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**IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOL  
COOPERATIVE CURRICULUM  
PROGRAM**

**Volume II**

**A Proposed Design  
for  
Secondary Education  
in  
Iowa**

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Issued by the  
Department of Public Instruction  
JESSIE M. PARKER, Superintendent  
Des Moines, Iowa

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## FOREWORD

This volume, the second in the series to be published in connection with the Iowa Secondary Cooperative Curriculum Program, presents the background for the course of study materials now in preparation. It reviews the development of secondary education, points out those influences which have modified and are continuing to modify the curriculum, describes the Iowa secondary school as it now is, reviews the opinions of Iowa teachers regarding needed changes, announces a philosophy for secondary education, and finally, proposes a design for secondary education in Iowa.

It is hoped that this material will be useful to high school faculties in providing background for the use of the courses of study which are to follow. It should broaden teacher perspective with regard to the purposes of secondary education and the responsibilities of secondary schools to youth. It will provide a framework for building the curriculum and organizing the program of instruction.

Plans for the volume were outlined by the Committee on Philosophy and Purposes: L. A. Van Dyke, W. H. McFarland, Russel J. Mourer, M. R. Clark, Gordon J. Rhum, and J. F. Van Antwerp. The actual writing was done by W. H. McFarland (Chapters I, IV, and VI), L. A. Van Dyke (Chapters II and V), and Russel J. Mourer (Chapter III). Grateful appreciation is extended to the members of the Committee for their generous service.

JESSIE M. PARKER,

November, 1947

*Superintendent of Public Instruction.*



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## CHAPTER I

### A PROGRAM FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

#### A. AN EVALUATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The development of American democracy is unique in the history of civilization. In the short period of about a hundred and fifty years a new way of life, epitomized by freedom and well-being, has been established. Though there are many admitted weaknesses, American democracy represents perhaps the best expression of desirable political, economic, and social development men have found. Education has been a powerful factor in bringing about this situation, and the high school has played an important role in this accomplishment.

Ample evidence indicates that there is a close correlation between the general welfare of a people and their educational program. Hence, whatever merit there is in the American way of life brings credit to the school system of the nation. By the same token, whatever weaknesses there are in the American way reflect shortcomings in the educational program.

#### Contributions of the Secondary School

*Popularization.* Secondary education has been popularized almost phenomenally since 1890. Whatever the cause, enrollments in secondary schools have risen from 357,813 in 1890 to 6,435,703 in 1936. In 1890 only 6.7 per cent of youth between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one years were enrolled in high schools, while in 1936, 65 per cent of youth of this age range were in school. This fact is noteworthy as indicative of both a significant trend in secondary school attendance and the ability of the high schools to multiply in numbers to meet the demands made for secondary schooling.

As enrollments have expanded on the secondary level, the college and university population has also expanded. In 1890 only 150,000 students were enrolled in colleges and universities. By 1938 the population of institutions of higher learning had grown to 1,250,000. Secondary schools, for the



most part, had furnished the training necessary to bridge the gap between elementary and higher education.

*Development of social attitudes.* In the early years of its existence the secondary school did little consciously to develop social attitudes and skills basic to living in our form of democracy. During the colonial period major emphasis in the Latin grammar schools was placed on Latin. Through the influence of Franklin in 1743 English language received added attention. He advocated bringing to youth knowledge of "those things which are likely to be most useful and most ornamental." Using English as the medium, history was to be read for instruction in "all kinds of useful knowledge: geography, chronology, ancient customs, oratory, civil government, logic, language, and even morality and religion."

During the early national period natural science came in for attention. By 1818 three years of English were required at Phillips Exeter Academy. In 1821 the English Classical School in Boston stressed English composition and literature, geography, arithmetic, algebra, and many of the subjects now included in the general high school program. Developments in agriculture, homemaking, industrial arts, and commercial education came after 1862.

While we have reports of dramatic performances in the schools as early as 1785, and there are indications of the existence of rhetorical societies, literary societies, and the forerunners of football and baseball as early as 1800, little was done until relatively recently toward the development of what is called the extra-curricular program.

Within the past few years schools have revised their objectives and their programs in secondary education to include activities calculated to develop certain social attitudes and skills basic to living in a democracy. While educational history reveals some instances of student participation in government as early as 1383 in England, the common practice is recent. William George in 1895 instigated foundation of the Junior Republic, a notable experiment in student government. After 1900, athletic associations, musical organizations, dramatic clubs, and honor societies were organized in large numbers. Terry states, <sup>1</sup>"Until recently the underlying force that

<sup>1</sup>Walter S. Monroe, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Macmillan, 1941, p. 481.



pressed the development was more the irrepressible adolescent urge for self-expression than insight on the part of teachers as to the needs of youth." However, more and more those responsible for formulating policies and building curricula have come to recognize the educational value of these activities, until now their inclusion in secondary programs has become common. No longer are student activity programs only tolerated, but they have come to occupy a recognized place in the school curriculum. Educators have come to realize the social values capable of development through student participation in government, cultivation of recreational interests, the encouragement of sports and sportsmanship, training in the arts, developing skills of cooperative group action, and the developing of initiative in planning and executing student activities.

*Broadening the curriculum.* Secondary schools have contributed greatly toward meeting the needs of youth in broadening the curriculum to provide for the varied interests of young people. The change has been apparent not only in the addition of new courses, but in broadening the content of old courses, in the vitalizing of materials, and in the improvement of teaching procedures.

Science instruction has evolved somewhat from the teaching of facts as ends in themselves to the relating of those facts to the major life aims and interests of youth. Some attempt has been made to bring about the realization of health, social, leisure-time, and vocational needs of young people through the reshaping and redirecting of science teaching. Cultivation of the scientific attitude, objective thinking, and the scientific method of investigation have received attention. America's tremendous industrial strength and its rapid conversion to war-time needs bespeaks the scientific efficiency of our people and reflects favorably on the effectiveness of our science curriculum.

Instruction in the arts has made a distinct contribution to the needs of young people for worthy leisure-time activity. Introduced in public schools by William Bentley Fowle in 1821, with the express purpose of providing disciplinary value in training the eye, hand, and perceptual faculties, art instruction has evolved through various phases of emphasis until it is now quite generally taught for the purpose of de-



veloping good taste and discrimination. The benefits may result in a keener enjoyment of beauty, improved personality, and in some instances, vocational skills. Music, likewise, practically non-existent in the early history of the secondary school, has made a valuable contribution to the leisure-time, social, and vocational needs of youth. Bands, orchestras, choruses, small ensembles are to be found in most high schools. Their educational value is significant and broadly recognized. Dramatics and forensic activities also have done much to enrich the secondary program.

One of the most apparent and popularly accepted attempts to shape the school's offerings to meet the needs of youth has been the introduction of vocational subjects. Recognizing that a large percentage of youth will go directly from high school into the business of making a living, secondary schools have included courses designed to enable these young people directly and indirectly to become successful producers and consumers. About the beginning of the century agriculture, industrial arts, home economics, and commercial education began appearing on the secondary program. Starting slowly, these subjects gradually edged their way into high school offerings, until at present most high schools are teaching some courses in most of these fields. More recently consumer education has been introduced, courses in distributive education have been set up to train students in retail selling, and trades and industries courses have come into the larger schools.

Another evidence of the broadening curriculum has been the move to include the teaching of contemporary affairs. Work in social studies, English, and science has been vitalized and made meaningful through the study of current literature relating to day-by-day occurrences in all phases of contemporary life. Magazines, newspapers, and pamphlets are a part of standard classroom equipment in almost every school. Through altered teaching techniques the formerly often unattached past is becoming real and interesting as its relationship to the present becomes apparent.

*Improved instructional materials.* Schools have improved their instructional materials. Libraries have grown from a collection of unorganized books, including an encyclopedia, a few standard references, and some outmoded and sample textbooks to, in many instances, well organized and catalogued



libraries. Textbooks themselves have been greatly improved. Better conceived, more substantially bound, beautifully illustrated, the newer texts offer a welcome contrast to the often drab, meagre, and uninteresting books of a few years ago.

Audio-visual aids have improved instruction. The lantern-slide projector has been augmented by the film-strip, the opaque projector, the movie machine, and the sound projector. The phonograph, the recording machine, and the radio have enriched educational experiences. Better maps and charts, and the introduction of field trips and educational excursions have all contributed to the effectiveness of teaching. In many other respects teaching tools have been vastly improved.

*Improved administrative practices.* Along with better instructional materials have come improved administrative practices. School records have in many instances grown from a bare record of attendance and grades to a comprehensive account of pupil growth and experience. Physical and health records, family history, scholastic progress, the results of tests—mental, achievement, interest, prognostic, attitude—extra-curricular participation, employment records are all combined to furnish administrators, counselors, teachers, parents, and employers with a comprehensive report of pupil growth. Periodic reports to parents have in some cases been made more significant.

Much has been done properly to schedule classes in the best interests of students. Counseling and guidance have come in to aid high school boys and girls in the intelligent selection of courses. Interests, capacities, and future needs have been taken into account in planning study schedules.

Teaching assignments have been more carefully made. Until the exigencies of war cut teaching personnel so that not enough attention could be given to teacher preparation, classes were assigned to teachers on the basis of major training in college. Certification laws were pointed toward the better preparation of teachers.

The introduction of objective tests, both standardized and teacher-made, improved the meaning of school marks. Diagnostic testing became a valuable teaching device.

Finally, improved administrative practices were facilitated by more adequate school plants and equipment. Shops, labora-



tories, libraries, gymnasiums, auditoriums, music rooms made broader programs possible. Larger, lighter, better ventilated, more attractive, better equipped classrooms and study halls made for better instruction. Outdoor athletic facilities were improved. On the whole, school plants have gone ahead in providing adequate housing and equipment for secondary education.

*School-community relations.* Within a comparatively recent time school and community relationships have been generally improved to the benefit of both the school and the community. The school has discovered that the community offers a laboratory for many educational activities. Civics classes have interested themselves in community improvement programs. Agriculture classes have become interested in building farm equipment needed on the farms, in improving livestock and crops, in soil conservation. Industrial and commercial students have found opportunities for work experience in the industries, business houses, and offices of the community. Classes in sociology and economics have discovered rich fields for study, investigation, and experimentation in their own neighborhoods.

In a like manner the community has discovered the school. The school auditorium furnishes the needed equipment and seating capacity for civic and community meetings. The school gymnasium is useful in the neighborhood recreational activities. Farmers use the school shop to repair their tools and machinery. The school library supplies needed books and reference materials. And the adult education program enables the fathers and mothers to continue their education.

In some of the more forward-looking schools school life and community life have been effectively integrated. The school has adapted certain phases of its program to meet the needs of the community. It has not been uncommon for housewives to consult the homemaking teacher regarding home nursing problems, home decorations, clothing problems, proper nutrition. Farmers frequently ask assistance from the agriculture instructor in pruning fruit trees, selecting seed, or buying farm animals. The commercial department has supplied emergency stenographers and typists to business and professional men. The music department has provided entertainment for service and women's clubs. The art students



have prepared placards and posters for community entertainments. In practically all of these cooperative relationships the school has profited as public relations have become cemented by goodwill and a feeling of mutual helpfulness.

*Growing emphasis on student development.* Probably no more important step has been made by schools than the recognition that more emphasis should be given to the development of individual students than to the mastery of subject content. Guidance and counseling by teachers, administrators, and special guidance personnel have more and more been giving attention to helping students discover themselves. Many schools are providing personal and vocational guidance services in some manner so that students may have an opportunity to work out their personal, educational, and vocational problems. Guidance literature is finding its way to the bookshelves and libraries. Personality, interest, and aptitude tests are being provided to aid youths in discovering their potentialities. In such schools it is no longer so much a matter of how much civics the student knows as how well he conducts himself as a citizen. English, mathematics, science, language are all geared to serving the student. They are not taught for their own sakes. The extra-curricular program supplements the classroom activities in developing the all-round personality and character of the youth.

Nor are all youth thought to be alike and in need of the same training in these better schools. Individual differences are recognized, and instruction is modified to meet the needs of the individuals. Provision is made for sectioning of classes or making of elastic assignments. Special classes are sometimes organized. The whole trend in such schools is to take the student as he is and help him develop into the best, happiest, and most useful individual it is possible for him to be.

Along with the other contributions the modern secondary school has made to the general betterment of democratic society has come a better teaching personnel. On the whole teachers are better prepared both in the way of general education and in professional training than they were twenty-five years ago. Certification requirements have been raised gradually, and teacher training colleges have generally improved their curricula and training methods. Though the



war emergency has checked the forward progress in raising teacher standards, and while many certificate requirements have been temporarily lowered, the trend is upward. Good teachers today are better prepared for their work than were good teachers a decade or so ago.

In many respects then, and on the whole, secondary schools have made a worthy contribution to the American way of life. We can take pride in many notable accomplishments. But just as we must recognize that our American democracy has not yet reached its highest possibilities, so too must we recognize that the secondary school has its weaknesses. Our chief concern should be with them and with ways and means of improving the secondary school program.

### Weaknesses of the Secondary School

Certain weaknesses in our high schools are apparent to both educators and laymen. School people themselves are quick to admit the need for some change and redirection in the content, methodology, organization, and administration of secondary education. Lay people have voiced their criticisms through newspaper editorials, magazine articles, and in other ways. Well as high schools have done, there is definite need for improvement in many phases of the program, and the first step toward such improvement should be a recognition and a specific naming of the apparent shortcomings.

*Lack of direction.* Much effort in education has been dissipated through a lack of definite aims and purposes in the school program. Teachers often readily admit that their over-all objectives are vague and uncertain, that outside of some plans to cover certain units of subject matter, they are groping in the dark. This has probably been due to the failure on the part of administrators and teachers to set up an underlying philosophy. The ultimate school purposes have never been clearly defined in terms of student growth and development. Hence, the school program has too often been a carry-over of traditional practices without sufficient consideration of youth needs. This has resulted in extreme variation in emphasis and purposes.

*Lack of integration.* Educational accomplishment is not the sum total of the individual efforts of teachers; it is the

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result of combined, integrated effort on the part of all of the teachers working together to attain common objectives.

A typical high school situation finds little horizontal integration. The English teacher goes her own way, endeavoring to the best of her ability to accomplish certain objectives she has set up for the year. The history teacher plans her work, hoping to cover the units laid out for the year's program. Each other teacher works on independently. There has been no pooling of interests, no common planning, no agreement as to what the sum total of the year's work should be. There has been little joint consideration of what the total impact on the student should be. Each instructor has decided what English he shall be exposed to, what history he shall be expected to learn, what mathematical skills he shall acquire. But the faculty has not jointly decided what the common effect of all their teaching shall be, what end-product shall materialize, in short, what changes shall take place in the student as a human being. It may have been hoped that somehow out of the various impingements on the student of bits of literature, history, and mathematics something worthwhile would happen to him, but there was no evidence of team play. No one had pictured the person-to-be at the end of the year or at the end of high school.

So, too, has there been too little vertical integration in the total educational sequence. There is insufficient continuity of purpose and procedure from elementary to secondary and from secondary to higher education. The student has completed his elementary experience as a unit in itself; then he has undertaken a new experience in the secondary school, without realizing the benefits of a natural sequence. College, in turn, is another new and rather unrelated experience. The organization on each level has been too indifferent to the aims and purposes of the others. Students, as a result, have often felt lost. The whole educational process from kindergarten through college needs to be more closely knit, with the result that students may experience a continuous, planned growth, each level of his schooling merging naturally and effectively with the preceding and succeeding stages.

The secondary school has a responsibility in bringing about this desirable integration. To meet this responsibility will



require some reorganizing of the secondary curriculum—some redirection of effort.

*Ineffectual instructional methods.* In much teaching there has been a failure to use instructional methods which stimulate thinking and a desire for independent learning. Instructional procedures have not kept pace with developments in the psychology of learning. A recent survey of social science classes in Iowa reveals that over ninety per cent of the social science teachers involved use almost exclusively the "question and answer" method, which puts a premium on memorizing subject content. The same survey reports that in over ninety per cent of the classes the only materials used were the textbooks. This would seem to indicate that memorizing of facts still occupies too large a place in student endeavor.

The assignment of lessons is usually poorly done. Teachers too often fail to motivate learning when they fail to arouse student interest through good assignments. Typical drives of adolescents are neglected—the sensory-motor urge, imitation, self-assertiveness, rivalry, gregariousness, social approval or disapproval, altruism.

Too much time has been devoted to dead-level learning and too little time to developing attitudes, appreciations, ideals, habits, and permanent interests. Insufficient counseling and guidance have perhaps been responsible for the lack of direction in student effort. Certainly more attention needs to be given to the discovering of student interests, capacities, and abilities with a view to making secondary education more meaningful.

*Failure to develop social responsibility.* Secondary schools, in common with all educational agencies up to this time, have failed to develop a sense of social responsibility and an appreciation of human values. A new emphasis is needed on social studies in the light of changing world concepts concerning human relations. On all levels and in all phases of human affairs, from international relations to family life, there is need for improvement of human understanding.

The intense nationalism of pre-world-war II days must be modified to admit of an international point of view. The "one world" idea is necessary to world understanding



and world peace. History and geography teaching needs humanizing to the extent that chief emphasis falls on common people, their every-day problems, their hopes, fears, and reactions to the common experiences of life.

Industrial relationships merit greater attention in the secondary curriculum. The problems of labor and management must be objectively and intelligently studied if chaos is to be avoided. Strikes and lockouts and their concomitant effect on American life press the necessity for solution.

Sporadic outbreaks between whites and blacks and occasional lynchings awaken us again to the realization that inter-racial relations are unsatisfactory. The welfare of minority groups needs further attention. The reviving of Ku Klux Klan activities in certain sections of the country is indicative of a lack of proper attitude toward minorities.

Lack of proper respect for government and faulty concepts concerning the proper functions of government are apparent in our disregard for properly constituted authority. There has been a general letting down in law observance. Schools must accept some responsibility for the existence of this condition.

The family as an educational institution has lost some of its effectiveness. Schools are obliged to train students for better family relations and at the same time assume some of the educational obligations formerly assumed by the home.

*Lack of thoroughness.* Lay critics of the schools have directed criticism at the school's failure to develop thoroughness in basic tools of learning—communication and computational skills. There seems to be well-grounded evidence that in broadening their programs some secondary schools have relaxed their standards in spelling, composition, speaking and writing accuracy, and in computational skills in arithmetic. There is an apparent need for more well-planned and consistent drill in these skill areas.

*Superficiality in learning.* Another criticism leveled at high schools by both laymen and educators stems from the tendency to encourage superficiality in learning, with emphasis on temporary mastery of facts for purposes of examination and recitation. There is too much studying to "get by," to make grades, to satisfy the outward require-



ments for promotion and graduation. Schools must assume some responsibility for this condition, due to their over-emphasis on grades and their failure to lead students to see the true objectives of education. Sounder concepts of real educational achievement are necessary. This condition is probably a natural accompaniment of a rather general inability to see relative values. More discriminative thinking must be encouraged.

J *Overworking the elective system.* It is quite generally admitted that the selection of subjects by students has been in many instances a matter of caprice. With the tendency to spread its offerings too thinly, schools have failed to provide continuity and thoroughness in any area of study. Students have looked over the program of electives offered, selected courses on the basis of momentary inclination, and have been permitted to graduate on an accumulation of credits for courses too often unrelated and of little permanent value. Here, too, a lack of proper guidance is in evidence.

Perhaps most adolescents are not driven by an all-compelling, all-consuming purpose in life. Perhaps we are inclined to consider early study in the secondary school as an orientation process in which the youth is drifting somewhat aimlessly until a real interest or capacity becomes apparent. However, this need not be so, if guidance furnishes information concerning possible school courses and life occupations. There is little reason to suppose that this aimlessness is necessary, that students cannot acquire a definite bent in educational interest and endeavor, and that the school cannot guide him into a program of study which has some continuity and meaning and which has some significance for him in terms of long-view development. There are in many schools too many unrelated electives, too little effort to provide a unified, purposeful continuity of courses, too little concern for what the total combined effect of the high school training will be.

*Limitations imposed by size of schools.* While the small high school has undoubtedly made a definite contribution to American education, it has done so in spite of certain unavoidable limitations inherent in its smallness. The small



high school was an inevitable outcome of the development of secondary education. If high school training was to be afforded youth throughout the country, high schools had to be available. Poor roads and transportation facilities made transporting students to larger centers impossible. Hence, due to the sparseness of population and lack of transportation, small high schools were established. They functioned well to popularize education and to furnish students with opportunities for a high school education.

With the improvement of roads and automotive transportation the extremely small high school is no longer a necessity. Larger units, with their increased possibilities for better programs, are now possible in most cases. However, a natural reluctance on the part of communities to give up their high schools and transport their students to other schools tends to perpetuate the smaller institutions, though the exigencies of war, the shortage of teachers, and a recognition of the educational and economic advantages of consolidation have recently brought about the closing of many small schools.

Inadequate facilities are the natural result of a small taxing base. The building itself cannot be as satisfactorily provided with auditoriums, gymnasiums, shops, laboratories, libraries, adequate classrooms, and lunch rooms as buildings constructed to accommodate large groups of students. Equipment of the buildings usually suffers from lack of sufficient funds.

Because of the small teaching staff few elective subjects can be offered. The curriculum is limited to a bare required program of studies and a restricted activity program. Administrators must spend a large part of their time in teaching and coaching activities, leaving little time for supervisory duties. There is but little opportunity for curriculum development on the local level.

There is a rapid turnover in teaching personnel. The more attractive social environment, better chances of teaching in their own subject fields, the added prestige of teaching in larger schools, and in some instances, better salaries attract teachers to the larger town and city systems. This makes for lack of continuity in the educational program.



Thus, the size of high schools presents a very real problem in the matter of improving the secondary program.

## B. THE CURRICULUM MOVEMENT

If the school curriculum is to be the dynamic instrument it must be to serve well the needs of youth, it must change as needs change. What served well fifty years ago, a decade ago, or even yesterday may be, and often is, inadequate today. As the world changes, or as our nation or state or neighborhood changes, the needs of youth change, and thus the pattern of the school job also changes. No fixed program can be useful longer than it functions to serve the most urgent demands thrust upon it by a constantly changing civilization.

Yet, until rather recently, the curriculum has been tardy in reshaping itself to the times. Inertia, or a reluctance to part with the old traditions, has held the school to the traditional program long after the program was outmoded. However, during the past ten years, social, political, and economic changes have assumed such proportions that educators have attacked curriculum problems with new energy. The challenge became too impelling to resist.

The term "curriculum" has sometimes been used to refer to a group of courses offered in the schools, as, for instance, the "general curriculum" or the "commercial curriculum." More recently the school curriculum is used to refer to all of the actual experiences of the pupil under the influence of the school. It is broader than courses of study; it is the school life in all its aspects.

Curriculum revision has recently assumed almost epidemic proportions. Three-fourths of the states have carried on state curriculum programs. Thousands of individual schools have inaugurated their own programs, designed to improve the educational opportunities of their youth. All fields of educational activity have come in for consideration. Some programs have involved the entire elementary and secondary areas. Others have entered only one field, and some have considered only one or two subjects each year. However, the movement has gone ahead.

In addition to the programs carried on by state departments and individual schools, such associations as the North



Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Progressive Education Association, and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have been recently engaged in curriculum activities. Curriculum laboratories and workshops have been established in many colleges and universities to aid in the revision movement. Lay groups throughout the country have interested themselves in curriculum issues, and schools have given ear to their suggestions.

### C. THE IOWA PROGRAM

In keeping with the general movement, Iowa has undertaken a revision of the secondary school curriculum. In July, 1944, Miss Jessie M. Parker, state superintendent of public instruction, appointed a central planning committee, charged with the responsibility of planning and coordinating a statewide secondary school program.

The first year of the program, the school year of 1945-1946, was devoted to a statewide study of some thirty-five curriculum issues by school administrators, teachers, and lay people. County meetings were held at which the study program was explained to school administrators. Then local secondary school faculties met in their own schools, holding a series of meetings throughout the year at which the curriculum issues were studied and discussed. Lay people, and students in some instances, participated in the discussions. Study manuals, in which the issues were discussed pro and con, were furnished to all schools in the state. Questionnaire forms were also supplied to all schools for the purpose of reporting their reactions on the various issues. These returns have been analyzed and summarized to make them serviceable to the committee on philosophy and purposes in formulating the aims and purposes of the revision program.

Toward the close of the 1945-1946 school year eight broad-area committees were set up, including the fields of language, science, social studies, physical education and health, practical arts, mathematics, and English. Committees were also established to prepare materials in guidance and extracurricular activities. Guided by the directives set up in this volume, these committees are charged with the responsibility of planning in general form the curricular materials in their



areas. Subject to the approval of the central planning committee, they will determine the policies and the directions to be taken in their respective areas, and they will supervise the production in their fields.

Subcommittees will be responsible for the actual writing of the curricular materials. Materials in some areas and in some subjects will first be prepared in mimeographed form for purposes of trial and evaluation. Units will be tried out in selected schools, their usefulness and practicability tested, and criticisms made available to the production subcommittees. In the light of these criticisms materials will be revised for printing.

The whole program will cover a period of three or four years. Recognizing the fact that the changing conditions of a dynamic society call for constant changes in the curriculum, the revision will be continuous. Periodic evaluation and modification of the program will be necessary.

#### D. THE PURPOSE OF THE PROGRAM

Recent developments in American life and in world affairs demand a re-evaluation and a remodeling of secondary education. These developments will be discussed somewhat at length in succeeding chapters. It is the purpose of this program to accommodate secondary education to the needs of the youth of this day, to set up a design for secondary education in Iowa. It is proposed to indicate what knowledges, skills, attitudes, and appreciations may best serve the youth of Iowa under present-day conditions. Materials and activities which may contribute to this end will be suggested. Procedures and methods will be recommended. Suggestions will also be made concerning the type of organization and administration of secondary schools which will make the recommended materials, activities, and procedures function to the best advantage. Suggestive programs will be provided.

