* Simon and Schuster, 1943.

and he reads, on an average, one of these a week.

He makes it a point to read at least six or eight serious, well-selected larger current books a year, such as

AGAR, HERBERT. *A Time for Greatness.* Little, Brown and Company, 1942.
BEARD, CHARLES A., and BEARD, MARY R. *America in Midpassage.* The Macmillan Company, 1940.
DOS PASSOS, JOHN. *Number One.* Houghton Mifflin Company, 1943.
GUNTHER, JOHN. *Inside Latin America.* Harper & Brothers, 1943.
WHITTAKER, JOHN T. *You Cannot Escape History.* The Macmillan Company, 1943.

and a few books of best current fiction, such as

CHEVALIER, ELIZABETH. *Drivin' Woman.* The Macmillan Company, 1942.
CRONIN, A. J. *The Citadel.* Little, Brown and Company, 1937.
DAVENPORT, MARCIA. *The Valley of Decision.* Charles Scribner's Sons, 1942.
DOUGLAS, LLOYD. *The Robe.* Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942
DU MAURIER, DAPHNE. *Hungry Hill.* Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1943.
LOTHAR, ERNST. *Beneath Another Sun.* Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1943.
SMITH, BETTY. *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn.* Harper & Brothers, 1943.
STEINBECK, JOHN. *The Moon Is Down* (The Viking Press, 1942), or *The Grapes of Wrath* (The Viking Press, 1939).
WILLIAMS, BEN AMES. *Time of Peace.* Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.

He also reads each year two or three older books of superlative caliber, such as

The Bible.
PLATO, *The Republic.*
EMERSON, *Essays.*
BACON, FRANCIS, *Essays.*
CERVANTES, *Don Quixote.*
SHAKESPEARE, WILLIAM, *Plays.*
TOLSTOY, LEO, *War and Peace.*
ROUSSEAU, J. J., *Émile*
HUGO, VICTOR, *Les Misérables.*
IBSEN HENRIK, *Plays.*
SHAW GEORGE BERNARD *Plays*
UNDSET SIGRID, *Kristin Lavransdatter.*
FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN *Autobiography.*
HOMER, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey.*
GIBBON, EDWARD, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.*
TWAIN MARK, *Huckleberry Finn*
WHITMAN, WALT, *Leaves of Grass*
DARWIN, CHARLES, *The Origin of Species*
DOSTOEVSKI FEODOR, *Crime and Punishment.*
MARX, KARL, *Capital*
ADAMS, HENRY, *The Education of Henry Adams.*
DREISER, THEODORE, *An American Tragedy.*
SANDBERG, CARL, *Abraham Lincoln, The Prairie Years.*

He is not content with keeping abreast of the best current thought in the field of letters and public affairs. He tries to hear some good music and to see some good art and if possible a few plays and a few of the best movies. In short, he spends much time and, for the most part very enjoyably, in continuing to grow intellectually and emotionally and to avoid the mental and cultural stagnation and degeneration that afflict the great majority of the men with whom he comes in contact in his community. He works at the job of being an educator not a pedagogue, and a leader not a community hired man or politician. He soon learns how to command the respect of his fellow townsmen, rather than to enjoy their patronizing indulgence. He learns to be patient with their provincialism and lack of culture and understanding of the world in which they live. He learns to

enjoy his superior vantage without unduly pressing his fellow men to follow his ideas; he learns to lead, not to push. And he believes that for him life is worth while as the intelligent leader of the most important institution in the community, the school.

Problems and Exercises

1. Make a list of the duties of high-school principals of today which originated in or were complicated by the rapid increase in high-school enrollments and the development of large high schools.

2. In what ways has the expansion of the curricular offerings of the high school affected the duties and opportunities of the high-school principal?

3. Why is the number of years of training of the high-school principal on the increase? Mention more than one reason.

4. In what ways may apprenticeship under a high-school principal fall short of complete and desirable training for the high-school principalship?

5. Compare some high-school principal whom you know with the average lawyer, dentist, physician, and business man in his community, as to social and civic prestige.

6. Compare the high-school principalship with the callings mentioned in 5 above as to opportunities for leadership, and opportunities for initiative and originality, and the importance of their services.

7. From one volume of the *School Review* make an annotated bibliography of all the articles which a high-school principal should read.

8. Write a hundred-word description of the contents of each of the following journals: *The American School Board Journal*, *The Nation's Schools*, and one of the regional journals of secondary education.

9. From the list of bulletins and circulars of the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois select ten titles which should be of interest to the high-school principal.

10. Make a list of ten books especially good for the high-school principal, maintaining a balance among different fields.

11. From one of the annual reports of the proceedings of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals prepare an annotated bibliography of its contents.

XXIII

Staff Relationships

1. TYPES OF ORGANIZATION

In Earlier Schools. Among the secondary schools of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and well into the nineteenth, there were no large secondary schools and no city superintendents of schools. Schools were, with rare exceptions, one-teacher or two-teacher schools. There were few or no extra-curricular activities, and no supervision worthy of the name. Each teacher or master was, therefore, relatively independent of every other and responsible chiefly to the board.

Throughout the nineteenth century, schools increased in size until by 1900 there were many secondary schools with more than a score of teachers. The idea and practice of supervision grew and spread. There came to be several teachers in a given field, for example, English or science. Schedules became necessary. Record systems developed, especially as the practice grew of admitting students from accredited schools to college on the basis of their high-school credits. Extra-curricular activities and then interscholastic relations came to occupy a more important place. More and more there developed the need for administrative heads.

The first administrative officer, in the eighteenth century, was the headmaster or principal (teacher) with very simple duties. Most often, he carried also a full teaching load or very close to it. In the second quarter of the nineteenth century, a few cities combined all their schools under one head,—a superintendent of schools,—the first real administrative officer as distinguished from the teacher. By 1880 this plan had become almost universal.

In the smaller cities the superintendent of schools was usually administrator and supervisor of both elementary and secondary schools. In a few of the smaller schools and in the majority of larger schools, the high-school principal had more

or less charge of the internal problems and supervision of the school, especially in those cities in which the superintendent was not a college graduate, as was fairly common before 1900. Throughout all this earlier period and until about the close of the nineteenth century, the relationship of staff to administrator is hard to describe. It was generally somewhat one of independence. However, where there was overhead direction, it was usually authoritarian and dogmatic, and usually concerned with petty details.

Authoritarian Type of Relationships. Along with the development of big business and big business executives, particularly in the first quarter of the present century, there developed to a high degree the idea of centralized administration. Superintendents were put in charge of schools and given much authority. One of the best evidences of their competence to possess such authority was their capacity for developing a respectful attitude on the part of teachers and pupils. In many ways, their exercise of authority was dogmatic, arbitrary, and calculated to appeal to the mystical.

Boards of education delegated to superintendents, superintendents to principals, principals to assistant principals and heads of departments; and vertical lines of authority became the rule, and a hierarchal organization the type. Linear diagrams became the means of indicating the direction of flow of authority and the person-to-person relationships of responsibility. Under this plan the department headship developed, flourished, and spread, until its limitations became so obvious as to bring about its decline.

Department Heads. Until recently, most schools of more than 200 or 300 pupils professed to have department heads, although it may be reasonably expected that these were largely honorary rather than functional in a great many of the smaller schools. Only about one in three department heads had a master's or doctor's degree, and many were heads of departments not closely similar to the fields of their college or university specialization.

The duties of department heads are principally supervisory,

although, except in very large schools, the supervision must be carried on without benefit of classroom visitation. The administrative duties usually include the following:

1. Assisting in estimating needed expenditures for the department.
2. Administering purchases and expenditures within the department.
3. Caring for departmental supplies and equipment.
4. Assisting in the selection, promotion, and retiring or discharge of teachers.
5. Administering the selection of textbooks by teachers in the department.
6. Acting as member of the principal's executive or advisory council.

The Decline of Departmental Administration. The use of department heads in administration grew to its maximum development in the twenties. By 1925 its weaknesses began to be obvious. In the first place, department headships, in a very great percentage of cases, came to be occupied by persons who arrived by the route of seniority and who, often not qualified by training or personality, frequently made little, if any, further educational growth. The headship was most frequently regarded as a permanent possession, to be relinquished only upon death or retirement.

The general philosophy and practice were autocratic. Potential contributions by members of the staff were neither developed nor utilized. Many superior teachers were restrained, discouraged, and misdirected by inferior department heads. Various by-passes were developed. Teachers appealed to principals, who sometimes gave them considerable autonomy. In other instances, teachers ignored department heads in matters of methods and materials of instruction. In some schools the department heads came to be elected or appointed annually.

With the growth of more democratic methods of administration, with the tendency to develop school-wide supervision, with the development of city-wide councils or supervisors in given fields, and with the tendency to break down department walls,

the limitations of the department-head plan of administration and supervision loomed too large. By 1930 it was on the way out, and by 1940 the department head in the majority of schools either no longer existed or was in a position of nominal authority and responsibility.

Coöperative Types. In very small schools and within departments in a considerable number of schools, there have existed types of organization which allowed for group development of administrative rules, for group discussion, for group action, and for sharing of responsibility. Until after 1925 or 1930, such plans were rarely boasted of. They were so out of step with the modern trend in administrative organization as to seem backward and indicative of lack of firm leaders. With the growth of the idea and practices which have more recently been referred to as "democratic administration," coöperative approaches have not only become more common but more respectable.

2. DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

Contributing Influences. Partly as a reaction against the overdevelopment of the highly centralized administration, partly as the result of a new philosophy of pupil-teacher relationship, partly as the result of the growth of greater respect for the individual, partly as the result of the growth of a softness in American life and human relationships, and partly as the result of increased emphasis upon ideas of democracy and the common man during the depression, there has been in the last quarter-century a trend toward democracy in school administration. While in many quarters the trend has been largely in the area of theory and sentiment, it has actually, at least to some extent, come into practice in perhaps half of our secondary schools.

Philosophy of Democratic Organization and Methods. The arguments for democratic procedure seem to center around six principal points: (1) It is the teacher's right. (2) It makes for better relationships. (3) It better stimulates teacher growth. (4) It results in better administration and better teaching.

(5) It relieves to some extent overburdened administrators. (6) In an institution educating for democracy, democracy must be lived by both teachers and pupils.

It should be conceded at the beginning that much of the advocacy of democratic administration has been in the nature of sentiment and lip service, and has not been carefully thought through in relationship to the contribution to improved administration. In many instances, democratic administration has been granted to aggressive teacher groups, with more reference to reducing pressure than to educational objectives. In some schools, it exists on paper, but in reality is not beyond the paper or lip-service stage.

It is questionable whether the teacher has very great inherent "rights" to democratic participation in the administration of a high school unless it can be shown that by his participation the school is benefited by (1) his own growth to greater effectiveness, and (2) his improving the administration of rules, practices, or curriculum as the result of a greater understanding of them; and unless it can be shown that the advantages are greater than the disadvantages, such as consumption of staff time, slowing down of action or decisions, or maladministration to some degree or in some instances. Certainly in instances where teachers fail to function or to function at all efficiently, students must not be permitted to suffer merely to protect teachers' rights to "democratic" administration.

It does not always follow that teacher participation in administration results in better staff relationships. Some teachers too strongly develop ideas of vested rights. Jealousies among teachers are sometimes engendered if participation is at all unequal, and disappointments of more capable ones if equality is insisted upon. When teachers or teacher committees fail, there is always the tendency toward rationalization and projection, as well as the dangers that accompany the taking over of areas by administrators where the job is not being done.

There are, however, good arguments for democracy in administration where it is properly organized and adjusted in pattern to the capacities and interests of the staff.

John Dewey, in 1937, indicated a strong belief in democracy as a means of stimulating and providing for teacher growth:

. . . Upon the whole, what exists in the schools is more a matter of habit and custom than it is of any deliberate autocracy. But . . . habitual exclusion has the effect of reducing a sense of responsibility for what is done and its consequences. What the argument for democracy implies is that the best way to produce initiative and constructive power is to exercise it. Power, as well as interest, comes by use and practice. Moreover, the argument from incapacity proves too much. If it is so great as to be a permanent bar, then teachers cannot be expected to have the intelligence and skill that are necessary to execute the directions given them. The delicate and difficult task of developing character and good judgment in the young needs every stimulus and inspiration possible. It is impossible that the work should not be better done when teachers have that understanding of what they are doing that comes from having shared in forming its guiding ideas.

. . . . . .

. . . I often wonder how much waste there is in the traditional system. There is some loss even at the best of the potential capital acquired by successful teachers. It does not get freely transmitted to other teachers who might profit by it. Is not the waste very considerably increased when teachers are not called upon to communicate their successful methods and results in a form by which it would have organic effect upon general school policies? Add to this, waste that results when teachers are called upon to give effect in the classroom to courses of study they do not understand the reasons for, and the total loss mounts up so that it is a fair estimate that the absence of democratic methods is the greatest single cause of educational waste.[1]

In the minds of many, the chances for better policy-making, for better legislation, for better curriculum construction, etc. are greater if a group with varying and wide range of backgrounds develop them rather than an individual with no checks and balances, relying upon his limited experience, knowledge, ingenuity, and imagination. Others are inclined to point out

[1]John Dewey, "Democracy and Educational Administration," *School and Society*, Vol. XLV, pp. 461–462.

the dangers which arise from controversy which might never have originated if a single person had made the decisions.

There are those who point out the need for unity, coherence, and integration in the school program and who feel sure that leaving as much as possible in the hands of a single authority is the best means of bringing about unity, coherence, and integration. Perhaps this reservation and that mentioned in the preceding paragraph are not necessarily to be understood as arguments against democratic administration, but rather as pointing to dangers which should be guarded against.

Principles for Democracy in Administration. Floyd W. Reeves[1] included, among others, in his list of principles of democratic administration the following, which apply to the administration of a high school:

> The recommendations of the teaching staffs, especially organized to study continuously matters requiring their professional wisdom, such as curriculum-making, should receive great weight on both the local and state levels.
>
> Voluntary teachers' organizations of every legitimate type should receive affirmative and cordial encouragement, and the right of the individual teacher to affiliate with any lawful organization of his choice should never be permitted to be a subject of doubt.
>
> Democratic administration within the school will have for one of its chief aims the maintenance of an atmosphere in which each pupil takes a conscious part in affairs of the whole school and contributes to the welfare of the school community by his own work and thought.
>
> Democratic administration is based upon a universal respect for individual human worth and dignity and consists essentially in advancing the development of the personal potentialities of all who come within its orbit, coupled with the ever widening invention and adaptation of techniques of co-operation for the common good.

Dean B. F. Pittenger of the University of Texas believes that

> . . . staff participation in the making of school policies should be selective. Coöperation should be employed only when and where it can reasonably be expected to improve policies . . . only such per-

[1]Floyd W. Reeves, "Principles of Democratic Administration," *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, pp. 27–28.

sons as can really help should take part in their planning. . . . Policies concerning pupils and the educational program—such as the curriculum, discipline, classification, child-accounting, etc.—are promising objectives for coöperative planning by teachers, supervisors, and other members of the educational staff . . . also, some phases of school-building planning, and of selecting instructional supplies, materials, and equipment.[1]

Ward Ira Miller, in his doctoral study of democracy in administration, set up the following as fundamental principles:

1. Democratic educational administration must seek to implement the principles of American democracy.
2. Democratic educational administration recognizes the place of authority in the realization of the purposes of education in our American democracy.
3. In democratic educational administration a willingness to assume responsibility must accompany an acceptance of authority.
4. Efficiency in educational administration requires that democratic practices facilitate the utilization of every available resource in the realization of the purposes of education in American democracy, and that each individual shall have opportunity to make the maximum contribution to this end of which he is capable.
5. Practice designed to provide coöperative administration should be adapted to local situations.
6. In educational administration continuous evaluation of democratic practices should determine their effectiveness in realizing the purposes for which they were established.[2]

With respect to staff relationships the Educational Policies Commission made the following statements:

Educational policies should be formulated initially by the professional staff of the school system, through "a coöperative process capitalizing the intellectual resources of the whole staff. This participation in the development of educational policy should not be thought of as a favor granted by the administration, but rather as a right and

[1]B. F. Pittenger, "School Administration and School Personnel," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. XCVII, p. 18.

[2]Ward Ira Miller, *Democracy in Educational Administration: An Analysis of Principles and Practices*, pp. 35–48. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

an obligation. After policies have been developed by the staff, they should be submitted to the board of education for final review and approval."

When a policy has been so formulated and approved, every member of the school system for whom it has implications becomes responsible for carrying it into effect. This responsibility is centered in the superintendent, through whom account must be rendered to the board and the public.

The superintendent will require that broad policies be carried out throughout the school system, but he will place large responsibility in the hands of principals as to details of policy and means to be employed. The principal, in turn, will allow a large degree of freedom to individual teachers. The aim of administration is to secure coöperation in working for common objectives while encouraging resourcefulness and ingenuity on the part of all.

The right and duty of teachers to take part in formulating educational policy is closely related to one of the basic purposes of American education. "Our schools are organized for the purpose of educating children, young people, and adults for participation in a democratic society. Any significant realization of this purpose will require independent thinking, a large degree of coöperative endeavor, and broad sympathy and understanding on the part of all who are enrolled in educational institutions. Certainly these virtues may not be expected to abound among those who are taught unless they are found also in the experiences of teachers.

"Surely in no area may teachers more certainly exercise independence of thought, coöperation in action, and social understanding than in their daily professional work. It is sound procedure to provide for the active participation of teachers in the development of policy."

Back of the professional staff, back of the board of education stand the people as the ultimate judges of educational policy. In a democratic school system, therefore, the board and staff will "seek the coöperation of parents and other citizens in developing the educational program." "It is essential that the professional staff of the school system be supported in its work by the participation of intelligent citizens in the development of curriculums" and in determining educational objectives.[1]

[1]Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, pp. 331–332. Washington, D.C.

Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools

Dr. Arthur K. Loomis, Superintendent of Schools, Shaker Heights, Ohio, made the following statement of principles:

1. School administration, like any form of administration, is concerned with two distinct functions: (*a*) determination of policies and (*b*) operation in accordance with established policies.

2. School administration should be called democratic when it uses democratic processes in determining policies.

3. Democratic school administration can be efficient only when it provides for clear and adequate delegation of authority to all executive officers.

4. The board of education is in full control of the school system which is under its direction. The board may make all final decisions concerning policy, or the board may delegate the authority to make certain decisions. The state laws and the regulations of the state department of education define the precise powers of the board of education.

5. All persons who will be affected by a given policy should share directly or through representatives of their own choosing in setting up the policy.

6. All policies should be subject to revision on the initiative of any individual or group concerned.

7. Executive officers should have full authority to carry out the responsibilities delegated to them.

8. All executive acts should be subject to review in terms of established policies.

9. When a plan for democratic school administration is set up, the first step should be to secure approval from the board of education. The purpose of the plan should then be presented to the professional staff.

10. If the staff council is relatively large and unwieldy, some form of committee system is necessary. With the exception of a rules committee, which determines the order of presentation of business, and a committee on committees, which appoints all other committees, it is doubtful whether any other standing committees are advisable. A system of special committees, which are appointed as needed and which are continued until their assigned jobs are done, is highly effective. Of course, under some circumstances the council may find it necessary to work as a committee of the whole.

11. The activities of the staff council should be fully reported to all constituents. The stage of progress of each problem before the

council should be indicated clearly. Effective methods for handling referendum votes should be developed. Provision should be made for initiative by teachers in proposing problems for consideration by the staff council.

12. Gradual development of the program, rather than rapid organization of machinery before the need appears, makes for permanence. In the early stages a written constitution seems to be unnecessary. At any rate the need for such a document should be clearly felt before any attempt is made to write it. Careful records of actions taken by the council are essential. These records slowly build up a body of precedent which is usually more important than a written constitution.[1]

3. PRACTICES IN DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Among the schools and types of plans employing democracy in the administration of high schools are the following:

In New Rochelle, New York, there is a city-wide Teachers Educational Council, made up of elected representatives of teachers from elementary and high schools and one representative of the administrative and supervisory staff. The council functions as an advisory rather than as a recommending body. There is full and free discussion of problems which are to come before the superintendent and the board, and every point of view has a fair hearing, but no attempt is made to make recommendations by majority vote. One year the council was principally concerned with the school calendar, the school budget, and the teachers' exchange plan, the last being a practice of making temporary reassignments of teachers for one year only, which was initiated with the general support of the council. Two all-city advisory councils of students, one representing elementary-school and the other high-school students, meet with the superintendent of schools once a month. Among matters which the councils have discussed are traffic problems in the city and around the school buildings, plans for improving the lunch rooms, improvement of the school grounds, and

[1]Arthur K. Loomis, "Democratic School Administration in Practice," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XLI, pp. 421-422.

qualities of an ideal teacher. Each member of the council reports back to the principal of his school and to the student council or the student body as a whole.[1]

At Shaker Heights, Ohio, the superintendent has a staff council composed of twenty-four elected representatives and twenty-four ex-officio members, approximately in the ratio of two classroom teachers to one administrator. Elected representatives are chosen for two-year overlapping terms; ex-officio members include officers of the teachers' association, principals, and supervisors. The superintendent is chairman of the council. The council possesses the authority to make final decisions on certain matters of policy, delegated to it by the board of education. On other matters the council has the authority to decide on recommendations to be made to the board. During the first four years of its existence the council considered 70 subjects, distributed as follows: curriculum problems, 20; teacher personnel, 18; budgetary problems, 11; pupil personnel, 7; powers of the council, 6; publicity, 4; school calendar, 4. Of these, 22 required no decision, the forum method being sufficient to clarify or to justify some policy then in effect. Of the remainder, 26 involved policy recommendations to the board; 22 involved final determinations of policy with regard to matters within the control of the staff. An enterprise growing out of the work of the council was a long-term project for rebuilding the curriculum of the entire school system. It enlisted the coöperation not only of school administrators and teachers, but of large numbers of students, parents, and other citizens.[2]

At Redlands, California, the application of the democratic philosophy of school administration is found in the Administrative Council. Membership includes the superintendent of schools, the superintendent of buildings and grounds, the pur-

[1]Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, pp. 341–345. The Commission, 1940.