#### E. THE SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

The revision program will deal with the entire sphere of activities in grades nine to twelve inclusive. In proposing changes, the present situation in secondary education will need to be taken into account. Present conditions in secondary school organization and management, the present in-



structional program, including teaching personnel, curricular offerings, enrollments, and methods in use, will have a bearing on revision proposals. The curriculum, if it is to be of use, must be planned in terms of the needs of young people in Iowa to the degree necessary to make it workable in the typical Iowa situation. This does not infer that the present situation should not be stretched or modified to accommodate a better program, but it does mean that changes need to be within the realm of possibility when prevailing buildings, enrollments, teacher personnel, financial adequacy, and other limiting factors are taken into account.

Any attempt at revision of the secondary curriculum will also need to be influenced by the thinking of the school administrators and teachers who man our schools, of the lay people who support public education, and of the students who attend the schools. The expressed opinions of these people will definitely, and to no small degree, influence the recommendations. Thus, the outcome of the whole project will be the result of the cooperative thinking and planning of professional educators, laymen, and students.

## F. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

In undertaking the curriculum program, the Department of Public Instruction recognizes that some schools within the state have already established satisfactory curricula. There is no disposition to prescribe the state program as a requirement for all schools. It can be helpful to most schools. Most of the smaller schools do not have sufficient time nor adequate resources to build curricula. It is hoped that the state program will be a boon to those schools, that it will provide them with definite objectives and a useful blueprint for their activities.

In undertaking a revision of the secondary school curriculum certain basic assumptions must be recognized:

1. Any effective curriculum program should grow out of an agreement on the functions and purposes of secondary education.

2. Curriculum development in the final analysis should be a local project. The purpose of the state program is to stimulate and supplement local programs and to provide a cur-



riculum for those schools which are unable to provide one locally.

3. Curriculum revision should be a continuous process, changes being made from time to time as changing conditions require.

4. It should be a cooperative undertaking, with teachers and students having a part.

5. Curriculum development should grow out of the needs of youth in a changing society.

6. Any effective program should involve teacher training and growth.

7. It should operate to achieve more functional outcomes.

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## CHAPTER II

### DEVELOPMENT AND BACKGROUND OF THE CURRICULUM

#### SOCIAL FORCES IN THE CURRICULUM

More than one hundred years ago Congressman Fisher Ames of Massachusetts made the statement, "A monarchy is like a full-rigged ship which sails proudly out of the harbor until it strikes a rock and sinks, while a democracy is more like a raft; it sails neither far nor fast, neither does it sink. But, damn it, your feet are always wet!" The story of the growth of the American high school is the story of the growth of democracy in these United States. Like democracy, the high school has "sailed neither far nor fast," neither has it sunk, but it has suffered from a chronic case of wet feet.

Some critics of the secondary school still argue that it doesn't matter greatly what is taught beyond certain fundamental skills. They contend that beyond the three R's one subject may be as effective as another—that the significant factor is the teacher and his method of teaching. Other critics insist that content is the most important element in the high school program. The latter point to the potency of the materials of indoctrination used in the schools of Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, and Militaristic Japan as striking examples of the power and dangers of controlled content in the schools. It took Hitler only a few years to develop a generation of rabid young Nazis, but it may take the democracies many years to re-educate these youth.

The argument is probably academic. Education is too complex and too intangible to permit any exact analysis of the many elements which influence the educational growth of young folk. Probably most experienced classroom teachers would agree that method, personalities, and content are equally important. And the meagre experimental evidence available seems to support that position.

Why, then, are certain subjects and courses included in



the high school program and others excluded? Is there any defensible reason for requiring all students to study algebra and not requiring them to study contemporary history or French? If content is important, are there any acceptable criteria for the selection of course materials? Is the only needed justification for a subject such as geometry the fact that it has been in the program for the past two hundred years? An institution which enrolls 7,000,000 young folk annually and professes to train them for responsibilities as citizens in a free society has a considerable task to perform. Certainly it cannot regard its obligation to society and to these young folk as persons with indifference and prejudice. If the high school demands that a student spend one-fourth of his school time in studying English, as many high schools do, it is not unreasonable to expect that its faculty be able to make a case for that expenditure of time in terms of the value of English to the student and to society.

If teachers are concerned with the improvement of the high school as an institution, then it is important that they make a periodic appraisal of its instructional program. At the present time the high schools of Iowa are offering more than 400 separate courses. Of that number only seven or eight are required for graduation by as many as 75 per cent of the high schools in the state. In contrast, most of the high school program was prescribed fifty years ago, and the total number of courses did not exceed fifty. What are the reasons underlying these changes? Have high schools over expanded? Are further changes required in terms of present-day social trends?

The most striking development in the high school program during the past fifty years has been the tremendous increase in the total number of courses offered. As stated previously, in 1890 secondary schools over the country offered approximately fifty separate courses, while in 1940 it is estimated that this number had increased to well over 400. As a matter of fact, certain large schools were offering more than 400 courses in their own programs in 1940.

The greatest gains in curricular offerings were in the fields of commerce, social studies, industrial arts, English and speech, and science. These gains hold true for Iowa as well as for the nation as a whole. For example, the total number

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of courses offered in social studies by Iowa high schools increased from 19 in 1934 to 41 in 1944. The increase in English and speech was from 18 to 38, in science from 11 to 36, and in industrial arts from 14 to 37 during this ten-year period.

Many factors have contributed to these large gains in the number of high school courses. Demands from special interest groups, the growth of specialized knowledge, changing educational theory, changes in the American social, economic, and political structure, and the explosive growth in secondary school enrollments, all have served to increase the courses offered in the high school.

The most powerful single influence affecting the expansion of offerings has been the mushroom growth in high school enrollments. In 1890 the total secondary school enrollment was roughly 350,000 and in 1940 it was nearly 6,800,000. The increase from 1930 to 1940 was well over 2,000,000 students. The percentage of youth between the ages of fourteen and eighteen enrolled in high school in 1890 was 6.7 per cent; in 1930 it was about 50 per cent; and in 1940 it was approximately 70 per cent! During the same fifty-year period the percentage of high school graduates going to college decreased from 75 per cent to 26 per cent.

Statistics are usually dull and "iffy," but the statistics on high school enrollments during the past fifty years explain many things concerning the school's educational performance. There may be some justification for the charge that secondary school instruction has been directed at mediocrity, but high school teachers have been faced with a steadily increasing class size and a corresponding increase in diversity of student abilities and interests.

The elective system and increased course offerings have been the most practicable means of meeting the wide variations in student interests and talents accompanying this growth in student population. The 6,800,000 youth in the secondary schools at the present time come from all types of homes and from every racial, religious, and economic group represented in the American social structure. Most of them come from the homes of laboring men, farmers, white collar workers, and small business men. In 1938, 50 per cent of the families of public school students had cash in-



comes of less than \$1,200 per year, and only 5 per cent of these homes had incomes of \$10,000 or more annually.

About 10 per cent of the students enrolled in high school come from homes with rich educational backgrounds; homes which provide superior opportunities for travel, reading, music, and other cultural experiences. Almost 90 per cent of the children from these homes graduate from high school and continue in college. At the other end of the scale, about 25 per cent of the students in public high schools come from homes which provide very meagre educational experiences. Most of the youth from these homes have little opportunity to read anything more cultural than "Western Stories" or a daily newspaper. Few have had an opportunity to travel except as their parents may have migrated from one state to another in search of employment, and few have had an opportunity for cultural experiences outside of the school.

Students in the American high school vary widely in abilities, social attitudes, and educational interests. In a single class in freshman English, a teacher is likely to have students whose intellectual capacities range all of the way from that of the average fourth-grade student to that of the average college freshman. While "I.Q.'s" may have little meaning except to an expert, the "I.Q.'s" for a single class of high school freshmen frequently range from 80 to 140. This same group may have a spread in reading ability of six or seven years.

A high school civics teacher may have in the same class of thirty or forty students, Baptists, Catholics, Hebrews, Christian Scientists, and Seventh-Day Adventists. There may be sons and daughters of labor organizers and corporation managers, farmers and drug store clerks, paper hangers and physicians. Faced with these extremes in abilities and interests, it is understandable that the high school teacher frequently shoots at average performance and only mildly attacks controversial social issues. As a consequence of the widening range in intellectual power, educational interests and occupational plans of its student population, the high school has had to accept new functions and to shift direction in its instructional emphasis.

During the 1930's only 13 per cent of the students who entered the ninth grade of the secondary school ever reached

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college and only 25 per cent of its graduates entered college. Approximately 87 per cent of the youngsters who entered high school could be expected to terminate their formal schooling either during their high school years or immediately following their graduation. In 1936-37 in New York state almost 60 per cent of the secondary school students left school before graduation. The average schooling for men in the armed forces in World War II was only tenth grade. If these conditions continue, it is apparent that a great majority of high school youth must get jobs or the girls find husbands soon after they leave school. Furthermore, if they receive any formal educational preparation beyond the elementary level for responsibilities as citizens, it has to be provided in the high schools.

Changes in the secondary curriculum have come slowly and painfully. A considerable amount of pruning has been done and more needs to be done. The medium-sized high school of one hundred forty students and seven or eight teachers cannot offer a full program of mathematics, Latin, science, ancient history, and other preparatory subjects, and at the same time meet public demands for agriculture, home economics, typewriting, auto mechanics, modern social problems, and similar terminal courses. Many secondary schools have straddled fences, and have made necessary, but unfortunate compromises. Some schools have made no effort to change. These schools still require all students to take conventional college preparatory subjects. On the other hand, many schools have swung to the opposite extreme and have over-loaded their curricula with vocational subjects.

The net result has been an accumulated rather than a planned curriculum. But with all the pressures, increased enrollments, entrenched subjects, teacher shortages, rapid-fire social changes, and inadequate finances, the wonder is that the high schools have done as well as they have. The present program is generally superior to anything the secondary school has had before. From the restricted language-centered and preparatory curriculum of fifty years ago has grown a flexible constants-with-electives program which represents a good beginning, at least, toward meeting the diverse needs of an extremely heterogeneous group of young folk.

The tremendous increase in secondary school enrollments



and the corresponding increase in curricular offerings reflects a growing acceptance on the part of the American people of the philosophy that the chief end of education in a free society should be to develop informed and responsible citizens in order to preserve and to improve that society. The training of the individual is a means to this broader social aim.

It is true that a considerable percentage of the gain in high school population is due to the ambitions of parents to improve the economic and social status of their children. Education has been the most potent force for social mobility in the American scene. The fervent desire of parents to make it possible for their children to achieve a higher station in life than they have had has been a powerful factor in building public education in the United States. It is the great American dream—the promise of democracy for the individual.

But from the time of Washington, Jefferson, and Franklin until the present, statesmen and educators have recognized that democracy cannot succeed, that a free society cannot improve itself, unless the members of that society are capable of governing themselves and of living together cooperatively. Education, therefore, must be inseparably related to social change. Its program must be judged primarily in terms of its contributions to the general welfare. Its immediate end is the education of the individual as a person, but its final aim is the improvement of democracy. If the school can help Joe Brown become a good farmer, an active and intelligent member of his community, and a responsible father, then America's investment in Joe Brown's education has been a sound investment.

Theoretically, democracy and democratic education function beautifully. Actually, the story isn't so pretty. Democracy and education are shaped by dominant social viewpoints and pressure groups. Sometimes these viewpoints and pressures are in the public interest and sometimes they are not. For example, our nation is now "blessed" with numerous committees under such disarming titles as "Friends of the Public Schools" and "National Society for the Preservation of Democracy." Many of these organizations profess to exist for the purpose of exposing un-Amer-

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ican propaganda in the schools and in governmental agencies, while in reality, they are seeking personal advantages for their members. The story of the development of the curriculum of the secondary school is a story of clashes between many groups and theories.

The first secondary schools in America, the Latin-grammar schools, were transplanted from England along with a pronounced system of social stratification. Their function was to prepare selected young men for advanced clerical studies in the university in order to preserve the views of the leaders of the church on religion, property, and government.

The prevailing form of government was theocracy. The church and state were inseparable. Although many of the New England colonists had fled England to escape religious intolerance and the rigid economic and social class lines of the mother country, they established a church order which was equally intolerant and set up a system of class lines that was just as rigid as that which they had sought to escape. Life in colonial New England was not democratic and neither were its schools. Mere geographical relocation does not change beliefs and ideologies. Colonial leaders brought with them pre-conceived ideas on religion and government, and they also brought with them the prevailing English fashions in education.

The Boston Latin-grammar school was an imitation of the Latin-grammar schools of England. Perhaps it was a modest imitation, but at least it attempted to follow the prevailing program of the English secondary schools. Its curriculum was limited largely to the study of Latin. Its purpose was to prepare boys for Harvard, and the purpose of Harvard was to train young men for the ministry and religious leadership. Its student body reflected the social stratification of the colony. Boys were selected from the upper social classes who showed promise of becoming church leaders. Latin has persisted in the high school curriculum to the present time, even though it has lost much of its early prestige. As was true in 1635, it is defended largely on the basis of a presumed disciplinary value.

As new blood and new ideas came into the colonies, modifications eventually were made in the curriculum of the school. The Separatists persisted in sniping at the Puritan



theocrats, and despite persecutions and bans, continued to preach the doctrine of separation of church and state. English bond servants, French Huguenots, Scotch-Irish individualists, and German peasants came to America to escape the conflicts, wars, poverty, and persecutions of Europe. Many of these immigrants gradually pushed out to the frontier where precedent, social stratification, and intolerance were submerged in the more important business of making a living. The granting of land in fee simple to freemen led to the decentralization of land and weakened the power of the theocrats.

The frontiersman, laborer, and small merchant became champions of the principle of the worth of the individual. Domination of political institutions by the church was weakened. Suffrage was broadened, and property rather than church membership was made the basis for the right to vote. Trade and agriculture became more profitable, and a merchant class developed.

However, it was more than 100 years before the liberal educational ideas of Milton, Locke, and Defoe, and the practical demands of a militant lot of farmers, merchants, and mechanics found expression in American education. A demand arose for a more practical and comprehensive educational program. The narrow, language-centered, and selective Latin-grammar school was attacked as being largely ornamental and frivolous.

The new educational views were ably expressed by Benjamin Franklin, who wrote, "As to their studies, it would be well if they would be taught everything that is useful and everything that is ornamental; but art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental."

Many of Franklin's proposals for a new type of secondary school were borrowed from Milton, Locke, Defoe and other English writers. His idea that education should be useful was the basic idea of the English grammar schools and the chivalric schools of the continent. But his proposals for practical arts in the curriculum grew out of a demand for such training by merchants, farmers and tradesmen in America.

Franklin proposed a new type of secondary school, the



academy. His outline for a curriculum was revolutionary in American education. English rather than Latin was to be the language of instruction. He recommended English grammar, composition, reading, recent literature, and speaking as fundamental courses. He also recommended drawing, penmanship, letter writing, agriculture, horticulture, commerce, industry, and mechanics to meet the requirements for practical training. History, geography, astronomy, arithmetic, geometry, and science were innovations in the new academy. Most of his proposals, including modern languages, which were included as a compromise by Franklin, were regarded by the Latinists as outside the realm of academic respectability.

The changes in the curriculum of the secondary school during the span of the academy were due to varied social and educational forces. The decline of the political influence of the church, increasing social mobility and the decline of class lines, the westward movement and the rise of individualism, the spread of French revolutionary ideas, and the beginnings of industrialization, all made an impact on the school. However, the most powerful pressures stemmed from a growing dissatisfaction with the classical curriculum on the part of merchants and tradesmen. This, combined with the crusading of such forceful personalities as Franklin, led to numerous proposals for curricular reform.

Many of the changes proposed for the curriculum of the academy failed to develop beyond the paper stage. The Latin-grammar school was a college preparatory institution, and the colleges had prescribed the curriculum and trained the teachers for these schools for so long that the academy, with but few exceptions, was unable to break away from the academic dominance of the college.

By the early 1800's the continued development of industry, commerce, and business, and continued westward expansion brought renewed criticism of the type of education being offered in the secondary schools. Small business men, farmers, and tradesmen again demanded a practical education for their sons. At the same time, sentiment developed for the extension of educational opportunities to those boys whose families could not afford to pay the high tuition charged by most academies.



As a result of these demands and criticisms, a public high school was established at Boston in 1821. Its curriculum was a hybrid—a cross between the Latin-grammar school and the academy. Less emphasis was placed on Latin and more attention was given to English, history, mathematics, and science. The popular agitation for practical education was reflected by the inclusion of such subjects as surveying, navigation, mensuration, and bookkeeping.

The establishment of the English Classical School at Boston was an important step in setting a precedent for public secondary education, but it made few unique contributions to the curriculum of the secondary school. The Massachusetts law of 1827 required towns of 500 families to teach United States history, bookkeeping, geometry, algebra, and surveying. Towns of 400 population and over were required to teach Latin, Greek, history, rhetoric, and logic. The same law made support of a public high school mandatory in towns of 500 or more families.

Few significant changes were made in the public high school program between 1821 and 1890. However, in 1861 the high school at Lowell, Massachusetts, offered optional curricula, and in 1870 Newton High School in the same state introduced elective courses. These innovations were important but not fundamental.

Following the Civil War the program of the high school became so widely varied and lacking in systematic organization that the colleges found it impossible to build a program which was articulated with that of the high school. There was little consistency in the content and grade placement of courses in the many new schools being organized over the country. Although high school enrollments were increasing slowly and the elective movement gradually caught on to make some provisions for individual differences, there were few attempts to make basic changes in the curriculum.

By 1885 the college was again the dominant force in shaping the program of the high school. Despite the rapid growth of agriculture, industry, transportation, and business, and despite the growth of large cities and the shifting of population toward urban centers, the curriculum of the school was relatively unaffected by the social, political, and economic ramifications of these changes. Meanwhile, the colleges were

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active in seeking revisions in the high school pattern. Many colleges were ambitious to become universities and were interested in having the high schools teach much of the content then included in the first year of college. Faculties of higher institutions criticized the waste of time and repetition of materials in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school and campaigned for greater economy of time in grades seven through twelve.

A "Committee of Ten" was appointed by the National Education Association and submitted its recommendations on secondary school studies in 1894. President Eliot of Harvard served as chairman of this committee and six of the ten members were college people. It proposed four curricula for the high school: (1) the Latin-Scientific, (2) the Classical, (3) the Modern Languages, and (4) the English curriculum. Latin was required in each of these curricula with the exception of the Modern Languages program.

The report of the Committee succeeded remarkably in ignoring popular demands for a more practical type of institution. The forces which had led to the replacement of the Latin-grammar school by the academy and of the academy by the public high school were completely disregarded. The program proposed by the Committee of Ten was primarily a college preparatory program dominated by languages and making a few concessions to the sciences and social studies. English, mathematics, modern languages, history, geography, physics, botany, and zoology were well established in the high school curriculum by this time.

There were few subjects, with the exceptions of United States history and science, which reflected any concern for contemporary movements and problems. Although many laymen were convinced of the importance of making the school more realistic and functional, the academicians were still in the saddle and successfully resisted attempts to steer the school down more utilitarian paths.

The curricular pattern proposed by the Committee of Ten was the high school bible for more than a quarter of a century. Its influence is still strongly felt in many high schools. Even through the period of rapid expansion in high school enrollments, from 1890 to 1940, the subjects proposed by



this committee continued to occupy a favored position in the curriculum.

The story of the growth in high school enrollments and the resultant expansion in course offerings has already been told. It is a story of a confused institution, overwhelmed by the sheer weight of numbers and hopefully searching for some way to care for them. It is also a story of a democratic institution which has remained largely under local control and which has enjoyed most of the advantages and abuses of such control.

It would be naive to attempt to trace the influence of the many complex factors which have shaped the subject offerings of local high schools during the past four or five decades. Society has been on a technological binge and apparently hasn't yet begun to taper off. The gap between science and social progress has grown steadily wider. H. G. Wells' warning, "Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe" has struck home. But man seems to be incapable and unwilling to bring his intelligence to bear on the control of the machines which appear destined to destroy him.

If education is the answer, then the secondary school has a significant part to play as a supplementary educational agency. Obviously it is only one of many agencies, but it may well provide the basic attitudes, information, and skills essential to the continuous educational growth of individual citizens as adult members of society. And if social and cultural advancement is the most critical problem of contemporary civilization, it follows that the schools must gear their program to meet that problem.

### Social Changes and the Curriculum

Throughout the history of the American secondary school there has been a considerable lag between the program of the high school and developments in the contemporary social scene. Although groups of laymen and some educators periodically have attempted to give the curriculum an injection of social consciousness, for the most part it hasn't taken. Many teachers and administrators have been sincere in their belief that the conventional disciplinary and skill subjects were most appropriate for preparing students for life out-

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side of school. Others have battled to make the current social scene the focal point of the curriculum.

Consequently, the curriculum of most high schools at the present time is a weird mixture of old and new, social and disciplinary, vocational and cultural. It lacks direction and purpose. No valid criteria have been utilized in planning and selecting content.

It is the viewpoint of the Iowa Committee on curriculum improvement that the high school pattern should be planned primarily in terms of two general criteria: (1) youth characteristics and interests, and (2) the nature and needs of present-day society. It is the purpose of the Central Committee in this section of the report to review briefly some of the major trends in our social structure and to suggest certain revisions in the curriculum of the high school in terms of these social movements. Proposals for making curricular adjustments to fit some of the common interests and characteristics of youth are presented in another section.

For many years social scientists have pointed to the rapid growth of industry and the accompanying shift in population toward urban centers as the most significant and far-reaching movement in the American scene. It is an economic and social shift that has greatly altered our standard of living and the makeup of our basic institutions. When the American economy was still an agricultural economy the family was a compact self-sustaining unit, producing most of the necessities of life and living under conditions which promoted strong family ties and a feeling of security and stability upon the part of individual members. Today a majority of families live in large cities, are dependent for a livelihood on corporations and industry, and turn to commercial agencies for their social and recreational activities.

The implications of these shifts have been widely publicized. Specific examples of concomitant changes in our way of life can be cited without end. The typical workingman performs a highly routine task eight hours per day five days per week. He is required to belong to a union in order to secure bargaining power with absentee owners; he has increased leisure time with little training to use it constructively, and he is forced to live in a metropolitan area



with its crowded conditions and resultant social and economic problems.

The most striking changes resulting from industrialization and the urban movement have hit at the American family. And it is these changes that have the most serious implications for the curriculum of the school. Statistics on changes in the makeup of the family are generally familiar. The size of the urban family has been decreasing so sharply that the big cities are no longer able to replenish their populations without help from rural areas. More alarming is the fact that the more intelligent and more educated persons are not producing children.

That the family is growing less stable is poignantly shown by the jump in divorce rates from 16 per cent in the late 1930's to more than 30 per cent in 1946. Many mothers in cities are forced to work outside of the home in order to meet the high living costs of the city. Children in urban centers turn to the many sources of commercial entertainment for leisure time activities and, consequently, are out of the home more and spend less time with their parents than do rural youth.

Children in cities generally have few work responsibilities around the home and little opportunity to learn to work and to accept responsibility. Gangs are a natural consequence of large numbers of children being thrown together in crowded areas with a high proportion of leisure time on their hands.

Perhaps the most serious problem for education growing out of the changing status of the family is the fact that parents and children have fewer common interests than formerly and, consequently, the present generation of parents is failing to provide the type of training for their children that was provided by their own fathers and mothers. When a boy worked closely with his father doing chores or as an apprentice tradesman he not only obtained valuable vocational training, but he also secured important training in the responsibilities and duties of a family head. Perhaps the situation is not as bad for girls, but with many mothers working outside of the home or attending bridge parties, modern daughters do not have an opportunity to gain a wealth of



experience which might aid them in assuming responsibilities for homemaking.

The schools cannot stem the flow of population toward large cities nor can they train young people for family responsibilities without a lot of cooperation from other agencies. But the schools can aid materially in educating future parents and thereby contribute to more stable family life in America.

Through class work in home economics, social studies, literature, science, and other fields it should be possible to give students some much needed and useful information on family relationships, child care, mental hygiene, nutrition, home management, the family as a basic institution, and related problems which affect successful family living.

More important will be the training and experience for which the school can set the stage in developing wholesome values and attitudes and a sense of responsibility and cooperation. Desirable coeducational activities; social, recreational, civic, and the like, may be provided through the proper type of extra-curricular and informal classroom relationships.

Certainly the school can provide the right kind of recreational activities and work with other community agencies in giving city youngsters a chance to enjoy constructive leisure time experiences. It may mean keeping the school house open twelve hours out of the day and adding to the faculty personnel, but results in terms of good citizenship and reduced delinquency will more than justify any increased costs.

Developments in transportation and communication have brought far-reaching changes to our way of life. The railroads first shortened time distance; then the automobile and airplane further revised our conceptions of distance. To-day our whole economy and our social and political thinking have had to be altered to meet the needs of a shrinking world. Localisms have been lessened, recreational patterns have been modified, world diplomacy and military strategy have been made over. Almost every phase of education has been affected. New requirements in science, social studies, safety education, and languages become apparent.

The agencies of mass impression, newspapers, periodicals, the radio, and sound motion pictures, have come to be power-



ful forces for influencing public opinion. Their power in modifying mass attitudes and behavior is both significant and sobering. Advertising has become an accepted part of these media for shaping public opinion. Schools have benefited by these developments in the form of teaching devices, but new responsibilities also have been thrust upon schools because of them. The importance of textbooks has been lessened, and the need for propaganda analysis has increased.

With the coming of sound motion pictures and radio we have a broader dissemination of information than ever before. On the whole the general public is better informed, but at the same time, there is a greater need for analysis of information and for discriminative thinking. Young people must learn to read and to listen critically. They must be alerted—not only to protect freedom of speech and the agencies of communication, but also to guard against the prostitution of these agencies by special interest groups.

The wealth of American resources has been a determining factor in shaping the pattern of our culture since colonial days. "The land of plenty" has characterized our position with regard to richness of soil, abundance of mineral products, and vastness of forest resources. These resources have marked us as a nation of vast natural wealth in comparison with other countries of the world. The American standard of living is largely the result of our natural endowment. But our resources are wearing thin in spots. The time is past due for intelligent husbandry.

Tyron and Schoenfeld in *Recent Social Trends* state, "Men are prone to think of resources as something fixed. In point of fact they change, though slowly. The minerals are gradually exhausted; the fisheries may decline, the virgin stand of timber disappears in time; the soils are being depleted, or perhaps more significant, the ratio of population to the land available may change. How far, then, is our original endowment dissipated, and what are the prospects for the future? Can the limited resources of fuel and metal continue to meet the burden of an increasing demand? Will there be land enough to feed our people, or is population destined to press harder on the means of subsistence? The nation is passing out of the pioneer stage of exploitation.



Does the transition cast a shadow on the future? And how is American society adjusting itself to the change?"

These questions provide a challenge for those individuals and institutions interested in maintaining the American standard of living and in preserving the traditional American way of life. Their implications for education are clear cut and compelling.

There has been an increasing draft upon minerals. "Our economic life has been characterized by a rapid increase in the consumption of the earth materials until the United States has come to use metal and power on a scale attained by no other country. From 1860 to 1913 the population increased threefold while production of pig iron increased 38 fold; of coal 39 fold; of the total mineral fuels 44 fold; and of copper 76 fold . . . While all branches of business have tended to grow rapidly in the United States, the mineral industries have developed faster than any other major division, far outstripping agriculture and exceeding even the growth of manufactures and rail transport."<sup>1</sup>

The problem of conservation is to preserve America's diminishing supply of natural resources and to prevent their needless waste. The responsibility of the high school is to make American youth conscious of the problems and need of conservation.

Farm lands have been exploited under a society committed to a laissez faire economy. Until recent years, little fertilizing of land has been done with other than animal waste. Consequently, nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, sulphur, and other elements of fertility have been removed from the soil in the crops and animals or animal products sold from farms. A large part of these elements of fertility has not been returned to the soil.

Leaching by rain and the washing away of soil by drainage waters has been accentuated by the removal of forests and natural grass cover. Erosion, particularly in the south and southwest, has depleted vast areas of productive soil. The immediate result of this wasting away of the productivity of the soil may not be serious enough to cause food

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<sup>1</sup>F. G. Tyron and Margaret H. Schoenfeld, "Utilization of Natural Wealth," *Recent Social Trends*, McGraw-Hill 1933, p. 60.



shortages on a national basis, but the local effect on areas affected is painful, and the ultimate result of continued depletion may be disastrous.

It has been estimated that the annual cut of forest resources, plus destruction by insects and fires, is four times the annual growth. While building substitutes such as plaster board, strawboard, brick, steel, concrete, and other materials are being increasingly used, the eventual depletion of forests is certain to bring distressing results.

Of greater importance than the conservation of mineral, soil, and forest resources is the conservation of human resources. "The health of the people depends to some extent upon the immunities and susceptibilities, upon the energies and defects inherited from past generations and to a greater extent on the food supply, housing, conditions of labor, recreation, family and social adjustments and other environmental influences. It may depend to an even greater degree upon the utilization of scientific medical knowledge, techniques, material and equipment by the individual, by the practitioners who may attend him and by the organizations that may minister to his health."<sup>1</sup>

Schools, and education generally, have an undeniable responsibility for preserving health. How well the job has been done is indicated by the nation's accident record, the number of deaths from preventable disease, and the armed service rejection records during the recent war.

Figures released by the National Safety Council indicate that accidental deaths in the United States in 1944 totalled 95,000, or 717 per 100,000 population. In 1943 accidents ranked fifth among the causes of death. In 1944 total disabling injuries numbered 9,800,000. About 340,000 resulted in some permanent disability, ranging from finger amputation to complete crippling. Estimated costs of deaths and injuries totalled \$4,900,000,000, including wage loss, medical expenses, overhead costs of insurance, property damage in fires and motor vehicle accidents, and so-called "indirect" cost of occupational accidents.

The causes of death were varied. Falls caused 26,000 deaths, motor vehicles 24,300, burns 10,600, drowning 6,900,

<sup>1</sup>Harry H. Moore, "Health and Medical Practice," *Recent Social Trends*, McGraw-Hill, 1933, p. 1061.



railroads 5,050, firearms 1,450, poisons 2,150, poisonous gas 1,950, and other causes 19,000.

The Iowa Department of Public Safety reports that in 1945 there were 14,276 automobile accidents in Iowa, in which 366 persons were killed, 1,159 seriously injured, and 4,984 received minor injuries.

There has been a definite improvement in health during the past fifty years. Elimination of epidemics of cholera, epidemic typhus fever, yellow fever, decline in infant mortality, decline in diphtheria, progress against tuberculosis have all served to reduce the general death rate and increase the average length of life. Death rates ranged from 20 to 30 per 1,000 prior to 1900. In 1938 the rate was only 10.6 per 1,000. A baby born in 1850 had an average expectancy of thirty-nine years of life; a baby born in 1938 had an average expectancy of more than sixty-two years of life.

Selective service records, showing the number of causes of rejections for military service, throw light on the health condition of the nation. In October, 1944, Polk County, Iowa, figures showed that approximately 35 per cent of the men between 18 and 38 years, one of every three men examined, were physically unfit for military service. These figures parallel those of the National Selective Service. Causes for rejection on the national level are listed as follows: 36.2 per cent mental and nervous diseases and anti-social tendencies; 8.9 per cent musculo-skeletal defects and feet; 9.5 per cent eyes, ears, nose, and asthma; 7.5 per cent cardiovascular and varicose veins; 6.8 per cent abdominal viscera and hernia; 3.0 endocrine and genito-urinary; 8.6 tuberculosis and syphilis; 19.5 per cent miscellaneous. The fact that a large percentage of these causes for rejection are preventable or remediable places a responsibility upon society and schools.

Recognizing that society has a stake in the preservation of natural and human resources, government has taken preliminary steps to conserve them. The term "conservation of natural resources" came into common use in 1908 when President Theodore Roosevelt called a conference of governors of the states which resulted in the National Conservation Commission. Activities of conservation agencies have



included productive use of agricultural land, continuous production of forests, development of waters, economy in the use of mineral reserves, the building up of fisheries, the increased protection of wild life, and the proper handling and safeguarding of recreation resources.

On the side of human resources government on various levels has taken specific measures to prolong life and make it more secure, more useful, and more pleasurable. Governmental departments of health are to be found in every state and in nearly every city, but in few counties. <sup>1</sup>"There are in the 3,000 counties of the United States 600 single county health units and 200 other county-district health units serving more than one county each. . . . In 1913 there were no child hygiene divisions in state boards of health. Today all states have such divisions. In 1907 there was no city in the country with 95 per cent or more of its milk pasteurized. Today at least 52 cities of over 25,000 population can claim this distinction. In 1906 there were no cities in the country protecting their water supplies by chlorination. Today more than 90 per cent of the cities with over 50,000 population so protect their supplies.

"Municipal health departments have grown in personnel, and money expenditures have increased. Comparative studies of these are made from time to time and reported thru such agencies as the United States Public Health Service and the American Public Health Association."

Health instruction and conservation in the schools has generally lagged. Schools must provide health examinations, competent health instruction, and a balanced program of recreation and physical fitness. The problems of mental and physical health are among the most urgent problems requiring attention in the high school curriculum.

Of the many significant trends affecting our national development, the increasing complexity of business and the rise of big business have been extremely potent in influencing the American way of life. <sup>2</sup>"Linking men, materials, and technology is the economic organization—another factor of social change—which helps to determine our material cul-

<sup>1</sup>*Health Education*, National Education Association, 1941, pp. 32-33.

<sup>2</sup>Edwin F. Gay and Leo Wolman, *Trends in Economic Organization*, McGraw-Hill, 1933, p. 218.



ture and precipitates mechanical inventions, just as inventions in turn carry with them social consequences and stimulate social discoveries. . . .

"The domination of American business by the large corporation and the growth in the scale of industrial operations, exemplified in the development of methods of mass production, selling, and like, has long been an observed tendency in American economic organization. Mergers and combinations have centralized control. Small businesses have been hard pressed to meet the competition of larger organizations."

Among the effects of this movement has been the introduction of more efficient machines and the increased productivity of labor, with the resulting technological unemployment. This, together with the depression of the 1930's, brought about the creation of government agencies for furnishing employment, the W.P.A. and P.W.A., and semi-educational agencies such as the N.Y.A. and the C.C.C., designed to take youth out of the labor market and to furnish them educational opportunities. These governmental organizations for unemployed youth and the conditions which brought them forth created significant influences on education. What should be the responsibility of schools in providing lengthened educational programs to keep youth in school, provide them with training for making a living, and gear the educational system to an era of machine production?

As a natural accompaniment of centralized control in industry has come increased power in the hands of capital and management. The problem of preserving a proper balance between management and labor and protecting the public welfare has become more and more difficult. Opposing views regarding a solution of this problem have become rather clearly defined.

One group of thinkers subscribe to the traditional philosophy that there should be a minimum of government control, that individual initiative and private property must not be interfered with. They maintain that competition would keep business in line and that it is not the proper sphere of government to attempt to control industry. Theirs is a laissez-faire philosophy.

An opposing group holds that there should be some regu-



lation or increased control for the public good. It is argued that government should provide among other things safety regulations, child labor laws, interstate commerce regulations, banking regulations, and restrictions on labor unions.

Gaining impetus from the depression of the early 1930's, and further increased by the war, social control has spread to touch almost every phase of American life. Government has increased its influence on the economy of the nation through price and wage controls, and regulation of production, exchange, distribution, and consumption.

With the end of actual fighting on the battle fronts, there was a vociferous demand to remove government restraints and controls. As this is being written Congress has voted to remove most war-time restrictions on business and industry. Though the long-time trend seems to be in the direction of increased government regulation, there is continued opposition from many sources. Educational programs reflect current confusion. Courses of study must be revised to include increased emphasis on social, economic, and political issues. Youth must be alert to contemporary affairs and must be trained in the weighing and evaluation of materials. They must be educated to think critically concerning the broad social issues which affect the structure of democracy.

The rise of organized labor has been a significant force in our recent social and economic development. With the organization of the American Federation of Labor in 1881 the power of labor has gradually increased through the influence given it by collective bargaining and the strike. As labor unions have increased in membership and power, they have gained a more potent place in our economy, and their ability to bargain with management for a voice in industry has grown.

The differences between management and union labor illustrate the need for adjusting human relations to the conditions of modern production. <sup>1</sup>"Wages, hours, conditions of labor, security of job, the status of the individual and of classes in society, and the right of the individual to par-

<sup>1</sup>Charles C. Barnes and John B. Dail, *American Life and Problems*, Longman, 1940, p. 497.



ticipate in making the policies which affect his own life are interests of labor."

The National Labor Relations Act, known as the Wagner Act, passed in the 1930's greatly influenced relations of capital and labor. It signalled a new day in the history of labor relations. Labor's position, under a sympathetic federal administration and a friendly public opinion, has grown constantly stronger. Now, however, with the close of hostilities in Europe and the Pacific, nationwide strikes have made the government and the public generally conscious of the strength labor has attained. Crippling strikes have cooled public sympathy toward big labor organizations and Congress has passed the Taft-Hartley Act to curb labor's power to strike where the public welfare is involved.

Better informed public opinion and a more understanding attitude on the part of both labor and management are necessary for a rational solution of the labor relations problems. This offers another challenge to education.

Rural life and agriculture during the past two generations have not escaped the social and economic changes which have so generally affected our whole pattern of living. With the development and expansion of industry and transportation and the consequent growth of large cities, the pattern of rural life and agricultural activity has been greatly altered. Population has moved from the farms and small towns to the cities. In 1930 only 24.8 per cent of the national population lived on farms, while fifty years ago a large majority of our total population lived in villages, small towns, and on farms. The size of farms has increased; small towns have grown smaller; with improved transportation, the country church is disappearing, and even the rural one room school is disappearing in areas where all-season roads make pupil transportation feasible.

Walker, Beach, and Jamison in *American Democracy and Social Change*, state, "Few persons would dispute the overwhelming importance of the farmer and his occupation. In a sense he carries the world upon his back. Though his relative numbers are decreasing in industrialized areas, the demands upon his productive skill are no less important than formerly. His activities supply a great proportion of both human and industrial needs.



"American agriculture still ranks as the nation's leading industry. The number of farms exceeds 6,000,000. The value of the land and buildings so included approaches \$50,000,000,000, to which several billion dollars might be added for livestock and machinery. Until 1927 agriculture had never provided less than 40 per cent of our annual exports in terms of value. Billions of dollars of annual purchasing power for the products of other industries resides in the farming groups alone. Roughly one-fourth the national population is engaged in agriculture, while additional millions gain a livelihood in agriculturally dependent towns and villages. Clearly, the welfare of the rural population is the welfare of the nation, and constitutes a social responsibility of major importance."

Following the Civil War, American agriculture expanded by leaps and bounds. The number of farms increased from 2,000,000 in 1860 to 6,500,000 in 1920. The value of crops grew from \$3,500,000,000 in 1900 to \$8,500,000,000 in 1915. Various factors entered into the creation of this expansion: the rapid increase in population, the liberal land policies of the state and federal governments, the development of transportation facilities, the progress of mechanical invention applicable to agriculture, the application of scientific methods to agriculture, and finally, the influence of expanding markets.

This revolution in agriculture has produced profound social changes. Great shifts have come about in population: agriculture has gone on a business basis, replacing the pioneer methods of the early days; rural social life, with its husking bees and barn raisings, has largely broken down; standards of living have risen; home ties have been loosened; and, in fact, all phases of rural life have been altered.

Schools cannot avoid acknowledging these changes and making provision, through organizational, instructional, and curriculum alterations, for the resulting changes in the needs of youth.

In an age of apprehension, when we are wondering what may happen next to disturb the national equilibrium as it exists at the moment, the possible explosion of inter-group tensions presents real cause of anxiety. These tensions appear among racial groups, in industry, and to a degree

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among religious organizations. In each instance the cause is fundamentally a combination of fear, suspicion, jealousy, and selfishness. It is the cause which in international relations breeds war and in domestic relations fosters racial discrimination, strikes, and lockouts, exploitation, and intolerance. It may well be the seed which will germinate into social or industrial or economic revolution unless men learn to understand each other better, and unless selfishness and intolerance give way to justice and fair dealing.

As one of the agencies generally recognized as being charged with the responsibility for shaping the attitudes and ideals of the people, schools must assume this responsibility and adapt their programs to a critical need for intelligent and tolerant group understanding.

The comparatively simple framework of federal government originally set up at the time of the nation's birth has gradually evolved into a complex government to meet the needs of a growing, changing nation. A simple economy, based on individual enterprise, in which the federal government played a minor role in the business and industrial life of the people, has become a highly intricate and socialized economy, in which government takes a hand in practically every phase of the nation's life. The laissez-faire policy of government toward business has had to be revised.

This expansion of government activity has been the result of a changed viewpoint concerning the functions of government. With the passing of free land, the rapid growth in population in large cities, the coming of integration and combination in big business, the rise of organized labor, the division of labor, and specialization in all phases of production and exchange, men have become more dependent upon one another. More opportunities for conflicting interests have appeared, and there is more chance for strife and conflict. Hence, the government has seen fit not only to act as an arbitrator in cases of dispute, but to so regulate the operations of production as to preclude, so far as is possible, occasions where conflicts might arise. Motivated by a belief that the welfare of society is the responsibility of government, government has reached out into more and more phases of the economy as it appeared that social welfare demanded it.



Impetus was given this movement toward expansion of government activity by the depression of the 1930's. Apparently the laissez-faire program had broken down, and government felt called upon to act in bringing order out of economic chaos. Then came World War II, with government taking over the regulation of production, transportation, prices, and wages. The long time trend is definitely toward more and more social control, though a post-war reaction seems to favor releasing some government controls, as is indicated by the recent passing of O. P. A.

As government reaches further into American life and engages in more activities, there is greater occasion for pressure groups and lobbies with special interests at stake. Office seekers, dependent on votes to gain election, become increasingly subjected to the influences of interested individuals and groups. Larger opportunity for corruption results. The need for honest, intelligent, and courageous public officials grows with the expansion of governmental functions.

The educational implications of this change are apparent. Schools must improve their offerings in the social studies, so that youth may better understand the various conflicting ideologies concerning the proper functions of government and so that young people may become better acquainted with the new social order, both as public servants and as citizens. With more people engaged in government the need for intelligent social thinking increases. Proper social attitudes grow in importance. While it is not within the province of schools to indoctrinate for particular ideologies, it is within the justifiable functions of schools to enlighten youth regarding issues, to cultivate an inquiring frame of mind, and to encourage attitudes of fair-mindedness and social justice.

Before World War I, world interdependence was generally recognized as having to do largely with international trade. Nations had made little effective effort to cooperate in bringing about better understanding of their common problems. After the first World War the League of Nations was organized in an attempt to improve international relations. America failed to join, and the ineffectiveness of the League in preventing war culminated in World War II.

Now, in the wake of the most destructive war in all his-



tory, with the memory of the devastation wrought by the atomic bomb fresh in our minds, we resolve again that war must stop. It may be that nations really believe it now, and that they are ready to implement peace. Time alone will tell. The "one world" idea has been generally accepted in theory at least, and nations are struggling around the conference table to develop mutual understanding. The United Nations Organization and UNESCO represent efforts to bring about world security.

What responsibilities does the move toward world unity place upon education? Quite clearly schools are called upon to shift emphasis from a study of history, geography, sociology, and economics on a national basis to a study of these subjects on a world basis. There needs to be a greater study of the human side of world problems, a recognition that people the world over are motivated by much the same factors, a general acceptance of the truth that no people can prosper indefinitely, standing alone. Schools must first furnish an opportunity to learn the truth, must encourage an attitude of open-mindedness and tolerance regarding all peoples, and must stimulate youth to support moves aimed toward international good-will.

Schools are the product of the times, and it is the responsibility of schools to equip youth for the times in which they live. As J. Minor Gwynn declares, <sup>1</sup>"The school does not work in a vacuum, but has to operate in cooperation with the home, the church, and all other agencies of society which influence the development of the child. One of the primary tasks of the teacher is to use the curriculum to help the pupil make satisfactory adjustments to these sociological and economic factors." As changes occur in all phases of life the curriculum must change to meet the new needs. It cannot be a static thing, but must be dynamic and flexible—alive to the needs of youth at all times and in all places.

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<sup>1</sup>J. Minor Gwynn, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*, Macmillan, 1943, p. 103.



## CHAPTER III

### THE IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOL AS IT IS

One thing is certain, that in any program of improvement of secondary education in Iowa the first step must be to get a clear picture of the existing educational situation. Historically, secondary education in Iowa is a little over a hundred years old. The earliest secondary schools were private academies and seminaries. In Des Moines County Union Academy was approved in 1839. By 1890 there were ninety of these schools. Public high schools were authorized in 1849, just three years after Iowa became a state, and the first public high schools were established at Dubuque and Tipton in 1856. Fifteen years later there were forty of these open to the boys and girls of Iowa.

At the present time, according to the Iowa Educational Directory for 1945-1946 there are 872 public and 85 parochial and private high schools. There are approximately 110,000 students enrolled in these secondary schools, with an average enrollment of 128. The size of the schools varies from a total of 2 to 2,827 pupils. There are fewer than 100 students in each of 628 of these schools. Total enrollment of fewer than 35 is found in 125 schools, fewer than 20 in 27. The statistics by enrollment classification show that 35 schools enroll more than 400 students, 146 schools enroll between 400 and 126 pupils, 248 high schools enroll between 125 and 66, and 418 schools have fewer than 65 students.

#### ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

There are six general types of high school districts in Iowa. The consolidated, which grew in number rapidly a generation ago, now number 365. Sixty-three per cent of these have an enrollment of 65 or below. Thirty-one per cent enroll from 66 to 125, and 6 per cent enroll from 126 to 400. No consolidated schools enroll more than 400.

There are 366 town districts in centers of population of



2,000 and under. The city districts number 108, with 119 high schools. Four of these cities have more than one high school. These are divided into first and second-class districts, with 17 of the first-class districts in cities above 15,000 population, and 90 second-class districts in cities ranging in population from 2,000 to 14,999. The fourth type is made up of the townships with high schools, which number 12, and the fifth comprises the independent schools in unincorporated communities with a total of seven. The sixth group is made up of the rural independent districts, numbering three.

The public high schools of Iowa are predominately four-year institutions. Some are three-year, called senior high schools, including the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. A few do not include the eleventh and twelfth grades.

The typical high school in Iowa is small. The average number of faculty members per school is eight and seven-hundredths and the median four and two-hundredths. The median pupil-teacher ratio for the school year 1945-1946 was thirteen to one, and the range from three to twenty-nine pupils per teacher. The average number of classes per teacher for the same year was five and two-hundredths, and the average number of pupils per class, nineteen. The median salary for the year 1945-1946 was about \$1,900 per year. This median has materially risen in 1947. The average tenure for teachers in any one school was about five years.

Iowa secondary schools employ about 8,300 teachers and administrators. There are approximately 500 high school and 150 junior high principals. There are about 7,000 high school and 1,200 junior high teachers. The number of special subject supervisors is small, and these are usually found only in the larger school systems.

The average number of faculty meetings held in a school year is five, with some schools holding only one at the beginning of the year. The usual practice is to hold faculty meetings only for administrative or social purposes. Very little in-service training is attempted in the typical school.

The number of periods per day and the time allotment vary markedly from school to school. Forty-two per cent use an eight-period day, 32 per cent a six-period day, and



23 per cent seven periods. A common practice in smaller high schools is the alternation of subject offerings from year to year, with the resulting combination of classes. Approximately 83 per cent of Iowa high schools schedule extra-curricular activities during the school day.

### PRESENT ORGANIZATION

The majority of 68 per cent of the high schools in the state are organized on the eight-four plan; about 10 per cent are on the six-two-four, and a little over 7 per cent on the six-three-three basis. Some have a five-three-four and seven-five organization, with a few having various other types of organizational plan.

The six-two-four and six-three-three plans are most often found in the schools with an enrollment above 400. As the size of the school decreases the eight-four plan becomes more popular, with more than 86 per cent of the schools with an enrollment of sixty-five and below following this procedure.

### GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

The majority of schools in Iowa require sixteen units of credit for graduation, and the range is from fourteen to eighteen units. This in general follows the pattern of recognizing as a normal student load four subjects per semester.

The number of subjects that the specifically prescribed for graduation ranges from zero to sixteen, with a fairly even distribution over the entire range. The median number specified is nine, and the average number eight. Over 15 per cent of the schools have no requirement covering the specific courses or fields necessary for graduation.

There are certain legal requirements in Iowa which are supposed to be met by all approved schools. The state requires American history, American government, physical education of all students in high school. The schools are required to offer a semester of economics and sociology.

The specific subjects required by the highest percentage of high schools for graduation are as follows:

English 9 .....	82 %	Plane Geometry .....	42.7%
English 10 .....	82 %	General Science .....	61.7%
American Literature .....	65.7%	Biology .....	26.2%
English Literature .....	43.7%	Physics .....	24.2%

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American Government .....	79.8%	Home Economics .....	39.3%
World History .....	66.2%	Industrial Arts .....	39.5%
American History .....	78.8%	General Agriculture .....	20.7%
Algebra .....	59.3%	Physical Education .....	62.7%

In terms of subject fields the following graduation requirements are found in the high schools of Iowa:

Subject Field	Per Cent of Schools Requiring		Average Number Units Required
	1945	1944	1944
Mathematics .....	74.6	74.6	1.3
Social Studies .....	83.3	83.0	2.2
English .....	82.3	83.3	2.9
Science .....	71.9	72.4	1.3
Languages .....	3.7	0.5	1.0
Music .....	1.7	2.0	0.5
Art .....	0.2	0.2	0.5
Applied Arts .....	48.4	48.2	0.7
Agriculture .....	23.2	20.7	1.0
Commerce .....	1.7	1.7	0.7
Physical Education .....	55.1	62.7	1.0

The highest per cent of schools which make any prescription of courses for graduation prescribe English, social studies, mathematics, and science. Applied arts is a requirement in approximately one-half of the schools. Agriculture is found in the prescribed group in less than one-fourth of the schools. Physical education is a requirement in a little over 60 per cent of the schools.

English 9, English 10, American literature, and English literature are the only courses in the field which are required by more than 10 per cent of the schools. The range of units required in English is from zero to five, with a median of three.

American government and American history are listed as requirements by less than 80 per cent of the schools. These courses, along with American government, are the only ones in the social science field prescribed by more than 15 per cent of the schools. The median requirement in social studies for graduation is two and one-half units; the range is from zero to four and one-half units. Algebra and geometry are the chief requirements in mathematics. A few schools have a general requirement in the field but specify no particular course. From zero to three and one-half units are required in mathematics, and the median requirement is one unit.



General science is a prescribed subject in over 60 per cent of the schools, with biology and physics listed as necessary in about 25 per cent. The median of units in science required is one, and the range from zero to three.

Music, art, and foreign language, including Latin, are required by only a few schools.

The most significant drop in requirements for the ten-year period, 1934 to 1944, was found in the field of language. Fifteen schools listed Latin in 1934, and only two of these had retained the subject in 1944. The field made a total drop of over 3 per cent. A reduction was also noted in agriculture. The general requirements otherwise remain unchanged for the period in the subject fields, although there was some variation in the courses required.

English literature was required in 8 per cent fewer schools. American history lost almost 3 per cent. Biology and general science gained about 4 per cent, and physics lost as a requirement a total of 8 per cent. Geometry, with a drop of about 12 per cent, suffered the largest loss in popularity of all courses listed. Fewer schools prescribed algebra, and general mathematics increased. Physical education increased as a requirement in the ten-year period from 1934 to 1944.