[2]Arthur K. Loomis, "Democratic School Administration in Practice," *Elementary School Journal* (February, 1941), Vol. XLI, pp. 417–422; also, Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, pp. 345–349. The Commission, 1940.

chasing agent of the school board, the superintendent's private secretary, the president of the City Teachers' Club, three teachers (one from each level), the several supervisors and principals. All major problems and policies of the school system are discussed by the council in meetings held once a month. To decide a major issue, a majority vote of the council and the board of education's approval are necessary. The superintendent enters all the discussions, but he does not vote and he has not assumed veto power. Numerous important problems involving administrative policy have been studied and debated—public relations, teachers' resignations, budgets, professional libraries for teachers, building programs, supplies, repairs, etc.[1]

At Oak Park, Illinois, the following items are indicative of the activities of rather full participation by teachers' councils:

1. Reorganizing and building the courses of the curriculum through the work of coöperating curriculum committees.
2. Selecting textbooks.
3. Working out correlated activities between fields of instruction.
4. Assisting in the formulation of rules and regulations.
5. Assisting in the study of salary schedules.
6. Coöperating in the development of programs of in-service training.
7. Directing activities designed to promote the welfare of the teaching staff.
8. Working toward the establishment of professional standards for teachers who are in service, at all levels of instruction.
9. The establishment and maintenance of professional morale.
10. The development and maintenance of school-home relationships.[2]

In Denver, Colorado, the teachers' council has been active for years. There are all-city councils, operating in conjunction with the central office and the Director of Instruction, who works with the principal of a building and his teachers. The

[1]LaMar L. Hill, "Democratic Practices in a Small School System," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. XCIX, p 46.

[2]William J. Hamilton, "The Teachers' Council in the Oak Park Schools," *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, p. 184.

all-city council is concerned primarily with improvement of instructional materials and procedures. There are also school councils or committees in each junior and senior high school. In one school the building instructional committee, consisting of seven departmental teachers, three coördinators, the principal, assistant principal, dean of girls, and two representatives from the faculty at large, defines its functions as follows:

1. To study building-wide instructional needs.
2. To serve as a clearing house for instructional problems of individual teachers and departments.
3. To serve as an executive body for putting into effect recommendations from the faculty, the administration, and the various building committees.[1]

In one senior high school the first forty minutes of each morning is used by the faculty for the consideration of the entire school program. The faculty meets, occasionally as a whole but more often in small groups, to carry forward their studies. The following description of the meetings of the school coördinators is illustrative:

Coördinators meet once a week or oftener. Their work deals primarily with coördination. They discuss policies for possible recommendation to the faculty or to the School Policies Council. They prepare the schedule of general education classes, along with all schedules of meetings, evaluation, and the like. Members of this group serve on the central committees of coördination, instruction, evaluation, visual aids, materials, records and reports, School Policies Council, and others; and serve as a clearing house in which the work of all committees is transmitted to the faculty. When general meetings are scheduled or when visitors are expected, this group lays the plans.[2]

Committees in Administration. Slowly but steadily the use of committees of teachers in school administration and supervision has grown in importance and spread to an increasing

[1]Charles E. Greene, "Teacher Councils Contribute to Administration," *Educational Record*, Vol. XXIII, p. 676.
[2]Ibid. p. 677.

number of schools. At first, committees were principally for superficial or relatively unimportant duties, so far as the program of the school was concerned—for example, duties connected with refreshments or decorations. But the number and importance of committees have increased, as have the importance and scope of their activities, until today they include such responsibilities or areas of responsibility as the following for the school as a whole:

Commencement, marking system, guidance, extra-curricular activities, publications, schedule, interscholastic relations, athletics, library, salaries, promotions, public relations, curriculum, exhibits, student loans, student honors, report cards, entertainment, visual aids, discipline, student government, dramatics, home rooms, testing programs, and student health.

In some schools a number of these committees are standing committees, which originated when a need, sometime in the past, seemed to indicate the desirability of a particular committee to investigate a special problem or to administer, or to advise in the administration of, a given area.

In addition, the principal may find it advantageous to appoint from time to time special temporary committees for special purposes—for example, to evaluate the P.T.A., to study the possibilities of a high-school P.T.A., to work with a student committee on a salvage campaign or a war loan, to coöperate in a local celebration or county fair, to explore the idea of a credit union for teachers, or to present certain matters to the board of education.

Certain cautions should be observed in the use of committees. Teachers should not be overburdened with committee work. Most teachers have a full day's teaching load. For this reason, not too many committees should exist, and committees should not be any larger than necessary. The principal or some other official should make it clear just what is expected of a committee. The principal should not dominate the committee, nor should he be too free with suggestions for its conclusions. The principal should furnish the committee with, or aid it in

locating and obtaining, publications of other schools, books, periodicals, or pamphlets in the field of its investigation or administrative responsibility. Clerical and stenographic assistance should be provided. Teachers performing a great amount of committee service should have their instructional, study hall, or extra-curricular load lightened appropriately. The results of committee investigations, the conclusions and proposals, should not be ignored. They should be reviewed by the staff and, in most instances, adopted at least upon an experimental basis, even if they are contrary to the best judgment of the principal.

In most schools, committees are appointed by the principal; in smaller schools, by principal and superintendent jointly. In some schools, however, committees are appointed by a committee on committees, which in turn is appointed by the principal.

4. PUPIL AND PARENT PARTICIPATION

Pupil Participation. As an outgrowth both of common sense based upon experience and of the democratic concept of school administration, pupils have been admitted to participation in administration, and have been utilized to a greater degree in policy-making, and, in an advisory capacity, in curriculum construction, and in the study of methods of instruction and of guidance. The participation of students in government and management was discussed in a previous chapter.

Illustrative of student participation in administration is the use of students' own committees on report cards, exhibits, guidance of new students, publications, discipline, commencement, and interscholastic relations. Two plans are frequently found: (1) the joint committee of students and faculty, and (2) coöperating but separate student and faculty committees. Each has its advantages and disadvantages. When the single student-faculty committee is used, students are not so likely to be natural and express themselves fully, while teachers outtalk them. When separate committees coöperate, differences in points of view tend more to become matters of clannishness and

competition. Care should be employed to avoid the dangers peculiar to whichever plan is employed. Teachers should, in any instance, lean over backward in their efforts to give the students opportunity for leadership, and should permit mistakes to be made rather frequently in matters not of vital concern.

Parent or Community Participation. For various reasons, including that of the trend toward democracy in administration, there has been a tendency in practice to include not only teachers and pupils in policy-forming, but also representatives of parents and of community organizations and groups. The participation of laymen is usually as members of an advisory committee, and not too much time is required of any individual. Illustrative examples found in some schools are

1. An advisory committee of parents, employers, and ministers serves the curriculum and course of study committee in evaluating the present offerings and planning additions to the program or changes in contents.
2. A joint committee of parents, pupils, and teachers recommends principles and practices governing the management of student life in out-of-school hours, including in some schools problems relating to the use of cars, public or other dances, spending money, smoking, dress, and the like.
3. Joint committees on such school problems as amount of home work, school discipline, hazing, expenditures for extra-curricular activities, opening and closing hours of the school day, and opening and closing days of the school year.

The advantages of participation of carefully selected representatives of the community are considerable. Not only are the experience and judgment of these people made available to the school staff, but these people become much better informed concerning the philosophy, objectives, problems, and points of view of the administration and teachers. The use of laymen in these matters often leads to increased support for the school program and for improvements in the schools. It also affords an opportunity to bring to the attention of the staff objections of parents or others to practices in the school and affords the school an

opportunity to remedy or explain the situation before too much opposition or loss of confidence is engendered. In addition, the participation of laymen often leads to better parent education and the improvement of parent management of their own youngsters in out-of-school hours.

Whenever lay participation is encouraged or employed, care should be taken to select appropriate lay people or to have the organizations appoint appropriate people, avoiding people of more energy than judgment and people with axes to grind. Care should be taken to have representatives of different classes of people and to obtain rotation of individuals in this service.

5. RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL TO BOARD, SUPERINTENDENT, AND ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

Principal's Relationship to the Superintendent. The principal's relationship to the superintendent of schools and to the board of education depends largely upon which of three types of situation the principal is in: (1) where there is no superintendent, as in township and county high schools and in independent academies; (2) in small schools where the principal teaches half-time or more; (3) in larger schools where the principal does little or no teaching.

In the first type of situation the principal is also superintendent of schools and as such is the executive officer of the board, attending all its meetings and assisting with all its financial records and policies.

In the second type of situation the superintendent is also principal, and the "principal" is in fact his assistant principal, doing whatever the superintendent allots to him to do and developing no foolish notions about his being the principal. The wise superintendent will allot him duties which, in amount, importance, and nature, are appropriate to his training, experience, and personality. These relations, while very flexible and at the discretion of the superintendent, will be such as will give the principal an opportunity to succeed in his assignments and to be sufficiently independent to take an interest in his

work as assistant administrator. In smaller schools the superintendent should regard his principal as an apprentice administrator and should assist him in learning the game, increasing his responsibility as he grows. The principal likewise should regard his superintendent as his tutor and should contribute toward the development of a very friendly professional relationship.

In the larger school in which there is an experienced, adequately trained principal, a more business-like relationship should exist. The superintendent should delegate, with rather complete authority, many duties and responsibilities, all subject to review by the superintendent and in harmony with the general all-city plan of organization, administration, and supervision. The superintendent will avoid meddling in the discharge of those responsibilities, although he may feel free to advise; very infrequently will he over-ride his principal or instruct him specifically.

In the larger city it is well to develop a typewritten statement of what are the principal duties and responsibilities of the principal, and his assistant principal, and what are his relationships to the superintendent and others outside his school. This statement of allocation should be developed coöperatively, with right of final determination in the hands of the superintendent, and it should be approved by the board of education. The details of the allocation of duties and responsibilities will vary from city to city, according to the nature and number of administration and supervision personnel.

In medium-sized schools, let us say of from 300 to 800 pupils, the division of authority will tend more to vary with certain factors, including (1) the peculiar interests of the principal; (2) the experience of the principal; (3) the pattern and nature of the principal's background of training and experience—for example, whether he is a good supervisor, curriculum director, or guidance expert; and (4) the time available to the principal for his duties. In schools of this size the allocation of duties may not always be a matter of written memorandum; but there should soon develop an understanding looking toward

the elimination of duplications, the coördination of authority with responsibility, and the avoidance of interference or misunderstanding growing out of the practice, on the part of pupils, patrons, teachers, or others, of consulting both officials separately on the same matter.

Board-Superintendent-Principal Relationships. In any situation the principal is directly responsible to the superintendent (or assistant superintendent in a few large cities) and is responsible to the board only through the superintendent. The principal should clear all his business with the board through the superintendent. Except in instances in which the superintendent is, without the shadow of a doubt, deliberately misrepresenting to the board conditions relative to the principal or his school, so that this misrepresentation is definitely harmful to the principal or the school, the principal not only should refrain from carrying business to board members but should be most conservative and at times entirely uncommunicative when approached by the board, particularly when approached by individual board members. A principal, of course, may be encouraged by the superintendent to consult board members upon topics and along lines previously agreed upon by him and the superintendent, but he should be careful not to exceed the agreement.

The superintendent should frequently take with him to board meetings not only the principal, but other staff members. They should appear as his lieutenants and advisers to assist him in informing the board and in giving, when asked, their expert opinion on matters under consideration by the board at the time.

Investigations seem to indicate that in smaller and medium-sized schools the superintendent assumes a major responsibility in such matters as selecting and recommending teachers, disciplinary control involving suspension or expulsion; and in the smallest schools, also in supervision, curriculum changes, and organizing the schedule. In the larger schools, all but the duty last named above are shared by the principal and the central office; the larger the school, the greater the responsibility of the principal in dealing with teachers, pupils, and parents.

Administrative Assistants. As the school increases in size, there will be need for part-time or full-time assistants to the principal. In the smaller and medium-sized schools, assistance may be obtained from committees and committee chairmen in such fields as home-room organization and improvement, extra-curricular activities, assemblies, and student government. Eventually, however, one or more assistants become necessary to perform such duties as those just mentioned, and also to attend to building problems, records, student finances, the school calendar, attendance, guidance of girls, handling supplies, testing programs, making schedules, etc.

The relationship between assistant principal and principal is very similar to that between principal and superintendent in the smaller school. The assistant principal is not distinctly a separate officer, but is merely an assistant to the principal, in many instances sharing with him certain responsibilities and subject to having his duties changed from time to time. Good administration, however, calls for developing rather clearly marked areas of responsibility for the assistant principal, with a minimum of interference.

6. ASSISTING AND IMPROVING THE STAFF

The type of organization for supervision and the number and character of supervisors available may determine the nature and extent of the supervisory services of the principal, but the principal, under any set of conditions, has important responsibilities. He is particularly responsible for special help to (1) the beginning teacher, (2) the teacher new to the school, (3) the teacher who is having unusual difficulties, (4) the teacher who has ceased to grow and to keep up, and (5) the teacher who will not coöperate with supervisors or others in the organization.

Principal-Supervisor Relationship. There are many types of supervisory organization, and the principal's relationships to supervisors vary with the type of organization. In general, the types of organization fall into three classes: (1) supervisors who are full-time members of the staff of the building, (2) su-

pervisors who serve several buildings and assist the principal in supervision under his direction, and (3) supervisors who serve several buildings and are somewhat independent of the local principal in matters of improving instruction.

Supervisors who serve one building only are usually department heads, special supervisors, or directors of guidance or extra-curricular activities. These leaders are specialists in their fields, and for that reason, in most instances, possess special competence which the principal does not possess. To be sure, they should always be thought of as subject to the direct control of the principal, and as his assistants. Their activities should at all times be guided by and correlated with the general over-all program and philosophy of the school. Nevertheless the wise principal, except in unusual cases in which the supervisor is relatively incompetent, gives loose rein to such supervisors, especially in fields of their special competence,—for example, course-of-study making and textbook selection,—assisting them, however, to understand and interpret the educational philosophy of the school in terms of their fields. He should exercise considerable leadership in determining what courses the school will offer and what courses will be required for graduation.

Where the second type—that is, the "line and staff" type—of organization exists, the supervisor, while in the building, occupies much the same position as he would if he were a member of the staff of the particular school. He is there as a specialist to render service in the program set up in the school under the direction of the principal, who is in turn responsible to the superintendent. The success of this type of organization depends upon the degree to which the principal is able and willing to defer to the supervisor and accord him prestige among the teachers in matters in which the supervisor is competent. It is desirable for the principal to be both able and willing in this respect because of the necessary preoccupation of the typical principal with matters of administration and management.

The third type of organization includes several varieties, but all partake to some degree of a dualistic, or coördinate, set of

relationships. The supervisor comes into the building as a leader, deriving his powers and responsibilities from the superintendent or his assistant. In matters of instruction he is not officially subject to the principal. In large high schools in which the principals are well along in years and not so active as formerly, the arrangement has obvious advantages. The supervisor, nevertheless, operates within a framework set by the policies and practices of organization and administration within the building. For example, the supervisor carries on in harmony with the rules for attendance and for discipline of pupils, and with due observance of the schedule and responsibilities of the teaching staff for coöperation in administration, extracurricular activities, etc.

Under all plans of organization there is need for appropriate mutual respect and coöperation between supervisor and administrator. Either one should avoid any word or action likely to result in loss of confidence in the other on the part of teacher, pupil, or parent. Whatever differences may develop between the two should be discussed in private in a friendly and frank manner. Either one should be willing to defer to the other, even against his own better judgment, in matters in which the other might well be expected to be more competent and in fields in which the other is more specifically responsible. It is very important, but very difficult, for the principal, for example, to permit the supervisor to advise teachers in matters of classroom method contrary to the conviction of the principal.

Where procedures recommended by the supervisor create problems for the administrator,—for example, procedures having to do with the nature and amount of home work,—there should be friendly and frank exchange of viewpoints and information, and a solution should be arrived at coöperatively in conferences in which the teachers participate. At all times the principal should take pains to see that the supervisor is well oriented with respect to the total program and philosophy of the school, and the supervisor should regard it as one of his major responsibilities to keep the principal well oriented and informed with respect to his program and its basic philosophy.

Teachers' Meetings. Group conferences of the staff should be held in every school at least once a month for administrative and supervisory purposes. The frequency, as well as the programs and purposes, of the general staff meeting will depend upon the degree to which there are other avenues for passing on information to the staff—for example, teachers' bulletins, address system, teachers' handbooks—and upon the extent to which supervision is carried on by departmental heads and supervisors.

For supervision, the purposes of teachers' meetings have been summarized by Douglass and Boardman as follows:

1. To maintain uniformity of practices in those matters and to that extent to which uniformity is desirable, *e.g.*, in marking, and in study hall management.
2. To keep all teachers informed and oriented in the work of other departments and the program of the school as a whole.
3. To keep alive professional zeal and interest in personal professional improvement.
4. To provide an opportunity for teachers to be stimulated by and informed by the rest of the group.
5. To promote the common development of the entire faculty with reference to certain selected techniques or new developments in method, *e.g.*, large-unit assignments.
6. To stimulate teachers as individuals or as groups to conduct and report investigations in the local school.
7. To keep before the staff the objectives of secondary education and of their particular subjects, and the immediate projects of the local school.
8. To continue the development in the minds of the staff of a broad background and perspective of educational history, philosophy, psychology, and sociology which will tend to render them professionally independent.
9. To assist in keeping the staff faced towards and informed concerning the more important and more pressing problems of the school.
10. To provide opportunity for expression and mutual exchange of opinion relative to the most desirable objectives and procedures.
11. To provide opportunity for mutual exchange of information with regard to local children and local problems.

Staff Relationships

12. To help the supervisor to appreciate and to keep better informed concerning the problems and views of his staff.[1]

Suggestions likely to be of value in most schools for conducting general staff meetings are given below.

1. Longer and fewer meetings held on Saturday mornings are preferable to more frequent short meetings after school.

2. Time given to routine announcements which could be taken care of otherwise should be kept to a minimum. Important announcements, not likely to be entirely clear to all, should, of course, be carefully explained.

3. Teachers, as well as administrators, can contribute to teachers' meetings.

4. Committee reports may well constitute a valuable type of activity in teachers' meetings.

5. "Lectures" are rarely in order, especially by laymen and not often by the principal. Discussions led by specialists in fields closely related to the supervisory program at present being emphasized in the school usually pay good dividends—for example, a discussion by a member of the staff of a college of education of "Education in the Post-War World," "The Teacher as Counselor," or "Making Home Work Effective."

6. The principal should not be self-conscious. He should not suppose or seem to suppose that he is the fount of all good ideas. He should be able to handle without embarrassment opposing points of view. He should not feel called upon to pronounce judgment upon all questions raised.

7. Reports of teachers who have been making intensive study of some problem or field are often very useful—for example, a report by a teacher who, as a result of summer-school attendance, is making a special study of home-room materials and procedures, new methods of evaluating pupil growth, or school-community relationships.

8. Several teachers might well form a symposium upon "Trends as I Noticed Them at ———— This Summer."

9. Care should be taken to avoid gossip about individual pupils, monopoly of discussion by a few teachers, too much discussion by those who like to hear their own voices but usually have little to contribute, tendencies to digress or to scatter too widely, sales talks

[1]Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 195–196. Houghton Mifflin Company.

about the relative merits of subjects, discussion of matters which should be handled by small committees.

10. A series of meetings emphasizing a single theme is often in order, particularly when some new school-wide plan is about to be put into practice—for example, home rooms, a longer class period and supervised study, a guidance program.

11. Mimeographed outlines and summaries should often be distributed at the meeting or within a few days afterward. Outlines assist in getting a clear picture, and summaries serve as reminders and as permanent records.

Visitation. Space limitations prevent an adequate discussion here of classroom visitation. By way of summary of the more important considerations, the following is offered:

1. The principal should find time to visit some classes every week in order to (*a*) keep himself oriented in the problems of the school, (*b*) keep in touch with the pupils of his school and know how they are reacting to the educational program, and (*c*) be better able to be of assistance to his teachers.

2. Visitation should be planned to allow for the visitation of new teachers early in the fall and to make certain that his visitation is spread properly and is not neglected.

3. Advance notice of visitation should ordinarily be given to teachers in whom the principal has not yet been able to establish the feeling that he is friendly and is visiting in a spirit of helpfulness.

4. The principal should make careful notes of every visit for a permanent record. These should be taken and used as inconspicuously as possible.

5. The principal should very rarely take over a class to demonstrate a method of teaching unless he does so at the beginning of the hour.

6. As soon as possible, the principal should discuss the visit, letting the teacher do most of the talking and giving him assurance at the beginning of the conference that he appreciated the good things he saw and heard.

The principal who wishes to become an effective supervisor should study carefully some book containing thorough discussions of the techniques of visitation and other supervisory

procedures and should attempt to incorporate an increasing amount of the recommendations in his daily practice.[1]

Directing Summer-School Attendance. In an increasing number of schools, teachers are directed by principals and superintendents to take courses in summer school which will prepare them to render an improved service along the lines in which they are engaged or will prepare them for new responsibilities which the administration has in mind for them. While this can be done with better grace if the teachers are given bonuses for summer-school attendance, in most instances the teacher is willing to take work along the lines suggested to him.

The Teacher with Special Interests and Talents. The principal should be on the lookout for teachers who have unusual and undeveloped potentialities along special lines. This opportunity exists particularly in connection with new developments in the school. For example, it may be that in the school it is planned to have a home-room program. To realize the splendid possibilities of a home-room program, there is distinct need for capable and informed leadership; often more special information and background are required than anyone in the school possesses, and more of the principal's time is needed than he can give. In any school of more than a dozen teachers, there is very likely to be at least one teacher with qualities of leadership and at least potential interest in this field who could be interested in attending summer school; reading books and articles; collecting manuals, pamphlets, outlines, etc.; and leading other teachers in developing practical home-room programs. This plan has been employed with very gratifying success in many schools in connection with educational guidance, vocational guidance, core-programs, supervised study, teaching how to study, progressive education, and visual aids.

Teachers and Community Relationships. One of the important areas in which leadership by the principal is very necessary is the stimulation and guidance of teachers in envisioning, appreciating, and developing community relationships, and in dis-

[1]Such a book is *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, by Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

charging their responsibilities to the school and the pupils along these lines. Teachers must be caused to feel the great importance of (1) coming to know the parents of as many pupils as possible; (2) knowing the community well—its life, standards, prejudices, needs, and attitudes; (3) doing their part in developing good attitudes toward the school.

Teachers need to be taught early that they must attend meetings of the P.T.A., and must go in the community where parents and other important people are likely to be. They must learn to be skillful and alert in making friends for the school and for themselves. As Henry Morrison points out in his *American Schools* (Chap. VIII), there is a pastoral responsibility of school people, as well as of ministers.

Each teacher should add something to the school's stock of knowledge concerning the home backgrounds of the pupils. There should be some home visitation by every teacher every year, especially in the early months, not only as a means of learning more about individual pupils, but as an important part of the education of the teacher in what lies behind the pupils he is teaching.

The Teacher's Professional Reading. The principal should encourage professional reading by his staff. As an increasing number of administrators go on to the doctor's degree or close to it, there is an increasing number who are well acquainted with the professional literature and who have considerable private professional libraries. The principal should see that there is a good professional library in the school. He should maintain at least a superficial acquaintance with the current journals, books, and pamphlets, and should continually be putting into the hands of teachers materials which will be helpful along the lines of their special needs and interests.

The Teacher's General Reading. Unfortunately, many principals do not do much general reading of a high order and consequently cannot fully realize how important it is for all educators to keep abreast of and well informed about the world and the coming world, for which they are preparing pupils. The "cream of the crop" of both teachers and principals, however,

will read at least several hundred pages, many much more than that, each month in books, pamphlets, and journals on international relations, social and economic changes and problems, American domestic and industrial life, and notable contributions to science and medicine, including some of the best fiction and probably some things about the best current music and art.

The principal and the school librarian should coöperate in providing at the school a collection of the current pamphlets, books, and journals containing material of the kind mentioned above, supplementing that available for the pupils.

Problems and Exercises

1. Prepare a complete list of the duties of department heads in a school of 1000 students.

2. Prepare a list of duties of the department head of a certain department in a school of 1000 students.

3. Write out a list of practices that you would expect to find in a high school where there was much democracy in administration and staff relationship.

4. List in the order of their importance the (*a*) advantages of democratic administration; (*b*) dangers of democratic administration.

5. Make a list of staff committees which might be used in high-school administration.

6. In what fields and in what ways could pupils advantageously participate in the administration of a school?

7. In what fields and in what ways could parents and other lay adults advantageously participate in the administration of a school?

8. Summarize briefly what you think should be the relationship between principal and superintendent in a school of a certain size, you to determine the size.

9. Make a list of ten or more good suggestions for conducting meetings of the entire high-school staff.

10. Write out a list of ten or more suggestions to apply to visiting the teachers in a high school.

11. In what ways can a principal help the teacher in his community relationships?

12. Make a list of some of the best books, articles, and pamphlets appearing in the last year or two which you would recommend for a teacher's general reading.

XXIV

Relationships to Higher Institutions, Accrediting Associations, and State Departments of Education[1]

From the very beginning of secondary schools in this country, they have had close relationships with institutions of higher education, and in recent decades also to regional accrediting associations and to state departments of education. These three types of agencies have influenced the programs of secondary schools very profoundly and in the main wisely, although in the last quarter-century there has been a gradual and overdue increased recognition of functions of secondary education other than preparation for college, and, indeed, new light on what constitutes good preparation for college.

1. TRADITIONAL COLLEGE-SECONDARY-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

In Earlier Periods. When the first secondary schools. Latin grammar schools, were established in the United States in the seventeenth century, the principal, almost sole, purpose was to prepare for college. While the academy, coming more than a century later, and the high school, still another century later, were results in large part of the desire to achieve more practical and immediate objectives than preparation for college, the colleges have been in a most strategic position to maintain their influence upon the objectives and programs of secondary schools. If graduates of any given high school are unable to enter institutions of higher education, this limitation of the particular school is easily apparent and receives keen attention at once. The relative success or failure of the schools to prepare

[1]This chapter was written with the coöperation of Professor Arthur C. Cross, High School Visitor, University of Colorado.

for citizenship, home, health, leisure, or vocation is much more difficult to assess, and there is no occasion of clear-cut responsibility, as there is in the case of the refusal of colleges and universities to accept the graduates. Added to this, there has been, of course, the influence of a most gratuitous and fallacious theory that the discipline of "college preparatory" subjects and punitive methods of teaching constituted adequate preparation also for life.

Before 1875, students were admitted to college only upon the passing of examinations given usually at the college or university, although even earlier, particularly in the New England and middle-eastern states, representatives of colleges sometimes visited schools and examined prospective college entrants. There is no doubt, too, that in many cases the examining committee or professor was influenced as much by the recommendations of the principal or headmaster and the student's secondary-school instructors as by the results of the examinations.

More Recent Trends. As the curriculum of the secondary school became more varied and comprehensive throughout the nineteenth century, and indeed also that of the colleges and universities, the scope of the subject matter involved in the entrance examinations became more varied and comprehensive. The examining of students also became more complicated as the idea of electives spread into practice and the numbers of students entering college increased.

In 1872 the University of Michigan and, in 1873, the University of Indiana established the practice of admitting, on the basis of their diplomas of graduation, graduates of high schools recognized by these universities as efficient secondary schools. This practice, based in part upon the theory that the state university was the capsheaf of the state public-school system, which should be articulated throughout, spread in the next quarter-century to all the state colleges and universities and to many independent institutions.

Beginning of Accrediting. As the result of the adoption of the plan of admission by diploma or certificate, the universities

felt compelled to establish some sort of accrediting plan, usually employing a high-school visitor, who inspected the schools, their housing, equipment, organization, staff, program of studies, and quality of classroom instruction. From secondary schools which were judged to be doing good work, graduates who had taken the courses specified for entrance to the various schools and colleges of the university were admitted without examination. In fact, in some cases students were also given college credit for work done in high school in such fields as Vergil and trigonometry.

As the United States expanded into a nation of great distances, and the number of secondary schools increased and by their very number defied efforts of the colleges to learn about the character of their work individually, there developed discussions of the desirability of examinations being given cooperatively by a large number of colleges in various centers of the country. Such a plan was actually inaugurated in 1901, and in 1942 more than 23.000 candidates attempted the College Entrance Examination Board (C.E.E.B.) examinations. These were fewer than 6 per cent of the students entering college that year, and most probably fewer than 20,000 of these actually passed the examinations and entered college. In a small number of the older, better known, and more conservative Eastern institutions, the college-entrance-examination route is still the principal avenue of entrance, particularly in the traditional women's colleges.

The College Entrance Examination Board. There are two types of C.E.E.B. examinations, the New Plan and the Old Plan. In advising high-school students who may wish to enter institutions by the C.E.E.B. route, the principal as counselor should be familiar with and take into consideration the following:

1. The details of the New Plan and of the Old Plan.
2. The times and places at which the examinations will be given.
3. The subjects required by the particular college which the student wishes to enter.
4. The scope of subject matter covered by the examinations.

Information on all these points can be obtained by writing to the College Entrance Examination Board at 425 West 117th Street, New York City.

In brief, the features of the C.E.E.B. procedure may be summarized as follows:

1. The Old Plan involves examinations over specified areas of subject matter; the New Plan attempts to measure general mastery of large areas of subject matter and general intelligence of the type required for scholastic success.
2. The student takes examinations in whatever subjects he wishes, including, of course, those required for entrance to the college or colleges of his choice.
3. The board scores the student's papers, records his grades, and transmits a report to such colleges as the student indicates.
4. A particular college decides whether the grades made by the student are sufficiently high to warrant his admission to that college. Colleges have quite different standards, Haverford College, for example, requiring much higher scores than the average college.
5. In an increasing number of colleges, other data are considered also—for example, the secondary-school scholastic record, letters of recommendation concerning such points as qualities of character, leadership, and social adaptability.

Accrediting Associations and State Departments as Accrediting Associations. As the plan of admission on certificate from institutions accredited by the state university spread, two trends developed: (1) the tendency to regard the accrediting of public schools as a duty of the state university or of the state department of education, along with its other responsibilities for supervision of the public elementary and secondary schools; and (2) the establishment of agencies for accrediting which included a number of states, thus permitting students to enter without examinations institutions of higher education in states other than the one in which the high schools from which they graduated were located. The procedures of these two types of accrediting agencies and the relations of the high school to them will be discussed later in this chapter.

2. COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Subjects Required. From the very beginning the college has specified certain fields in which the entering student should be proficient—in the day of the early Latin grammar schools, Latin and Greek; later, also mathematics, English, science, and history. With the admission-by-certificate plan, there developed the designating of areas of subject matter in terms of units,—for example, 1 unit of history, 2 units of French,—the "unit" corresponding to what is conventionally taught in a year of high-school instruction in a class meeting of not less than 40 minutes, five times a week.

While the exact pattern of subjects required varies from college to college, there are certain fairly common requirements. In 1938 the typical pattern was as follows:[1]

English	3 units	Social studies	1 unit
Foreign language	2 units	Natural science	1 unit
Mathematics	2 units	Total	9 units

Many institutions do not specify so many units. Many specify from 3 to 9 units and, in addition, enough to make 9, 10, or 11 units in the five academic fields indicated above.

Recent Trends. In the light of experience and of scientific studies of the relationship between scholastic success in college and patterns of subjects pursued in high school, there has been in recent years a tendency to place less and less emphasis upon pattern of subjects and more upon the ability of the student as judged from intelligence-test scores, high-school record, and qualities of character and personality.

Stanford University, for example, has for twenty years required for general entrance only three units of English, though it insists upon eleven units in academic subjects and definite evidence of superior ability. During the thirties the Universities of Michigan, Iowa, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and more than a hundred colleges and teachers' colleges,

[1] "From High School to College," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. XVI, p. 78.

placed less emphasis, in their entrance requirements, upon pattern of high-school subjects. For example, the state institutions of Iowa require only high-school graduation; the University of Michigan requires two majors of three units each (one of which must be English) and two minors of two units each; the requirements of the University of Illinois are like those at Michigan except that one may enter with three majors of three units each.

Many small schools are very lax in entrance requirements and procedures. Some conservative Eastern schools still cling to heavy pattern requirements, as do the second-class and third-class universities in general. In some regions a fairly common practice has grown up of certifying, to the college, credits under names that are not exactly the names of the courses in which the credits were made—for example, General Language instead of English, General Mathematics instead of Algebra, Journalism instead of English, Social Studies instead of History. While the practice is hardly strictly ethical, the colleges seem satisfied, the students obtain entrance, and the high school goes forward with its adjustment of its curriculum to modern needs.

Recent Investigations. Over a period of more than a quarter of a century, careful investigations have been made of the relative scholastic success in college or university of students entering with varying patterns of high-school credits. The results of these studies are amazingly uniform in that they invariably show that, with intelligence or general mental ability held constant, it matters little what subjects the prospective college student takes in high school.

At Colorado State College of Education, first Gebhardt, then Stinnette, showed that the grades made in that institution did not depend upon whether the student had taken in high school more or less work in mathematics or in science or in any other subject field. Douglass at the University of Oregon discovered exactly the same lack of relationship. Similar results were reported by Sorenson at Northwestern; Clark at the University of Southern California; Nelson at Iowa State College; Bram-

mell at the University of Washington; Douglass, Johnston, and Boardman in separate studies at the University of Minnesota; and Yates from data gathered at the University of Kentucky, the University of Indiana, and Cincinnati University. Proctor and Bolenbaugh also reported that, with general mental ability held constant, students at Stanford University with 3, 4, or 5 units of high-school credit in vocational subjects made as good college marks as those with 0, 1, or 2 units in those subjects.

By far the most publicized investigation was that conducted under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association and known as the Eight Year Study or the Thirty Schools Study. A very large number of colleges and universities agreed to accept graduates from thirty independent and public secondary schools in which experimental curriculum changes were being employed which would prevent students from accumulating formal credits in all the units required by the colleges for entrance. Beginning in 1935, these "guinea pigs" began to enter college. A comparison of their records with those of other students of equal intelligence reveals that without question they achieved as good a scholastic record in college as those with whom they were compared.

Factors Related to College Marks. Hundreds of studies[1] have been made to determine the degree of correlation that exists between various factors and marks made in college. In the order of the magnitude of the coefficient of correlation, the central tendencies of these coefficients are given in Table XV.

Students from schools accredited by regional accrediting associations seem to do a little better in college than those from non-accredited schools. Students from very small high schools, though these schools send a smaller percentage of their graduates to college, do not do quite so well either on college aptitude tests or in college marks.

[1]For summaries of these studies, see A. A. Douglass, *Modern Secondary Education* (Houghton Mifflin Company), pp. 181–194, Harl R Douglass, "Selecting Good College Risks," *School and Society*, Vol XXXV, pp 140–147; P. Roy Brammell, *Articulation of High School and College*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 10, pp. 23–25 and 48–49.

Table XV. Central Tendency of Coefficients of Correlation obtained in Investigations of the Correlation between Certain Variables and Average College Mark of the First Year or Two Years

Variable	Approximate Central Tendency of Coefficients
Average high-school mark	.55
Average College Entrance Examination Board examination	.50
Average mark in high-school science courses	.48
Average mark in English or social-studies courses	.45
Intelligence or college aptitude test	.42
Average mark in mathematics	.40
Number of units in foreign language	.15
Number of units in mathematics	.10

Factors correlating less than .40 with college marks are worthless when used alone to predict college success. Those correlating between .40 and .60 are of some value, but must be interpreted only as very rough approximations of the student's ability to do well in college. Even those between .60 and .80, while very useful, are not highly accurate and will involve some remarkable exceptions. Coefficients of correlation greater than .60 are obtained only by combining two or more of the more valid predictive variables—for example,

High-school average and intelligence-test score	.60 to .75
High-school average and average College Entrance Examination Board score	.60 to .70
Average College Entrance Examination Board score and intelligence-test score	.55 to .65

It should always be recalled that these coefficients of correlation are with marks made in the first year or two of college. Coefficients of correlation between these factors and marks made in the later years of college are not so great. More predictive of success in the medical school, law school, or college of dentistry, for example, are specialized aptitude tests given just before entrance, combined with average college mark made in the first two years.

3. GUIDANCE FOR COLLEGE

The alert secondary school is discharging its responsibility for guiding its students with respect to college much more intelligently than a decade or so ago. These guidance services fall into three classes: (1) advising a student whether he should attend college; (2) advising him as to which college or university he should attend and in which divisions he should enroll; and (3) helping him with various problems concerned with getting the most out of college.

Who Should Attend College? A great deal of misinformation has been given high-school administrators, teachers, and students relative to the question of what it takes to succeed in college. Supposedly intelligent and scholarly men have written articles and books on this topic from the point of view that there is such a thing as a common threshold or minimum of ability required for college success.

For twenty years we have had ample data to demonstrate conclusively that there is great variation in the demands made by different colleges upon student ability. The median score made on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination is in the case of some colleges four times as high as in that of others. The lower quartile of a considerable number of colleges is higher than the upper quartile of a considerable number of others. The following are generalizations with respect to these differences:

1. The student bodies of Southern colleges on the whole are inferior to those of Eastern colleges, as judged by the American Council on Education Psychological Examinations.
2. Teachers'-college student bodies are, on an average, inferior to those of other types of institutions.
3. Small independent arts colleges vary most widely, including among their numbers some with very superior groups of students—indeed the topmost—and also some at the other end of the scale.
4. The well-endowed colleges and universities, including Harvard, Chicago, Yale, Stanford, Duke, and Princeton, have student bodies of very superior abilities.

5. The larger state universities, including Michigan, California, Minnesota, Illinois, have student bodies of superior ability.

6. The smaller universities and agricultural and engineering colleges range, in general, through the middle.

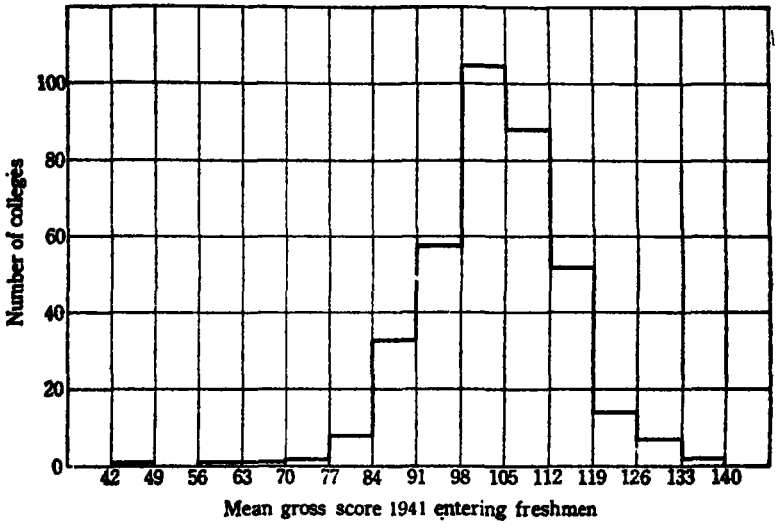


FIG. 8. Distribution of Mean Scores of 373 Freshman Classes on American Council on Education Psychological Examination. (From L. L. Thurstone and Thelma G. Thurstone, Psychological Examination, 1941 Norms, American Council on Education Studies, Series V)

Differences in Demands of Various Divisions of the University. Within a college or university, different curricula require different degrees and types of ability, as careful studies made by the author of this volume and by others indicate.[1] Though there are notable exceptions, in general law and medical schools require more mental ability than other colleges or schools; agriculture, physical education, music, art, nursing, and business, average or less than average. Among those requiring average or more than average are schools or colleges of education, engineering, dentistry, pharmacy, journalism, and mining.

Not only do various curricula vary with respect to amount

[1]Harl R. Douglass and others, *University of Minnesota Studies in Predicting Scholastic Achievement*, Part Two. University of Minnesota Press.

of ability, but they differ significantly with respect to the types of ability demanded. For example, the typical law school requires superior reasoning ability, and a precise and large vocabulary, particularly in the field of socio-economic-political terms. The dentistry curriculum requires, in addition to ability and background in science, superior aptitude for acquiring skills with the fingers, and superior ability in judging spatial relations and colors. University schools of business place a premium upon a good vocabulary of socio-economic-political terms, and fundamentals in arithmetic, especially in adding and subtracting decimals.

The Proper Approach for the High School. It should be clear to the high-school counselor that for all but the least capable and the least interested it is not a question of "Can I succeed in college?" but one of "In what college or branch of a university or college can I succeed?" In almost every region there is at least one college in which the mediocre student can be reasonably sure of success. In view of the prevailing conditions of the teaching profession and its need for really high-grade people, it is to be hoped that high-school counselors will not guide their inferior graduates into teachers' colleges merely because their chances of survival there are good. Junior-college terminal curricula, the non-university music schools, the independent business colleges, the trade schools, and curricula in agriculture should not be overlooked as appropriate schools for the student of limited intellectual abilities.

The able student should be steered toward college teaching, medicine, law, a higher-grade college of engineering, or a graduate school of business, depending upon his interests, pattern of abilities, and personality.

Recruiting and Guidance. The ever-increasing number of high-school graduates has resulted in corresponding expansion of colleges and universities. The stabilizing of high-school enrollments since 1939 has operated to produce a highly competitive situation among the smaller colleges and universities. These institutions are sending "guidance" representatives (salesmen) into the high schools in increasing numbers and with increas-

ingly smooth and high-pressure methods, as is indicated by the following excerpt from a recent report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:[1]

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. . . .

We are familiar with the inducements offered to promising athletes, but we may be astonished by the fact that the 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. . . .

Among the protective devices employed by secondary schools have been the following:

1. Requiring college field agents to interview students upon a voluntary basis after school hours.
2. Setting aside a day or two, or in some cases a week, to which visits and the interviewing of seniors during school hours must be confined, colleges being informed that their representatives are not welcome at other times.
3. Limiting, through regulations adopted by associations of secondary schools, the number and extent of trips to college campuses. (For guidance purposes, these trips are on an average worse than useless, giving false impressions to most high-school students.)

[1]Walter A. Jessup, "College Competition and the Student," *Thirty-Second Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*, pp. 3–22.

4. Refusal to participate in guidance testing programs by individual colleges. (Test results of these programs have a weird way of favoring attendance at the college concerned. They require student time and are likely to partake of charlatanry.)

Methods of Guidance Relative to College. In recent years secondary schools have built up a number of excellent practices calculated to assist the prospective college students. Among them may be mentioned the following:

1. The library collection of (*a*) college catalogues and (*b*) reliable books on college and how to get the most out of college.
2. The discussion unit, usually for a semester, frequently employed in home rooms composed of seniors likely to go to college, to consider various problems of social life, finances, college curricula, etc.
3. The appointment of an adviser who becomes a specialist in matters of college selection, entrance requirements, college life, relationship of various factors to success in college, etc.
4. The development of the best types of cumulative record to be used in guidance in the high school and sent on to college to be used in guidance there.
5. Special attention in the senior year to students who have declared their intention of entering college, in the form of training in note-taking, preparation for examinations, writing of long papers, English composition and grammar, laboratory procedure in science, review of arithmetic and algebra, and use of the library.

4. ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS

The First Regional Accrediting Associations. As an outgrowth of the plan of admitting high-school graduates to college without examination, active accrediting associations have developed in every section of the country. The first of these to be established, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, organized in 1885, operates in a manner different from that of the other regional associations. It does not enforce a set of standards, as the others do, but rather it provides an avenue for discussion of high-school–college relationships and problems. In addition, it keeps records of the success in college of graduates of high schools in its territory. In 1892 the Middle

States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized. Until 1928 it operated in a manner somewhat similar to that of the New England Association. Since that time, it has inspected schools, has employed a set of standards by which secondary schools are judged, and has, like the other associations except that in New England, made up a list of approved, or accredited, secondary schools.

Other Regional Associations. It was with the organization of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, both in 1895, that the practices of formulating a set of definite standards, inspecting schools, and publishing a list of acceptable schools really got under way on a national basis, although in a number of states those practices had been employed by state departments of education.

In 1918 a similar organization, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, patterned after the North Central Association, was organized. The Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which is not a regional association, including, as it does, only California, was established in 1930, and is more like the New England Association. Of the associations, the North Central is the largest and, in many ways, is the leader. The territory included in these various associations is shown in Fig. 9 on the next page.