### VARIATION IN CURRICULAR OFFERINGS AND ENROLLMENT FROM 1934 TO 1944

TABLE I

Difference in Percentage of Schools Offering Subject Fields for the  
Ten-year Interval 1934-1944

Subject Field	Consolidated		Small Independent		Large Independent		Total	
	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944
English & Speech	100.0	99.72	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.88
Social Studies	100.0	100.0	98.66	100.0	88.24	100.0	98.62	100.0
Commerce	90.57	94.42	87.08	94.81	90.2	100.0	88.74	95.37
Science	100.0	97.21	96.88	95.36	86.27	100.0	97.59	96.8
Mathematics	100.0	100.00	99.33	98.36	98.04	100.0	99.54	99.28
Home Economics	81.94	82.17	70.38	75.95	86.27	97.48	76.23	81.63
Industrial Arts	76.55	61.28	63.92	54.92	84.31	94.12	70.49	63.15
Foreign Language	22.10	6.96	42.32	15.03	82.35	90.76	36.05	22.27
Agriculture	65.23	42.61	51.67	41.26	74.5	60.5	58.78	44.54
Normal Training	21.83	8.35	31.85	25.14	70.59	38.66	29.85	19.9
Art	1.35	0.0	0.45	0.82	15.69	27.73	1.72	4.27



TABLE II

Difference in Percentage of Enrollment in Subject Fields for the Ten-year Interval from 1934 to 1944

Subject Field	Consolidated		Small Independent		Large Independent		Total	
	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944
English & Speech	103.31	96.22	105.55	102.88	91.90	89.57	100.99	94.02
Social Studies	98.6	101.46	110.57	106.20	63.27	82.72	94.47	92.40
Commerce	58.86	64.37	59.52	67.12	52.62	55.12	57.35	60.19
Science	62.60	57.78	62.61	64.63	34.61	46.74	54.69	53.54
Mathematics	68.81	58.68	71.44	65.33	42.36	49.21	62.39	55.64
Home Economics	20.58	21.19	19.11	23.38	17.58	19.98	19.10	21.07
Industrial Arts	14.54	12.22	12.17	12.57	17.01	21.17	14.26	17.17
Foreign Language	6.30	1.48	9.68	2.63	13.34	14.32	9.66	8.73
Agriculture	16.79	13.08	15.37	11.84	6.02	4.92	13.15	8.34
Normal Training & Education	6.56	2.55	14.83	6.93	9.95	3.63	10.87	4.23
Art	0.12	0.00	0.12	0.08	1.08	3.01	0.39	1.65

TABLE III

Difference in Total Number of Offerings in Subject Fields for the Ten-year Interval from 1934 to 1944

Subject Field	Consolidated		Small Independent		Large Independent		All Schools	
	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944	1934	1944
English & Speech	12	16	16	22	18	35	18	39
Social Studies	12	25	15	51	9	28	19	41
Commerce	14	23	21	28	26	24	29	39
Science	7	18	10	24	9	23	11	36
Mathematics	8	15	9	14	8	17	10	25
Home Economics	17	11	17	13	19	20	28	25
Industrial Arts	6	10	6	12	13	31	14	37
Foreign Language	5	5	11	4	12	11	10	11
Agriculture	5	11	9	10	15	13	14	16
Normal Training & Education	10	7	11	14	15	12	16	16
Art	1	0	1	1	2	3	2	3
Totals	97	141	126	193	146	217	171	288

TABLE IV  
Schools Included in the Survey

Classification	Number Schools in Study—1934-35	Number Schools in Study—1944-45
Schools in cities of 2000 or over (Independent)	51	119
Schools in towns under 2000 (Independent)	449	366
Consolidated Schools	371	359
Total	871	844



## COMPARISON OF CURRICULAR OFFERING AND ENROLLMENT IN THE VARIOUS FIELDS IN THE PAST TEN YEARS

Table I shows a comparison of the percentages of schools offering subject fields in 1934 and 1944. Table II shows the percentages of enrollment in these subject fields for the same interval. Table III shows a comparison of the total number of offerings. Table IV shows the number and type of schools in the survey.

### *English and Speech*

As would be expected, practically all schools in the state offer some form of English or speech, and there is no appreciable difference in offerings over the ten-year period. There was a drop of over 6 per cent, however, in the total enrollment from 1934 to 1944. A total of thirty-nine different types of offerings in subject matter was found in the field in 1944. This was an increase of two subjects over the offerings in 1934. The additional subject matter was found chiefly in the large independent districts, and varied from creative dramatics to farm English.

In 1934, 27.05 per cent of all pupils were enrolled in English I. By 1944 this had shown a small drop to 24 per cent. The greatest loss was in grammar, which showed a decline of 4 per cent in total enrollment. No appreciable gains in particular subjects were in evidence over the period, due, no doubt, to the fact that the total enrollment spread itself over a greater variety of subject matter.

The greatest decline in the school's offering was found in English I, with a drop of almost 7 per cent. This decline was chiefly in the smaller schools, as the large independent showed a small increase. A significant gain took place in American and English literature. Thirty-one per cent more schools offered the former and 15 per cent more the latter. Speech showed a small decline of 2 per cent for all schools, which is accounted for by the 8 per cent drop in consolidated schools, even though the large independent districts' offering was increased almost 10 per cent.

### *Social Studies*

There was an increase from 98 to 100 per cent in the number of schools offering social studies over the ten-year interval. However, there was a small decrease in the per cent of total enrollment in this subject field for all schools.



Over 100 per cent of the enrollment was found in social studies in the consolidated and small independent districts, and only 83 per cent in the large independent districts.

An increase of almost 20 per cent in the enrollment in the large independent districts was noted, which is accounted for partially by the fact that the increase in American history and American government combined totaled about 14 per cent. For all schools, the increase in American history was about 3 per cent, and government 1 per cent. There is an indication that more schools are attempting to fulfill the legal requirement insofar as American history is concerned, as is shown by an increase in the number taking the subject. The greatest losses were found for all schools in the fields of sociology and economics, where the drop was about 4 per cent each.

Twenty-two different subjects were added to the social science field during the ten-year interval under study. The total offering in 1944 was forty-one subjects. The largest enrollments for the newer courses were found in world geography and citizenship. A course in guidance enrolled 721 students, and one in personal problems 67. Consumer education enrolled only thirty-six students and a course in etiquette, twenty-four.

There was a 1 per cent gain in the number of schools offering American history. Seventy-four per cent of all schools showed an offering of this subject in 1934, and 75 per cent in 1944. No doubt, the low per cent of schools offering subjects required by law is due to the fact that many of the smaller schools alternate this subject with some other one. Consequently, a survey of any one year would not show a true picture. The greatest gain in offerings was in world history, which increased 15 per cent, followed by American government with a gain of 10 per cent. The chief losses were encountered in ancient and medieval history with 10 per cent loss, in sociology with a 10 per cent loss, and in economics with a 6 per cent loss. A subject called "social studies" was offered by forty-eight schools of the state with 2.6 per cent of the pupils enrolled in it.

#### *Commerce*

The greatest increase for the ten-year period in school offerings was found in commercial subjects—an increase of



about 6.5 per cent. A larger increase was noted in the smaller schools in this field. The number of subject offerings increased from twenty-nine in 1934 to thirty-nine in 1944. The percentage of pupil enrollment increased a little over 3 per cent. The greatest increase was in typing I and II which showed an advance of 4 per cent each. A loss of almost 4 per cent occurred in business law, and small losses were also found in bookkeeping I, business training, and business arithmetic.

Typing I and II made the largest gains insofar as the number and per cent of schools offering them is concerned. Over 31 per cent more schools of Iowa offered these subjects in 1944 than did in 1934. The losses were found in shorthand I, with 19 per cent, shorthand II, with 12 per cent. The greatest reduction was in commercial law, with a loss of almost 30 per cent.

Commercial subjects still continue to be popular in the schools of Iowa. Over 95 per cent of the schools offer subjects in this field, and it is as popular in the smaller schools as in the larger. Over 67 per cent of the students in the small independent schools took one or more courses in this field, while the figure was a little over 60 per cent in all schools. Commerce is exceeded in enrollment only by two other fields, English-speech and social studies.

### *Science*

The influence of the war is noticed in the increase of offerings in the field of science, from eleven offerings in 1934 to thirty-nine offerings ten years later. Pre-induction courses are common among the additions. There was a 1 per cent decrease in the number of schools offering subjects in this field. However, 96.08 per cent were still offering science in 1944. The decrease in offerings was found entirely in the consolidated and small independent districts, while the large independent district offerings increased from 86 to 100 per cent.

There was a slight decrease in the per cent of enrollment found in science courses. the total dropping from 54.07 to 53.05 in the ten-year interval. The large independent schools showed a different trend, as enrollment increased from 34 to 46 per cent during the same period.

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Biology gained most of all subjects in the science field, rising from 10 to 15 per cent. Chemistry enrollment also made a slight increase. Physics lost most in the ten-year period, dropping from 14 to 9 per cent. Physiology was almost eliminated from the curriculum as the enrollment fell to a little over 1 per cent. General science is still the most popular course in the field. Although the total fell about 2 per cent, it still held 20 per cent of the pupil enrollment.

Eighty-two per cent of the schools offered general science in 1944, which was a gain of 1 per cent over the ten-year period. Biology made the greatest gain in offering, with a 13 per cent increase. Fifty-eight per cent of the schools offered biology in 1944. This increase is accounted for chiefly in the large independent districts where the offerings rose from 76 per cent in 1934 to 92 per cent in 1944. Chemistry made an 8 per cent increase, chiefly in the same schools. Physics lost 4 per cent in the smaller districts. A reduction of 19 per cent occurred in physiology, with only 6 per cent of schools offering the subject in 1944. Botany practically disappeared from the course of study, as only one school offered it at the close of the period under study.

### *Mathematics*

The total number of offerings in mathematics increased from ten to twenty-five. The additions were chiefly along the line of refresher type courses and pre-induction subjects. The per cent of enrollment in the subject field dropped from 62 to 55 for all schools. In the large independent schools, however, the enrollment was increased about 7 per cent. The large loss was in the consolidated schools, with a reduction of 10 per cent, followed by a 6 per cent lower enrollment in the small independent group. The smaller schools, however, still enroll a higher per cent of students in mathematics than the larger ones. In 1944 a total of 58 per cent of students in the consolidated, 65 per cent in the small independent, and 49 per cent in the large independent schools were enrolled in mathematics courses.

The greatest loss in per cent of pupil enrollment was found in algebra and geometry. The largest gain was in



general mathematics. Twenty-six per cent of the pupil enrollment was found in algebra in 1934, and ten years later this had fallen to 21 per cent. A still greater loss took place in plane geometry, with a drop of from 22 to 15 per cent. The gain of about 6 per cent in general mathematics accounts for some of the loss in the conventional subjects. General mathematics increased 3 per cent in the consolidated, 5 per cent in the small independent, and 7 per cent in the large independent schools. In 1944 algebra made up 26 per cent of the mathematics enrollments in consolidated schools, 27 per cent in the small independent, and 17 per cent in the large independent. Plane geometry enrollments had fallen to about 20 per cent of total mathematics enrollments in the smaller schools and to 12 per cent in the larger ones.

There was an 8 per cent reduction in the number of schools offering geometry, a 6 per cent drop in advanced algebra, and a 4 per cent drop in algebra. This lessening in offerings was found in the smaller schools, as the larger ones held their own in two of the subjects and increased 7 per cent in the offering of algebra.

A general trend may be noticed in the 16 per cent increase in general mathematics, with the tendency noticeable in all types of schools.

### *Home Economics*

The per cent of schools offering homemaking courses increased a little over 5 per cent in the ten-year period. In 1944 81 per cent of the schools offered the subject. A small increase in total enrollment was noticed. The number of subjects offered dropped from twenty-eight to twenty-five.

There was a gain of 32 per cent in the offering of homemaking II; homemaking I increased 7 per cent. No appreciable losses were in evidence in the offerings of the various subjects.

In pupil enrollment, homemaking I lost 2 per cent and homemaking II gained 4 per cent. Eleven per cent of the enrollment took the first subject, and 6 per cent the second in 1944.



### *Industrial Arts*

The per cent of schools offering industrial arts dropped from 70 to 63 during the ten-year period. This was no doubt caused by the scarcity of teachers in this field. While the general tendency in all schools was toward a reduction in the offerings, the large independent districts ran counter to the tendency, as there was a 10 per cent gain in that group.

The enrollment in this field made a gain of about 3 per cent, resulting chiefly from the 5 per cent increase in the larger systems.

The total number of different offerings in this field increased from fourteen in 1934 to thirty-seven in 1944. There is great variety in the new vocational subjects.

A gain of 7 per cent was noted in the number of schools offering general shop, and a gain of 4 per cent in the number offering mechanical drawing. The schools offering manual training dropped from 64 per cent to 46 per cent over the period.

Pupil enrollment in mechanical drawing increased 1 per cent and in general shop 2 per cent. Manual training lost 5 per cent of the total pupil enrollment.

### *Foreign Language*

Thirty-six per cent of the schools offered foreign language in 1934; 22 per cent offered it in 1944. The consolidated school offerings dropped 15 per cent and the small independent school offerings fell off 27 per cent. The offerings in the larger schools increased approximately 8 per cent. The total number of offerings in the subject field increased from 10 to 11 per cent.

The per cent of enrollment in foreign language dropped very little for all schools. There was a slight increase in the larger schools, while the smaller schools lost. The biggest drop occurred in first-year Latin, where a loss of 3 per cent resulted in the consolidated schools and 4 per cent in the small independent schools. The large independent schools dropped a fraction of 1 per cent. For all schools there was a decline of 2 per cent in pupil enrollment in first-year Latin. The number of schools offering the subjects declined a total of 10 per cent.



The largest gain in enrollment was made in first-year Spanish, where the gain was 2 per cent. The number of schools offering the subject increased 6 per cent over the ten-year period.

### *Agriculture*

A decline in the offerings in agriculture was found in all three types of schools, resulting, no doubt, from the inability to secure teachers during the war. The loss in offerings for all schools was 14 per cent. The total offerings in the subject field increased from fourteen to sixteen. A reduction in per cent of enrollment in the subject field was also common to all schools. Thirteen per cent was found in the subject field in 1934 and only 8 per cent in 1944.

During the ten-year period the greatest drop was found in general agriculture. There was a 10 per cent decline in the schools offering the subject and a 37 per cent loss in the pupil enrollment. There was an increase in the schools offering subjects in the field of vocational agriculture as well as in the enrollment. This would indicate that vocational agriculture became relatively more important in the schools of Iowa during the ten-year period.

### *Normal Training*

Normal training lost steadily in enrollment and offerings during the ten-year period. The schools offering the subject fell 10 per cent, and the total enrollment was reduced from 10 per cent in 1934 to 4 per cent in 1944. All three types of districts followed the same course insofar as the subject field was concerned.

The new certification requirements for Iowa teachers have caused the decline. According to the present law normal training will be eliminated from all Iowa high schools by 1948.

### *Art*

There was a slight increase in the per cent of schools offering art and a similar increase in the per cent of pupil enrollment. There is little art offered by any except the



larger schools of the state. There were two subject offerings in the field in 1934 and three in 1944. The additional offering was advanced and commercial art.

### SUMMARY

The total number of offerings in the different subject fields in the high schools of Iowa increased from 171 to 288 in the ten-year period from 1934 to 1944. The greatest gain was in the field of science, with social studies, industrial arts, and English-speech also making considerable increase.

Graduation requirements in Iowa schools are limited. The prescribed subjects vary in the different schools, and there is no general agreement upon the subjects that should be required. In some of the smaller schools an adequate standard has not been established for the completion of the work in high school.

Relatively little change has taken place in the graduation requirements during the period under study. A decrease in the requirement for geometry and physics, and an increase in social studies and biology were the only significant changes noted.

Curriculum offerings have expanded in the past ten years and enrollments have shifted in various fields. A definite trend has been noted toward a greater offering of vocational education material. Greater offerings were found in vocational agriculture, industrial arts, and trades and industries.

Commercial education made rapid strides, particularly in the smaller schools, where an unusually high percentage of gain was found to be in the commercial courses.

There was a trend toward a reduction in foreign languages. Latin was dropped from the curriculum in many high schools.

General mathematics rose steadily in prominence until 1940, at which time it fell in popularity. However, at the end of the ten-year period general mathematics was still high in percentage of school offerings.

The trend in science seemed to be toward a combination of subjects. General science and biology rose in popularity.

There seemed to be a lack of clarity in the trend toward



which social science courses were pointing, with considerable groping in various directions. Twenty-one additional courses were added in this field. The new courses indicated that an attempt to make social studies more meaningful in the lives of the students was in progress. A definite up-sweep was noted in the enrollment in social studies.

The normal training high school as an institution for the training of teachers is disappearing rapidly from the educational picture. This is a natural result of the new certification law which has increased the minimum requirements for beginning teachers.

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## CHAPTER IV

### WHAT IOWA TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS THINK THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM SHOULD BE

Any curriculum revision work should grow out of the thinking of school administrators and teachers on basic curriculum issues. These people have a fundamental interest in the program, and by virtue of the fact that they know the needs of youth and the practical working conditions under which these needs are to be administered to, their opinions regarding curriculum issues should be the point of departure for any plan of revision. The plan for securing the opinions of the teachers and administrators in Iowa secondary schools was described in Chapter I of this volume. More than 200 local school faculties submitted statements of their pooled opinions concerning various curriculum issues and problems. These expressions grew out of the statewide study program on the secondary school curriculum which was conducted during the 1945-46 school year.

*Description of schools participating.* The schools reporting range in size from a two-teacher high school to one with seventy-nine teachers. Some faculties did not answer all of the thirty-five issues. The first issue regarding content of the curriculum brought the most responses, 147 schools responding to this issue. The least responses came to issue ten, regarding organization, and issue two, regarding classroom procedures, where only 47 schools responded.

In order to give a picture of the participation of schools of various sizes in the study program, Table A is provided. This table shows the various sized school systems represented by responses to Issue 1, concerning curriculum content, the issue to which the most schools responded. The table compares the number of schools of a given size responding to the issue to the actual number of schools of that size in the state.



The lowest per cent of schools answering in any one population group is 7.1 per cent of the consolidated schools in towns of under 500 population. The highest per cent of returns came from the two largest population groups, where all seven cities with populations of from 30,000 to 99,999, and the one city with over 100,000 population, responded.

TABLE A  
School Systems Represented by Responses to Issue Number 1

Population group	Number of schools responding	Per cent of schools	Number of schools in Iowa	Per cent of schools answering
Consolidated schools in towns under 500.....	14	9.5	197	7.1
Consolidated schools in towns over 500.....	19	12.9	85	22.4
Towns—population under 500 .....	13	8.9	147	8.8
Towns—population 500-999 .....	16	10.9	137	11.7
Towns—population 1,000-1,999 .....	19	12.9	89	21.3
Towns—population 2,000-2,499 .....	9	6.1	20	45.0
Towns—population 2,500-4,999 .....	26	17.7	42	61.9
Towns—population 5,000-9,999 .....	15	10.2	23	65.21
Cities—population 10,000-14,999 .....	4	2.7	5	80.0
Cities—population 15,000-29,999 .....	4	2.7	9	44.4
Cities—population 30,000-99,999 .....	7	4.8	7	100.0
City—population 100,000 and over.....	1	7	1	100.0
Total .....	147	100.0	762	15.28

It should be remembered in studying this table that some schools did not respond to Issue Number 1 concerning curriculum content. In all, over 200 schools responded to one or more issues.

It is significant that the larger schools responded more extensively than schools in the smaller communities. While all school people were particularly busy during the school year 1945-1946, due to the shortage of teachers and to added responsibilities, it is probably true that schools with from two to five or six teachers on the high school faculties could



find less time than larger faculties for the study of curriculum issues.

### SUMMARY OF OPINIONS

A study of the responses summarized in the tables which follow indicates some clear-cut opinions regarding most of the thirty-five issues raised in the "Study Manual." Some refreshing trends in thinking of secondary school people on curriculum problems are apparent. By way of a quick overview of the reactions of Iowa secondary school teachers and administrators on these issues, the following digest of the materials presented in the statistical summaries is presented:

#### Issues Concerning Content

1. The main emphasis of the secondary school should be on general education. Some time may be spent profitably in vocational education, but the chief concern of the secondary schools is to furnish a well-balanced program of common learnings, regarded as necessary to successful living in a democratic society.
2. Secondary schools should assume responsibility for training in the basic skills. It is necessary to take high school students as we find them with regard to their proficiency in basic skills and to administer to their evidenced needs, providing the instruction and developmental activities necessary to bring them up to worthy standards of achievement in the various skills. "Buck passing" to teachers who have previously been in charge of developing these skills isn't a defensible solution for the educational requirements of these boys and girls.
3. Secondary schools should furnish some opportunity for work experience under expert guidance. There is little virtue in a program of work experience which functions in name only, in which pupils go through the motions of job experience just for the sake of getting away from the classrooms to go through some supposedly practical experiences which will somehow do something for them in an educational way. The work experience must be well-planned and carefully supervised to the end that definite and desirable outcomes may result from it.



4. Opinion regarding the need for pruning the secondary school program is split, with slightly over half of the schools and teachers favoring the reduction of the number of courses offered. Reports show a reluctance on the part of teachers to state arbitrarily that schools are attempting to offer too much or too little. Qualifying statements indicate that local conditions should govern in any move to reduce or increase the offerings and that possible advantages might be gained by combining courses or fusing the contents of courses.
5. In shaping the curriculum, both the welfare of individual students and the welfare of society should be taken into account. There is nothing incompatible in the two aims; what is good for society is good for the individual, and whatever makes for a better individual makes at the same time for a better society.
6. The curriculum should be shaped by both student needs and college entrance requirements. Again the two guiding forces need not be incompatible. Offerings should cater first to the needs of the majority of students, but many college entrance requirements may be as serviceable to youth who do not attend college as to those who do. If there are courses which have little value to students who do not plan to attend college they should not be required of all students, but should, if possible, be made available to students who are college bent. If a choice of two subjects—one aimed solely at meeting college entrance requirements and one designed primarily to fulfill student needs—must be made, the choice should be in favor of the latter.
7. Both past cultures and contemporary life should be emphasized in curriculum offerings. The motivating force of present-day problems should form the base of departure in the pursuit of knowledge, but a rational understanding of present-day problems is predicated on a knowledge and understanding of the past. The significance of the present becomes fully apparent only in the light of what has gone before.
8. The local community should not serve as the center of emphasis in building the curriculum. It should color

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the offerings and provide for local adaptations, but the larger aspects of life—national and world-wide in scope—must furnish the core of the curriculum. A migratory population has one home community today and another tomorrow, but youth will remain citizens of the United States and the world community of nations.

9. Religious education, as such, should not be included in the curriculum. Training should be provided in moral behavior; ethical conduct, civic and social responsibilities in all their aspects, and the principles of Christian living (which encompasses all worthy conduct) should be taught. These should be consciously included in all instruction, no matter what the subject-field, but religion as a separate subject should not be attempted.
10. More emphasis needs to be given to social studies and civic training. In the light of the growing complexity of national and international affairs there is an unmistakable and urgent need for better human understanding in all areas of human activity and in every phase of life. From the improvement of relations within the home to the betterment of relations between economic groups, social groups, race groups, culture groups, and nations, the welfare of mankind everywhere is dependent on a better understanding of and a better practice of sympathetic and just treatment of human beings by other human beings. The challenge to schools cannot be denied.
11. The development of constructive avocational interests and skills deserves greater emphasis in the secondary school program. Much of one's life is spent in the interim between working hours and the hours when he is asleep. The flavor of life itself accumulates during these hours of leisure. Much of what one really is depends on his thoughts, his reactions, his activities, his associations during the hours when he is neither working nor sleeping. Education and training for worthy use of leisure time thus becomes one of the school's urgent responsibilities. The curriculum needs to provide training in continuing leisure-time activities which will serve youth now and adulthood and old age later on.



12. The war has demonstrated a need for greater emphasis on mathematics and science. In spite of the fact that our scientific knowledge permitted us to out-produce our enemies during the war and to create an effective fighting machine, the continued advance of scientific knowledge is necessary to maintaining our relative position among nations in times of peace as well as in times of war. The health and happiness of men are capable of improvement through the practical application of scientific information.
13. The late war has demonstrated a need for improving the health and physical education program in the secondary school. The opinion of local faculties is practically unanimous on this question. An adequate program will, among other things, provide for annual physical examinations for all pupils, provide for necessary follow-up remedial measures, furnish health education, and make available the teaching personnel, the time, and the teaching facilities required to carry on the work.
14. There is a need for more emphasis on languages in the secondary school. More schools favor modern languages than classical languages, though nearly two-thirds of the schools responding believe that some foreign languages should be taught.
15. Fine arts are being neglected. Music and dramatics are less neglected than other of the fine arts. However, all of the fine arts which are taught should be given a place in the curriculum and not be treated as extra-curricular.
16. The curriculum should grow out of the interests of youth and also prepare for adult living. There need be no conflict of interests here, as youth is (or can become) interested in subject matter and activities which prepare for successful adult life. Worthwhileness is not inimical to interest.
17. The curriculum should seek to improve society rather than seek merely to adjust youth to existing society. Both functions are necessary. Youth needs to become adjusted to his social environment to the extent that he may be able to live in harmony with the accepted social



order, but he should at the same time be aware of possible improvements in that society and be willing and eager to aid in realizing those improvements.

18. Guidance should be organized as an integral part of the curriculum and not as a separate service. This does not discount the need to devote some special classes to guidance, and to provide special guidance services, but the major part of guidance and counseling should be provided for in connection with the regular curriculum of the school.