Accrediting Procedures. The procedures of the North Central, Southern, Middle States, and Northwest Associations are very similar. Those of the North Central, which may be studied as typical, can be summarized as follows:

1. To become a member, the administration of a school must first file an application, including a comprehensive detailed report and description of the school.

2. The state committee of the association then provides for an inspection. This may be one of two types: (*a*) a visit by one or more representatives of the association, or (*b*) an evaluation by a committee of from five to twelve school men—most of them usually from near-by schools. Either type of inspection usually requires two or three days.

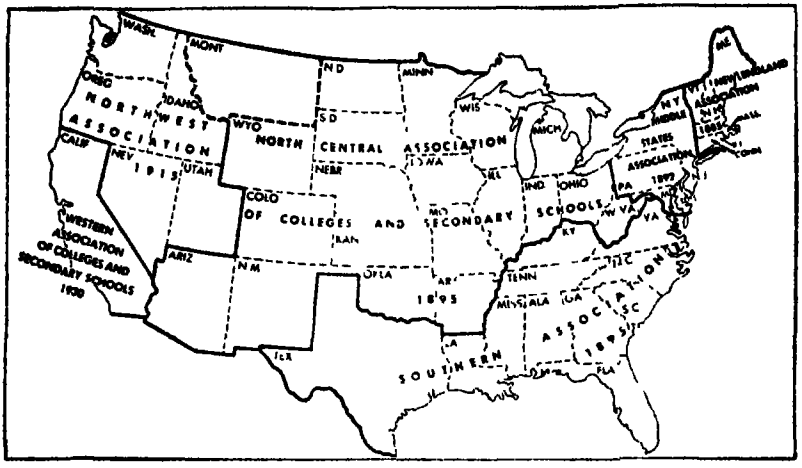


FIG. 9. Associations of College and Secondary Schools in the United States. The Years of Establishment Are Given. Montana Is Affiliated with Two Associations[1]

3. The report and recommendation of the state committee are reviewed by the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association, and final disposition made.

4. After the first year of membership, the school is required to make, on forms provided, a full report of the condition of the school. If a school falls a little short of one or two standards, it is "advised." If the school falls far short of the standards, one or more, of the association, it will be either dropped or warned. If "warned," it will be given a year to show definite improvement. If within the year it is judged to have met the standards fully or approximately, it will be either approved or advised, as the situation seems to warrant. A school which has been advised two or more years in succession is usually "warned." A school "warned" which shows no improvement the next year or little improvement after two years is usually dropped. A "dropped" school may be reinstated when it meets the standards fully.

The Standards, or Criteria, for Accrediting Secondary Schools. The standards, or criteria, of the North Central Association may be briefly summarized as follows:

[1]From Carl A. Jessen, "Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *School Life*, Vol. XXIV, p. 305.

Relationships to Higher Institutions

1. *Housing.* The school plant must be adequate for the program of instruction and must insure hygienic conditions and safety of pupils.

2. *Library.* The library must contain books in number, character, and variety to facilitate the program of instruction. It must have adequately trained librarian service (full-time librarian for schools of 1000 or more students), adequate housing and seating, and a suitable classification and methods of administration.

3. *Organization.* The school year must be at least 36 weeks in length, the recitation periods must provide a minimum of 40 minutes, and 16 units must be required for graduation.

4. *Qualifications of Teachers.* All teachers must be college graduates, and supervisory and administrative officers must possess the master's degree and credit in education on the graduate level above the 15 semester hours mentioned below. At least 15 semester hours of professional training are required of teachers of academic subjects, plus a minimum degree of specialization in any teaching field—which is usually 15 semester hours in the field taught, for example, science, and 5 semester hours in the subject taught, for example, physics.

5. *Teaching Load.* The association recommends but no longer insists upon the following practices: (*a*) pupil-teacher ratio, not more than 30 to 1; (*b*) the number of classes taught by the teacher, not more than five daily; and (*c*) the total number of pupil-periods per day, not more than 150 per teacher. (The Douglass formula is commonly used for measuring the total teaching load)

6. *Instruction, Discipline, 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 coöperative attitude of the community are paramount factors, and, therefore, only schools that rank well in these particulars, as evidenced by rigid, thoroughgoing, sympathetic evaluation, shall be considered eligible for the list of schools approved by the association."

7. *The Administration of the School.* There must be in operation a plan of organization and system of procedures which insure to the professional administration of the school ample authority to organize and operate a good school. The general principles of such a plan should be made a matter of record by the board of education.

8. *Records.* The school must maintain a complete system of records, including at least records of scholastic progress and attendance, and sufficient supplementary items for a good guidance program.

Though the standards are rather stable from year to year, they are being constantly studied and changed to conform to the increasing knowledge of what constitutes an effective school for the times. There is variation among the various states in the interpretation of the criteria, growing principally out of the philosophy of the state committees.

The Evaluative Criteria and Related Procedures. Over a period of seven years, 1933–1940, the six accrediting associations cooperated in a rather thoroughgoing revision of standards. An intensive study of 200 schools, involving more than 1000 items of a check list, was made. Standard tests were given to 17,000 students. Records of 13,000 graduates and 7000 former students were studied. Judgments of 17,000 students and 7000 parents were secured. The weights given to various items were determined by the combined judgments of the 200 principals, the 75 inspectors, and the 12 members of the professional staff engaged in the study.

From these data three forms of the criteria were developed: the Alpha, Beta, and Gamma Scales. Of these, the Alpha constitutes the most comprehensive check list and is most useful in surveying every aspect of a school and its program. The Gamma Scale is a synopsis of the Alpha Scale and is useful when only a general evaluation is desired. The Beta Scale is an intermediate check list.

Based upon the data from a very large number of schools, "thermometers" have been prepared, which are in reality percentile norms for schools of each of the associations and for schools of different size. By means of these may be determined the relative standing of any school among schools of its size and section of the country with respect to any one of the criteria.

Evaluation Procedure. The first step in an "evaluation" is for a school to fill out its own report, including objective data and evaluation by the local staff on each of the standards and major aspects of the school, accompanied by a statement of the objectives and philosophy of the school. This usually requires a number of meetings of various committees of the staff over a period of

several months. Sometimes this step is extended over a year or more, during which period the facilities and the educational program of the school are being improved to meet the standards.

The next step is the "evaluation" of the outside committee of from five to twelve school men appointed by the state committee of the association. This committee breaks up into subcommittees, which study the report, visit the classrooms and the rest of the plant, and discuss some matters with the staff, committees of students, and representatives of the board of education and the parent constituency. These subcommittees recommend to the committee as a whole changes in the self-appraisal ratings by the local staff, and a final evaluation is recorded.

The state committee, usually through its chairman or executive secretary, writes a covering report touching upon the general conditions of the school and mentioning its points of special strength and weakness. In the report the school, if it is applying for accreditation, is informed whether it has been accepted, and, if not, what types of improvement must be effected before it will be accepted.

These evaluations, of course, are far more useful than the old inspection by representatives of the association. In the first place, by their participation in the evaluation, members of the local staff are given valuable in-service training, and they come to understand the standards. Again, the participation by near-by school men is also valuable in-service training of a very effective type. Lastly, the verdict by such a committee under these conditions is much more likely to be accepted as a fair one.

5. STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Even before the accrediting associations were organized for accrediting, in a number of states state superintendents or commissioners were inspecting and accrediting schools. The practice was accelerated greatly in the period between 1900 and 1930, in which provisions for state aid to qualified schools were

inaugurated and extended in so many states. If state funds depend upon meeting standards, the standards are likely to be met. The standards of the state departments, like those of the associations of earlier days, have been largely objective and quantitative—for example, so much laboratory equipment of specified types, so many books in the library, class periods of not less than 40 minutes, a school year of not less than 36 weeks, and teachers with not less than so many years of college training.

Value of State Supervision. The effectiveness of state accrediting has been limited somewhat by two conditions or developments. Representatives in the legislature, which, of course, sets the amounts of appropriations for the state departments of education and for state school funds, had to be dealt with. Not too many schools, therefore, could be denied approval, and the representatives antagonized. In some states, and in most of them at one time or another, the caliber of the state high-school inspectors was not high, the salaries not being such as to command outstanding men or women.

In spite of these untoward conditions, the net effects of state supervision have been most valuable. State inspection and stimulation affected many schools which had neither serious ambitions nor monetary motives to be accredited by regional accrediting associations. State supervision reached into every nook and cranny of the state and affected every high school, even those with two-year or three-year programs. State supervision also understood local conditions better, and it had a standing, especially until recently, with local boards of education which was not possessed by vague associations with no legal authorization.

State inspection and accreditation did much to accelerate improvement of housing, equipment, teaching staff, records, and accounting methods. Thousands of school boards were brought to build new buildings, double expenditures for libraries and laboratories, increase teachers' salaries, and increase the educational standards for teachers under the suggestion and courteous threats of the state accrediting officers. The advisory

function of state officers likewise increased and became most valuable to schools in the state.

State supervision has been particularly valuable in three areas. In practically all states, state certification of teachers has replaced county and city certification, and the net result has been to reduce the number of poorly prepared people entering teaching and to raise minimum standards. In a number of states, improved forms and plans of accounting are required by law of all schools under state supervision. In some states, no school building may be contracted for until the plans have been approved by the state department of education. In the states in which these last two requirements exist, and in a number of others, there are in the state department experts in school accounting and in school buildings whose services, if not required by law, are nevertheless available and are utilized to splendid advantage by most schools.

6. ARTICULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Until recently, the work of the secondary school was supposed to lead up to work of the first two years of college, which was supposed to be a continuation of secondary education. As a matter of fact, however, there has been in most colleges no serious attention to articulation. As a result, much undesirable duplication, as Koos and others have pointed out, has existed, particularly in physical science, American history, English literature and composition, home economics, and the social studies, to say nothing of the duplication of entire courses in foreign languages and in trigonometry.

More recently, two trends have been under way. In a number of colleges, placement tests are employed, and entering students are placed in sections in science, foreign language, and other subjects appropriate to their background. This practice, which should have been begun earlier and employed more widely, contributes to the more economical use of student time—an important contribution for those students not required to spend from six to eight years in college.

The second trend is in line with the decreasing percentage of high-school graduates who enter college. It is the increasing attention given to preparing students for life rather than for college and the corresponding revamping of courses in science, history, English, and mathematics so as to give training in the applications of subject matter in these fields to problems of home, industry, shop, store, leisure, agriculture, and social security, and to the state and national economic-political problems facing the general mass of citizens.

In addition to these two trends, certain others, less common in practice, are worthy of consideration. One of these is the tendency to advise the most intelligent and emotionally stable high-school students, especially those with qualities of leadership, to carry five or more subjects and to enter college at the end of three years of high school, thus reducing by one year the amount of time spent in school and the period before marriage and entrance into professional life for those students most likely to enter medicine, law, dentistry, or college teaching.

Still another is the tendency to offer, in the senior year of high school, college freshman courses in mathematics, science, and social studies, which will enable selected students to pass placement examinations in college that will entitle them to college credit and hence give them the opportunity to complete their professional training a year earlier. Only a few higher institutions actually are participating actively in this procedure, but in many there exists the possibility of earning college credit by means of examination.

Problems and Exercises

1. Look up a more detailed discussion of the College Entrance Examination Board and its programs and be able to report in class.
2. Be ready to report on some studies on the relationship between college grades and pattern of subjects taken in high school.
3. If you were advising students about going to college, what should you wish to know? Make a list.
4. Add a few topics to those given in the book which might well be taken up by groups of seniors intending to go to college.

Relationships to Higher Institutions

5. Locate a copy of the standards now in use by the accrediting association of the region in which you live and be able to tell what those standards include.

6. Look up the "evaluative criteria" and be able to explain what they are, how they were developed, and how they are used.

7. Get from a state department of education or office of a state superintendent or commissioner of public schools a manual or other publication describing its procedure and standards for accrediting high schools. How do they differ from those of the regional accrediting association in that area?

8. Write a list of suggestions on how better to articulate secondary education and higher education.

9. Describe and evaluate the recruiting practices of certain institutions of higher education with which you are familiar.

10. In what ways do institutions of higher education affect the high-school curriculum? In what ways is this influence good? In what ways bad?

Bibliography

I • TYPES OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

ALLEN, JOHN STUART. "Criteria for Establishment of Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal* (April, 1937), Vol. VII, pp. 356–363.

BELTING, PAUL E., and CLEVENGER, A. W. *The High School at Work*, Chap. XV. Rand, McNally & Company, Chicago, 1939.

COCKING, WALTER D. "A Program for Work Experience," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (January, 1943), Vol XXVII, pp 27–31.

COOPER, W. J "Some Advantages Expected to Result from Administering Secondary Education in Two Units of Four Years Each," *School Review* (May, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp 335–346.

DOUGLASS, HARL R., and KORNEGAY, ALONZO D. "Diversified Occupational Plans of Vocational Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education* (September, 1942), Vol XXXI, pp 288–289.

FROST, NORMAN. "Medium-Size Systems are Better," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. XCV. August, 1937, pp. 19–20; September, 1937, p. 18.

JACOBSON, PAUL B. "Adolescents need Experience in the Work of their World," Chap XI, pp 268–289, in *General Education in the American High School* Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1942.

KILZER, L R. "Some Advantages and Disadvantages of the Six-Year High School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. LXXXV: November, 1932, pp. 24–26, 76; December, 1932, p. 31.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W, and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chaps. II and III. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

LEONARD, J. PAUL, and others. Chapters I–IX, inclusive, in "Work Experience in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (January, 1943), Vol. XXVII, pp 3–107.

MCPHERSON, H. M. "Overcoming the Handicaps of a Small School," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (January, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 19–23

RAKESTRAW, C. E. "Co-operative Part-Time Diversified Occupations Program," *Occupations* (March, 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp 403–406.

RIDDLE, JOHN INGLE. *The Six-Year Rural High School*, Contributions to Education, No. 737. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1937.

SHERMAN, J. LEONARD. "Can the Private Secondary School justify its Existence?" *School and Society* (April 6, 1935), Vol. XLI, pp. 462–465.

"Status of the Junior College in the United States, 1939–1940," *School and Society* (February 17, 1940), Vol. LI, pp. 219–221.

II · HOUSING THE HIGH SCHOOL

ANDERSON, HOMER W. "Adapting the New High-School Building to the New School Program," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1936), Vol. XCII, pp. 23–24.

BARROWS, ALICE. *School Building Situation and Needs*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1937 62 pages.

BLAIR, HERBERT. *Physical Educational Facilities for the Modern Junior and Senior High School*. A.S Barnes and Company, New York, 1938. 174 pages.

BURSCH, CHARLES W. "Adapting School Plants to New Programs," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1942), Vol. XVII, pp. 158–160.

DALTHORP, CHARLES J. "An Auditorium to Serve Schools and City," *American School Board Journal* (June, 1939), Vol. XCVIII, pp 25–27

ENGELHARDT, N. L. "Modern Trends in School Planning as a Result of Changing Curriculums," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1938), Vol. XCVI, pp 23–24, 108.

ENGELHARDT, N. L., and ENGELHARDT, N L., JR. *Planning the Community School*. The American Book Company, New York, 1940. 188 pages.

FORD, W. S. "The Relation of Teacher Offices to High-School Building Capacity and Utilization," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1933), Vol. LXXXVI, pp. 46–50.

GREEN, R. E. "The High-School Classroom," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1934), Vol. LXXXVIII, pp. 37–38.

GREEN, R. E. "The Plan of the High School Commercial Unit," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1931), Vol. LXXXII, pp. 56–57.

HAMON, RAY L. "Functional Planning of the Small School Plant," *School Executive* (April, 1939), Vol. LVIII, pp. 14–17.

HIGGINS, T. J. "A Check List for Senior-High-School Buildings," *American School Board Journal* (February, 1933), Vol. LXXXVI, pp. 28–29.

HOLY, T. C. "Location, Construction, and Equipment of Schoolhouses for Health," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1942), Vol. CIV, pp. 19–20.

HOLY, T. C., and ARNOLD, W. E. "Standards for Junior-High-School Buildings. Part II," *American School Board Journal* (March, 1933), Vol. LXXXVI, p. 32.

MORPHET, EDGAR L. "Equipment and Supplies for Small Schools," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1939), Vol. XCIX, pp 19–21, 92.

NICHOLS, JOHN E. "Plan Integration in High School Buildings," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1941), Vol CII, pp 26–28, 101.

ORTH, ALBERT A. "Planning the Social-Studies Classroom," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1936), Vol. XCII, pp. 30–32.

"Planning and Equipping a Graphic-Arts Shop," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education* (June, 1941), Vol. XXX, p. 219.

Bibliography

Planning Rooms for Some Activities of the Community High School, United States Office of Education Circular No. 197. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1941. 21 pages.

"Schoolhouse Planning," Chap VIII, in *Schools in Small Communities*, Seventeenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. The Association, Washington, D. C., 1939. 608 pages

STUDEBAKER, M. E "Layout and Equipment for Business Education Departments on the Secondary-School Level," *American School and University*, Vol. XII, pp. 373–378. American School Publishing Corporation, New York, 1940

TESS, MILDRED E. "The Niles Township High School," *American School Board Journal* (January, 1940). Vol C, pp. 29–34

WANN, H. A. "Why not Socially Significant School Plant Planning?" *School Executive* (May, 1938), Vol. LVII, pp. 391–394.

III · ORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM

ALTMAN, CLARA. "May a One-Year Foreign-Language Course have Values?" *School and Society* (September 20, 1941), Vol. LIV, pp. 214–218.

BABSON, HELEN. "Progress at Eagle Rock High School." *California Journal of Secondary Education* (May, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 299–303.

BELTING, PAUL E., and CLEVENGER, A. W. *The High School at Work*, Chaps. I, V, and VI. Rand, McNally & Company, Chicago, 1939.

BENJAMIN, H. R W *Saber-Tooth Curriculum*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939. 139 pages.

BRYSON, WILLIAM M., and HUTSON, PERCIVAL W. "The General Curriculum," *School Review* (January, 1935), Vol. XLIII, pp. 15–27.

CASWELL, HOLLIS, and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Curriculum Development*. The American Book Company, New York, 1935. 600 pages.

CLINE, E. C. "Providing for 'Nonacademic' Pupils," *School Executive* (February, 1941), Vol. LX, pp. 41–42.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, pp. 29–36 American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. *High School Administration and Supervision*, Chaps. II, XIII, and XIV. The American Book Company, New York, 1934.

"Curriculum Revision in the Junior High School," *High Points* (April, 1941), Vol XXIII, p. 29

CYR, FRANK W. "Enrich Small High School Programs," *School Executive* (May, 1937), Vol. LVI, pp. 335–337, 362–363

DOUGLASS, HARL R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1937. 137 pages.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Two Important Deliberative Reports concerned with Mathematics in the Schools," *Mathematics Teacher* (December, 1940), Vol. XXXIII, pp. 361–366.

"Education for the Nonacademic," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (November, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 395–426.

EELLS, W. C. *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education.* American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C., 1941. 340 pages.

FRANDSEN, ARDEN. "Psychology in the High-School Curriculum," *School Review* (September, 1941), Vol. XLIX, pp. 515–526

HANNA, J. M. "Trends of Thought in Business Education," *Business Education World* (January, February, March, and April, 1941), Vol. XXI, pp. 377–380, 473–476, 577–580, 603–695.

HARBESON, JOHN W. "Meeting the Needs of Terminal Students at the Junior College Level," *School Review* (October, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 577–587.

HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "Some Essentials of Terminal Occupational Education at the Junior-College Level," *School Review* (February, 1941), Vol. XLIX, pp. 97–103.

HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. "Making the Curriculum Functional," *Teachers College Record* (November, 1941), Vol. XLII, pp 129–136.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "The Improvement of Curriculum Materials," Chap. XVIII in *Duties of School Principals.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

JOHNSON, ELLA M. "Consumer Education and the Secondary School," *Journal of Home Economics* (December, 1941), Vol XXXIII, pp. 716–718.

JOHNSON, LESTER F., and others. "Standards for Graduation from Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research* (November, 1940), Vol. XXXIV, p. 199.

JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Organization of a Program of General Education in Secondary Schools and Colleges," *School and Society* (November 25, 1939), Vol. L, pp. 673–681.

KILPATRICK, WILLIAM HEARD. *Remaking the Curriculum.* Newson and Company, New York, 1936. 128 pages

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chaps. X, XI and XIII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

LEAVITT, JEROME. "General Arts: Roslyn's Broad Program offers Many Choices in Art, Industrial Arts, and Household Arts," *Clearing House* (February, 1943), Vol. XVII, pp. 367–368.

LEWIS, VANCE D. "Variety of Curricula in a Small High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (February, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 75–79.

MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Core-Curriculum Developments in California," *School Review* (June, 1939), Vol. XLVII, pp. 439–453.

MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Emerging Curriculums show New Conceptions of Secondary Education," Chap. III, pp. 82–104, in *General Education in the American High School.* Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1942.

Bibliography

Mathematics Practices in California Secondary Schools. A report of the Association of California Secondary-School Principals, Vol. X, No. 5. State Department of Education, Sacramento, California, June, 1941. 39 pages.

PROFFITT, MARIS M. "How goes Industrial Arts?" *School Shop* (October, 1941), Vol. I, pp. 3–5.

REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "An Appraisal of Secondary-School Administration," *School Review* (September, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 497–511.

SCHULTS, FRANK G. "Nature and Extent of Terminal Curriculum Offerings in 31 Junior Colleges," *American School Board Journal* (October, 1940), Vol. CI, pp. 29–30.

SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. "The Evaluation of Secondary-School Curricula in the New York State Regents' Inquiry," *North Central Association Quarterly* (July, 1937), Vol. XII, pp. 26–33.

SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *High School and Life*, Chaps. VIII and XIV. New York Regents' Inquiry. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

SPEARS, HAROLD. *The Emerging High School Curriculum and its Direction.* The American Book Company, New York, 1940 400 pages.

STARR, MARK "A Trade Unionist Views the Curriculum," *American Teacher* (September-October, 1936), Vol. XXI, pp. 18–19.

THAYER, V. T., and others. *Reorganizing Secondary Education.* Progressive Education Publications. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. 483 pages.

IV · SELECTING THE STAFF

CHAMBERLAIN, LEO M. *The Teacher and School Organization*, Chap. VI, pp. 142–187. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1936.

COOKE, DENNIS H. *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, Chaps. I, II, III, and IV, pp. 1–118. Benj. H Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1939.

COREY, STEPHEN M. "What are the Factors Involved in the Success of High School Teachers?" *North Central Association Quarterly* (October, 1935), Vol. X, pp. 224–231.

COX, PHILIP W. L, and LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. *High School Administration and Supervision*, Chaps. IV, XIII, and XIV. The American Book Company, New York, 1934.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Subject-Matter Preparation of High School Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (September, 1935), Vol. XXI, pp. 457–464.

HERDA, F. J. "Some Aspects of the Relative Instructional Efficiency of Men and Women Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research* (November, 1935), Vol. XXIX, pp. 196–203.

HUGHES, W. H. "How to Select the Best Teachers," *Nation's Schools* (January, 1934), Vol. XIII, pp. 36–41.

HUSBAND, RICHARD WELLINGTON. "The Photograph on the Application Blank," *Personnel Journal* (August, 1934), Vol. XIII, pp. 69–72.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Selection, Retention, and Promotion of Teachers," Chap XV in *Duties of School Principals*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

KIRK, H. H. "The Superintendent and the Institutional Teacher Placement Bureau," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (January, 1937), Vol. XXIII, pp. 43–50.

MCCOLLEY, WALTER SCOTT. "Shades of Socrates!" *Clearing House* (October, 1936), Vol. XI, pp. 88–94.

MCCOLLEY, WALTER SCOTT. "The Vestal Virgins of Education," *Clearing House* (December, 1936), Vol. XI, pp. 195–200.

NEWBURN, HARRY K. "The Preparation of Secondary School Teachers: II. Implementation of Reforms within the High Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly* (October, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 188–193.

ODENWELLER, A. L. *Predicting the Quality of Teaching*, Contributions to Education, No. 676. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936. 158 pages.

"The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (March, 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp. 51–79.

STEVENS, S. N., and HAMRIN, S. A. "Interviewing the Prospective Teacher," *American School Board Journal* (June, 1931), Vol. LXXXII, pp. 59–60.

STODDARD, A. J. "The Selection of Teachers from the National Viewpoint," *Educational Record* (January, 1940), Vol. XXI, Supplement No. 13, pp. 144–151.

STUIT, DEWEY B. "Scholarship as a Factor in Teaching Success," *School and Society* (September 18, 1937), Vol. XLVI, pp. 382–384.

UHLER, WILLIAM P., JR. "Selecting the Teacher of Physical Education," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1935), Vol. XCI, pp. 18–19.

WAITS, L. A. "A Study of the Comparative Efficiency of Single and Married Women as Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (November, 1932), Vol. XVIII, pp. 630–633.

WESSEL, HERMAN M "More about the Vestal Virgins," *Clearing House* (February, 1937), Vol. XI, pp. 329–332.

V · ASSIGNING THE STAFF

ANDERSON, E. W. "The Teaching Load of the Beginner in High School," *Educational Research Bulletin* (October 3, 1928), Vol VII, pp. 280–281.

COOKE, DENNIS H. *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, Chap. VIII, pp. 229–264. Benj. H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1939.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Subject Matter Preparation of High School Teachers," *North Central Association Quarterly* (April, 1938), Vol. XII, pp. 466–471.

Bibliography

DOUGLASS, HARL R., and TAYLOR, W. "Light Loads and Heavy: Measurements in Montana High Schools," *Nation's Schools* (August, 1936), Vol. XVIII, pp. 35–37.

EDMONSON, J. B. "How to Lighten the Teaching Load," *Journal of Education* (October, 1922), Vol XCVI, pp. 325–326.

EVANS, RALPH F. "A Study of Teacher Assignment Practices in Secondary Schools of the North Central Association," *North Central Association Quarterly* (January, 1942). Vol. XVI, pp. 271–291.

FROST, NORMAN. "What Teaching Load?" *American School Board Journal* (March, 1941), Vol CII, pp. 43–45.

KRENERICK, H C. "A Single-Period Laboratory, A Demonstrated Success," *School Science and Mathematics* (May, 1935), Vol XXXV, pp 468–476.

LANGFITT, R EMERSON. *The Daily Schedule and High-School Organization*, Chaps. III, IV, V. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

POTTHOFF, E. F. "Teaching Combinations," *North Central Association Quarterly* (April, 1938), Vol XII, pp. 456–466.

ROTHWELL, ANGUS B. "Spreading the Teacher Extra-Curricular Load," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (April, 1941), Vol. XXV, pp 57–60.

TATE, M. W. "The Induction of Secondary-School Teachers," *School Review* (March, 1943), Vol LI pp 150–157

"The Teacher looks at Teacher Load," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (November, 1939), Vol XVII, pp 223–270.

TRITT, W. W., and KEYES, M. M. "Estimating Teaching Loads by Means of Subject Coefficients," *Nation's Schools* (April, 1930), Vol. V, pp. 61–65.

VI · CONSTRUCTING THE SCHOOL SCHEDULE

BONECUTTER, O. E. "Schedule Making made Easier," *School Executive* (April, 1941), Vol LX, pp 14, 29.

BRYAN, ROY C. "A New Method of Schedule-Making," *School Review* (June, 1942), Vol. L, pp. 444–455

BUTTERFIELD, E. E. "A Procedure for Assigning High-School Pupils to Classes," *School Review* (September, 1934), Vol XLII, pp 532–540.

CLEVENGER, A. W. "The Long-Period Daily Class Schedule for High Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly* (April, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 456–461.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "Making the Daily Schedule, and Opening and Closing the School Year," Chap. VI in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

FOSTER, H H "Making the Class Schedule in the Smaller High School," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1932), Vol. LXXXV, pp. 45–46.

GILLIS, WILLIAM E. "Planning a Time Schedule," *American School Board Journal* (December, 1937), Vol. XCV, pp. 38–39.

GREEN, S. D. "Registration and Schedule Making," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1939), Vol. XCIX, pp. 50–51.

HAGENY, WILLIAM J. "Haldane's Study Day helps Extracurricular Activities," *Clearing House* (November, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 166–167.

HASKEW, L D. "Effect of Five-Subject Pupil Load upon School Performance," *High School Quarterly* (April, 1936), Vol. XXIV, pp. 161–164.

HUGHES, J. M., and HERRON, HARRY H. "Scheduling Practices in Four-Year High Schools," *School Review* (September, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 516–524.

KOOS, LEONARD V., and others. "Making the School Schedule," Chap. VIII, pp. 286–326, in *Administering the Secondary School.* The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. *The Daily Schedule and High-School Organization*, Chaps. I, VII, X, XI, and XII. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N WILLIAM *The Small High School at Work*, Chap. XXIII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

LEVINE, I. BERT. "Programming a City High School," *High Points* (February, 1938), Vol. XX, pp 25–32.

MCMILLIN, MARTHA. "Economy and the Hour Period," *American School Board Journal* (February, 1934), Vol LXXXVIII, p 50.

MAURE, RAYMOND. "The Hempstead High-School Overlapping Day," *American School Board Journal* (December, 1933), Vol LXXXVII, pp. 17–19.

NORD, GERALD E "Our School Tested 6 and 8 Period Days," *Clearing House* (October, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 108–110

PUCKETT, ROSWELL C. "The Daily Schedule," Chap. IV in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R Emerson Langfitt, editors), pp 85–116 The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

RICE, G. A., CONRAD, C. C., and FLEMING, M A. *The Administration of Public High Schools through their Personnel* pp. 291–292, 294–295, 330–336, 605–606. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

RICHARDSON, MYRON W *Making a High School Program.* World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1921. 68 pages.

RICKSECKER, C. W. "Check List of Steps used in Scheduling a Modern High School," *American School Board Journal* (September, 1931), Vol. LXXXIII, p. 61.

SCHMAELZLE, O. I. "The Fresno High-School Registration System," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1930), Vol. LXXXI, pp. 110–111.

WHITE, ROBERT, JR. "A Sectioning Program using Large Classes," *School Review* (May, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 355–362.

Bibliography

VII AND VIII · ORGANIZING AND IMPROVING THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

ALLEN, H. M. "The Commercial Department and School Placement," *Business Education World* (May, 1940), Vol. XX, pp 807–808.

ALLEN, RICHARD D. "A Counseling Program for the Voluntary Withdrawals," *High School Journal* (May, 1939), Vol. XXII, pp. 183–192.

ALLEN, RICHARD D. "How a Principal can Direct Guidance," *Occupations* (October, 1937), Vol. XVI. pp 15–20.

ALTSTETTER, M. L. "Guidance Service in Two Hundred Secondary Schools," *Occupations* (March, 1938), Vol XVI. pp. 513–520.

ASELTINE, JOHN. "Pupil Guidance," Chap. XVII in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors) The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

BABCOCK, CHESTER D. "A Vocational Information Workshop in High School," *Occupations* (December, 1941), Vol. XX, pp 182–183.

BAKER, HARRY LEIGH. "High-School Teachers' Knowledge of their Pupils," *School Review* (March, 1938), Vol XLVI, pp 175–190.

BELL, HOWARD M. *Matching Youth and Jobs.* American Council on Education, Washington, D C, 1940 277 pages.

BELTING, PAUL E, and CLEVENGER, A. W *The High School at Work*, Chap. XI. Rand, McNally & Company, Chicago, 1939.

BONAR, HUGH S "High-School Pupils List their Anxieties," *School Review* (September, 1942), Vol. L, pp 512–515.

BRAZELTON, CALANTHE. "Excessive Absence of High-School Girls," *School Review* (January, 1939), Vol XLVII, pp. 51–55.

BRUCKNER, GRACE. "Visit their Homes," *Clearing House* (December, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 210–211.

BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S. "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools," *Teachers College Record* (December, 1937), Vol. XXXIX, pp. 218–229.

BURNS, L. T. "Home Rooms and How they Function in Selected Schools," *School Activities* (January, 1939), Vol X, pp. 195–196.

CHAPMAN, PAUL W. *Guidance Programs for Rural High Schools*, United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No 203, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 3, 1940. Government Printing Office, Washington, D C. 58 pages.

CLAYTON, F. L. "A Course in the Problems of Adolescents for Adolescents," *Social Studies* (February, 1942), Vol. XXXIII, pp 66–67

COLE, ROBERT C. *Vocational Guidance for Boys: A Program for Schools and Social Agencies.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1941. 252 pages.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN C. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1938. 535 pages.

DALE, TRACEY E., and SMITH, GLENN E. "Guidance in St. Joseph," *School Executive* (October, 1941), Vol. LXI, pp. 12–15.

DETJEN, MARY E., and DETJEN, E. W. *Home Room Guidance Programs for the Junior High School Years.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1940. 509 pages.

DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C. "How to Organize and Conduct Career Conferences," *Occupations* (December, 1939), Vol. XVIII, pp. 163–168.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The Home Room," Chap XII in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

FORNWALT, RUSSELL J. "Pupil Personnel Records," *School Executive* (May, 1941), Vol. LX. pp 28–29.

FREDENBURGH, F. A. "Trends in Guidance and Student Personnel," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (April, 1941), Vol. XXVII, pp 241–258.

FROEHLICH, CLIFFORD. "The Home Economics Teacher and Guidance," *Journal of Home Economics* (February, 1942), Vol XXXIV, pp. 88–91.

GERMANE, CHARLES E., and GERMANE, EDITH G. *Personnel Work in High School: A Program for the Guidance of Youth—Educational, Social, and Vocational.* Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1941. 600 pages.

HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E. *Guidance in the Secondary School.* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. 465 pages.

HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E., and O'BRIEN, M. W. *Guidance Practices in Public High Schools.* McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois, 1940. 68 pages.

HAWK, HERBERT C. "Enrollment Guidance in the Winfield High School," *American School Board Journal* (October, 1939), Vol. XCIX, pp 56, 92

HAWKINS, L. S., JAGER, H. A., and RUCH, G. M. *Occupational Information and Guidance: Organization and Administration.* United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No 204, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 1. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1939. 181 pages.

HECK, ARCH O. "Pupil-Personnel Work," *Nation's Schools* (July, 1941), Vol. XXVII, pp. 53–55.

HERBST, R. L. "Can Success in High School be Predicted at the End of Grade IX?" *School Review* (September, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 508–515.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Guidance Functions of the Principal," Chap. V, and "Projecting a Guidance Organization," Chap. VI, in *Duties of School Principals.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and HAND, HAROLD C. *Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. 260 pages.

KOCH, HARLAN C. "Shifting Emphases in the Problems of Pupils in Certain Michigan High Schools," *School Review* (February, 1943), Vol. LI, pp. 79–84.

Bibliography

KOOS, L. V., and KEFAUVER, G. N. *Guidance in Secondary Schools.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1937. 626 pages.

LEFEVER, D. WELTY, TURRELL, ARCHIE M., and WEITZEL, HENRY I. *Principles and Techniques of Guidance.* Ronald Press Company, New York, 1941. 522 pages.

MCGAREY, D. G., and SERVICE, C. A. "An Orientation Institute for High-School Freshmen," *Occupations* (December, 1940), Vol. XIX, pp. 194–198.

MCKOWN, HARRY C. "Encouraging Trends in Home-Room Guidance," *High School Journal* (May, 1940), Vol. XXIII, pp. 213–217.

MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Home Room Guidance.* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1934. 448 pages.

MARTENS, ELISE H. *Clinical Organization for Child Guidance within the Schools*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, 1939. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

MUNSON, G. E., and SCHLOERB, L. J. *High School Course in Self-Appraisal and Careers.* Bureau of Child Study, Board of Education, Chicago, 1941. 107 pages.

MURRAY, SISTER M. TERESA GERTRUDE, O.S.B. *Vocational Guidance in Catholic Secondary Schools: A Study of Development and Present Status*, Contribution to Education, No 754. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1938. 164 pages.

MYERS, GEORGE E. *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance.* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. 377 pages.

The Occupational Follow-up and Adjustment Service Plan. Occupational Adjustment Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, New York, 1940. 96 pages.

OLSEN, EDWARD G. "The Use of Local Resources in Guidance," *School and Society* (March 29, 1941), Vol. LIII, pp. 387–391.

ROBINSON, THOMAS E. "The Accumulative Case Study," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (January, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 288–293.

ROEMER, JOSEPH, and HOOVER, OLIVER. *The Dean of Boys in High School.* The American Book Company, New York, 1939. 94 pages.

ROSENBERRY, ETHEL. "Each Freshman Girl has a Big Sister," *Clearing House* (October, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 92–96.

ROSENSTENGEL, W. E., and DIXON, FRED B. "A Program for Giving Occupational Information in a Senior High School," *American School Board Journal* (May, 1940), Vol. C, pp. 62–80.

ROSS, JACOB M. "The Home Room Period in the Senior High School," *High Points* (October, 1940), Vol. XXII, pp. 45–52.

RUCH, GILES M., and SEGEL, DAVID. *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance.* Publication of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, United States Office of Education, 1939. Mimeographed. 112 pages.

SCARPITTO, MICHAEL. "Placement Bureau," *Clearing House* (April, 1942), Vol. XVI, pp. 473–475.

SEGEL, DAVID. *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 3, 1938. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *High School and Life*, Chap. IX. New York Regents' Inquiry. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

STECKEL, MINNIE L. "Vitalizing Vocational Guidance in the Secondary Schools," *Secondary Education* (May, 1937), Vol VI, pp. 114–117.

STRANG, RUTH. *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*. Harper & Brothers, New York. 1941. 362 pages.

STRANG, RUTH. "Guiding the Guidance Program in our Smaller Schools," *Nation's Schools* (January, 1936), Vol. XVII, pp. 18–21.

STRANG, RUTH. *Pupil Personnel and Guidance*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940. 356 pages.

STURTEVANT, SARAH M. "Some Disturbing Conflicts between Theory and Practice in Guidance," *School and Society* (May 22, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 697–707.

SUPER, DONALD E. "Vocational Surveys of the Community," *From School to Work* (March, 1941), Vol. IX, pp. 9–14.

SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "A Plea for the Integration of School Guidance Activities," *Teachers College Record* (May, 1937), Vol. XXXVIII, pp. 686–710.

THAYER, V. T., ZACHRY, CAROLINE B., and KOTINSKY, RUTH. *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, Chap. X. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Case-Study Procedures in Guidance," *School Review* (October, 1938), Vol. XLVI, pp. 602–610.

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Planning and Administering a Testing Program," *School Review* (April, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 253–267.

TURNEY, A. H., and COLLINS, FLOYD I. "Improving the Personality of High-School Seniors," *Journal of Educational Psychology* (October, 1940), Vol. XXXI, pp. 550–553.

TWISS, RUTH M. *When I Go to Work*. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1940. 381 pages.

VAN ALSTYNE, DOROTHY. "A Record for Describing Attitudes and Behavior in the High School." *Journal of Educational Research* (December, 1941), Vol. XXXV, pp. 276–286.

WELLER, GERALD M. "Counsellors Serve our Teachers," *Clearing House* (December, 1942), Vol. XVII, pp. 203–206.

WHIPPLE, GUY M. (Editor). *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1938. 313 pages.

WILE, IRA S. "The Visiting Teacher: Interpreting the School to the Home and the Home to the School," *Mental Hygiene* (July, 1934), Vol. XVIII, pp. 380–392.

WILLIS, CHARLES W., and HENLEY, ROBERT C. "Real Interviews for High-School Seniors," *Clearing House* (April, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp. 464–466.

IX AND X · ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING STUDENT ACTIVITIES

ASHBY, L. W. "Making High-School Graduation Significant," *American School Board Journal* (March, 1933) Vol LXXXVI, pp. 23–24.

BACKUS, BERTIE. "The Student Council," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (December, 1941), Vol. XXV, pp 11–21.

BAKER, G. DERWOOD. "Hobby Clubs in the South Pasadena Junior High School," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (February, 1936), Vol. X, pp 334–337.

BATESON, W. HOWARD, and LORENZ, EDWARD R. "Auditorium Social Arts in the Junior High School," *Secondary Education* (May, 1939), Vol. VIII, p 143.

BRAGNER, WILLIAM E. "Control of the Extra-Curricular Finances," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (April, 1941), Vol. XXV pp. 36–38.

BRAUCHER, W E. "Sports Clubs for Non-Athletes in High Schools," *Athletic Journal* (September, 1939), Vol. XX, p 40.

BROGUE, ELLEN B. "Organizing a Council," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1940), Vol. XXIV, pp. 30–76.

BROWN, WILLIAM H. "The Commencement Pageant—An Educational Experience," *Secondary Education* (May, 1939), Vol. VIII, p. 175.

CAMPBELL, LAURENCE R. "School Publications: Asset or Liability?" *California Journal of Secondary Education* (December, 1940), Vol. XV, pp. 485–487.

CLEMENT, J. A. "Purposes and Practices of Student Activities," *North Central Association Quarterly* (January, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp. 280–288.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, pp. 43, 44, and 46. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

COSS, CLAY. "Discussion Clubs for Students," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (October, 1938), Vol. XXII, pp. 27–34.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN C. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*, Chaps. X, XI, and XIII. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1938.

DAHLBERG, WALFRED A. "The Debate Idea can be Saved," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (April, 1935), Vol. IX, pp. 497–499.

DENN, WENDELL E. "The High-School Assembly as a Means of Teaching Democratic Ideals," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* (November-December. 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp. 99-104.

EDMONSON, J B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The School Assembly," Chap. XIV; "Student Organizations and Activities," Chap. XV; "Coordination of a Program of Extracurricular Activities," Chap. XVI, in *Administration of the Modern Secondary School.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

FORSYTHE, CHARLES E. *The Administration of High School Athletics.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1939. 414 pages.

FROULA, V. K. "A Phase of Student Guidance," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (February, 1938), Vol. XXII, pp. 28-32.

GALVIN, EILEEN H., and WALKER, M. EUGENIA. *Assemblies for Junior and Senior High Schools* (Revised). Professional and Technical Press, New York, 1935. 366 pages.

GARRETSON, O. K. "Expensive Annuals," *School Review* (February, 1934), Vol. XLII, pp. 118-121.

GATES, GROVER A. "The Allegiance we Pay to King Football," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (January, 1937), Vol. XII, pp. 54-59.

HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E. *Guidance in the Secondary School,* Chaps. XII and XIII. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

HANSON, C. C. "The Visiting Pupil Plan," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1940), Vol. XXVI, pp. 53-54.

HAUSLE, EUGENIE C. "Objectives of a Program of Extra-Curricular Activities in High School," *School and Society* (April 22, 1939), Vol. XLIX, pp. 510-512.

HELLER, NINA A. "A Study of the Junior High School Assembly," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (February, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 356-361.

HULBERT, CARL M., and DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Commencement Activities and Practices in Wisconsin High Schools," *School Review* (May, 1934), Vol. XLII, pp. 346-355.

HULL, J. DAN. "Organization of Extracurricular Activities," Chap. XI, and "Direction of Extracurricular Activities," Chap. XII, in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

JESSEN, CARL A. "School Tours," *School Life* (April, 1939), Vol. XXIV, pp. 199-200.

JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. "Clubs in the Small High School," *High School Journal* (October, 1940), Vol. XXIII, pp. 279-283.

JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. "Critical Problems in the Administration of Student

Activities," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (December, 1941), Vol. XXV, pp. 11–21.

JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. (Chairman). "Report of the Committee on Pupil Activities," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (May, 1938), Vol. XXII, pp. 42–48.

KEHOE, R. J. "High School Travel Clubs," *Journal of Geography* (March, 1938), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 109–111; also, *Secondary Education* (February, 1938), Vol. VII, pp 40–42.

KOCH, HARLAN C. "Proposed Principles of Internal Control of High-School Athletics," *School Review* (September, 1937), Vol XLV, pp. 525–528.

LESSER, EDWARD J "A Boys' Club Study The Good Will Club of Hartford, Connecticut," *Journal of Educational Sociology* (October, 1938), Vol. XII, pp 87–92.

MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Extracurricular Activities*, pp. 1–45, 650–724. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1937.

PIERCE, PAUL R. "Reorganizing Extra-Curriculum Activities—A High-School Program," *School Review* (February, 1938), Vol. XLVI, pp. 118–127.