#### Issues Concerning Organization and Administration

1. Curriculum development should grow out of cooperative planning of faculties, students, and laymen, with the suggestions of specialists being given attention in doing the planning. Teachers and administrators, in order to plan intelligently, must keep abreast of current developments in education and know the opinions of specialists in the various phases of curriculum development.
2. Curriculum making must be a continuing process, with curriculum builders continuously conscious of the changing needs of youth. There needs to be stability to the extent that current "fads" do not overbalance that, which, by the test of time, has proven its value. At the same time, there must not be a static program which brooks no change, when there is well-grounded evidence that change would be beneficial.
3. Generally, students should not be accelerated. For exceptional students an enriched curriculum would serve better to keep them profitably occupied than acceleration. The lock-step method of promotion is not a satisfactory answer. Elastic assignments, which provide for wider and more intensive study for gifted students, and remedial work and carefully selected material adapted to the mental maturity of slower students, would in the long run serve better the majority of such students.
4. Readiness for promotion and graduation should be determined by demonstrated competence on the part of the student rather than by consulting the calendar.



Schools have been too lax in maintaining standards for graduation, with the result that high school graduation has come to be more or less meaningless so far as actual achievement on the part of the student is concerned. An unfortunate consequence is that many students have come to expect something for nothing. More than one type of diploma, indicating various degrees of accomplishment and different types of achievement might be useful.

5. The program of secondary education should be extended upward in larger districts to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years. In most instances these additional years should be used for vocational training for students who do not plan to attend college. The ability of local districts to finance such a program and the local need for such an addition should be seriously considered before launching the expansion.
6. The organization of the secondary school curriculum should be articulated with lower and higher educational units. Faculties of elementary schools, secondary schools, and institutions of higher learning should cooperate in curriculum building to the extent that better vertical integration may be accomplished. Such improved articulation would bridge the present gaps among the various levels of learning and make the entire educational process more intelligible and profitable to the students.
7. Certain subjects should be prescribed for graduation from all secondary schools. There are certain common learnings and certain basic skills which are necessary to successful participation in a democratic society. After provision has been made for their inclusion in the program of studies, electives should be provided to accommodate differences in interests and needs.
8. The aim of the curriculum should be two-fold—growth and development of the student's personality and mastery of subject content. Personality growth may be an outcome of subject-content mastery, and while it is conceivable that one might master subject matter without receiving a proportionate amount of personality develop-

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ment, there is nothing incompatible in the two, and with an effort made to realize both ends in the schooling process, there is no reason to suppose that they cannot reinforce one another. Knowledge is one of the materials from which personality is built.

9. Teachers should assume responsibility for effecting desirable unity in the total curriculum program. Willingness to assume responsibility beyond the confines of one's own classroom should virtually be taken for granted. All of the teaching personnel is interested in the development of students to their fullest potentialities, and such an outcome can only be attained if all teachers and administrators work cooperatively in developing the curriculum program. To function effectively in this cooperative planning for youth, teachers must adopt a philosophy of education and must be aware of what other teachers are doing in their respective fields to further the common cause. There must be teamwork to gain the desired ends.
10. Traditional subject matter divisions should be retained as the basic form of organization for the secondary school curriculum. The division of teaching materials into subject matter fields has not been to blame for many of the faults which have been attributed to it. The fault has lain with the use to which subject matter has been put. In too many instances it has been regarded as a sacred substance, which by virtue of being taken in prescribed doses performs miracles in making boys and girls intelligent. This same subject matter, if properly organized in present courses and properly integrated throughout the curriculum, can be the building substance of real education. Name changing and transplanting of materials from one field to another, or even fusing materials into new combinations will work no miracles. Retaining subject divisions as they now exist does not preclude the reorganization of materials within their own limits or deletion of "dead wood" from the materials used.



### Issues Concerning Instructional Procedures

1. Textbooks should be supplemented by the use of outside materials. In some subjects they should play a decidedly more important role than in others, but too often they have been used as crutches by teachers. Lack of supplementary materials and the traditional training of teachers have often forced over-reliance on textbooks.
2. The nature of the assignment is by unanimous consent a primary factor in teacher procedure. Assignments should arouse interest, motivate study, provide clear-cut jobs to be done, and provide for individual differences in students. To make an adequate assignment requires more time than is ordinarily given to it.
3. The unit method of instruction works more satisfactorily in some subjects than in others. It promotes unity of thought in related groups of subject matter, promotes individual thinking and research, and eliminates to a degree the "one text evil." To function well it requires well-read and well-trained teachers who are able and willing to devote a good deal of time to planning the units.
4. Instructional procedures and materials should be planned in advance of classroom use. There needs to be long-range general planning, with some detailed organization before class. Such pre-arranged plans make for orderly procedure. However, any plans are not to be so rigid that momentary developments within the class cannot alter the procedure to the extent necessary to take care of the situation at hand. Student interests and student needs as they emerge during the class period need to be recognized, even if such recognition alters the teacher's pre-arranged planning.
5. It is desirable to adapt instruction to individual differences as much as possible, though the path is beset by such obstacles as lack of time, lack of materials, the present school organization, and large classes. To be effectively done some reorganization is necessary, and teachers will need to have a more complete student history than is now usually available. Use of the unit plan



of teaching may facilitate giving more attention to individual differences.

6. Instructional aids, if properly used, are usually effective in achieving educational outcomes. The use of such aids promotes interest and understanding, prevents misunderstandings occasioned by mere verbalizing, and encourages the retention of subject matter. In the main, teachers need more training in the use of aids.
7. Student achievement can be most adequately evaluated by a combination of evaluation procedures. The use of standardized tests, objective teacher-made tests, and informal teacher observation form an effective combination. Some educational outcomes are too intangible and elusive for accurate measurement.

#### TABULAR ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO THIRTY-FIVE ISSUES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the following thirty-five tables an analysis is given of the opinions of Iowa secondary school teachers and administrators concerning thirty-five issues in secondary education. These issues are broken down into three groups: eighteen having to do with curriculum content, ten relating to the organization and administration of the curriculum, and seven pertaining to classroom procedures.

Each table shows: (1) the number of schools offering opinions on the issue, (2) the different opinions offered and the number of schools offering each opinion, (3) the number of teachers represented in each opinion offered, (4) the per cent of the total schools responding which voiced each opinion, and (5) the per cent of all teachers represented which supported each opinion.



# COMPILATION OF OPINIONS EXPRESSED BY IOWA HIGH SCHOOL FACULTIES ON CURRICULUM ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

## Issues Concerning Content and Direction of the Secondary School Curriculum

TABLE I  
What relative emphasis should be placed on general and vocational education in the secondary school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Major emphasis on general education . . . . .	113	76.9	1,872	76.8
Major emphasis on vocational education . . . . .	8	5.4	178	7.3
Equal emphasis . . . . .	9	6.1	121	5.0
Needs of pupils . . . . .	5	3.4	114	4.7
No decision . . . . .	12	8.2	152	6.2
Total . . . . .	147	100.0	2,437	100.0

Eight schools wanted more emphasis on vocational education, and 113 wanted major emphasis on general education. There were 1,872 teachers favoring emphasis on general, compared with 178 teachers favoring vocational education. Nine schools wanted equal emphasis. with 12 schools making no decision.

TABLE II  
Should the secondary school provide training in basic skills?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Training in basic skills necessary . . . . .	131	96.3	2,240	98.5
Training in basic skills not necessary . . . . .	5	3.7	34	1.5
Total . . . . .	136	100.0	2,274	100.0
Special courses needed . . . . .	14	10.3	240	10.6
Special courses not needed . . . . .	39	28.7	575	25.3
Remedial and developmental training needed . . . . .	34	25.0	732	32.2
Remedial training needed . . . . .	7	5.2	118	5.2
Development training needed . . . . .	12	8.8	298	13.1
Should have rigid entrance examinations to high school . . . . .	3	2.2	18	0.8

The opinions favoring basic skills have a large majority, with 131 high schools reporting the need for basic skills, compared with 5 schools which stated no need for basic skills. In the second part of the table we



find that 575 teachers feel the need for special courses, compared with 250 teachers seeing no need for special courses. Thirty-four schools with 732 teachers reported the need for remedial and developmental training, 7 schools favored remedial training, and 12 schools with 298 teachers favored developmental training. Three schools wanted rigid entrance examinations to high school.

TABLE III

Is work experience a needed addition to the secondary school program?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Work experience is a needed addition .....	68	62.4	1,268	72.7
Work experience is not a needed addition .....	38	34.9	417	23.9
No decision .....	3	2.7	59	3.4
Total .....	109	100.0	1,744	100.0
Lack of time and facilities .....	23	21.1	247	14.2
Need expert guidance....	20	18.3	457	26.2
Credit should be given for work .....	8	7.3	138	7.9
Should extend secondary education .....	6	5.5	107	6.1

In table III, 68 high schools wish to add work experience to the curriculum, and 38 schools stated there is no need for work experience. In the 68 schools we find 1,268 teachers favoring work experience. However, 20 high schools with 457 teachers feel they must have expert guidance for this program, and 6 schools with 107 teachers feel the need to extend secondary education.

TABLE IV

Does the secondary school program need pruning?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Present program needs pruning .....	52	45.6	770	40.3
Present program does not need pruning .....	45	39.5	741	38.8
Needs of pupils determine whether program should be pruned or not.....	10	8.8	288	15.1
No decision .....	7	6.1	110	5.8
Total .....	114	100.0	1,909	100.0
Courses should be combined .....	22	19.3	367	19.2
Should add courses .....	18	15.8	367	19.2
Curriculum has been pruned to limit.....	12	10.5	86	4.5

This table shows 52 schools with 770 teachers wanting to prune, with 45 schools and 741 teachers seeing no need for pruning. Twenty-two



schools with 360 teachers feel that courses should be combined, while 18 schools with 367 teachers feel that they should add courses.

TABLE V  
Should the welfare of individual students or the welfare of society be the dominant aim in shaping the curriculum of the secondary school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Welfare of individual students should be dominant aim .....	41	37.6	514	30.8
Welfare of society should be dominant aim.....	31	28.4	413	24.7
Both individual and society .....	26	23.9	622	37.2
No decision .....	11	10.1	121	7.3
Total .....	109	100.0	1,670	100.0

Forty-one schools with 514 teachers report that the welfare of individuals should be the dominant aim, 31 schools with 413 teachers report that the welfare of society should be the dominant aim, 26 schools with 622 teachers favor both individual and society, and 11 schools with 121 teachers make no decision.

TABLE VI  
To what extent should the high school curriculum be shaped by college entrance requirements?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should be shaped by college requirements .....	29	26.4	310	20.4
Should not be shaped by college requirements ..	22	20.0	281	18.5
Should meet both college and occupational needs	34	30.9	631	41.2
Should be shaped by college requirements only as they provide for general education .....	17	15.4	216	14.2
No decision .....	8	7.3	80	5.3
Total .....	110	100.0	1,518	100.0

Six hundred thirty-one teachers in 34 high schools feel the need for both college and occupational, 281 teachers in 22 high schools favor no need for college requirements, 310 teachers in 29 high schools state that the curriculum should be shaped by college requirements, while 216 teachers in 17 high schools feel the need of college requirements only as they provide for general education.



TABLE VII

Should the curriculum of the secondary school emphasize the study of past cultures or the study of contemporary life?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should emphasize past cultures .....	12	11.8	266	15.9
Should emphasize contemporary life .....	33	32.4	443	26.6
Should emphasize both... ..	54	52.9	929	66.7
No decision .....	3	2.9	30	1.8
Total .....	102	100.0	1,668	100.0

Twelve schools with 266 teachers reported emphasis should be placed on past cultures. Thirty-three schools with 443 teachers reported emphasis should be placed on contemporary life. Fifty-four schools with 929 teachers reported emphasis should be placed on both.

TABLE VIII

Should study of the local community serve as the center of emphasis for the secondary school curriculum?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Community should serve as center of emphasis. ..	24	26.7	367	26.8
Community should not serve as center .....	56	62.2	895	65.2
No decision .....	10	11.1	110	8.0
Total .....	90	100.0	1,372	100.0

That the community should serve as a center of emphasis was favored by 24 high schools with 367 teachers, while 56 high schools with 895 teachers stated that the community should not serve as center.

TABLE IX

Should religious education be included in the public secondary school curriculum?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Religious education should be included .....	37	36.3	483	29.6
Religious education should not be included.....	59	57.8	1,038	63.6
No decision .....	6	5.9	112	6.8
Total .....	102	100.0	1,633	100.0

Table IX shows that 59 high schools reported religious education should not be included, while 37 schools reported that religious education should be included. Four hundred eighty-three teachers favored



religious education, while 1,038 teachers did not want it in the high schools.

TABLE X  
Does the growing complexity of national and international affairs require more emphasis on social studies and civic training in the secondary school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Social studies and civic training need more emphasis .....	79	82.3	1,380	86.2
Social studies and civic training need no more emphasis .....	9	9.4	137	8.6
No decision .....	8	8.3	84	5.2
Total .....	96	100.0	1,601	100.0

Seventy-nine high schools with 1,380 teachers favored more emphasis on social studies and civic training, and only nine schools with 137 teachers thought no more emphasis is needed for social studies and civics.

TABLE XI  
Does the development of constructive avocational interest and skills deserve greater emphasis in the secondary school program?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Avocational interests need greater emphasis ....	69	83.1	1,155	86.0
Avocational interests need no greater emphasis..	10	12.1	173	12.9
No decision .....	4	4.8	15	1.1
Total .....	83	100.0	1,343	100.0
Lack of facilities, personnel and time .....	17	20.5	216	16.1
Emphasize activities which will be continued in after school life....	18	21.7	258	19.2
Should be activities for all pupils .....	20	24.1	415	30.9

In table XI we find 69 high schools with 1,155 teachers reporting avocational interests need greater emphasis, while 10 high schools with 173 teachers report avocational interests need no greater emphasis. Seventeen high schools with 216 teachers report lack of facilities, personnel and time, in their schools, 18 high schools with 258 teachers report that schools should emphasize activities which will be continued in after school life, and 20 high schools with 415 teachers report that there should be activities for all pupils.

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TABLE XII

Has the war demonstrated a need for greater emphasis on mathematics and science in the high school curriculum?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
The war demonstrated a need for greater emphasis on mathematics and science .....	62	72.1	1,006	74.7
The war reports do not mean that mathematics and science need a greater emphasis .....	19	22.1	256	19.0
No decision .....	5	5.8	85	6.3
Total .....	86	100.0	1,347	100.0
Need more mathematics and science courses ..	11	12.8	99	1.4
Should eliminate specialized courses .....	7	8.1	84	6.2
Should improve present courses .....	24	27.9	497	36.9

Sixty-two high schools with 1,006 teachers report the war demonstrated a need for greater emphasis on mathematics and science, 19 high schools with 256 teachers report the war did not demonstrate a need for greater emphasis on mathematics and science, 11 high schools with 99 teachers feel the need for more mathematics and science, 7 high schools with 84 teachers want to eliminate specialized courses, and 24 high schools with 497 teachers want to improve present courses.



TABLE XIII  
Has the war demonstrated a need for improving the health and physical education program in the secondary school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Improved health and physical education program is needed .....	78	94.0	1,400	96.2
It is not necessary to improve health and physical education program because of facts coming out of the war ....	2	2.4	12	0.8
No decision .....	3	3.6	43	3.0
Total .....	83	100.0	1,455	100.0
Annual physical examination needed for all pupils .....	15	18.1	390	26.8
Follow-up of examination needed .....	21	25.3	432	29.7
Health education should be emphasized .....	24	28.9	476	32.7
More time and money needed for adequate program .....	15	18.1	266	18.3

Seventy-eight schools with 1,400 teachers report the need for improved health and physical education programs, 2 schools with 12 teachers report that it is not necessary to improve health and physical education because of facts coming out of the war, 15 high schools with 390 teachers feel an annual physical examination is needed for all pupils, 21 schools with 432 teachers want a follow-up examination, 24 schools with 476 teachers report health education should be emphasized, and 15 schools with 266 teachers report more time and money is needed for an adequate program.

TABLE XIV  
Is there a need for more emphasis on languages in the American secondary school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
A need for more emphasis on languages .....	44	56.4	889	65.0
No more emphasis should be placed on languages .....	22	28.2	196	14.3
No decision .....	12	15.4	283	20.7
Total .....	78	100.0	1,368	100.0
Favor classical languages .....	11	14.1	195	14.3
Favor modern languages .....	32	41.1	765	55.9

In table XIV, 44 high schools with 889 teachers feel a need for more



emphasis on languages, 22 high schools with 196 teachers report no more emphasis should be placed on languages, and 12 high schools with 283 teachers report no decision. Eleven schools with 195 teachers favor classical languages, 32 high schools with 765 favor modern languages.

TABLE XV

Are the fine arts (music, art, and dramatics) being neglected in the curriculum of Iowa secondary schools?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Fine arts are being neglected .....	56	75.7	824	77.2
Fine arts are not being neglected .....	12	16.2	128	12.0
No decision .....	6	8.1	116	10.8
Total .....	74	100.0	1,068	100.0
Music is not neglected ..	13	17.6	191	17.9
Dramatics are not neglected .....	7	9.5	131	12.3

Fifty-six high schools with 824 teachers feel that fine arts are being neglected, 12 high schools with 128 teachers report fine arts are not being neglected, 6 high schools with 116 teachers report no decision, 13 high schools with 191 teachers report that music is not neglected, 7 high schools with 131 teachers report that dramatics are not neglected.

TABLE XVI

Should the curriculum of the secondary school grow out of the interests of youth or should it prepare for adult living?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should grow out of interests of youth .....	10	14.5	179	14.6
Should prepare for adult living .....	27	39.1	429	35.1
Should do both .....	32	46.4	615	50.3
Total .....	69	100.0	1,223	100.0

Ten high schools with 179 teachers report that it should grow out of interests of youth, 27 high schools with 429 teachers report that it should prepare for adult living, and 32 high schools with 615 teachers report it should do both.



TABLE XVII  
Should the curriculum of the secondary school seek to improve society or seek merely to adjust youth to existing society?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should seek to improve society .....	29	44.6	411	38.8
Should seek to adjust youth to existing society .....	6	9.2	134	12.6
Must do both .....	30	46.2	515	48.6
Total .....	65	100.0	1,060	100.0

In table XVII 29 high schools with 411 teachers report that it should seek to improve society, 6 high schools with 134 teachers report it should seek to adjust youth to existing society, and 60 high schools with 515 teachers report it must do both.

TABLE XVIII  
Should guidance be organized as an integral part of the secondary school curriculum or as a separate service?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should be an integral part of the program..	49	68.1	923	75.2
Should be a separate service .....	14	19.4	114	9.3
Should be both .....	5	6.9	136	11.1
No decision .....	4	5.6	54	4.4
Total .....	72	100.0	1,227	100.0

That guidance should be an integral part of the program is reported by 49 high schools with 923 teachers, 14 schools with 114 teachers feel it should be a separate service, 5 schools with 136 teachers report it should be both, and 4 schools with 54 teachers make no decision.

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## Issues Concerning Organization and Administration of the Secondary School Curriculum

TABLE I

Should curriculum development grow out of the cooperative planning of  
faculties, students, and laymen rather than out of the  
pronouncements of specialists?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Should grow out of co- operative planning of faculties .....	28	44.4	375	36.9
Should adopt the plan- ning of specialists ....	6	9.5	76	7.6
Faculty, students, and laymen propose data and specialists write it up .....	6	9.5	82	8.0
Faculties do all the plan- ning—using suggestions offered by specialists .	21	33.3	394	38.7
Up to each individual school system .....	2	3.2	90	8.8
Total .....	63	100.0	1,017	100.0

Twenty-eight schools with 375 teachers favor the plan that it should grow out of cooperative planning of faculties, students, and laymen, 6 schools with 76 teachers favor planning by specialists, 6 schools with 82 teachers want faculty, students, and laymen to propose data and then have specialists write it up, while 21 schools with 394 teachers want the faculties to do all the planning, using suggestions offered by the specialists.

TABLE II

Should curriculum making be an occasional or a continuing process?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
It should be an occasional process .....	5	9.3	78	9.1
It should be a continual process .....	47	87.0	765	89.4
Continual research with occasional change as need arises .....	2	3.7	13	1.5
Total .....	54	100.0	856	100.0

If continual you have to guard against "fads" creeping into the sys- tem .....	13	24.1	288	33.6
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In this table they find 5 high schools with 78 teachers stating it should be an occasional process, 47 high schools with 765 teachers favor a continual process, 13 schools with 288 feel that if continual you will have to guard against "fads" creeping into the system.



TABLE III  
Should the curriculum of the secondary school provide for acceleration?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Yes .....	16	32.0	265	29.7
No .....	31	62.0	501	66.2
For exceptional pupils—				
yes .....	3	6.0	37	4.1
For average pupils—				
Total .....	50	100.0	893	100.0
Should enrich the curriculum instead of accelerate .....	12	24.0	205	22.9

Sixteen high schools with 265 teachers favor acceleration, 31 high schools with 591 teachers are not in favor of acceleration, 3 schools with 37 teachers favor this plan for exceptional students, but not for the average students, and 12 high schools with 205 teachers want to enrich the curriculum instead of accelerate.

TABLE IV  
Should readiness for promotion and graduation be determined by demonstrated competence or by consulting the calendar?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Determined by demonstrated competence ...	52	78.8	832	74.2
Determined by consulting the calendar .....	14	21.2	290	25.8
Total .....	66	100.0	1,122	100.0
Too lax in our present graduation requirements .....	10	15.2	197	17.5
Advocate more than one type of diploma .....	16	24.2	272	24.2

Fifty-two high schools with 832 teachers favor promotion and graduation by demonstrated competence, 14 high schools with 290 teachers favor consulting the calendar, 10 high schools with 197 teachers feel our present graduation requirement too lax, and 16 high schools with 272 teachers advocate more than one type of diploma.



TABLE V

Should the program of the public schools be extended upward to include the thirteenth and fourteenth year?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Yes .....	31	54.4	546	53.9
No .....	11	19.3	211	20.8
Possible in large school communities but not possible in small communities .....	15	26.3	256	25.3
Total .....	57	100.0	1,013	100.0
Added expense to taxpayer would be great..	8	14.0	249	24.5
Presents teacher problem	4	7.0	78	7.7
If extended it should be a vocational school....	5	8.8	120	11.8

In this table the question is whether or not to include the thirteenth and fourteenth year in high school. Thirty-one high schools with 546 teachers favor the program, 11 high schools with 211 teachers do not favor adding the two additional years, and 15 high schools with 256 teachers feel that it is possible in large communities but not in small communities. Eight high schools with 249 teachers believe it would add great expense to the taxpayer, and 5 high schools with 120 teachers feel if extended it should be a vocational school.

TABLE VI

To what extent should the organization of the secondary school curriculum be articulated with lower and higher educational units?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Cooperation in making the curriculum of each school to obtain correlation .....	41	82.0	738	85.2
Teachers should understand various levels of education .....	10	20.0	212	24.4
Not enough research carried out—should have joint faculty and guidance meetings .....	12	24.0	310	35.8
Should articulate with the elementary grades more .....	9	18.0	138	15.9
O.K. as it is now.....	1	2.0	4	0.5

Cooperation in making the curriculum of each school to obtain correlation is the plan suggested by 41 high schools with 738 teachers, 10 high schools with 212 teachers feel the teachers should understand various levels of education, 12 high schools with 310 teachers feel that there is not enough research carried out, and want joint faculty and guidance meetings.



TABLE VII  
Should certain subjects be prescribed for graduation from high school?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Yes .....	59	98.3	932	99.6
No .....	1	1.7	3	.4
Total .....	60	100.0	935	100.0
Subjects that contain common knowledge such as basic skills subjects should be required	38	63.3	656	70.2
There should be as many electives as possible to take care of individual differences and interests .....	19	31.6	358	38.3

Fifty-nine high schools with 932 teachers favor certain subjects as requirements for graduation, 38 high schools with 656 feel that subjects that contain common knowledge such as basic skills subjects should be required, and 19 high schools with 358 teachers want as many electives as possible to take care of individual differences and interests.

TABLE VIII  
Should the mastery of subject content or the growth and development of the student's personality be the end-point of the curriculum program?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Subject content should be the end-point .....	4	7.6	77	8.3
Personality growth should be the end-point.....	17	29.8	255	27.4
Should be a combination of both, stressing personality more than content .....	16	28.1	247	26.5
Should be a combination of both, stressing content more than personality .....	5	8.8	90	9.6
Combination of both with equal stress .....	15	26.3	263	28.2
Total .....	57	100.0	932	100.0

That personality growth should be the end-point is favored by 17 high schools with 255 teachers, that subject content should be the end-point is favored by 4 high schools with 77 teachers, 16 high schools with 247 teachers want a combination of both, stressing personality more than content, and 15 high schools with 263 teachers want equal stress on personality and content.



TABLE IX

What is the responsibility of teachers in effecting desirable unity in the total curriculum program?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Responsibility of accepting the job of effecting unity .....	18	31.1	333	46.6
Teachers will have to study and observe concerning curriculum programs .....	14	30.4	221	30.9
Cooperative planning and action on the part of teachers .....	31	67.4	496	69.9
Teachers adopt a philosophy of education.....	11	23.9	256	35.9

Eighteen high schools with 333 teachers favor the responsibility of accepting the job of effecting unity, 14 high schools with 221 teachers favor the plan of teachers studying and observing curriculum program, 31 high schools with 496 teachers suggest cooperative planning and action on the part of teacher, and 11 high schools with 256 teachers want to adopt a philosophy of education.

TABLE X

Should traditional subject matter divisions be retained as the basic form of organization for the secondary school curriculum or should a new organization cutting across subject lines be effected?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Traditional subject matter divisions should be retained .....	24	51.1	377	54.1
A new organization cutting accross subject matter lines should be effected .....	16	34.0	196	28.1
System now used not at fault—the fault is in the way it is used ....	6	12.8	106	15.2
Each locality should determine its own curriculum type .....	1	2.1	18	2.6
Total .....	47	100.0	697	100.0

Twenty-four high schools with 377 teachers feel traditional subject matter divisions should be retained, 16 high schools with 196 teachers want a new organization cutting across subject matter lines, and 6 high schools with 106 teachers feel that the system now used is not at fault, but the way it is used.