POWERS, F. R., and HERDA, F. J. "Conflicting Ideas of Commencement," *Nation's Schools* (April, 1937), Vol. XIX, pp. 28–29.

RICE, CECIL L., and HAUBERG, C. A. "Cristobal Evolves an Activities Point System," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1940), Vol. XXVI, pp. 58–60.

RIGGS, LAWRENCE "An Opportunity for the School in Community Cooperation: The Coordinating Council," *School and Society* (May 11, 1940), Vol. LI, pp. 598–603.

RITTER, A. C. "The House System," *School* (Second Edition) (October, 1941), Vol. XXX, pp. 114–118.

RIVETT, B. J. "The Relation of Athletics to the High-School Program," *North Central Association Quarterly* (January, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp. 275–279.

ROEMER, JOSEPH, ALLEN, C. F., and YARNELL, D. A. *Basic Student Activities*, Chaps. VI, VII, VIII, and IX. Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1935.

ROSS, JACOB M. "Organization and Direction of the Staff," Chap. X in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

RUFI, JOHN. "Vitalizing the School Program for All Youth: Promising Efforts in This Area," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (February, 1940), Vol. XXIV, pp. 66–70.

SHANNON, J. R. "Careers of High School Teachers and High School Scholars," *School Review* (November, 1929), Vol. IX, pp. 656–667.

SMITH, A. P. "High-School Movie Production," *Journal of the National Education Association* (January, 1940), Vol. XXIX, pp. 23–24.

SMITH, ENID S. "Danger Signals in the Club Program," *Educational Method* (November, 1937), Vol. XVII, pp. 80–83.

SMITH, ENID S. "A Procedure for Appraising Clubs," *School Review* (February, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 108–118.

SMITH, HETH G. "Why we Discontinued or Curtailed Honor Awards," *Clearing House* (January, 1937), Vol. XI, pp. 283–286.

SNYDER, TROY A. "The School Carnival," *Clearing House* (November, 1938), Vol. XIII, pp. 160–163

STENIUS, ARTHUR. "The High School Newsreel," *High School Journal* (November, 1935), Vol. XVIII, pp 233–237.

"Student Activities in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (April, 1941), Vol. XXV, p. 61.

SWAN, WILLIS A. "Our School Newspapers," *Phi Delta Kappan* (January, 1938), Vol XX, pp. 155–157.

WATKINS, THOMAS W "A Commencement Designed to Interpret the Pupil," *Nation's Schools* (April, 1941), Vol. XXVII, pp. 20–22.

XI · DISCIPLINE AND CITIZENSHIP AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEM

BELTING, PAUL E., and CLEVENGER, A. W. *The High School at Work*, Chap. XII. Rand, McNally & Company, Chicago, 1939.

BRYAN, ROY C. "The Cumulative Discipline Record," *School Executive* (September, 1942), Vol. LXII, pp 12-14, 64

CARR, LOWELL J *Delinquency Control*. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1941. 447 pages

CARR, LOWELL J. "We may be Heading for a Juvenile Crime Wave." *Nation's Schools* (January, 1943), Vol. XXXI, pp. 18–20.

COREY, STEPHEN M, and FROEHLICH, GUSTAV J. "A High-School Staff Studies Pupil Responsibility," *School Review* (October, 1942), Vol. L, pp. 568–576.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN CARR. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*, Chap XIV. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1938.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "Discipline," Chap. X in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

EGINTON, DANIEL P. "Progressive Principles of Discipline," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (January, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 259–268.

FISHER, MARY S. "Delinquent Behavior in War Times," *Frontiers of Democracy* (November, 1942), Vol. IX, pp 39–41.

GARINGER, ELMER H. *Administration of Discipline in the High School*, Contributions to Education, No. 686, especially Chaps. V and IX. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936.

Bibliography

GARINGER, ELMER H. "Social Control and Discipline," Chap. XVI in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

KRANTZ LAVERN. "Administrative Procedure for the Control of Discipline in the High School," *American School Board Journal* (September, 1935), Vol XCI, p 48.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chap. VIII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

LOGASA, HANNAH. *The Study Hall in Junior and Senior High Schools*, Chap. VII. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

LOWRY, W J. "Does School Discipline Contribute to Delinquency?" *Phi Delta Kappan* (September, 1936), Vol XIX, pp. 5-13.

RICE, C. A , CONRAD, C. C., and FLEMING, M. A. *The Administration of Public High Schools through their Personnel*, pp. 162-163, 234-237, 316-318, 340-342, 402-403, 452. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

RIVLIN, HARRY N. "The Essentials of Sound Discipline" and "The Basis of Classroom Control" in *Educating for Adjustment*, pp. 262-284. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc , New York, 1936.

ROSENFIELD, HARRY N. "The School in Juvenile Delinquency Proceedings," *Nation's Schools* (March, 1943), Vol. XXXI, pp. 18-19.

XII · PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL

BAKER, GENEVA E. "Student Councils in Illinois," *School Review* (December, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp 771-780.

BECKER, WILLIAM J. "Our Boys Run the Shop Classes," *Clearing House* (November, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp 169-171.

BLOUNT, GEORGE W. "Pupil Participation in School Management," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1940), Vol. XV, pp. 157-159.

BRAZELTON, CALANTHE M. "Dean's Committee," *Clearing House* (October, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 80-82.

BROGUE, ELLEN B , and JACOBSON, PAUL B. "Student Council Handbook," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1940), Vol. XXIV, pp. 1-184.

CHAMBERLIN, R. G "Extracurriculum Activities and Social Adjustment," *Secondary Education* (October, 1937), Vol. VI, pp. 149-152.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. "Intermediate Group Instruments of Social Control," Chap. XXIII in *High School Administration and Supervision*. The American Book Company, New York, 1934.

Educational Policies Commission. *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. The

National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., 1940. 486 pages.

GARINGER, E. H. *The Administration of Discipline in the High School*, Contributions to Education, No. 686, Chap. VI, pp. 50–60. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936.

GERNANT, LEONARD. "Kalamazoo's All-School Council," *Journal of Education* (May, 1937), Vol. CXX, pp. 226–227.

HAGENY, WILLIAM J. "24 Projects of our Student Council," *Clearing House* (December, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 236–238.

HARVEY, C. C. "Activities and Projects of Student Councils," *School Activities* (September, 1939), Vol. XI, pp. 10–12, 37–38.

HARVEY, C. C. "Fifty Student Council Activities," *School Activities* (December, 1941), Vol. XIII, pp. 133–134.

HOLT, HARVEY J. "Pupil Participation in California High Schools," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (January, 1938), Vol. XXII, pp. 43–45.

JARVIE, L. L. "Students Take Part in Policy Making," *Clearing House* (December, 1938), Vol. XIII, p. 223.

KIRKENDALL, LESTER A. "Student Government—Shadow vs. Substance," *Social Education* (March, 1941), Vol. V, pp. 182–186.

MESSER, MARIE RITA. "Training for Civic Leadership," *School Activities* (January–February, 1937), Vol. VIII, pp. 195–197, 243–245, 291–293.

MEYER, FRANK. "Judging Student Government," *Clearing House* (April, 1942), Vol XVI, pp. 451–453.

MEYER, FRANK. "Pupils Share in Control of our Small Junior High School," *Clearing House* (October, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp 87–91.

MEYER, FRANK. "You Want to Establish a Student Council," *School Activities* (September, 1941), Vol. XIII, pp. 5–6.

SHELDON, JAMES A. "Pupil Participation in School Control in High Schools of Iowa," *School Review* (March, 1935), Vol. XLIII, pp. 189–197.

STEVENS, PAUL C., and FARQUHAR, J. NOBLE. "Jobs is Fun!" *Clearing House* (September, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 27–30.

XIII · PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION RELATED TO INSTRUCTION—STIMULATING AND DIRECTING PUPILS' STUDY

BRINK, W. G. *Directing Study Activities in Secondary Schools*, Chap. VI, pp. 207–260. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., Garden City, New York, 1937.

CLEVENGER, A. W. "The Long-Period Daily Class Schedule for High Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly* (April, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 456–461.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Some Dangers of the Testing Movement," *Journal of the National Education Association* (January, 1934), Vol. XXIII, pp. 17–18.

Bibliography

FARGO, LUCILE F. *The Library in the School* (Third Edition). American Library Association, Chicago, 1939. 552 pages.

HORTON, MARION. "Teacher-Librarian Co-operation," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (October, 1937), Vol. XXI, pp. 34–36.

JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. *The Secondary School Library*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 17. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933.

LAYCOCK, SAMUEL R., and RUSSELL, DAVID H. "An Analysis of Thirty-eight How-to-Study Manuals," *School Review* (May, 1941), Vol. XLIX, pp. 370–379.

LEEVY, J. ROY. "Revamping the Library in Small High Schools," *Nation's Schools* (November, 1940), Vol. XXVI, p. 53.

LOGASA, HANNAH. *The Study Hall in Junior and Senior High Schools.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938. 190 pages.

MINSTER, MAUD. "Efficiency in the School Library," *Clearing House* (November, 1939), Vol. XIV, pp. 154–158.

NORD, GERALD E. "Our School Tested 6 and 8 Period Days," *Clearing House* (October, 1941), Vol. XVI, pp. 108–110.

WILSON, LOUIS R. "The Integration of Library Service with the School Curriculum," *School Review* (November, 1934), Vol. XLII, pp. 657–666.

XIV · PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION RELATED TO INSTRUCTION: ADJUSTING TO THE INDIVIDUAL

BARRY, LINDA, and PRATT, MARJORIE. "A Remedial-Reading Program in a Public High School," *School Review* (January, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 17–27.

BENT, R. K., and KRONENBERG, H. H. *Principles of Secondary Education*, Chaps. XI and XII. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941.

BIDDLE, ANNA E. "Low I.Q.'s in the High School," *School Review* (February, 1927), Vol. XXXV, pp. 134–145.

BILLETT, ROY O. "Causes of Failure in High School," *School Review* (September, 1936), Vol. XLIV, p. 550.

BILLETT, ROY O. *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 13. Part I, pp. 16–225: "Homogeneous Grouping and Special Classes"; Part IV, Chap. II, pp. 462–471: "Plans for Promotion." Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933.

BLAIR, GLENN MYERS. "Remedial-Reading Programs in Senior High Schools," *School Review* (January, 1941), Vol. XLIX, pp. 32–41.

BURNHAM, W. H. "The Problem of Failure," Chap. XII in *The Wholesome*

Personality, pp. 407–432. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1932.

DAWLING, HELEN I. "Past and Present Curriculum Programs for Gifted Children," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* (September-October, 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp 6–10.

DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Certain Aspects of the Problem of Where we Stand with Reference to the Practicability of Grouping," *Journal of Educational Research* (January, 1933), Vol. XXVI, pp. 344–353.

DOWNES, JAMES E. "An Experiment in Meeting the Needs of Superior Students," *Social Education* (April, 1940), Vol IV, pp. 247–249

DRAKE, C. ELWOOD. "Reading and Remedial Reading in a Junior High School," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1939), Vol. XXIII, pp. 100–110.

FARNSWORTH, BURTON K., and CASPER, JESSE B. "A Study of Pupil Failure in High School," *School Review* (May, 1941). Vol. XLIX, pp. 380–383.

HECK, ARCH O. *The Education of Exceptional Children: Its Challenge to Teachers, Parents, and Laymen.* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940. 536 pages.

HORST, H. M. "Student Tutors Reduce High School Failures," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1940), Vol. CI, pp. 51–52.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Educational Diagnosis and Remedial Treatment," Chap. XVII in *Duties of School Principals.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

MONES, LEON. "Cleveland Junior High Courses for Low I.Q.'s," *Clearing House* (April, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp 451–457.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. "The Slow-Learning Pupil," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (December, 1940), Vol. XXIV, pp. 38–45.

NOCK, ANNA W. "Low I.Q.'s in the High School," *School Review* (November, 1930), Vol. XXXVIII, pp. 673–680.

ORLEANS, JOSEPH B. "The Gifted Pupil at George Washington High School," *High Points* (January, 1940), Vol XXII, pp. 17–42.

RICHMAN, HARRY H. "Drop-Outs," *Clearing House* (May, 1939), Vol. XIII, pp. 548–550.

ROCK, R. T. "A Critical Study of Current Practices in Ability Grouping," *Catholic University of America Educational Research Bulletin* (May-June, 1929), Vol. IV, Nos. 5–6. 132 pages.

ROSS, C. C., and HOOKS, N. T. "How shall we Predict High-School Achievement?" *Journal of Educational Research* (October, 1930), Vol. XXII, pp. 184–197.

SARBAUGH, MARY E. "Repeating Courses on the High-School Level," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (February, 1935), Vol. XXI, pp. 115–120.

SHANNON, J. R. "Effects of Homogeneous Grouping on Pupil Attention," *Teachers College Journal* (January, 1941), Vol. XII, pp. 49–53.

SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Homogeneous Grouping," *Teachers College Record* (March, 1931), Vol. XXXII, pp. 501–517.

XV · THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS OFFICE

ARMACOST, GEORGE H. *High School Principals' Annual Reports: A Study of Typewritten, Duplicated and Printed Annual Reports of High School Principals to the Superintendent and Board of Education, and to the Public*, Contributions to Education, No. 807. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1940. 180 pages.

BURT, VINTON. "A Principal's Check List," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1941), Vol. CIII, p. 54.

COLEMAN, BARBARA F. "The Position of Principal's Secretary in the Management of the School," *American School Board Journal* (May, 1941), Vol CII, p. 56.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The High School Office," Chap. VIII in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

EGINTON, DANIEL P. "The Importance of a Work Program or Budget," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1934), Vol. LXXXIX, p. 17.

KITTLE, H. D. "Annual Jobs of the High School Office," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1934), Vol. XCVII, pp. 52–53.

KOOS, LEONARD V., and others. "Office Standards, Procedures, and Forms," Chap. XV in *Administering the Secondary School*. The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR. FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chap. XXII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM, and BRUECKMAN, J. G. "The Secondary School Clerkship," *School Executive* (July, 1937), Vol. LVI, pp. 443–444.

PUCKETT, ROSWELL C. "Opening and Closing the School Year," Chap. III in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "The Administration of the Budget in Secondary Schools," *School Review* (October, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 589–597.

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "Labor-Saving Devices used in Office Administration in Secondary Schools," *School Review* (December, 1928), Vol. XXXVI, pp. 736–744

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. *Office Practices in Secondary Schools*. Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., Chicago, 1930. 240 pages.

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "Practices in General Office Administration in Secondary Schools," *School Review* (November, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 687–696.

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "The Professional Files of Secondary-School Principals," *School Review* (February, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 96–106.

WAKEFIELD, R. M. "A Filing System for the High School Office," *American School Board Journal* (October, 1926), Vol. LXXIII, pp. 50, 147.

WATSON, P. M. "Office Practice and Management," Chap. V in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

YORK, O. A. "A Good Beginning and a Good Ending," *School Executive* (December, 1937), Vol. LVII, pp. 188–189.

XVI AND XVII · PERSONNEL RECORDS AND RELATED PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION

ANDRUS, ETHEL PERCY. "A Practical and Economical Report Card," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (April, 1938), Vol. XIII, pp. 209–211.

ASELTINE, JOHN. "Pupil Welfare," Chap. XVIII in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

BATCHELDER, HOWARD T. "Report Cards: Compromise based on Survey," *Clearing House* (May, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp. 502–524.

BRANTLEY, G. D. "An Analysis of Current Practices in the Use of the Report Card," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (January, 1942), Vol. XXVI, pp. 67–76.

BURSCH, JAMES F. "Factors associated with Non-Attendance of Pupils in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1936), Vol. XX, pp. 26–32.

COOKE, DENNIS H. *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, Chap. VI, pp. 150–182. Benj. H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1939.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, pp. 81–96 and 160. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN C. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*, Chap. XII. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1938.

DURLAND, EDNA, LEISTOKOW, LYDIA, and DALTHORP, CHARLES. "In Lieu of Report Cards," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1936), Vol. XVIII, pp. 27–30.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The Physical and Health Education Program and its Administration," Chap. XIII, and "Appraising and Reporting Progress of Students," Chap. XXI, in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

EMBREE, ROYAL B., JR. "The Cumulative-Record Card as an Aid to Research," *School Review* (June, 1939), Vol. XLVII, pp. 425–430.

EVANS, ROBERT O. *Practices, Trends, and Issues in Reporting to Parents on the Welfare of the Child in School.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1938. 98 pages.

FISHER, MAY ELLEN, and others. "Reports and Records," *University High School Journal* (June, 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp. 187–201.

GARINGER, ELMER H. "Pupil Accounting," Chap. XV in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940

HARTLEY, HENRY H "Report Card Trends in the West," *Nation's Schools* (November, 1939), Vol. XXIV, pp. 51–53.

HILKERT, ROBERT N. "Parents and Cumulative Records," *Educational Record* (January, 1940), Vol XXI, Supplement No. 13, pp. 172–183.

KEENE, CHARLES H. "Should Pupils be Excused from Physical Education? When? How? By Whom? Why?" *Journal of Health and Physical Education* (November, 1935), Vol. VI, pp. 14–16.

KOVAR, DAN R. "Controlling Tardiness," *Clearing House* (March, 1936), Vol. X, pp. 424–426.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chaps. VII and IX. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

MARTIN, EDWIN D. "Study of Absentees and Absences in Junior High School," *School and Society* (March 29, 1941), Vol. LIII, p. 423.

MITCHELL, J. C. "Whose Responsibility is High-School Athletics?" *American School Board Journal* (September, 1936), Vol. XCIII, pp. 23–25.

MOORE, FRED, and STUDEBAKER, JOHN W. *Organization and Administration of School Health Work*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1939. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1940. 67 pages.

MOOSE, CARLETON A. "The Milne Report Card," *School Executive* (September, 1941), Vol. LXI, pp. 38–39.

MULHOLLAND, V. M. "Greenville Improves Pupil-Progress Reports," *High School Journal* (January, 1940), Vol. XXIII, pp. 17–20.

SNOKE, J. S. "Informative Pupil Reporting," *School Executive* (December, 1941), Vol. LXI, pp. 24–25.

XVIII · BUSINESS ACCOUNTING AND ADMINISTRATION

BATEMAN, RICHARD M. "Put Activities on an Organized Basis," *School Executive* (July, 1940), Vol. LIX, p. 9.

BENT, R. K., and KRONENBERG, H. H. *Principles of Secondary Education*, Chap XVI. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941.

BROWN, EDWIN J. *Secondary-School Administration*, Chap. XIII. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1938.

CAREY, R. B. "A Budget Control Plan for Handling Student Activity Funds," *Nation's Schools* (April, 1933), Vol. XI, pp. 61–64.

CHENEY, RAY EUGENE. *Equipment Specifications for High Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 612. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1934. 88 pages.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "Budgeting and Accounting," Chap. IX, and "The School Library," Chap. XX, in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

EDWARDS, G. ZAHNOR. "Practical School Cafeteria Business Management," *Practical Home Economics* (January, 1940), Vol. XVIII, pp. 20–21.

FUNKHOUSER, O. W. "School Stores and Selling Practices in High Schools in Illinois," *School Review* (March, 1936), Vol. XLIV, pp. 202–211.

GANZEL, DEWEY A. "A Plan for School Budgetary Procedures," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1940), Vol. CI, pp. 37–38.

HERRON, MIRIAM. "Ten-Year Plan for Libraries," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1939), Vol. XXIV, pp. 39–40.

HIBBERT, R. W. "The Distribution of Public School Supplies," *American School and University*, Vol. IX, pp. 161–164. American School Publishing Corporation, New York, 1937.

HIBBERT, R. W. "Improved Methods of Selecting Equipment and Supplies," *American School Board Journal* (September, 1937), Vol. XCV, pp. 44–46, 100–101.

HOVDE, HERMAN O. "Protecting Student Finances," *Business Education World* (May, 1940), Vol. XX, pp. 801–803.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Business Duties of Principals," Chap. XXI in *Duties of School Principals*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

MASON, H. V. "The Accounting of Extra-Curricular Activity Funds," *School Activities* (September, 1939), Vol XI, pp 7–9, 45–46.

MASON, RUTH E. "Budgeting the Funds of Pupil Organizations," *School Review* (February, 1934), Vol. XLII, pp. 111–117.

PYGMAN, C. H. "The Purchase and Distribution of Textbooks and Supplies," *American School Board Journal* (May, 1941), Vol CII, p 45

RATHBONE, A. J. "Financial Forms for a Small High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (February, 1939), Vol XIV, pp. 85–90.

REAVIS, W. C., and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "The Administration of the Budget in Secondary Schools," *School Review* (October, 1929), Vol. XXXVII, pp. 589–597.

SAMSON, NELLIE. "Internal Accounting for Extra-Curricular Activities," *Balance Sheet* (May, 1941), Vol. XXII, pp. 392–395.

SUFFIELD, C. L. "Instructional Supply Administration," *American School Board Journal* (April, 1939), Vol. XCVIII, pp. 25–28.

TAYLOR, ROBERT B. "Management of School Supplies and Equipment,"

Chap. VIII in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

XIX · SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE BUILDING

ANDERSON, VERNON E. "Educational Possibilities of the Noon Hour," *Minnesota Journal of Education* (March, 1936), Vol. XVI, pp. 207–208.

ASHTON, DUDLEY. "Noon Hour Coeducational Recreation," *Journal of Health and Physical Education* (September, 1939), Vol. X, pp. 396, 418–419.

AYER, J. WARREN. "Public Use of School Plants," *Nation's Schools* (April, 1937), Vol. XIX, pp. 64–66.

BACON, FRANCIS L., and LEACH, EDGAR S. "Developing a Safety Plan," *Safety Education* (April, 1940), Vol. XIX, pp. 344–346, 380–381.

BARROWS, ALICE, and SIMONSON, LEE. *The School Auditorium as a Theatre*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 4, 1939. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 51 pages.

BOWNE, MARY E. "Recreational Sports for the Noon Hour Program," *Journal of Health and Physical Education* (April, 1942), Vol. XIII, pp. 234–235, 267–268.