## Issues Concerning Instructional Procedures in the Secondary School

TABLE I

What role should the textbook play in the secondary school methods?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
The textbook should play a major role .....	16	30.2	286	29.0
The textbook should play a minor role.....	37	69.8	698	71.0
Total .....	53	100.0	984	100.0
Supplement text with much outside material	44	83.0	835	84.7
Inadequate provisions for individual differences if texts are used .....	12	22.6	211	21.4
Some courses need text; others do not.....	6	11.3	115	11.6
Lack of supplementary materials and training of teachers force use of text .....	8	15.1	129	13.1

That textbook should play a major role is favored by 16 high schools with 286 teachers, that textbook should play a minor role is favored by 37 high schools with 698 teachers, that texts should be supplemented with much outside material is favored by 44 high schools with 835 teachers, and 12 high schools with 211 teachers feel inadequate provisions are made for individual differences if textbooks are used.

TABLE II

Is the nature of the assignment a primary factor in planning teacher procedure?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Yes .....	47	100.0	838	100.0
No .....	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total .....	47	100.0	838	100.0
Assignment should provide for individual differences .....	19	40.0	340	40.5
More time should be spent in assignment preparation .....	16	34.0	328	37.9
Pupils should understand the assignment clearly	13	27.6	266	31.7
Pupils should help make assignments .....	10	21.3	253	30.2

That the nature of the assignment is a primary factor in planning teacher procedure was agreed upon as the proper method with 47 high

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schools and 838 teachers favoring this plan. Nineteen high schools with 340 teachers think the assignment should provide for individual differences, 16 high schools with 328 teachers think more time should be spent in assignment preparation, 13 high schools with 266 teachers think pupils should understand the assignment clearly, and 10 high schools with 253 teachers report pupils should help make assignments.

TABLE III  
What are the advantages and limitations of the unit method of instruction?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Good for some subjects; poor for others . . . . .	35	72.9	564	70.1
Great amount of planning	13	27.0	216	26.8
Requires well-read and trained teachers . . . . .	26	54.1	396	49.2
Promotes unity of thought in related groups of subject matter . . . . .	28	58.3	475	59.2
Promotes individual thinking and research.	27	56.2	496	61.6
Eliminates "one text evil"	12	25.0	140	17.4

Thirty-five high schools with 564 teachers report that the unit method is good for some subjects and poor for others, 26 high schools with 396 teachers feel the need for well-read and trained teachers, 28 high schools with 475 teachers feel that it promotes unity of thought in related groups of subject matter, and 27 high schools with 496 teachers feel it promotes individual thinking and research.

TABLE IV  
To what extent should instructional procedures and materials be planned in advance of classroom use?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Long-range general plan	25	62.5	411	66.3
Interests of pupils determine specific plans in class . . . . .	29	72.5	515	83.0
Detailed planning should precede classroom use.	13	32.5	188	30.3
Advanced planning promotes orderly procedure . . . . .	10	25.0	154	24.8
Leave it all up to instructor . . . . .	3	7.5	19	3.1

Long-range general plan was favored by 25 high schools with 411 teachers, that interests of pupils determine specific plans in class was favored by 29 high schools with 515 teachers, 13 high schools with 188 teachers wanted a detailed planning before classroom use.



TABLE V  
To what extent is it desirable and possible to adapt instruction to individual differences among students?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
It is desirable but limited as to possibility.....	52	94.5	904	94.1
It is not possible under present conditions .....	3	5.5	105	10.9
It is possible and desirable by use of some unit plan .....	10	18.2	173	18.0
It is possible by some method of grouping pupils .....	15	27.3	285	29.6
Drawbacks: Lack of time, large classes, lack of materials, and school set-up .....	32	58.2	669	69.6
Teachers must know pupils' history better than they do now .....	30	54.5	517	53.8

That it is desirable but limited as to possibility is reported by 52 high schools with 904 teachers. That it is not possible under present circumstances is reported by 3 high schools with 105 teachers. That it is possible and desirable by use of some unit plan is reported by 10 high schools with 173 teachers. That it is possible by some method of grouping pupils is reported by 15 high schools with 285 teachers, while 32 high schools with 669 teachers report the following drawbacks: lack of time, large classes, lack of materials and school set-up; 30 high schools with 517 teachers feel teachers must know pupils' history better than they do now.

TABLE VI  
How effective are instructional aids in achieving educational outcomes?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Effective in improving quality of instruction and promoting understanding and interest ..	45	91.9	775	85.7
Prevents verbalized misunderstandings .....	8	16.3	235	25.9
Promotes better retention of subject matter .....	12	24.5	213	23.5
If not handled properly becomes non-educational .....	28	57.1	608	67.1
Instructors need more training in use of aids. ....	15	30.6	369	40.8

Forty-five high schools with 775 teachers believe it improves quality of instruction, and promotes understanding and interest. Twenty-eight high schools with 608 teachers report, if not handled properly it becomes non-educational, and 15 high schools with 369 teachers believe instructors need more training in use of aids.



TABLE VII

What are the advantages and limitations of formal and informal methods of evaluating the outcomes of the curriculum program?

Opinions	Number of schools	Per cent of schools answering	Number of teachers represented	Per cent of teachers represented
Some educational outcomes too intangible to measure by these methods .....	11	28.9	218	34.4
Oral or written exams cannot measure adequately progress and qualities .....	10	26.3	176	27.8
Standardized tests are good measure of pupil development .....	17	44.7	269	42.5
Informal teacher observation the best measurement .....	5	13.1	59	9.3
Evaluate pupils' development best by variety methods .....	21	55.3	329	51.9

Eleven high schools with 218 teachers report some educational outcomes too intangible to measure by these methods, 10 high schools with 176 teachers report oral or written exams cannot measure adequately progress and qualities, 17 high schools with 269 teachers report standardized tests are good measure of pupil development, and 21 high schools with 329 teachers wish to use a variety of methods to evaluate pupil development.



## CHAPTER V

### AGREEING ON DIRECTION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

#### A. The Aims of the Secondary School

The most congruous thing about secondary education is its incongruity. Some high schools are shooting for straight facts, others are shooting for social attitudes, while a great majority are just shooting. The lack of direction and the consequent miscellany of educational practice in the American high school are its most serious problems.

Observers of secondary education gain the impression that many courses and many classroom practices are the result of pure inertia. Ancient history is being taught because ancient history has always been taught in the Eastport High School. Students do daily drills in algebra because that is the way algebra has always been taught. Few teachers, fewer parents, and even fewer students question the value of these practices. They are simply a part of a high school education.

Probably much of the traditional and incongruous practice of the high school is due to the absence or fuzziness of a working agreement on where it is trying to go. Strange mixtures of routine and change are found in the same school and in the same type of communities. One high school steers more than fifty per cent of its students into vocational courses while another school in a similar community directs most of its students into preparatory and academic subjects.

For example, one large midwestern high school in an industrial community enrolls more than one-half of its student body in its commercial and industrial departments. These students are permitted to take only three units of work in such general courses as English, social studies, mathematics, and science during the last three years of their high school program. The remaining nine or ten units required for graduation must be taken in technical subjects such as short-



hand, bookkeeping, printing, machine shop, and similar courses designed for specific job training. In the same community another high school enrolls almost one-half of its students in straight college preparatory courses despite the fact that less than one-fourth of its students ever attend college.

Some high schools provide for an extensive program of extra-curricular activities while others provide few if any opportunities for students to participate in these functions. It is not uncommon in some schools for coaches and administrators to take students out of regular classes to practice or to participate in some extra-curricular affair, while other schools permit nothing to interfere with the routine of classroom instruction. In those schools in which inter-scholastic contests run rampant, students preparing for such contests frequently spend a major portion of their time during a particular season practicing for some sport or tooting a tuba in preparation for music competition. One small high school in Iowa played thirty-one basketball games during the 1945-46 season, and the boys on the squad missed a total of fifty-two hours of school time to engage in this sport. It would appear that in this particular school the tail was not merely wagging the dog, it was systematically shaking him down.

One high school maintains an excellent program of student participation in government. The student council is well organized, students are given real responsibilities in managing and planning their own activities, and every student is given an opportunity to learn to take an active part in democratic procedures. Another school not ten miles distant endures a form of one-man rule that would make any self-respecting dictator blush.

It is not the function of this section of the report to classify various classroom and extra-curricular activities in the high school as good or bad educational practice. Accounts of varied practices have been included merely to call attention to the lack of direction and to the absence of a consistent philosophy governing procedures. It is the viewpoint of the Iowa Committee on Philosophy and Design that no substantial improvement can be expected in secondary education in Iowa or in any other state without a working



agreement on the basic aims and the underlying principles of the secondary school and that such agreement is now conspicuously absent in a large percentage of local schools.

The statements on aims and principles presented here have been drafted to provide some over-all direction for the work on the various state committees who have been invited to develop illustrative curricular materials. It is recognized that there now exists a multiplicity of statements on objectives and purposes of education and that the making of additional pronouncements may well result in "a great weariness of the flesh." However, it is not the intention of the Committee to attempt to present a pre-fabricated statement of philosophy for Iowa high schools. Any philosophy of education to have value must be an integral part of the professional thinking and of the educational procedure of individual teachers and local faculties. The justification of the materials outlined here is to attempt to maintain a consistent pattern and to re-emphasize the importance of knowing where we are going before undertaking any actual production work.

It has been a basic assumption of the state program for curriculum improvement in secondary schools that the work of the state committees should be regarded as supplementary to the work of individual teachers and of local faculty groups. The state program represents an attempt to pool the educational resources of the high schools of the state and to make available to all of the teachers of the state the best thinking and best practices in the several fields of instruction which make up the secondary school curriculum. There is no disposition on the part of anyone working with the state program to impose a curriculum pattern or specific course outlines upon classroom teachers and local schools.

In keeping with these underlying principles, the materials presented in this chapter on aims have grown out of a year of study and discussion by local faculties in all sections of the state. The Committee on Philosophy and Design has taken the opinions expressed by faculties (summarized in Chapter IV) and attempted to weave them together into a concrete statement of direction for the consideration of secondary schools in Iowa.

The Committee has drawn heavily from statements of

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youth needs, educational purposes, and school objectives which have been developed by such organizations as the Educational Policies Commission,<sup>1</sup> the National Association of Secondary School Principals,<sup>2</sup> The National Education Association,<sup>3</sup> the American Council on Education,<sup>4</sup> and various committees in other states.

### Some Basic Ideas in American Education

The American secondary school is an inseparable part of the social and educational structure of American life. Over a period of 300 years certain underlying principles in education, growing out of social custom, legislative action, and philosophical proposals, have come to be widely accepted in shaping the educational programs of schools in this country.

Such principles provide the understructure for more special aims and practices at any given level in our educational system. They provide the framework for education in a free society, the footing and girders for the detailed structure of democratic schools.

These concepts and beliefs are presented here as brief and oversimplified statements of ideas that have developed over a period of many generations and are in many respects as complex and profound as democracy itself. Perhaps it is naive and misleading to attempt to present them in digest form. In any event, the ideas, ineptly stated as they may be, provide some support for the special purposes of the secondary school. The members of the Committee believe that the following concepts should be regarded as fundamental to the planning of a program of secondary education.

*Education is a process of individual growth and experience.* The idea that education is experience and that it is a process of development of individuals as persons, as opposed to training in special skills or to the accumulation

<sup>1</sup>Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1938.

<sup>2</sup>Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, *The Functions of Secondary Education*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin 64, 1937.

<sup>3</sup>National Education Association, "Social-Economic Goals of America," Report of Special Committee, 1933.

<sup>4</sup>American Council on Education, "Design for General Education."



of knowledge as an end in itself, has been advanced by philosophers and psychologists from early Greek times. Plato, Aristotle, deFeltre, Rousseau, Milton, Locke, Pestalozzi, Herbart, James, Thorndike, Dewey and others have contributed to the growth of the theory that education is more than merely training the mind and the special faculties of the individual.

Probably John Dewey has influenced contemporary educational thought in America more than any other living philosopher. His statement, "Education is that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience", is the most widely accepted definition of the educative process in American thought today.

While theory and practice show a scant speaking acquaintance in many classrooms, most secondary school people agree that education must be concerned with the development of the individual as a person and that training in skills and the mastery of knowledge should be regarded as no more than means to that end.

*Education is implemented by the transmission of the experiences of the race from one generation to the next.* Education must have substance. An individual is not educated by simply going forth and engaging in random experiences. His experiences must point in some direction—otherwise he becomes merely a disorganized product of a series of accidental happenings.

Ideas and inventions are not created *de novo*—they are the products of the culture of the race. They are merely new applications and new interpretations of ideas and accumulated knowledge which has been handed on by one means or another since the origin of man. Each individual and each generation is the beneficiary of the experiences of previous generations.

Any generation which should happen to lose the continuity of racial experience would revert to a primitive state. The sudden destruction of all adults and the means of transmitting language, literature, history, the arts, and sciences in a given social body—which is not as fantastic as it



might have been before the development of atomic warfare—would mean that any infant survivors of that particular group would be forced to rebuild their culture from scratch.

Education, in part, is the means by which man has passed on the most valuable experiences of past generations to each succeeding generation. In primitive times when the basic educational unit was the family and the requirements of life were simple, the formal instruction of the young by their parents was a relatively brief and simple process. As man's accumulation of knowledge has increased and as society has grown more complex, schooling has grown longer and more complicated.

It has been a physical impossibility for many centuries for any one man to master the accumulated knowledge of the race. Consequently, education has become formal and specialized in an effort to select the most valuable experiences for transmission and to find the most efficient and economical methods for perpetuating those experiences. That is the reason schools were organized. The chief function of the secondary school curriculum is to select and to transmit those experiences in our culture which will be most effective in the development and growth of individual young people as members of a free society.

*Schools must be free to teach truth.* Education for democracy is a sham unless schools are free to teach truth. The guts of democracy are freedom and truth—destroy them and you destroy democracy. Democracy assumes that the people have the intelligence to govern themselves. Without information, without truth there can be no intelligence—only blind following of dogma. An enlightened and informed citizenry must be educated in weighing facts, detecting propaganda, and drawing conclusions. Any school which is not free to teach these procedures is merely a tool for political charlatans, or a vacuum.

Destroy academic freedom and you destroy science and the methods of science. Destroy the methods of science and you destroy free society. The methods of science are the methods of rational thinking, and rational thinking is the stuff of a free society.



Any political system which places the power to determine what the schools shall or shall not teach in the hands of a political hierarchy becomes authoritarian. It is a symptom of little men in high offices, an expression of fear of truth by men in power. Granting that the motives of such men might be unselfish, it assumes that a few men possess a degree of omniscience which permits them to control the thinking of the many. Such an assumption is pure balderdash. The final authority to shape the teachings of schools in a free society must remain in the hands of the people. No politician or no educator has been so gifted that he possesses the superior powers of intellect which qualify him to direct the thinking of the body politic. In a free society and in a democracy the responsibility for formulating educational philosophy and curriculum content is delegated to representatives of the people. But the final approval remains with the people.

Within the framework of public policy and accepted aims, individual teachers must be free to teach truth. Otherwise teaching is emasculated. Unfortunately, teachers in some communities are not free to teach facts, laws, and theories which have been established by science. Neither are they free to present "pro" and "con" arguments or to present factual descriptions on both sides of controversial social and political issues. Local pressure groups and petty politicians sometimes like to throw their weight around, and they brook no criticism from a \$1,500 school teacher. Truth, to them, is idealistic nonsense—an extraneous issue.

Academic freedom implies academic responsibility. Freedom of the schools does not assume freedom of every teacher to indoctrinate students with his particular economic, political, or social theories. It means that teachers shall be free to teach truth when truth is known. Fuzzy guessing and prejudiced handling of facts do not belong in the classrooms of free schools.

*A literate and informed citizenry is requisite to the life and functioning of a free society.* A free society is fictitious, lacking the resources of self-discipline gained from reason and understanding. But a society of rational and informed persons is destined to be free. Demagoguery and

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political despotism are sorry competitors of freedom among a literate people who have access to the truth.

American democracy was founded upon a faith in the judgment and intellectual capacity of the common man. It assumed that man had the mental and moral qualities required for self-government. If experience has raised questions it has been because of gaps in our system of education and the buzzing confusion created by abuses of our means of communication.

Jefferson wrote in 1787, "Above all things, I hope the education of the common people will be attended to, convinced that on this good sense we may rely with the most security for the preservation of a due degree of liberty." The idea that popular government must rely on popular power born of knowledge was expressed by James Madison when he said, "A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."

Mere literacy is no guarantee of freedom. Literacy may become the tool of demagogues and political racketeers. Literacy without understanding based on full and accurate information is a mockery. The first step of dictators is to seize the sources of public information and then to control the education of youth through propaganda.

In a democratic form of government in which each citizen is responsible for selecting the representatives and participating in group decisions, an informed electorate is the *sine qua non* of intelligent social action. A democratic society, therefore, must maintain a system of universal free education in order to preserve itself and to function.

More than political action is required for the preservation of a free society. Freedom is a product of the intellect. Men to be free must understand the meaning and responsibilities of freedom. They must perceive clearly the place of the individual in society, they must reason the worth and dignity of man, and they must understand the values and limitations of government.

These are among the basic principles of education in a



democracy and in a free society. Means of education, therefore, must be made available to all people regardless of the accident of their birth. And above all, schools must have freedom to teach truth.

*A system of free public education supported by taxation must be maintained for all youth.* All state constitutions and statutes now provide for a system of free public schools supported from tax funds. While the federal constitution makes no specific provision for education, the federal government through land grants and through appropriations for stimulating the development of certain types of education, has long aided in the support of public schools.

The principle of free tax supported schools has evolved slowly over a period of 300 years in America. It wasn't until the latter part of the nineteenth century, however, that the legal right of school districts to maintain tax supported secondary schools was established. The right of school districts to maintain junior colleges and to support them from tax funds has not yet been established in many states.

Certain individuals and corporations are still antagonistic to the idea of being taxed to educate other people's children. The principle that society as a whole benefits and that individuals and businesses benefit correspondingly has not been universally understood in these United States. However, the trend toward universal free public education continues to gain momentum and the idea that public education is an investment in the future of democracy is now generally accepted.

Although most of the support for public education continues to come from local tax levies on tangible property, all states now provide for some state support through taxes on intangible property and such special sources as licenses, incomes, and retail sales.

The degree of acceptance of the idea of tax supported public schools is evidenced to some extent by increases in expenditures. The total expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools in the United States increased from about \$63,000,000 in 1870 to more than \$2,000,000,000 in 1940. While these increments may be accounted for to a considerable extent by increased enrollments, the per capita

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expenditures for public education have also gained remarkably. In 1870 the per capita expenditure was approximately \$15.00, while in 1940 it was slightly over \$100 per child enrolled.

The popular acceptance of the idea of tax support for public education is indicated from the results of a recent public opinion poll conducted by the National Education Association. About 20 per cent of the people interviewed stated that not enough money was being spent on education, more than 45 per cent stated that the amount was about right, and only 14 per cent thought that too much money was being spent.

*All youth shall have an equal opportunity for education in keeping with their individual capabilities.* Equal education in the sense that all young folk should have the same education is both impossible and undesirable. Individual youth will always vary in their background of experience, in the homes and communities from which they come, and in their capacity and desire to learn. Moreover, communities and school systems will always vary in their ability to provide educational opportunities regardless of expenditures. The culture of communities differs, their educational traditions differ, and the qualifications of their teachers differ.

The principle that all youth shall have comparable educational opportunities regardless of economic status, race, religion, or nationality is generally accepted in theory. It is far from an actuality. A majority of American people believe that educational opportunities should be equalized insofar as that ideal is physically possible. More than one-third of the states now make financial provisions for leveling out differences in educational opportunities among local school districts. And the theory that society benefits when each young person has an opportunity to develop his talents to the maximum of his ability has few honest dissenters.

Performance among the several states in providing comparable educational opportunities is indeed sad music. Our schools are still highly selective on an economic basis. Support of public schools is inadequate in many states and in many local communities. The sons and daughters of wealthy parents in these communities frequently attend superior



private schools while little is done to improve the public schools. High school education is still expensive. Recent studies show the average cash cost to students for secondary schooling is slightly more than \$100 per year. When it is taken into account that the average family income for 50 per cent of the families in America was less than \$1,200 per year in 1938, it is understandable that children from these families found it extremely difficult to remain in high school. And college education was almost out of the question.

In most of our southern states equal educational opportunities for colored children is neither accepted nor attempted. Less flagrant discriminations against racial, religious, and economic groups exist in many of our large cities.

Equal educational opportunity for students of different interests and talents in the sense of providing the same type of training for all of them is a delusion. However, in the sense of providing opportunities for all youth to obtain the type and amount of formal education which best fits their needs and capacities, the theory is sound and rapidly is gaining momentum.

The ideal in American education must be to make it possible for all youth to get the best possible education consistent with their requirements and interests and irrespective of their economic status, race, nationality, or religion. Anything short of this is indefensible and stupid in a free society.

*The state has the right and obligation to require that all youth receive a certain minimum of schooling.* Compulsory education, like compulsory military service, is one of the enigmas of democracy. It assumes that in a democracy the state has an obligation to require that all citizens have a quantum of education in order to preserve itself and to promote its own interests. It assumes that it is in the best interests of the individual as well as of society for the state to require all young people to obtain an amount of schooling which is presumed to prepare them for certain basic responsibilities as citizens. It is presumed also to provide the individual with the tools of learning necessary to continue his education either formally or informally.

The general acceptance of this principle is reflected in our compulsory attendance laws. Every state now requires by statute that every young person shall attend school until



he is from fourteen to sixteen years of age or until he has completed the eighth grade. One state requires attendance until eighteen or until the student has completed the twelfth grade. Although compulsory school attendance laws conflict with the selfish interests of parents in some instances the American public believes that compulsory laws are necessary to protect the individual child from exploitation and to protect the best interests of society.

While the several states now require school attendance through a certain age or grade, parents are free to send their children to the school of their choice or to provide for private instruction. It is an accepted principle of American education that non-public schools may operate along with our system of free public schools and that parents may send their children to either a public or non-public school. The interest of the state is that every pupil shall have an educational opportunity and that he shall receive at least a minimum amount of education.

*Education should be a function of the several states with its control delegated to local communities.* One of the bright spots in the growing complexity of government in these United States is the fact that the public schools have remained under the close democratic control of the people. While national, state, and local government has tended to become farther removed from direct popular control, our public schools have continued to be managed largely by township, county, or district boards elected by the qualified voters of each school district. Where this principle has been violated, as in a few of our larger cities, partisan politics and graft have crept into school systems and the control has been taken from the hands of the public.

Public education is a function of each of the forty-eight states. The United States has no national system of education. The framers of our constitution were evidently suspicious of a strong national system of education—probably because of the dangers of partisan control and the possible use of the schools to perpetuate a particular political philosophy or political group. The Constitution of the United States is silent on education, and the states derive their legal power to establish and control public schools from the Tenth Amendment which grants that "the powers not delegated to



the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people."

Our system of public education in America is largely a product of local initiative and local support. Schools were organized in individual settlements through the initiative of local communities soon after the first colonies were established. Although Massachusetts set a precedent for a degree of state control with its colonial laws of 1642 and 1647, it was not until late in the eighteenth century that states and territories began to make pronouncements on the importance, control, and support of education in their constitutions and statutes.

Extreme local control in education has worn thin in spots over the years. Many local districts have been unable or unwilling to provide adequate support and competent control. While a great majority of local school districts have made a maximum effort to provide the best possible educational opportunities for their young folks, a few districts have not. Consequently, state control has had to be increased to prevent abuses, and state support has tended to increase to aid in equalizing the financial resources of local schools.

The present trend is toward greater state support and increased state control and supervision. But the administrative structure still provides for the delegation of most of the control and most of the administrative functions of the public schools to local districts. State departments of education have generally regarded their responsibilities to be those of leadership and service to local schools rather than inspection and the imposition of rigid controls.

*The school is a supplementary educational agency.* Leacock may have a point when he says that modern education is getting too long; it causes young people to marry ten years too late, to have children ten years too late, and to die ten years too young. There has been a disposition upon the part of some educators to seek constantly to expand the scope of education. They have been critical of the home, the church, and industry and have contended that if young people are properly educated the schools must take over educational functions formerly performed by these institutions. The result has been that the school program has tended to



become thin from over expansion. Critics of the schools have insisted that they have been trying to do so much that they are not doing anything well.

The school, at best, provides artificial learning situations. It is in a position to provide certain types of educational experiences more efficiently and more economically than other agencies. It is in a position also to develop an interest upon the part of students in continued education. In cases of individual students who do not have the proper opportunities for positive educational experiences at home, in the church, or through other institutions the school should be expected to fill in the gaps. This is consistent with the supplementary function of the school.

However, much of the educational growth of young people must result from their informal experiences with other community institutions. The school has contact with the student for only a few hours each day. During the remainder of his waking hours he is associated with his family, his friends, his fellow employees, and other people in the community. He is being educated by the movies, by the radio, by the gang, by the church, by reading, and by other media throughout his out-of-school time. And he should be. These are normal life experiences.

The school has an opportunity and an obligation to influence his selection of outside associations. It has an opportunity and an obligation to supplement and to strengthen desirable community institutions which attract and educate young people. It can and should work closely with the home, the church, community recreational projects, civic groups, business, and government in providing the right kind of educational opportunities in the community.

Beyond this it can do very little. The school cannot remake the home, it cannot take over the functions of the church, and it cannot provide highly specialized training for industry. It can supplement but it cannot replace education in other institutions.

#### **B. A Statement of Aims for Iowa Secondary Schools**

The curriculum aims proposed by the Committee on Philosophy and Design represent statements of purposes or ends to be achieved. They are objectives intended to be ac-



complished as distinguished from functions or services to be performed by secondary schools. The aims which are here proposed as a part of the framework for the curriculum of secondary schools in Iowa have grown out of the opinions expressed by local faculties over the state and from a review of trends and developments in American secondary education.

It is the belief of the members of the Committee that these aims should serve to give over-all direction to the curriculum work of the various state committees. The members of this Committee are fully aware of the shortcomings and possible abuses of statements of this nature, but they are convinced that the values resulting from an agreement on definite ends more than offset the dangers of rigidity which might develop.

It is the opinion of a majority of secondary school people in Iowa and of the Committee on Philosophy and Design that the secondary school has two major functions, (1) to provide *general educational experiences* which point primarily toward the development of informed and responsible persons in a free society, and (2) to provide *specialized educational opportunities* for the development of individual interests and talents.

The aims of secondary education which are proposed for the direction of curriculum improvement in the high schools of Iowa are listed below:

#### *Aims of General Education*

1. Communication skills
2. Health and physical fitness
3. Social understanding
4. Civic competence
5. Economic responsibility
6. Family relationships
7. Scientific understanding
8. Aesthetic appreciation
9. Philosophy of life
10. Vocational choice
11. Avocational experience



### *Aims of Special Education*

1. Vocational education
2. Work experience
3. College preparation

### *Aims of General Education*

It is the viewpoint of most of the teachers and administrators in more than 200 Iowa high schools who submitted summaries of their opinions on various curriculum issues, that the first job of the secondary school is to provide a good program of general education. Most of these faculty groups expressed the belief that there are certain common skills and types of information that are needed by all persons in order to be reasonably intelligent citizens in a democracy, and that it is the function of the secondary school to provide such educational opportunities. The aims of general education proposed for secondary schools in Iowa are:

1. *Communication skill:* Each student should develop the degree of skill in expressing ideas and in understanding other people's ideas needed to be an intelligent member of a democratic group. The student should develop:
  - (1) Skill in reading different types of materials, e. g., literature, news articles, poetry, scientific articles, etc., with speed and understanding.
  - (2) An adequate vocabulary for the precise expression of ideas
  - (3) Ability to use the mechanics of language necessary for appropriate oral and written expression
  - (4) Ability to organize materials so as to express himself clearly in writing
  - (5) Skill in speaking informally before a group—ability to use appropriate English in speaking and to organize and to express his thoughts clearly before an audience
  - (6) Skill in listening with discrimination to ideas expressed by others



- (7) An understanding of appropriate procedures in correspondence, parliamentary situations, introductions, etc.
- (8) Knowledge of the structure of the English language and something of its social value
- (9) An understanding of how standards of speech and writing are adapted to different situations, e. g., conversation, argumentation, etc.
- (10) Skill in the effective use of the voice
- (11) Ability to use principles of logical thinking in reading, writing, listening, and speaking
- (12) Ability to locate and use reference and source materials

2. *Health and physical fitness:* Each student should maintain his own physical and mental health and understand his responsibilities for protecting the health of others.

He should:

- (1) Have a regular physical examination under the auspices of the school
- (2) Understand something of the structure of his own body
- (3) Understand and practice basic principles of nutrition, rest, cleanliness, care of eyes and teeth, etc.
- (4) Understand his responsibilities for maintaining healthful conditions in the home and community
- (5) Maintain a satisfactory degree of physical fitness
- (6) Know where to go and when to go for proper medical attention
- (7) Develop an interest in healthful sports and recreational activities
- (8) Know reliable sources of health information
- (9) Develop desirable physical skills and coordination



(10) Understand the nature of communicable diseases and assume personal responsibility for the prevention of their spread such as quarantine, immunization, etc.

(11) Know simple first aid treatments, their value and limitations

3. *Social understanding:* Young folks in high school should develop a keen sense of understanding and responsibility toward other persons and toward groups in a democracy.

They should:

- (1) Feel a genuine sense of service to other people
- (2) Understand the nature of democratic living, the distinction between liberty and license, and the essentialness of self-discipline
- (3) Understand why the interests of the group should take precedence over the immediate interest of the individual
- (4) Know the development of the idea of social responsibility in western civilization and understand the reasons behind it
- (5) Feel a respect for other people and develop a sense of value for the dignity of man
- (6) Value friendships and seek to develop friends
- (7) Learn to work and play congenially with other people
- (8) Understand the values and limitations of various types of cooperative group enterprises
- (9) Learn to compete graciously with other people
- (10) Develop habits of courtesy and observe the amenities of social behavior
- (11) Develop an attitude of tolerance and understanding toward other groups and other peoples
- (12) Understand major social problems and trends and be willing to act intelligently with respect to them



(13) Know something of the cultural backgrounds of other nations

4. *Civic competence:* Youth should understand the structure, functions, and problems of government and develop skills and attitudes which will permit them to participate intelligently in civic life. They should:

- (1) Understand different forms of government and know their major strengths and weaknesses
- (2) Know the history of democracy and of its development in America
- (3) Understand and accept the responsibilities of a citizen in a democracy; realize that democracy cannot long survive unless the people participate actively, intelligently, and consistently
- (4) Understand the major functions of government
- (5) Understand the structure and working principles of government and politics
- (6) Develop skills in honest and fair political action
- (7) Develop an attitude of willingness to serve in civic capacities
- (8) Develop skills needed to keep informed on civic and political affairs—particularly where to go for information and how to evaluate it
- (9) Develop a sustained interest and desire to keep informed on major problems of government
- (10) Understand basic principles relating to interdependence of government, politics, economics, and culture
- (11) Understand something of the significance of the political, cultural, and economic interrelationships of the peoples of the world

5. *Economic responsibility:* Each student should be able to manage his own economic affairs intelligently, understand certain basic economic principles, and know the



general economic structure of the United States and its role in world affairs. He should:

- (1) Understand how to budget his own finances and to keep accurate personal accounts
- (2) Understand the workings of ordinary business procedures, such as retail selling and purchasing, banking, transportation, insurance, loans, social security, taxation, etc.
- (3) Learn how to buy wisely and where to go for reliable information on personal business transactions
- (4) Develop a sense of responsibility as a producer and as a consumer
- (5) Understand some of the basic principles and problems relating to the exchange of goods and services
- (6) Know the general economic structure of the United States
- (7) Understand basic problems and principles in our economic relationships with other nations
- (8) Develop a wholesome attitude toward human values in relation to economic values
- (9) Develop a sense of personal responsibility and integrity in managing his own economic affairs

6. *Family relationships:* All youth should gain an insight and understanding of the family and the relationships needed to make a satisfactory family adjustment. They should:

- (1) Be willing to assume their full share of responsibility as a member of a family
- (2) Learn to cooperate and live happily with other members of their family
- (3) Understand some of the basic factors for success in marriage



- (4) Understand parental responsibilities toward children
  - (5) Understand important problems of child care and of the rearing of children
  - (6) Understand major economic problems in managing a home
  - (7) Know the place of the family in the American social structure and important social and economic trends affecting the family
  - (8) Understand something of the factors that enter into personality and personal adjustments and their significance to wholesome family relationships
7. *Scientific understanding:* All youth should have at least an elementary knowledge of natural phenomena and their implications for human welfare, understand the nature and value of the scientific method, and employ skills in mathematics and science in solving everyday problems.

They should:

- (1) Develop a knowledge of elementary laws and generalizations in the biological and physical sciences which will aid in understanding man's natural environment
- (2) Understand the scientific method and be able to apply it in the solution of problems
- (3) Develop an impartial and objective attitude toward ideas and social problems
- (4) Develop competence in mathematical and scientific skills needed in non-technical situations
- (5) Understand the relationship of science to human welfare and to social progress
- (6) Appreciate the contributions of science and scientists to civilization
- (7) Be able to read and understand non-technical scientific articles and news stories, including graphs, charts, etc.



(8) Understand and practice the conservation of natural resources

(9) Develop the ability to use common mechanical appliances and to understand how they work

8. *Aesthetic appreciation:* Young people in high school should develop a sense of personal satisfaction through aesthetic experiences in the fine arts. They should:

(1) Develop a discriminating taste for drama, literature, music, graphic art, dancing, and other arts

(2) Develop appreciation through self-expression in some of the fine arts

(3) Know and understand some of the outstanding examples of music, drama, art, and literature (past and contemporary)

(4) Understand the contributions of the fine arts to the continuity of our culture

(5) Enjoy leisure time experiences in the fine arts

(6) Derive personal satisfaction by expressing themselves through some form of art

(7) Understand the relationships of the arts to everyday life and to the cultural setting of the period in which they were produced

(8) Develop standards of good taste in the arts together with ability and interest in applying these standards to their surroundings and to everyday cultural experiences.

9. *Personal philosophy:* Each young person needs to think clearly about the meaning and value of life and develop a wholesome philosophy which will assist him in making satisfactory social adjustments. He should:

(1) Develop a sense of ethical values consistent with intelligent social behavior in a free society

(2) Understand the meaning of justice, right, and duty



- (3) Understand religion and its function in a free society
  - (4) Understand the essential nature of man and of his characteristic cultural achievements
  - (5) Develop faith in man and a wholesome respect for moral and social values
  - (6) Develop habits of honesty, morality, fair play, and tolerance
  - (7) Develop habits of self-discipline
  - (8) Develop faith in the power of reason and in the methods of experiment and discussion
10. *Vocational choices:* Each student should make a tentative choice of a vocational field consistent with his talents and based upon an understanding of opportunities for success and service. He should:
- (1) Know his own special vocational interests, talents, and limitations
  - (2) Know opportunities for employment and success in vocations in which he is interested
  - (3) Understand and appreciate opportunities for worthwhile service in occupations in which he is interested
  - (4) Know requirements for preparation for occupations of interest to him
  - (5) Understand important requirements for successful adjustment to employees and employers
  - (6) Know where to go and how to use reliable sources of information about vocations
  - (7) Understand and appreciate the relationship between occupational success and successful living
  - (8) Develop desirable work habits and an attitude of giving his best efforts
  - (9) Understand purposes, functions, and workings of various organizations and agencies associated with vocations in the field of his choice



(10) Know where to go for efficient placement service

11. *Avocational experience:* Young people in high school should participate in various constructive avocational experiences which point toward a wholesome use of leisure time. These students should:

- (1) Develop interests in avocational activities which are constructive in nature
- (2) Gain an acquaintance with a large number of avocational activities as a basis for making an intelligent choice
- (3) Develop knowledge and skills in a few avocational activities of special interest to them
- (4) Engage in constructive leisure time activities at home and at school
- (5) Know where to go to get reliable information on such avocational pursuits as gardening, handicrafts, music, drama, art, model building, etc.

#### *Aims of Special Education*

The second major function of the high school is to make it possible for students to get some specialized training to provide for differences in ability, interests, and experience. Specialized aims are not proposed as applying only to a few students. They may be as valid for all students as are the aims proposed for general education. They are special in the sense that experiences relating to each aim might be quite different for different students. While the first responsibility of the high school is to provide an effective program of general education, most schools should also make it possible for students to get certain specialized educational experiences.

Special education should be made available along with the student's general program but should not be emphasized to the extent that it is difficult for the student to obtain a well-rounded general training. A greater proportion of opportunities for specialized training should come in the last two years of high school, or preferably, in the thirteenth



and fourteenth years of an extended secondary school program.

The Committee on Philosophy and Design recommends the following aims for special education in the secondary schools of Iowa:

1. *Vocational education*: Those students for whom high school represents the end of formal education should develop special skills and knowledge which will have value to them in getting a job and earning a living when they leave school. These students should:
  - (1) Understand the special skills and knowledge needed to succeed in the vocational field of their choice
  - (2) Develop general skills needed in the occupational field of their choice
  - (3) Know where to get information about the job in which they are interested
  - (4) Know employment trends in their vocational field
  - (5) Know how to interpret the information obtained from objective measures of their own skills and capacities
  - (6) Know that they like the type of work and the associations which go with it in the field of their choice
  - (7) Know the probable earnings in their special field
2. *Work experience*: Those students who plan to enter some occupation immediately upon leaving high school and who do not have an opportunity to gain actual work experience in their father's business or on the home farm should engage in some part-time work experience under actual job conditions and under the direction of the school. These students should:
  - (1) Engage for wages in actual work which is educational, either on a part-time basis during the school year or during the summer months
  - (2) Understand how to and actually make applications for employment



- (3) Understand and practice getting along with fellow employees on a job
- (4) Understand and practice the responsibilities of an employee for success on a job
- (5) Understand and practice the responsibility for managing their own earnings
- (6) Develop a feeling of satisfaction in a job well done
- (7) Develop a growing sense of independence in earning a living and managing their own economic affairs
- (8) Develop an understanding of the problems of labor and management

3. *College preparation:* Those students who have an interest and the special ability to continue their education in an institution of higher learning should secure the type of preparatory training required for success in college. They should:

- (1) Understand and develop the special abilities required for successful study in higher institutions
- (2) Know their own interests, capacities, and limitations for special study at the college level
- (3) Decide in so far as possible the special field in which they would like to concentrate in a higher institution
- (4) Know and meet the entrance requirements for the special curriculum in which they would like to study in college
- (5) Understand the financial requirements and opportunities for financial aid if needed for study in an institution of higher learning
- (6) Know how to evaluate the effectiveness of the educational opportunities offered by the particular institutions of higher learning which they may be considering
- (7) Know the opportunities and advantages of cultural and special occupational training offered by the institutions they are considering



## CHAPTER VI

### A STATEMENT OF DESIGN FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN IOWA

#### A. The Program in General Education

General education may be defined as a broad type of education aimed at developing attitudes, abilities, and behavior considered desirable by society, but not necessarily preparing the learner for specific types of vocational or avocational pursuit. Life in a democratic society such as ours demands certain common knowledges, attitudes, skills, interests, and appreciations if there is to be the unity of purpose and social homogeneity necessary to successful democratic living. Hence, it is the duty of secondary schools to offer broad training in certain general skills and knowledges, involving communication, social living, health, and government. The secondary school should continue this program in general education started in the elementary school, and thus build up the general background of youth to such a point that they are ready for specialized training.

Certain areas of learning are recommended for the purpose of furthering this general education.

*Communication:* Four years of English, written and oral, with considerable attention given to the reading of literature, is provided.

*Basic Mathematics:* One year of basic mathematics, with emphasis on the fundamental processes of mathematics, is suggested for all students.

*Social Studies:* A four year program in social studies, including the geographic and historical significance of ancient and modern civilizations, the development of America and American government, and a study of present day social, economic, and political problems, is recommended.

*Physical Education and Health:* Provision is made for four years of training in health and physical welfare. From



two to four hours a week should be devoted to this important phase of education.

*Science:* One year of general science or biology is required, and a year of each is strongly recommended for all students.

*Fine Arts:* At least one year of vocal or instrumental music, art, or dramatics should be required, either with or without credit.

*Practical Arts:* All students should have as a part of their general education some supervised experiences involving hand skills. At least one year of work in one of the following courses should be taken:

- General Home Economics
- Vocational Home Economics
- General Agriculture
- Vocational Agriculture
- General Shop
- Personal Typewriting
- General Business
- Handicrafts or Applied Arts

#### **B. The Program in Differentiating Education**

While it is desirable that students have a common background of knowledge, that they understand in common what makes for successful living from the social, economic, and political points of view, that they have general appreciation for good health and the other essentials to happy living in a free, democratic society, it is also highly desirable that the secondary schools recognize and provide for their individual needs.

Young people differ in many ways—in their interests, in their abilities, in their environments, in their personalities, in their desires, and in other ways. If they are to attain their greatest possible development, these differences must be provided for in their training. Hence, their general education needs to be accompanied and followed by differentiating education.



The Central Planning Committee believes that the program in differentiating education in our secondary schools should endeavor to provide such training as will assist students in meeting the following individual interests and needs:

1. *Avocational and recreational*: To be found in certain elective courses—foreign languages, music, art, advanced science, mathematics, and others, and in such activities as dramatics, debate, hobby clubs, and athletics. The guidance program and the school library should be helpful in this connection.
2. *Vocational*: To be found in courses provided to furnish training in vocational agriculture, trades and industries, retail selling, stenography, etc., wherein school and community cooperate in providing planned and supervised work experience. A well organized vocational guidance program is essential if the full value of such courses is to be realized.
3. *Preparatory*: To be found in courses especially designed to prepare students for either colleges or semiprofessional and trade schools. Here, again, an educational guidance program is essential.

Not many high schools in Iowa are equipped to offer any large number of highly specialized courses. In smaller schools, with less than one hundred students and with only four or five teachers, few if any strictly vocational courses, excepting perhaps vocational agriculture, should be attempted. Vocational typewriting and shorthand cannot be justified in small schools where few students will actually utilize the training vocationally. A semester or a year of *personal* typewriting should be offered.

It is also recommended that small high schools (one hundred or fewer students) should not attempt to teach specialized advanced courses in mathematics, science, foreign languages, etc., to accommodate one or two students who may plan to attend a college where such courses are prerequisites. This procedure often compels other students, for whom such training in high school has little significance, to carry the courses. The relatively few students wanting these specialized courses should secure them either on a sub-collegiate

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basis in college or through correspondence courses offered by reputable and fully accredited colleges or universities.

### C. Learning Areas

The Central Planning Committee believes that the best interests of secondary education in Iowa can be most effectively served by organizing the curriculum around learning areas. Hence, the following areas are set up:

- I. Communications
- II. Mathematics
- III. Languages
- IV. Sciences
- V. Social Studies
- VI. Practical Arts
- VII. Fine Arts
- VIII. Health and Physical Education

In addition programs are provided in Guidance and Extra-curricular activities.

#### I. *Communications*

Within the area of Communications courses are provided in:

Ninth Grade English	(2 semesters) *
Tenth Grade English	(2 semesters) *
Eleventh Grade English	(2 semesters) *
Language in Contemporary Life	(1 semester)
English Literature	(1 semester)
Journalism	(1 or 2 semesters)
Discussion and Debate	(1 or 2 semesters)
Interpretation and Drama	(1 or 2 semesters)
Remedial Reading	(as needed)

#### II. *Mathematics*

Within the area of Mathematics courses are provided in:

Basic Mathematics	(2 semesters) *
Intermediate Algebra	(2 semesters)
Geometry	(2 semesters)
Consumer Mathematics	(2 semesters)
Advanced Mathematics	(2 semesters)

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\*Required



### III. *Languages*

Courses are provided in:

Latin	(2 to 6 semesters)
French	(2 to 4 semesters)
Spanish	(2 to 4 semesters)
German	(2 to 4 semesters)

### IV. *Science*

Courses are provided in:

General Science	(2 semesters) †
Biology	(2 semesters) †
Chemistry	(2 semesters)
Physics	(2 semesters)

### V. *Social Studies*

Courses are provided in:

Social Studies I (Old World Backgrounds)	(2 semesters) *
Social Studies II (The Modern World)	(2 semesters) *
Social Studies III (American History)	(2 semesters) *
Modern Problems	(2 semesters) *

### VI. *Practical Arts*

Courses are provided in:

General Agriculture	(2 to 4 semesters)
Industrial Arts	(2 to 8 semesters) <sup>1</sup>
Home Economics	(2 to 8 semesters) <sup>2</sup>
Business Education	
Typewriting (Personal)	(1 to 2 semesters)
Typewriting (Vocational)	(4 semesters)
Shorthand and Stenography	(4 semesters)
Retail Selling and Related Subjects	(2 to 4 semesters)
Bookkeeping	(2 semesters)
Office Practice	(2 semesters)
General Business Training	(2 semesters)

### VII. *Fine Arts*

Materials are provided in:

Art  
Vocal Music  
Instrumental Music

These activities are to be carried with or without credit.

† Either General Science or Biology required

\* Required

<sup>1</sup> Two semesters strongly recommended for all boys.

<sup>2</sup> Two semesters strongly recommended for all girls.



## *Guidance*

Guidance and counseling are recognized as indispensable to a successful secondary school program. Hence, provision should be made to include them in the secondary school. A discussion of the guidance program may be found in Section H of this chapter.

### *The Extra-Curricular Program*

Section J of this chapter discusses the place of the so-called extra-curricular program in the secondary curriculum.

#### **D. Suggestive Programs of Studies for Four Year High Schools**

The program of studies contains certain required and a number of elective subjects. It is the judgment of the committee responsible for deciding policies that all pupils need certain common training in order to live successfully in a democracy. Common learnings are included, therefore, in certain subjects which are required of all students. At the same time, the Central Planning Committee believes that provision should be made for individual interests, needs, and capacities. Provision is made for these individual differences, in so far as is possible, by the offering of certain elective subjects. The following programs are suggestive:

#### *Required Subjects*

##### *Grade Nine*

English I .....	1 unit
Basic Mathematics .....	1 unit
Social Studies I (Old World Backgrounds in History and Geography) .....	1 unit
Physical Education .....	
*General Science or Biology .....	1 unit

##### *Grade Ten*

English II .....	1 unit
Social Studies II (The Modern World—Geography and History) .....	1 unit
Physical Education .....	
*General Science or Biology .....	1 unit

\*One year required.



*Grade Eleven*

English III .....	1 unit
Social Studies III (American History and Govern- ment) .....	1 unit
Physical Education	

*Grade Twelve*

Social Studies IV (Modern Problems) .....	1 unit
Physical Education	

*Elective Subjects*

*Grade  
Placement*

English IV .....	11-12
Journalism .....	11-12
Discussion and Debate .....	11-12
Interpretation and Drama .....	11-12
Intermediate Algebra .....	10
Geometry .....	11
Consumer Mathematics .....	11-12
Advanced Mathematics .....	12
Latin .....	10-12
French .....	10-12
Spanish .....	10-12
German .....	10-12
Physics .....	11-12
Chemistry .....	11-12
General Agriculture .....	11-12
Industrial Arts .....	9-12
Home Economics (General or Vocational) .....	9-12
General Business Training .....	9-10
Bookkeeping .....	10-12
Typewriting (Personal) .....	9-12
Typewriting (Vocational) .....	11-12
Shorthand and Stenography .....	11-12
Retail Selling and Related Subjects .....	11-12
Business Organization and Management .....	11-12
Office Practice .....	11-12
Business Law .....	11-12
Art .....	9-12
Vocal Music .....	9-12
Instrumental Music .....	9-12
Health .....	9-12
Vocational Agriculture .....	9-12
Trades and Industries .....	11-12

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*Suggested Program of Studies for High Schools With  
Three to Five Teachers*

*Grade Nine*

*Required*

English I  
Social Studies I  
Basic Mathematics  
Physical Education

*Electives*

General Science or Biology (1)  
Home Economics (9)  
Industrial Arts (9)  
\*Music (2)  
General Business

*Grade Ten*

*Required*

English II  
Social Studies II  
Physical Education

*Electives*

General Science or Biology (1)  
Home Economics (9)  
Industrial Arts (9)  
Algebra (3)  
\*Music  
General Business

*Grade Eleven*

*Required*

English III (5)  
American History and  
Government (4)  
Physical Education

*Electives*

Physics (7)  
Typing (8)  
Foreign Language (6)  
Geometry (3)  
Agriculture I  
\*Music

*Grade Twelve*

*Required*

English IV (5)  
Modern Problems (4)  
Physical Education

*Electives*

Physics (7)  
Foreign Language (6)  
Agriculture II  
Typing (8)  
\*Music

*Notes on Program*

1. One year of general science or biology is recommended as a requirement for graduation. Students should be permitted to elect one of these courses either in the ninth or tenth grades. Small schools probably will find it desirable to alternate these courses.

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\*Either with or without credit—curricular or extra-curricular.



2. All students should be encouraged to participate in some music activities or to take a course in music appreciation. In smaller high schools major emphasis should be placed on vocal music.
3. Algebra and geometry may be offered in alternate years.
4. American History and modern problems may be alternated in grades eleven and twelve.
5. English III and English IV may be alternated in grades eleven and twelve.
6. Latin, French, or Spanish may be offered as an elective in grades eleven and twelve. Small high schools should not attempt to offer more than one language.
7. Students may elect physics in either the eleventh or twelfth grade.
8. Small schools should attempt to offer only one year of typewriting for personal use.
9. All boys should be encouraged to take at least one year of industrial arts and all girls at least a year of home economics in the ninth or tenth grade.

### *Illustrative Schedules*

#### *Some Principles of Schedule Building*

The making of schedules of classes is one of the most important duties of the school administrator. Upon the success with which this is done depends the smoothness with which the school operates. It influences to a large degree the success of teachers and students alike. It must be built on sound educational principles and not on expediency, with the welfare of the educational program uppermost in mind. No extra-curricular activity, the scheduling of buses, or any administrative advantage should determine the schedule. A sound educational policy should demand the right of way, and all other considerations should be secondary.

Some fundamental principles of schedule building have been announced as follows:

1. The schedule should afford each pupil the opportunity to pursue studies which his individual needs and interests justify.



2. The school schedule must be based on and prepared in the light of the choices of subjects made, with proper guidance, by pupils.
3. Teacher qualifications must be carefully weighed.
4. The schedule must distribute the loads of teachers as equitably as possible, giving due consideration to all the factors that contribute to the teaching load.
5. The schedule should balance class sections according to standards established in advance.
6. The schedule should be made so as to give each pupil and each teacher a simple and regular arrangement of his class and study-hall assignments.
7. The schedule should provide for such alternation of the activities of pupils as will reduce the element of fatigue to a minimum.
8. The schedule should aim at the most effective use of the space, facilities, and equipment of the school.
9. The schedule should be ready to operate effectively on the opening day of the school year.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>"An Administrator's Handbook for High School Districts," Missouri State Department of Education, 1940, pp. 198-199.



# ILLUSTRATIVE SCHEDULE

## Four Year High School—Four Teachers

	Superintendent Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
9:00-10:00	Agriculture or Physics 11-12	Study Hall 9	Home Economics I or II 9-10	Industrial Arts I 9-10
10:00-11:00	Study Hall	Typing (Personal) 11-12	General Science or Biology 9-10	
11:00-12:00		Study Hall	Physical Educa. (Girls) All	Physical Educa. (Boys) All
12:00-1:00	LUNCH HOUR			
1:00-1:45		English I 9	Social Studies II 10	Study Hall
1:45-2:30	Algebra or Geometry 10-11	English III or IV 11-12	Social Studies I 9	Study Hall
2:30-3:15	Basic Mathematics 9	English II 10	Study Hall	Social Studies III and IV 11-12
3:15-4:10		Speech and Dramatics	Music	Athletics

# ILLUSTRATIVE SCHEDULE

## Four Year High School—Five Teachers

Time	Superintendent Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E
9:00 10:00	Physics  11-12	Music	Industrial Arts I or II 9-10	Home Economics I or II 9-10	
10:00 11:00			Agriculture I or II 11-12	Gen. Science or Biology 10	General Business 9-10
11:00 12:00		Foreign Language I or II 11-12	T-Th. Phys. Educ. 9-10	M-W-F Phys. Educ. 9-10	Typing (Personal) 11-12
12:00 1:00	LUNCH HOUR				
1:00 1:45		English I 9	M-W-F Phys. Educ. 11-12	T-Th. Phys. Educ. 11-12	Social Studies II 10
1:45 2:30	Algebra 10-11	English III or IV 11-12			Social Studies I 9
2:30 3:15	Basic Math. 9	English II 10			Modern Problems or Am. History 11-12
3:15 4:10		Activity Period Music                      Athletics			



# ILLUSTRATIVE SCHEDULE

## Four Year High School—Ten Teachers

Hours	Principal	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H	Teacher I
9:00 10:00		English I 9A	American History 11B	English III 11A	Algebra 10	General Home Ec. I 9-10	Shorthand I 11	General Shop 9	Physical Education (Boys)	Social Studies II 10A
10:00 11:00	American History 11A	English II 10A	Physical Education (Girls)	English IV 12	Basic Arith. 9A	Biology 10A	Typing I 10-11	Industrial Arts I 10-11		Foreign Lang. II 11-12
11:00 12:00	Social Studies I 9A	English I 9B	Physical Education (Girls)	Music Vocal or Apprec.	Geometry 11	General Home Ec. II 10-11	Secre- tarial -Prac. 12	Industrial Arts II 11-12		Foreign Lang. I 10-11
12:00 1:00	LUNCH HOUR									
1:00 2:00		English II 10B	Modern Problems 12	Speech 11-12	Basic Mathematics	Biology 10B	Typing II 11-12	Physical Education (Boys)	Related Arts 11-12	
2:00 3:00	General Science 9-10	English III 11B	Social Studies I 9B		Chemistry or Physics 11-12		Book- keeping 11-12	Physical Education (Boys)	Super- vision Diver- sified Occupa- tions 11-12	Social Studies II 10B
3:00 4:00			Physical Education (Girls)		Music	Activity Period Athletics	Clubs			



# ILLUSTRATIVE SCHEDULE

Four Year High School—Ten Teachers—Vocational Agriculture and Home Economics

Hour	Principal	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E	Teacher F	Teacher G	Teacher H	Teacher I
9:00 10:00		English I 9A	American History 11B	English III 11A	Algebra 10	Voc. Home Econ. I 9-10	Shorthand I 11	Industrial Arts II 11-12	Voca. Agri. I 9-10	Social Studies II 10A
10:00 11:00	Biology 10	English II 10A	American History 11A	English IV 12	Basic Mathematics 9A		Typing I 10-11	Physical Education (Boys)	Voc. Ag. I-M. W. Voc. Ag. II	Foreign Language I
11:00 12:00		English 9B	Social Studies I 9A	Physical Education (Girls)	Geometry 11	Voca. Home Ec. II	Secre- tarial Practice 12	General Shop 9-10	Voca. Ag. II 10-11	Foreign Language II
12:00 1:00	LUNCH HOUR									
1:00 2:00		English II 10B	Music	English III 11B	Basic Math. 9B		Typing II 11-12	Physical Education (Boys)	Voca. Ag. III M. W.	Modern Problems 12
2:00 3:00	General Science 9	Speech 11-12	Social Studies I 9B	Physical Education (Girls)	Chemistry or Physics 11-12	Voca. Home Ec. III	Book- keeping 11-12	Industrial Arts I 10-11	Voca. Ag. III 11-12	Social Studies II 10B
3:00 4:00	Activity Period - Music - Athletics - Clubs									



### E. Vertical Integration

Unity of action among all school agencies is necessary to the best educational achievement. Too often, lack of integration in all directions, lack of continuity of purpose and practice, and lack of coordinated effort have resulted in piece-meal performance. The educational program on all its levels must be directed at certain educational objectives.

At least a part of the desired unity may be accomplished through better vertical intergration. *Integration* has been defined as the process of preserving the "wholeness" of the thing considered. It implies and involves unity and coherence of the experiences of the learners. *Vertical integration* may be considered as the process of preserving the wholeness of education by articulating and making continuous the effort all along the line, from elementary, through secondary, and on to the end of higher education. It involves unity and coherence from one grade level to another; in this sense it is vertical.

In the light of the over-all objectives of education, a logical sequence of materials and procdures seems necessary. Work of elementary pupils should articulate with their high school programs. In turn, the secondary school program needs to be built with the pupils' elementary training in mind. There must be no educational "air pockets" anywhere along the line. The building process is to be a step-by-step affair, with each unit fitting logically into the sequence.

On the secondary level wherever possible, the sequential arrangement should be maintained. There are probably some subjects and some units of instruction which do not logically require a definite placement, but in many cases logical arrangement is necessary.

More than a sequential arrangement of subject matter and courses is desirable. There must be solidarity in thinking on the part of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Each must know what teachers on lower levels have been doing and what teachers on higher level plan to do.

Proper vertical integration seems to require on the part of all administrators, supervisors, and teachers on all levels the following:



1. A knowledge of the over-all objectives of education.
2. Familiarity with the specific objectives on each of all grade levels.
3. A general knowledge of what content, what skills, what attitudes, and appreciations are being given attention on all grade levels.
4. A desire and willingness to contribute to the entire "team effort."

#### F. Horizontal Integration

A great deal of teaching effort is being dissipated because teachers are not working unitedly to attain common objectives. This is no criticism of teachers' industry; it is rather a criticism of school organization and management. Educational accomplishment is not the sum total of the individual efforts of the teachers; it is the result of combined, integrated effort on the part of all of the teachers working together to attain common objectives. An eight cylinder motor out of proper timing probably finds each cylinder kicking out its full share of effort, but the total result of the motor's effort is ineffective. It becomes effective only when all eight cylinders are properly timed and working together, each cylinder operating in its proper relationship to all of the other seven cylinders.

Some plans have been suggested for bringing about the desired unity of action. Core curricula, fused curricula, experience curricula, and others have been designed to realize this needed and desired unification. They all call for a new type of curriculum organization, a type of organization which is new to most high school teachers. Teachers, schooled as subject-matter instructors, lacking the right kind of training to provide broad backgrounds, find it difficult to get outside their subject-matter fields and fuse the related materials into broader fields. Their own experiences as students in high school, their study of subject courses in college, their professional training in college method courses, have all combined to groove them as special subject teachers.

What can be done about it? Shall the broad-field curriculum be adopted and teachers told to come all the way and get themselves attuned as best they can to the new demands

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upon them? Can they make the switch immediately without too much fumbling of effort? Probably not. Well, shall Mahomet then move to the mountain? Shall we just await a new generation of teachers who have been trained to do this job? Or shall we compromise? Compromise seems to offer the best solution.

It is entirely possible to gain at least many of the advantages of the fused curriculum and the broad-fields curriculum by bringing about horizontal integration under the present curriculum organization. This can be done with teachers remaining in their subject-matter fields. They will need, of course, to broaden their horizons, to see their jobs in new perspectives, to gain a new vision of their responsibilities, but the old landmarks of familiar subject materials will still be there. The road will be improved, but it will not be entirely new. Now English and history and mathematics will be working together to serve the needs of the whole student.

Just how can that be done? The answer is not simple, and it cannot be accomplished by resolution. It will take some planning and some definite action. The first responsibility rests with the superintendent or principal, whoever is directly responsible for the school's curriculum organization and management. He should call the teachers together for the purpose of setting up the school's philosophy, aims, and purposes. The entire corps, including administrators, supervisors, and teachers, should decide what the philosophy shall be, and in the light of their decision, formulate the aims, objectives, and the direction of the whole high school program. Several meetings will be needed, and the literature on the subject will be carefully studied.

In Chapter V certain purposes of secondary education have been listed. Some of these purposes are to aid pupils in attaining (1) health, (2) civic competence, (3) a wholesome and sane philosophy of life, among others. An examination of possibilities for horizontal integration in attempting to attain these objectives is interesting. In the case of health, for instance, teachers of English, science, social studies, industrial arts, and others, as well as the teachers of physical education and health, will have many oppor-



tunities to teach health and offer occasions for health practices in their classes.

First of all, proper health practices can prevail in all classrooms. Light, temperature, humidity, sanitary conditions need to be healthful in all rooms. Proper posture may be encouraged in all classes. The English teacher may use health topics in her training in oral English. Health topics may be used for themes. Some reading may be in the field of health. Biology, physics, chemistry, general science instruction are closely related to health, and health applications can easily and profitably be made in all of them. Social studies, dealing with housing, disease, sanitation, make a definite health contribution.

Good citizenship can be promoted in every class and activity in the school program. The general atmosphere of the school, the administration, the teacher-pupil relationships, even the janitorial service, expressed in the condition of walls and floors, contribute something toward creating some kind of citizenship ideals and attitudes. The same thing can be said in speaking of the inculcation of a wholesome and sane philosophy of life. There is scarcely a feature of the school program or a detail in the daily operation of the school that does not lend some coloring to the student's general philosophy of life.

Each teacher should study the potentialities of her subject for its possible contributions. What can I do in American history to cultivate a sympathetic attitude toward minority groups? What can I do in English literature to improve family relationships? What can I do in geometry to improve reading skills? The possibilities are as unlimited as the teacher's imagination and industry.

And then the teachers should meet frequently to explore possibilities for coordinated effort. There are limitless ways in which they can supplement and reinforce each other's labors. Each will need to understand what the others are attempting to do. What algebra will be needed in physics? How can the mathematics teacher aid with a remedial reading program? How can the coach teach lessons in ethics? What can the music teacher do toward the appreciation of literature?

In the final analysis then there will be no teachers who



teach only physical education, English, citizenship, history, shop, or mathematics. Every teacher will teach his special subject, but every teacher will also be an English teacher, a teacher of health, a teacher of citizenship—in short a teacher of youth. There will be less shooting in the dark. Many of the advantages of more radical curriculum organizations will be realized with teachers still working in their old fields. They will need to be more resourceful teachers. They will have to expand beyond the traditional limits of their old subject fields and their old class procedures, but they can do it. Their work will be easier for doing it; the school's responsibility to youth will be more nearly fulfilled, and students will welcome the change.

### G. Methodology

Any consideration of the curriculum must take into account methods and classroom procedure as well as subject content. The content (what is taught or learned) is probably no more important to the teacher and student than method (how it is taught or learned). Therefore, the various courses of study which are being offered for use in Iowa high schools offer many suggestions concerning classroom procedure.

Methodology has to do with methods or principles of classroom procedure. It covers the whole range of ways and means of facilitating learning, from the Socratic method of questioning to the unit plan. And there have been many labeled methods or plans which have been defined and described, and supported and criticized by large numbers of teachers. The Problem Method, the Project Method, the Activity Movement, the Socialized Recitation, the Winnetka System, the Dalton System, and the Morrison Plan, to mention only a few, have all had their days of popularity. An analysis of them shows that they all have much in common.

Basically all of them have certain common purposes—(1) to make learning more meaningful, (2) to encourage active learning, and (3) on the whole to make school experiences more valuable to students. The more or less cut-and-dried traditional classroom practices have in many instances been ineffective in stimulating student interest. They have admitted much ineffectual teaching.



## 1. *The Unit Idea*

The introduction of the unit method has been a long step in improving classroom instruction. It aims at the elimination of fragmentary and meaningless learning. <sup>1</sup>"The central fact of the unit idea is that content should be studied as complete meaningful wholes rather than in isolated or unrelated lessons or bits."

There have been various definitions of a unit of work. <sup>2</sup>Harap has described six kinds of units. "At the present time a number of interpretations of a unit are bidding for adoption. One view is that a unit of work is a complete experience engaged in by the pupils in the attainment of a specific useful goal, such as to get breakfast. A second conception is that a unit is a large subdivision of a subject with a principle or topic for its core in which the activities of the pupils are thoroughly planned to give complete mastery of the essentials. A third conception is that a unit is one of the dozen or more problems into which the work of a subject is subdivided. Essentially this view does not differ from the two preceding conceptions, except that the problem takes the place of the objective or the major topic. A fourth conception is that a unit is a large division of work based on a center of interest, such as transportation, which progresses simultaneously with the work in several formal subjects. In a fifth conception the work of a whole grade is organized around a few large centers of interest, completely ignoring the conventional subjects. A sixth view is that a unit of work is a logical subdivision of a branch of knowledge in which manipulations and sensory experiences are included only for expediency."

Certain characteristics are to be found in desirable units:

(1) Wholeness or unity. The unity is not fragmentary or made up of unrelated parts. It is a natural whole.

(2) Definiteness. It starts at a specific place, and one can be conscious of its completion.

(3) Purpose. There is a reason in the pupil's mind for which the activity is pursued.

<sup>1</sup>J. G. Umstattd, "Secondary School Teaching," Ginn, 1937, p. 130.

<sup>2</sup>Henry Harap, "Next Steps in Curriculum Making," *The Elementary School Journal*, Volume 31, pp. 16-24, (September, 1930)



(4) Fruitfulness. The unit results in new knowledge, skills, or appreciations.

(5) Significance. The learning must have some real educational value.

(6) Comprehensiveness. The unit should be comprehensive enough to avoid fragmentary learning.

(7) Measurable. One should be able to determine the success of his endeavors. He should be able to determine whether he has attained his purpose.

The unit method implements the rational, natural operation of the human mind. It appears to be psychologically sound. Herbart, Dewey, Kilpatrick, and others have pointed out the steps in the purposeful activity. These steps, while not identical in all announcements, may be listed as follows:

(1) *Initiation of a goal.* The individual is challenged by a felt need for something which he does not have. He needs certain knowledge in order to gain a desired end. He needs skill to do something he wishes to do. Or he is pricked to action by curiosity, fear, anger, or pride. In any event his present condition is not satisfactory to him, and he proposes to do something about it.

(2) *Analysis of the situation.* The individual surveys the situation in which he finds himself and takes stock of the facts at hand.

(3) *Deliberation.* He studies the facts and considers various methods of solution and the feasibility of various reactions to the situation.

(4) *Choice of action.* He selects from the various possibilities his course of action; he "makes up his mind." His goal is definitely set.

(5) *Application.* He now proceeds to carry out his plan of action, to attain the goal he has chosen.

(6) *Evaluation.* After he has completed his course of action and has gone as far as possible in the direction of attaining his goal, he sits in judgment on what he has done, evaluates the degree of success he has attained, and, finally, either approves the outcome or decides to plan another course of action which may be more successful.



## 2. The Assignment

If the unit method is to be successful, the initial step, the initiation of a goal, must be effective. In some instances the challenge may come directly and spontaneously to the student; he may discover his own goal. It may even thrust itself upon him. But there are doubtless many goals which are worthy of attaining and which are not apparent to the student. He may need to achieve certain ends without knowing it. Under these circumstances it becomes necessary for the teacher to make the needs known to the student. The assignment therefore becomes important. It is the teacher's means of initiating the learning process.

Assignments have too often been hastily and poorly made. They have been thrown out to the class during the last hurried minutes of the class period and have many times been little more than an assignment of chores to be done. The good assignment requires careful planning and adequate time.

One cannot prescribe the exact amount of time required for making a good assignment. Certainly, no part of the class period is more important, and enough time should be devoted to the assignment to make it effective. In initiating a new unit or introducing some new phase of work the whole class period may be required. At other times a few minutes may be sufficient. In all cases, time enough to do the job properly should be allowed.

The good assignment does certain definite things:

(1) *It motivates interest* in the work to be done by identifying the problem and making its importance to the student apparent. It creates an urge to be about the job at hand, whether it be the learning of content material, the acquiring of a skill, the building of a chair, the thinking through of a problem, or the planning of a program of action.

(2) *It sets up a definite job to be done*, whether the goal has been selected by the students, the teacher or both. There is no place for doubt as to what is to be done.

(3) *It provides sources of information* in the way of books, magazines, bulletins, and it specifically informs students where all needed materials are to be found.



(4) *It provides instruction regarding proper procedures.* The student learns through the assignment how to proceed in the accomplishment of the goal. Ways and means are discussed and adopted.

(5) *It provides for individual differences.*

### 3. *The Classroom Procedure*

Beyond recognizing that there are certain sound psychological principles underlying the learning process and urging their use in teaching, no special form of classroom procedure, no special method or device is recommended for all situations. There are merits in most methods under given conditions. The "question and answer" procedure might well serve in one situation and be ineffective in another. The "laboratory" method is indispensable in some instances. The "lecture" method probably has small place in secondary education, though there may be places where its limited use seems advisable. It is also true that one teacher can get good results with one method, while another perhaps equally efficient instructor can do better with some other procedure. There simply is no "pat" answer suitable to all situations.

We are, however, quite certain that the "question and answer" device has been greatly overworked in the sense that many times it has been employed to the exclusion of all other methods when other procedures would have yielded better results. We know also that teachers too often lecture to their classes when a socialized situation would have been more productive of good. The particular procedure to be used by any given teacher in any given subject with any given class will depend on the teacher, the subject, the unit of work being done, and the pupils in the class.

### 4. *Audio-Visual Aids*

#### (a) *Use of the Radio*

While some schools have made use of the radio in teaching, the universal possibilities of its use have probably only been scratched. It has, under favorable conditions, vast possibilities for effective use. On the other hand, its shortcomings must be kept in mind, and its careless use must be avoided.



<sup>1</sup>Bossing has listed several functions of the radio in school and classroom.

- (1) Enriching the program of the school.
- (2) Providing supplemental materials and experiences.
- (3) Furnishing up-to-date material.
- (4) Bringing the pupil into vital contact with his world.
- (5) Developing good listeners.
- (6) Developing critical thinking and discrimination.
- (7) Developing leisure time interests and appreciation.
- (8) Developing standards of correct speech.

In a fast-moving world, with events of world-wide significance occurring almost daily, the radio can bring to the classroom information of events as they occur. The voices of important personalities may be heard first-hand. Pupils thus are permitted to experience history as it occurs, with the added interest of getting it direct from the front lines of world activity. Under these circumstances good listening habits may be developed, and pupils may be trained in critical and discriminating thinking in these times when such thinking is so important. New interests may be planted which will contribute toward worth-while leisure time occupation, and standards of excellence in speech, music, discussion, etc. may be established.

Mere listening to radio programs may also be a sheer waste of time unless adequate organization, planning, and management are provided. The radio is only a supplementary device and offers no magic solution to instructional problems. To be effective:

(1) Worthwhile programs must be available at convenient times. Transcriptions may be made in order that they can be used when needed.

(2) Pupils need to be prepared for the program. Preliminary groundwork by way of motivation, the study of people, places, and events involved must be done.

(3) Facilities and equipment should be available if possible within the classroom, where a normal working atmos-

<sup>1</sup>Nelson L. Bossing, "Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools," Houghton Mifflin, 1942, Ch. XIII



phere can be maintained and the program heard with a minimum of interference.

(4) Follow-up work will make the program more significant. The teacher should discuss with the pupils what has been heard over the radio and summarize the broadcast.

(5) Broadcasts selected must be accurate and authentic.

(b) *Visual Aids*

There are various types of visual aids: the blackboard, textbook illustrations, field trips, dramatization, demonstrations, graphs and diagrams, maps and globes, pictures, cartoons, bulletin boards, sand tables, exhibits, specimens, models, stereoscopes, stereographs, stereopticons and slides, opaque projectors, film strip projectors, silent and sound film projectors.

The use of many of these aids is not new. In fact the first teaching may have been done with the use of lines drawn in the sand or by the use of objects. Some of the devices, notably the sound projector, have made their appearance rather recently, and because of their newness have stirred up a great deal of interest. This interest in turn has brought some misuses of sound moving pictures. Due to their newness and the entertainment aspects involved they have sometimes been used with little forethought as to their relation to the educational program of the school. Pupils have liked them; it has seemed like a good idea, and so pictures have been shown.

Some of the older, less spectacular aids have at the same time been neglected. The lowly blackboard, the textbook illustrations, the wall maps, all with great potential usefulness, have often been forgotten, and the newer and more fascinating types of visual instruction have had the spotlight.

All visual aids are just that—*aids* to instruction. They cannot stand by themselves or replace other means. They must be fitted into the instructional program as seems best to further the aims and purposes of the school. All this calls for careful and intelligent planning. With regard to moving pictures it is quite generally agreed that certain principles concerning their use should be observed.

(1) Moving pictures should be used to supplement the content being studied.



(2) They should be used as an introduction to the subject, as a laboratory aid, or as a review, as the case may require.

(3) When possible the pictures should be shown in the regular classroom.

(4) Teachers and pupils must realize that the pictures are not shown for entertainment, but as a part of the educational program.

(5) Some device for testing the pupils' observation should be provided.

Every school should be equipped with the necessary number of the following visual education devices to make them available to every classroom when they are needed:

*Stereoscopes and Stereographs.* The stereograph, providing a three-dimensional view, is valuable for individual study in the way of providing enrichment material. A library of stereographs should be provided in each school.

*Stereopticons and Slides.* Every classroom should have a stereopticon and slides available for immediate use. The slides may be rented from various sources, may be purchased, or they may be made locally.

*Projectors of Opaque Materials.* One of the most useful devices for visual aids is the projector of opaque materials. It can be used for projecting illustrations, diagrams, maps, or graphs from ordinary printed material.

*Still Films.* The still film is a useful, inexpensive visual aid. The projectors are relatively inexpensive, and films too are inexpensive. Films may be rented, purchased at reasonable prices, or made by the teacher in some instances. a film strip library may be built up easily for use in any learning area.

*Silent and Sound Moving Pictures.* Well selected motion pictures may be of great educational value. Pictures, properly fitted into the teaching units, enrich and clarify the subject. The tail should not be allowed to wag the dog where they are used. The educational program must be plotted and adhered to, with the moving pictures used to enrich and supplement. Certainly, the program should not



be framed to suit available pictures. The greatest disadvantage to their use is the expense involved. The machines and films are expensive. However, rental systems and free distribution of some commercial films help to solve this problem. Probably the greatest problem incidental to the use of moving pictures is the one of making films available to schools when they are needed and at a cost schools can afford to pay.

### 5. *Community Resources*

Present day thinking with regard to the curriculum is quite generally agreed that the school program, if it is to attain its greatest possibilities, must move out and beyond the building and the textbooks, and into the community. More attention is to be given to local problems and institutions. Trips and excursions are to be made into the community whenever they are able to contribute to the subjects being studied in the classrooms. Libraries, museums, art galleries, industrial plants, farms, municipal and state institutions, public utility plants, business establishments, offices, all have contributions to make to the school program. They should be utilized and their part in the educational process definitely planned for.

In connection with occupational guidance, students should, under the direction of their teachers, make occupational surveys of their communities. Such surveys may include a check of occupational opportunities within the communities, available wages, chances for advancement, the number of openings each year, and such other items as may assist students in planning their futures vocationally.

Trips may also be made to nearby cities for observation and study of industrial and business institutions, the operation of county offices and courts in the county court house, the operations of state offices and the legislature in the state capitol, and possibly some federal offices and institutions may be visited.

Field trips may be arranged for science classes and classes in nature study. The effects of erosion, the values of contour farming, the results of landscaping are easily observable without traveling far from any Iowa community. The care of the sick and the unfortunate may be observed during



visits to the hospitals, the social welfare office, the state mental hospital, the penitentiary, the schools for the blind, deaf, or for those otherwise handicapped.

The human resources of the community also furnish a reservoir of rich material for the schools. Professional and business people in the locality are usually glad of an opportunity to talk with youth about their businesses. Much rich local folk-lore may be contributed by older residents who recall the early history of the town or countryside or who have traveled extensively. Here in the community itself are often rich and untouched resources which the school may use if only it will.

### 6. *Individual Differences*

One of the pressing problems of the secondary school has to do with individual differences in students and the degree to which provision should and can be made to take care of them. Up to now not enough has been done in any adequate way to provide for the many differences in youth who attend secondary schools.

(a) Youth differ in *intelligence and aptitude*. Heredity and environment, one or both, may be responsible for the differences. At all events, they do exist, and schools need to recognize the differences by providing educational procedures, content, and standards suitable to the differences in ability. A common mould for all will not suffice.

The first step for the school to take, if it wishes to do something about the situation, is to discover just what differences exist. Intelligence and aptitude tests should be given, and all possible avenues should be opened for gleaning every bit of available pertinent information about each student.

Various techniques have been developed to make provisions for differences. Some schools of the conventional type set up goals which differ in degree or quality of achievement. The assignments are elastic, and while the general content is the same, standards of achievement are modified—more being expected of the better student, while all must meet a minimum standard. Additional projects and further readings are provided for the more capable.

So-called progressive schools advocate an activity or proj-



ect method of instruction to meet the needs of pupils with varying abilities. The curriculum is developed in general outline, and the teacher is expected to develop the course by encouraging students to pursue projects or activities which are within the range of their abilities and interests.

(b) There are differences in *occupational interests and outlooks*. A guidance program should seek to steer students into channels in which they are interested and in which opportunities for success exist. The curriculum needs to provide elective courses, designed to prepare in broad, fundamental ways for efficient and thorough accomplishment in various occupational pursuits.

(c) Differing *interest in leisure-