COHEN, BARNET. "The High School Cafeteria: A Challenge to the Modern Educator," *High Points* (June, 1935), Vol. XVII, pp. 23–28.

DEBONA, MERLE. "An Educational Program for the School Lunchroom," *Practical Home Economics* (October, 1942), Vol. XX, pp. 354–358.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The Administration of the School Plant," Chap. VII in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

FULLER, ALICE C. "The School Janitor and his Work," *American School Board Journal* (April, 1936), Vol. XCII, p. 43.

JACOBSON, PAUL B., and REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Administering the School Plant," Chap. XXII in *Duties of School Principals*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chap. XXVII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

LORENZ, E. R. "One Junior High School Solves the Noon-Hour Problems," *School Review* (April, 1936), Vol XLIV, pp. 251–254.

MONSEN, COURTNEY. "School Use by Outside Agencies," *Nation's Schools* (September, 1939), Vol. XXIV, pp. 26–27.

PEDERSON, KENNETH L. "Student Council Launches Noon-Hour Recreation Plan," *Clearing House* (October, 1939), Vol XIV, pp. 100–102.

REAVIS, W. C., and JUDD, CHARLES H. "Responsibilities for School Facilities," Chap. V in *The Teacher and Educational Administration*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942.

REEDER, WARD G. "The Place of the School Janitor in the Public-Relations Program," *American School Board Journal* (November, 1934), Vol. LXXXIX, pp. 27–28.

SELKE, ARTHUR C. "Dealing with Defacement," *Nation's Schools* (November, 1937), Vol. XX, p. 29.

TAYLOR, ROBERT B. "Management of the School Plant," Chap. VII in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

VILES, NELSON E. *Custodian at Work*. University Publishing Company. 391 pages.

XX · UTILIZING COMMUNITY DATA AND RELATIONSHIPS

BENT, R. K., and KRONENBERG, H. H. *Principles of Secondary Education*, Chaps. III, XVIII. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941.

CALVERT, MELLIE M. "For the Alumni: Our Grads are Part of the Family. Support our Games, Parties—and will be Loyal at the Polls," *Clearing House* (February, 1943), Vol. XVII, pp. 327–330.

COMSTOCK, ERNEST B. "Public Relations," Chap. XIX, and "Expansion of School Services," Chap. XX, in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

GOODYKOONTZ, BESS. *Know your Community as a Basis for Understanding the Schools' Problems*. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 57, *Know your School*. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C, 1941. 35 pages.

GOULD, STANLEY R. "How 50 Lincoln High Pupils Serve the Community," *Clearing House* (March, 1941), Vol. XV, p. 391.

GREENHOE, FLORENCE. *Community Contacts and Participation of Teachers: An Analysis of the Community Relationships of 9,122 Public School Teachers selected as a National Sample*. American Council on Public Affairs, Washington, D. C., 1941. 91 pages.

HARRAL, STEWART. "The Technique of Press Relations," *Nation's Schools* (August, 1939), Vol. XXIV, p. 18.

HAYDEN, SHELDON M. "Junior College as a Community Institution," *Junior College Journal* (October, 1939), Vol. X, pp. 70–73.

IRONS, J. RALPH. "Coordinating Councils and the Public Schools—Bibliography on Community Coordination," *School Executive* (January, 1942), Vol. LXI, pp. 22–23.

MITCHELL, MORRIS R. "The High School in Community Building," *Progressive Education* (December, 1939), Vol. XVI, pp. 544–550.

REEDER, WARD G. *An Introduction to Public School Relations*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1937.

SCOTT, DOROTHY D. "School-Community Experience," *Journal of Home Economics* (March, 1942), Vol. XXXIV, pp. 169–173.

SKEEN, ROY L. "Community Study and Educational Administration," *Journal of Educational Sociology* (March, 1940), Vol. XIII, pp. 403–410.

WALLACE, JAMES IRWIN. "The English Class 'Writes a Book' on the Community," *Clearing House* (March, 1940), Vol. XIV, pp. 413–416.

WILE, IRA S. "The Visiting Teacher: Interpreting the School to the Home and the Home to the School," *Mental Hygiene* (July, 1934), Vol. XVIII, pp. 380–392.

XXI · HIGH-SCHOOL PUBLICITY

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, pp. 17–38, 145–147. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940.

CORNELL, HELEN R. "Publicity through a Seventy-fifth Anniversary," *School Review* (June, 1931), Vol. XXXIX, pp. 461–467.

EDMONSON, J. B. "Cultivating Goodwill in the Community," *Journal of the National Education Association* (September, 1937), Vol. XXVI, p. 178.

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The Public Relations Program," Chap. XXII in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

FARLEY, BELMONT. *Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 16. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933. 113 pages.

FARLEY, BELMONT. *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 355. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1929. 136 pages.

"Films of School Activities for Parents' Meetings," *School Review* (September, 1936), Vol. XLIV, pp. 486–487.

GRINNELL, J. E. *Interpreting the Public Schools*, Chaps. II and III. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

GROCOCK, HARVEY B. "Effective Newspaper Publicity for the High School," *School Review* (March, 1939), Vol. XLVII, pp. 205–209.

HUGGETT, A. J. "Home Visiting—An Important Part of Public Relations," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1934), Vol. XIV, pp. 39–41.

JACOBS, LELAND B. "Making Friends for the School—What an English Teacher can Do," *Nation's Schools* (July, 1936), Vol. XVIII, pp. 27–28.

KOOS, LEONARD V., and others. "Secondary School and Community," Chap. XVII in *Administering the Secondary School*. The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON, CYR, FRANK W., and NEWSOM, N. WILLIAM. *The Small High School at Work*, Chaps. I, XVI, XVII, and XVIII. The American Book Company, New York, 1936.

MISNER, PAUL J. (Editor). Public Relations Number of *Education* (November, 1940), Vol. LXI, pp. 129–192.

MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Social Interpretation*, Chaps. V, VI, and XXIV. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

PETERSON, M. J. "The Teacher of Agriculture and Community Services," *Agricultural Education Magazine* (August, 1938), Vol. XI, p. 34.

SAUNDERS, CARLETON M. "Private School Reaches its Public," *School Executive* (September, 1940), Vol. LX, p. 28.

SEXSON, JOHN A. "Ballyhoo or Planned Publicity," *Nation's Schools* (March, 1938), Vol. XXI, p. 39.

SHANNON, J. R. "A Blood Transfusion for the P.T.A.," *Clearing House* (April, 1941), Vol. XV, pp. 468–470.

SHANNON, J. R., and others. "Problems that Principals would like to Lay before Parents," *School Review* (May, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 364–367.

STROBEL, JOSEPH R. "Vitalizing the P.T.A. through the Homeroom," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (December, 1935), Vol. X, pp. 206–209.

YOUNG, GEORGE P. "Teaching about the Public School in the Public School," *Colorado School Journal* (October, 1941), Vol. LVII, p. 38.

XXII · THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

ALTSTETTER, M. L. "Evaluating the Education of Administrative Heads of Secondary Schools," *School Review* (February, 1938), Vol. XLVI, pp. 108–117.

BOND, JESSE A. "Professional Responsibilities of High School Principals," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (April, 1940), Vol. XXVI, pp. 305–312.

BRIGGS, T. H "Some Characteristics of Secondary-School Principals," *School Review* (March, 1934), Vol. XLII, pp. 205–210.

BURKE, ARVID J. "Professional Courses for Secondary School Principals," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (October, 1934), Vol. XX, pp. 506–512.

"Certification Requirements for High School Principals," *School Review* (April, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 247–249.

COCKING, WALTER D. "Education of an Administrator," *Nation's Schools* (July, 1941), Vol. XXVII, pp. 31–32.

CROWLEY, F. M. *The Catholic High-School Principal: His Training, Experience, and Responsibilities.* Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, 1935. 253 pages.

CURTI, MERLE. "The Social Ideas of American Educators," Part X of *Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1935. 613 pages.

DOUGLASS, HARL R., and BOARDMAN, C. W. "Education and Growth of the

Supervisor," Chap. XXII in *Supervision in Secondary Schools.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1934.

ENSIGN, FOREST C. "Evolution of the High School Principalship," *School Review* (March, 1923), Vol. XXXI, pp. 179–190.

FERRISS, EMERY N., GAUMNITZ, W. H., and BRAMMELL, P. ROY. *The Smaller Secondary School,* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6, pp. 21–26. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933.

FOSTER, FRANK K. "The Junior-High-School Principalship," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1932), Vol. LXXXV, pp. 21–23.

HARTMANN, G. W. "Schoolmen and Progressivism," *Social Frontier* (January, 1936), Vol. II, pp 115–116.

HAWK, HERBERT C. "The Principal as a 'Trouble Shooter,'" *American School Board Journal* (February, 1941), Vol. CII, pp. 25–26.

KOCH, HARLAN C. "The High School Principal Looks at Himself," *School Review* (June, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 452–458.

LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. "The Principal and Administrative Practices," Chap. II in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

LINDER, IVAN H. "A Principal must Achieve his Leadership," *American School Board Journal* (December, 1939), Vol. XCIX, pp. 29–31.

NOHELTY, SALLY. "Educational Leadership from the Standpoint of a Classroom Teacher," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (September, 1939), Vol XXV, pp 443–455

PIERCE, PAUL R. "The Challenge of the High-School Principalship," *School Review* (December, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 739–745.

REAVIS, W. C. "An Appraisal of Secondary-School Administration," *School Review* (September, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 497–511.

SIFERT, EARL R. "The High School Principal," *Clearing House* (March, 1943), Vol. XVII, pp. 387–391.

SIFERT, EARL R. "The In-Service Training of High School Principals," *North Central Association Quarterly* (April, 1942), Vol. XVI, pp. 418–423.

SMITHEY, W. R. "What Constitutes a Good High-School Principal?" *American School Board Journal* (April, 1934), Vol. LXXXVIII, p. 15.

WETZEL, WILLIAM A. "The Principal and his School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (January, 1942), Vol. XXVI, pp. 29–48.

WORTH, CHARLES L. "The Selection of a High School Principal," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1941), Vol. CIII, pp. 49, 68.

XXIII · STAFF RELATIONSHIPS

APPLEGARTH, L. W. "Science Heads," *School Science and Mathematics* (December, 1932), Vol. XXXII, pp. 944–947.

BLUME, CLARENCE E. "Departmental Meetings in the Junior High School," *School Review* (June, 1940), Vol. XLVIII, pp. 451–459.

CHAMBERLAIN, LEO M. *The Teacher and School Administration*, Chap. XXI, pp. 625–643. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1936.

COOKE, D. H. *Administering the Teaching Personnel.* Benj. H. Sanborn and Company, Chicago, 1939. 348 pages.

DEWEY, JOHN. "Democracy and Educational Administration," *School and Society* (April 3, 1937), Vol. XLV, pp. 457–462.

Educational Policies Commission. "Administration," Chap. VI, pp. 331–377, in *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., 1940.

"Fundamental Principles of Personnel Organization and Control," *American School Board Journal* (February, 1934), Vol. LXXXVIII, pp. 25–26.

GOULD, ARTHUR. "The High School Staff. Who should do What?" *School Executive* (June, 1941), Vol. LX, pp. 27–32.

GREENE, CHARLES E. "Teacher Councils contribute to Administration," *Educational Record* (October, 1942), Vol. XXIII, pp. 670–678.

HAGMAN, HARLAN L. "Shall we Departmentalize?" *Nation's Schools* (July, 1941), Vol. XXVIII, p. 30.

HILL, LA MAR L. "Democratic Practices in a Small School System," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1939), Vol. XCIX, p. 46.

HUGHES, J. M. "Principles underlying the Staff Organization of a High School," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (March, 1937), Vol. XXIII, pp. 184–191.

KOCH, H. C. "Some Aspects of the Department Headship in Secondary Schools," *School Review* (April, 1930), Vol. XXXVIII, pp. 263–275.

MCFARLAND, KENNETH W. "Some Mistaken Notions of Democracy in School Administration," *American School Board Journal* (October, 1939), Vol. XCIX, pp. 19–22.

MILLER, WARD IRA. *Democracy in Educational Administration: An Analysis of Principles and Practices.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1942. 117 pages.

MOSER, W. E. "Do Teachers Help Run the Schools?" *Nation's Schools* (January, 1939), Vol. XXIII, pp. 50–52.

NANCARROW, J. E. "The School Interprets Democracy through the School's Program: Administration and Activities," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (October, 1941), Vol. XXV, pp. 23–28.

PITTENGER, B. F. "School Administration and School Personnel," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1938), Vol. XCVII, pp. 17–18, 52.

Bibliography

REAVIS, WILLIAM C. (Editor). *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, 1939. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1939. 214 pages.

REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Training in Co-operation through Participation in Solving Secondary-School Problems," *School Review* (November, 1942), Vol. L, pp. 629–635.

REAVIS, WILLIAM C., and JUDD, CHARLES H. *The Teacher and Educational Administration*, Chaps. XI and XII. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942.

ROSS, JACOB M. "Organization and Direction of the Staff," Chap. X in *Administrative Practices in Large High Schools* (N. William Newsom and R. Emerson Langfitt, editors). The American Book Company, New York, 1940.

SPEARS, HAROLD. "Can the Line-and-Staff Principle Unify Instructional Leadership?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* (April, 1941), Vol. XXV, pp. 25–31.

STRAYER, GEORGE D. "Why Teacher Participation in School Administration?" *Teachers College Record* (March, 1937), Vol. XXXVIII, pp. 457–464.

TATE, M. W. "The Induction of Secondary-School Teachers," *School Review* (March, 1943), Vol. LI, pp. 150–157.

WILLIAMS, O. S. "Administrative Activities in which Teachers participate Democratically," *American School Board Journal* (September, 1942), Vol. CV, pp. 40–41.

WOODS, ROY C. "Teacher Participation in School Management," *Education* (June, 1938), Vol. LVIII, pp. 627–630.

XXIV · RELATIONSHIPS TO HIGHER INSTITUTIONS, ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS, AND STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

BEATTY, T. BAYARD. "Which of our High School Graduates are Qualified for College?" *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1938), Vol. XXII, pp. 117–128.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *How to evaluate a Secondary School*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

COX, PHILIP W. L., and LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. *High School Administration and Supervision*, Chap. XXIX. The American Book Company, New York, 1934.

EDMONSON, J. B. "The Relationship of Regional Accrediting Agencies to Secondary Education during This Crisis," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals* (March, 1933), No. 45, pp. 96–103.

Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools

EDMONSON, J. B., ROEMER, JOSEPH, and BACON, FRANCIS L. "The Secondary School and Standardizing Agencies," Chap. XXIII in *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

ESPY, HERBERT G. *The Public Secondary School*, Chap. V. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1939.

MILLS, HENRY C., and others. *Studies in Articulation of High School and College*, University of Buffalo Studies, Vol. IX, Series I. The University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York, 1936.

ROSENLOF, G. W. "The Association and its Activities, Past and Present," *North Central Association Quarterly* (October, 1938), Vol. XIII, pp. 168–176.

RUSSELL, JOHN DALE, and JUDD, CHARLES H. *The American Educational System*, Chap. VIII Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1940

ZOOK, GEORGE F. "New Trends in College and High-School Accreditation," *Secondary Education* (November, 1934), Vol. III, pp 171–175.

Index

Ability, grouping of, 340 ff ; lower levels of, 349 f , marks in terms of, 396
Absence slip, 422
Absences, reduction of, 413 f , 415 f , unexcused, 414, excuse for, 421, 425, 426, admission after, 422 ff
Academic training, for junior high school teachers, 82, for senior high school teachers, 84
Academies establishment of, 3, curriculum in, 3, support of, 3
Accounting purposes and organization of, 387 ff , business, 388 f , 437 ff , health, 426 ff , for equipment 446 ff , for library, 449 ff , financial, 452 ff , principles underlying 459 f
Accrediting, 56 599 ff 611 ff , associations for, 601, 610 ff
Activities, extra curricular 178, relation of to educational objectives, 209 ff , dangers and limitations of 214 ff , program of 219 ff , initiating 223, encouraging participation in, 226 ff , questionnaire on 227 f credit for, toward *graduation 228 f , restricting participation* in 234 ff , supervision of 245 ff , plan of organization for control of, 251, 253, fundamental principles of, 261 ff , community 489 f
Adjusting individual 343 347, 349, 350 ff , 355 ff
Administration departmental 571, democratic 572 ff , committees in, 582 ff , pupil and parent participation in, 584 ff
Administrative assistance 589
Administrative offices, 8, location of, 32, provisions for, 37
Administrative staff, 77 ff
Administrator *See* School administrator
Admission slip, 422 423
Adult education in evening school, 19
Advisers on registration, 164, group, 192 ff , home room, 192 ff , for organizations 245 ff
Age of teachers, 83, 86
Agriculture, courses in 58
Alltucker on guidance in junior high school, 169 ff
Alumni organizations, 503 f
American Association of School Administrators, 562
American history, legal requirement for, 51, placement of 62, as constant, 64
Americanization courses, 18
Anderson on teaching load, 110
Apologies, forced, 275
Appleton Senior High School, plan of, 48 f
Applicants, collecting data on, 90 ff.
Application blanks, 92, 95, 96 ff
"Apprentice teachers," 111
Aptitude tests, mechanical, 179
Articulation, of secondary schools, 6, 7, 8; of curricula, 65, of high school and college, 617 f
Assembly *See* School assembly
Assembly hall *See* Auditorium
Assembly period, 135
Assignment, in relation to fitness, 121 f ; fundamental principles of, 125, to sections, 131
Associations, accrediting, 601, 610 ff
Athletics, 4, interscholastic, 255 f ; permits for 432, 433
Atrophy, professional, 562 ff
Attendance, 413 ff
Attendance officer, 417
Attitudes, community, 491 f
Auditorium, 8, location of, 32, equipment of 34, combination with gymnasium, 35 f , seating in 44
Authoritarian type of relationships, 570
Automobiles, students', 468 f
Avocation and curriculum, 60, guidance for, 157
Awards 230 f

Baseball indoor, 36
Basketball, indoor, 36
Best answer underscoring device, 100
Bevier on participation in student activities, 215
Biology placement of, 62, as constant, 64
Blackboards, 32, 476 ff
Block method of schedule construction, 142 ff
Board of education and curriculum, 51
Boys dean of 191 f
Broad fields, 53 70
Brownell on teaching load, 116
Budget high school, 439 ff ; activity, 457 ff
Building, planning for high-school, 25 ff ; size, shape and height of, 30, location of units within 31 ff hygienic features of, 41, safety features of, 41 f ; supervision of safety in, 464 ff , supervision of traffic in 466 ff , community use of, 484 f
Building pass, 425
Bulletin boards 33, 514
Bureaus credentials of 93
Bush and Hoffman on summer high schools, 17
Business, accounting of school 388 f , administration of school, 437 ff

Cafeteria *See* Lunch room
Calendar school, 244, publicity, 520 ff.
Card, general information, 391; pupil-schedule, 393, permanent-credit, 404; standard test, 406
Case studies, 351 ff
Central-treasurer plan 454

Centralization of business administration, 437 f.
Certification data, 94
Charter of organization, illustrative, 224 f.
Check lists, use of, 201 ff.
Chemistry, placement of, 62
Citizenship, 211; and curriculum, 60, rewards for good, 272
Civics, placement of, 62; as constant, 64
Class grouping, 142
Class period in summer high school, 17
Class personnel chart, 165
Classes, number of daily, 108
Classes schedule. *See* Schedule of classes
Classroom teacher and guidance, 180
Classroom visitation, 92
Classrooms, requirement for, 29, 32 f.; seating for, 44
Cleaning, time for, 477
Clerical help, 371 ff.
Clinics, 427
Clock, master, 43
Closing time, 134
Clubs, 219 ff.; meeting of, 242 f.
Coaches and guidance, 178
Coatrooms, 40
Codes, student, 304 f.
Coeducational institution, academy as, 3
College, junior. *See* Junior college
College articulation with high school, 617 f.
College Entrance Examination Board, 600 f
College entrance requirements, 602 ff.
College-preparatory courses, 60, 67, placement of, 63
College-preparatory guidance, 166 ff., 606 ff.
College–secondary-school relationships, traditional, 598 ff.
Colvin on maintaining order, 269 f.
Combination plan, 67
Commencement, 385, 505 f
Commercial high school, 15
Community, use of building by, 484 f.; surveying local, 487 ff; resources of, 487 f.; activities and needs of, 489 f.; attitudes of, 491 f.; principal and, 494 ff.; celebrations of, 516; participation of, in administration, 585 f.
Competitive activities, 4
Composite scores, 341 f.
Comprehensive school, 15
Conferences, for treatment of misbehavior, 273; personnel, 351 ff.
Conflicts, 138 ff., 145 ff.
Consolidated school, 13 f.
Constants, 52, 64, 67
Construction of curriculum, 51 ff.
Contests, 515; state scholarship, 315 ff.
Continuation education, 20
Cook and Thompson on "letter" boys, 216
Coöperations, 108
"Coöperative" programs, 21 ff.
Coöperative Test Service, 101
Coöperative types of organization, 572
Coördinator, 23
Core curriculum, 53, 64, 70
Corporal punishment, 276
Correspondence, 373
Corridors, 39
Cost, per student in junior college, 10; instruction, and program of studies, 57
Counselor, vocational, 184 ff.; principal as, 197 ff.; teacher as, 199 f.
County fairs, 516
Courses of study, 52; types of, 69 f.; trends in, 70 f.; adaptation and administration of, 358 f.
Credits, in summer high schools, 17; for outside work, 410
Criteria, for judging incentives, 312 f.; for ability grouping, 340 f; for accrediting secondary schools, 612 ff.
Cubberley on relations between principal and janitor, 479 f.
Curriculum, of academy, 3; organizing, 51 ff.; prescription constant in, 52; terminology of, 52 f; integrated, 53; core, 53, broad fields, 53; principles for organizing, 60 ff, types of organization of, 66 ff.

Daily classes, 108
Daily program, 394
Dalton contract, 328
Day, organization of, 132; length of, 133
Daylight-projection machines, 33
Dean, of girls, 189 ff.; of boys, 191 f.
Defects, report of health, to parents, 431 f.
Deficiency, report of scholastic, 408; report of citizenship, 409
Democratic administration, 572 ff.; practices in, 579 ff
Dental inspection, 427 f.
Department heads, 570
Departmental administration, 571
Departmental assignment, 106
Departments of education, 615 ff.; and curriculum, 51
Detention after school, 274
Dewey on democracy in administration, 574
Diagnosis, 350, 426
Director of guidance, 183 f.
Discipline, in early schools, 3; objectives of, 265 ff.; guidance in, 269 ff.; and mental hygiene, 283 f.; pupil control of, 286 f, 293
"Distributed Occupations" programs, 21 ff.
District, proposed junior-college, 11
Douglass and Boardman on teachers' meetings, 592 ff.
Douglass and Kornegay on occupational experience, 22
Drinking fountains, 39, 476
Duplicate preparations, 107

Edmonson, on selection of textbooks, 71 f.; on teaching load, 124 f.
Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon on public-relations program, 535
Education, definition of, 53 f.
Education week, 534

Index

Educational guidance, 156; and registration, 161 ff.
Educational Policies Commission on democracy in administration, 576 f.
Electives, 52; ratio of constants to, 64 f.; and pupil interests, 65; stem, 66; guidance of choice of, 351; curriculum, 356 f.
English, as constant, 64; academic training for teachers of, 82, 85; record of readings in, 409
Enrollment, of high school, 4; perspective, in junior college, 10, estimating increase in high-school, 26 f.
Entertainments, 515
Entrance requirements, 57
Equipment, economic use of, 7; office, 366 ff; accounting for, 446 ff.
Estimating, prospective high-school population, 25 f; present housing, 27 f; housing required, 28 f., registrations, 129; number of sections, 130 f.
Ethical character, and activities, 212
Evaluation procedure, 614 f.
Evening high school, 18 ff; need for, 19
"Every pupil" contests, 317
Examinations, national teachers', 101 f.; schedule for, 151 f
Exhibits as means of publicity, 514 ff
Experience, school, 54; of teachers, 83, 86
Exploration, 61
Expulsion, 275
Extension schools, 16 ff.
Extra-curricular activities, 3, 4, 178

Faculty, of junior high school, 6; publicity through, 513 f.
Faculty advisers for organizations, 245 ff.
Failure, prevention of, 346 ff.; percentage of, 400 f
Failure prospects, segregation of, 350
Family affiliations of teachers, 103
Filing, of data on teachers elected, 100; of requisitions, 443 f
Films, school, 536
Financial accounting, 452 ff.
Finish, interior, 42
Fire, safety in case of, 465 f.
Fire-alarm systems, 42
Fire drills, 466
Fire protection, 41 f., 464 f
Fitness, assignment in relation to special, 121 f
Floor plans, 46 ff., 132
Flooring, 43, 475
Follow-up service, 187 f.
Foreign languages, academic training for teachers of, 82; records of readings in, 409
Forms, 204 ff.; general-information, 391; registration, 392; pupils' schedule, 393; daily program, 394; change of schedule application, 394; attendance, 418 ff.; requisition, 442 f.
Formula for teaching load, 113 ff.
Franklin's academy, 3
Free electives, 52, 65, 67
Fuel economy, 478 f.
Furniture, for laboratories and special rooms, 45; care of, 475

Garinger on discipline, 283, 289
General culture, of teachers, 85
General education, tendency toward, 70
General science as constant, 64
General-science rooms, requirement for, 29
Geography, in academy, 3; as constant, 64; academic training for teachers of, 82
Gifts for early schools, 3
Girls, education of, in academy, 3; adviser for, 189 ff.; dean of, 189 ff.
Girls' high school, 15
Government, pupil, 287
Graphic rating scheme, 100
Grizzell on programs of activities, 261 ff.
Grounds, care of, 477
Group advisers, 192 ff
Group offenses, treatment of, 277 f
Grouping, by ability, 340 ff.; by subject, 343; flexibility in, 343; marking with, 345 f.; as plan of organization, 346
Groups, home-room, 258
Guidance, 20, 81; in high school, 154 ff.; types of, 155 ff; director of, 184; disciplinary, 269 ff.; of choice of electives, 351; of parent-teacher associations, 501 ff.; for college, 606 ff.
Guidance programs, 5; organizing and improving, 154 ff.
Gymnasium, 8; combination with auditorium, 35 f., requirements for, 36

Handbook, 534; teachers', 384
Health, and curriculum, 60; data on, of applicant, 93; guidance in, 157; and activities, 210; accounting for, 426 ff.; examinations in, 427 f.
Health-service rooms, 36
Heating, 31, 41, 477 f.
Herda on teaching effectiveness of men and women, 102
High school, predecessors of, 3; characteristics of public, 4 f.; growing enrollment in, 4; junior, 6; senior, 7; small, 12 f.; specialized, 14 ff.; summer, 16 ff.; evening, 18 f., housing of, 25 ff.; estimating enrollment of, 25 ff.; estimating capacity of, 27 ff.; size, shape, and height of, 30; location of units within, 31 ff.; procedure for selecting teachers in, 88 ff.; guidance in, 154 ff.; centralization in, 437 f.; budget of, 439 ff.; articulation of, and college, 617 f.
Hillsboro Junior-Senior High School, plan of, 47
History, in academy, 3; academic training for teachers of, 82. *See also* American history
Holy on ratio of students in junior college, 10
Home life, and curriculum, 60; worthy, 211

Home room, advisers for, 192 ff.; functions of, 257 f.; composition of groups in, 258; sponsors for, 258 f.; schedule for, 259, officers and committees in, 259 f.; principles for program in, 260 f
Home visitation, 361
Homogeneous grouping, 340 ff.
Honor societies, 317 ff.
House organ, 533 f.
Housing, and cost of instruction, 57 f, of high school, 25 ff; accommodations for, 132
Hygienic features of school building, 41

Ideals, school, 270
Immunization measures, 431
Inbreeding, danger of, 547
Incentives, to scholarship, 311 ff, limitations of, 314; marks and credits as, 322 ff; for attendance, 414
Individual, capacities of, 5, adjusting, 343, 347, 349, 350 ff 355 ff
"Individual pupil" method for schedule construction, 148 f
Industrial-arts high school, 15
Insignia, awards of, 230
Integrated curriculum, 53, 70
Integrative function, 61
Intelligence-test scores, 92, and educational guidance, 162
Interests, identifying pupil, 202, analysis of, 226 ff
Interscholastic athletics, administration of, 255 f
Interviews, 92, 93
Intramural sports, 435
Inventories, in vocational guidance, 179; use of, 201 ff, of equipment, 447
I Q, 92, 162 f, 341

Jacobson and Reavis, on guidance activities, 160
Janitorial service, supervision of, 474 ff
Janitor's room, 39
Journals, educational, 6
Junior college, 9 ff, prospective enrollment in, 10, standards for teachers in, 87, teaching load in, 110, measuring load in, 118
Junior high school, 6, reorganization for, 6; articulation of, 6, electives in, 68, typical curricula of, 72 f, standards for positions in, 82 ff, assignments in, 106 ff., teaching load in, 109, measuring load in, 118, guidance in, 168 ff
Junior-senior units, 7 f

King on participation in athletics, 215
Kirby on teaching assignments, 111
Kitchens, household-arts, 7
Koos, on cost per student in junior college, 10; on teaching load, 116

Laboratories, location of, 31
Latin Grammar School, 3
Legislature and curricula, 51, 56
Leisure, guidance of, 157; worthy use of, 210
Length, of day, 133, of class period, 133 f.
Letters, awards of, 230
Librarian, school, 123
Library, location of, 31; requirements for, 33, seating in, 44, personnel of, 123, use of, 334 ff; accounting and records of, 449 f; purchases by, 451, checking delinquencies in, 451 f, professional, 558 ff
Lightening teacher's load, 124 f
Lighting, 41
Limitations of small school, 13
Limited electives, 52, 67
Load See Teacher's load, Student load
Local community, needs of, 58, opinion in, 59
Location of units within high school building 31 ff
Lockers, 40
Loomis on democracy in administration, 578 f
Lunch periods 134
Lunch room, provision for 38; supervision of, 470 ff, management of, 471

M A, 341
McKown, on interscholastic athletics, 255 f, on good citizenship 295
"Major-minor" plan for restricting participation 234 ff
"Major" plan, 66
Management of school 288
Manual training high school 15
Marital status of teachers, 102
Marks, participation according to, 239 f, as incentives 323 ff, supervision of teachers', 349, accounting for, 394 ff, in terms of ability 396, standardization of, 397 ff, improving and administering system of, 400, reporting and recording, 401 ff factors related to college, 604 ff
Master clock 43
"Masters," beginnings of administrative 540 f
Mathematics, in academy 3, academic training for teachers of, 82
Maturity and subject placement, 62
Mechanical aptitude tests 179
Medical clinic room, 36
Medical examinations, 427 f
Meetings activity, 242 ff, teachers', 592 ff
Membership in activities, admission to, 240 ff
Mental ages, 341
Mental hygiene and discipline, 283 f
Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 610
Miller on democracy in education, 576
Misbehavior, treatment of, 273 ff.
Mismanagement, student, 218
Moehlman on effectiveness of married teachers, 103
Monroe on participation in activities, 216
Moral guidance, 157

Index

Morrison unit, 328
Mosaic method for schedule construction, 136 ff.
Multiple curricula, 66 ff.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 562
National Association of Student Officers, 304
National Education Association, 561
National Honor Society, 318 ff
National Junior Honor Society, 322
National teachers' examinations, 101 f.
New England, early schools of, 3
New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 610
New Plan examinations, 600 f.
New teachers, duties of, 101
News, nature of, 527 f ; unfavorable, 530 f.
News calendar, 520 ff.
News copy, writing, 527; preparing, 529 f.
News opportunities, 520 ff.
Newspaper publicity, 517 ff
Night high school *See* Evening high school
Normal-distribution marking, 398 f
Norms for teaching load, 118
North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 120, 125, 611
Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, 611
Nurse's room, 36

"Objective" plan, 67
Objectives, of secondary education, 57, 60; relation of activities to, 209 ff.
Occupational experience, 22 f.
"Occupational" plan, 67
Occupations, course in, 176; information concerning, 181
Offerings, 128
Office equipment, 366 ff.
Offices. *See* Administrative offices
Old Plan examinations, 600 f.
Opening time, 134
Operating income for junior college, 11
Organ, house, 533 f.
Organizations, types of, 3 ff.; responsibility for planning, 23; professional, 561 f.; types of, 569 ff
Organizing, curriculum, 51 ff
Orientation in local school, 173 f.
Osterberg on marks and activities, 216
Outcomes of activities, 210 ff.
Outside work, credits for, 410
Overlapping sessions, 132

Packer's room formula, 28
Parent participation in administration, 585 f.
Parent-teacher association, 499 ff.
Parents, reporting pupils to, 282, 407 ff.; coöperation of school and, 354; and the reduction of absence and tardiness, 415 f.; reports of health defects to, 431 f.; contacts of principal with, 504 f.
Parents' days, 535
Part-time education. *See* Continuation education
Period, class, 53, 133 f.; activity, 135, 242 ff ; assembly, 252; length of, and supervised study, 329
Periodical literature, 554 ff.
"Personal" guidance, 157
Personality of teachers, 84, 86
Personnel, of library, 123; organization of, 183 f.; records of, 387 ff.; publicity through, 511 f.
Personnel chart, class, 165
Peters on effectiveness of married teachers, 103
Photographs, 93
Physical education, excusing pupils from, 432 f.; classification for, 433 f.; administrative practices in, 434
Physical education department, 36; legal requirement for, 51
Physical examinations, 427 f.
Physics, placement of, 62
Pictures, news, 529
Pittinger on democracy in education, 575
Placement, 187 f
Planning, of secondary school organization, 23; high-school housing, 25 ff.
Point system of restricting participation, 234 ff.
Polytechnic high school, 15
Population, prospective high-school, 25 f.
Preopening preparation, 383
Preparation time, 117
Preregistration, 75, 129, 161
Press and publicity, 517 ff.
Principal, of junior high school, 6; as coördinator, 23; office for, 37; and teacher assignments, 111 f ; as counselor, 197 ff.; overloading, by activities, 216 f.; approval of, for activities, 223; function of, in discipline, 279 ff ; office of, 363 ff.; equipment of office for, 366 ff ; desk for, 369 f ; clerical assistance for, 371 f., records in office of, 373 ff ; distribution of time of, 378 ff.; office relations of, 381 f ; funds intrusted to, 453; annual report of, 462; relations of, and janitor, 479 ff.; and community affiliations, 494 ff ; training of, 546 f ; outlook of beginning, 547 ff.; and his professional growth, 551 ff.; professional reading of, 554 ff.; and general reading, 564 ff ; relationship of, to superintendent, 586 ff ; and supervisor relationship, 589 ff.
Principalship, development of, 539 ff.
Problems of high-school pupils, 157 f.
Processes, command of fundamental, 211
Professional good will, 381
Professional growth of principal, 551 ff.
Professional organizations, 561 f.
Professional reading for principal, 554 ff.
Professional study in service, 91
Professional training of teachers, 82, 85
Prognostic tests, 164

Program of studies, 52, 55 ff.; limitations on, 56; entrance requirements and, 57; and objectives of secondary education, 57; and size of school, 57 f.; and local opinion, 59 f.
Programs for assembly, 254 f.
Project, 328
Projection machines, 33
Promotion practices, 360 f.
Property valuation for proposed junior-college district, 11
Public relations, 5
Publications, student, 531 ff.
Publicity, high-school, 508 ff.; purposes of, 510; through personnel, 511 ff.; exhibits as means of, 514 ff.; newspaper, 517 ff.
Publicity calendar, 520 ff.
Punishments, principles underlying, 278 f.
Pupil, ratings of teachers by, 103; schedules of, 149 f., 392 f.; problems of high-school, 157 f.; self-management by, 250; supplies for, 460 ff.; publicity through, 511 f.
Pupil government. *See* Student government
Pupil participation, in organization, 234 ff.; in administration, 286 ff., 584

Questionnaire, interest-analysis, 226 ff.; activity, 227 f.

Rating devices, 100
Reading, professional, 554 ff., 596 f.
Records, 204 ff.; activities, 238; in principal's office, 373 ff.; forms for, 375 f.; personnel, 387; filing of, 389 f.; centralization and standardization of, 390; general-information, 391 f.; permanent-credit, 403 ff.; standard-test, 406; of reading in English and foreign languages, 409; attendance, 418 ff.; physical-examination, 428 f.; staff, 435; budget, 442; requisition, 443 f.; of inventories, 447, 448; in library, 449 f.; principles underlying, 459 f.
Reeves on democracy in administration, 575
References, 92, 94, 95, 99
Regional associations, 611
Registration, estimating, 129; educational guidance and, 161 ff.; data for, 162 ff.; advisers for, 164; approval of, by parents and school, 165 f.; and enrollment, 391 ff.
Reichard on duplicate sections, 107
Relations, favorable, 271
Remedial measures, 429 f.
Remedial-reading classes, 360
Remedial teaching, 350
Repairs, 482 f.
Replacements, 482 f.
Reporters, dealing with, 519
Reports, activity, 229; forms for, 375 f.; to parents, 407; cards for, 409, 410, 411; teacher's attendance, 419 ff.; of health defects, 431 f.; school, 533
Requirements for college entrance, 602 ff.
Research combined with counseling, 187
Reavis and Woellner, on clerical assistance, 371; on types of records, 374
Rooms, location of, 31 ff.; assignment of, 141
Roster cards, 149
Routine, delegating, 378
Rural high schools, 58

Safety, features of, in buildings, 41 f.; and activities, 210; supervision of, 464 ff.
Salaries of administrative officers, 550 f. *See also* Teachers' salaries
Schedule, of classes, 52; constructing, 127 ff.; types of, 136 ff., operating, 149 ff.; examination, 151 f., pupil, 392 f.; changes of, 393
Scholarship, of teachers, 91; interference of activities with, 215 f.; incentives to, 311 ff.
Scholastic report, 407 f.
School administrator, duties of, 5; inadequate initial training of, 552
School assembly, management of, 251; student participation in, 252; periods of, 252; programs for, 254 f.
"School" guidance, 173 f.
School publicity, need of, 509; purposes of, 510
Science, academic training for teachers of, 82
Seating, for library, 33; for classroom, 44, in auditorium, 44; in library, 44; for laboratories and special rooms, 45
Secondary schools, types of, 5; six-year, 7, six-four-four, 11 f., relationships of, to colleges, 598 ff.
Section-mark sheets, 401 ff.
Sections, 53; assignment of, 77; number of, versus size, 120; elimination of small, 121; estimating required, 130 f.; assigning students to, 131, blocking in, 143 ff., number and size of, 344 f.
Segregation of failure prospects, 350
Self-government, 294 f.
Self-management, pupil, 250
Senior high school, 7, articulation of, 7, electives in, 68, typical curricula of, 72 ff.; standards for positions in, 84 ff., pupil-teacher ratio in, 109
Service, professional study in, 91
Sessions, single, 132; overlapping, 132
Sewing rooms, 7
Sex of teachers, 83, 85, 102
Shannon on leaders in activities, 214
Shops, location of, 31
Shorthand, placement of, 63
Show windows, 515
Shower rooms, 36
Single session, 132
Six-four-four secondary schools, 11 f.
Six-year secondary school, 7 f.; economic advantages of, 7; educational advantages of, 8
Social affairs, application for holding, 245, 246, 247
Social guidance, 157

Index

Social science as constant, 64
Social studies, academic preparation for teachers of, 85
Socialized class, seating in, 44
Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 611
Special classes, application of teaching-load formula to, 114 f.; types of, 360
Special-instruction rooms, 36; seating in, 95; care of, 476
Spirit, school, 270
Sponsors, 245 ff.; home-room, 258 f.
S-R sequence, 328
Staff, study of reorganization by, 6; departmentalization of, 8; selecting, 75 ff., administration, 77 ff.; procedure for selecting, 88 ff.; assigning, 106 ff., and guidance program, 159 f.; relationships of, 569 ff.; assisting and improving, 589 ff
Stairways, 40
Standardization of teachers' marks, 397 ff.
Standard-test records, 406
Standards for selection of teachers, 82 ff.
State aid, conditions for, 56
State department of education and program of studies, 56
State scholarship contests, 315
State superintendent and curriculum, 51
State supervision, 616 f.
Statistics, 376 ff
Stem electives, 66
Student-activity funds, 454 ff.
Student clerical help, 372
Student codes, 304 f.
Student councils, 290
Student government, 286 ff.; values of, 219 f.; limitations of, 292 f.; organization of, 297 ff.; constitutions for, 298 ff.; introduction of, 303 f.; minor forms of, 306 ff
Student load, variation in, 358
Student mismanagement, 318
Student officers, office for, 37
Student organizations, place of, 208 ff.; administering, 234 ff.
Student publications, 531 ff.
Studies program. *See* Program of studies
Study, supervising pupils', 327 ff., helps for, 330 f., schedules for, 331
Study halls, requirements for, 29, 33, 332 f
Subject class, 53
"Subject matter" plan, 66
Subject placement, 62 f.
Summer high school, 16 ff., administrative practices in, 17
Summer preparation, 383
Summer school attendance of teachers, 595
Superintendent of schools, as coördinator, 23; office for, 37; and teacher assignments, 111; relationship of principal to, 586 ff.
Supervised study and study hall, 332 f
Supervision, of activities, 245 ff.; of pupils' study, 327 ff.; of teachers' marks, 349; of safety, 464 ff.; of student traffic, 466 ff.; of students' automobiles, 468 f.; of lunch room, 470 ff.; of janitorial service, 474 ff.
Supervisor and principal relationship, 589 ff.
Supervisory staff, 77 ff.
Supplies, requisitioning of, 441 ff.; receipt of, 445; storage and distribution of, 445
Support, for early schools, 3; of academy, 3
Suspension, 275
Swanson on participants in activities, 215
Swimming pool, 8

Tardiness, reduction of, 413 f., 415 f.; unexcused, 414; application for excuse for, 421, 423; admission after, 422
Taxation, for early schools, 3; for junior college, 11
Teacher as counselor, 199 f.
Teacher's attendance report, 419 ff.
Teacher's load, 106 ff.; for beginning teacher, 110, measuring, 112 ff.; differences in, between different subjects, 116 ff., norms for, 118; equalizing, 119; lightening of, 124 f.
Teachers, age of, 83, 86; seeking, 90; prospective, 90 ff.; overloading of, by activities, 216 f.; with special interests and talents, 595; community relationships of, 595 f.; reading of, 596 f.
Teachers' meetings, 592 ff.
Teachers' rolls, 150
Teachers' rooms, provision for, 38
Teachers' salaries and cost of instruction, 157 f.
"Teaching-cycle" unit, 328
Teaching procedures, 5
Teaching staff. *See* Staff
Telephone-call slip, 425, 426
Telephone system, 43
Temptation, removal of, 271
Terminology, curriculum, 52 f.
Tests, in vocational guidance, 179; use of, 201 ff.
Textbooks, selection of, 71 f.; free, 446, 461 f.
Ticket sale accounting, 457
Tiegs on ratings of applicants, 93
Time, distribution of principal's, 378 ff.
Toilets, 31, 476
Traffic, building, 424 f.; supervision of, 466 ff.
Training, of principal, 546 f.; inadequate initial, of administrators, 552
Transfer, 8
Transportation, 14
Tritt and Keyes on preparation time, 117
Try-out courses, 177 f.
Tuition in early schools, 3
Types, of organization, 3 ff.; of secondary schools, 5
Typing, placement of, 63

Unified curriculum, 53, 70
Unit of credit, 53
Units, location of, 31 ff.; of larger learning, 328

Variables, 52; ratio of constants to, 64 f.
Ventilation, 41
Visitation, classroom, 594
Visiting days, 515
Vocation, and curriculum, 60; and activities, 210
Vocational counselor, 184 ff.
Vocational guidance, 21, 156, 174 ff.
Vocational interest tests, 179
Vocational opportunities of principal, 549

Washington Community High School, plan of, 46
Week, education, 534
Weighted credits, 324 ff.
Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 611
Windows, space of, 41; cleaning of, 476
Wisconsin High School "challenge," 328
Woellner on advisers, 192
Woody and Bergman on preparation time 117
Work-study plans, 21 ff.

"Yardstick" method for schedule construction, 148 f.

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA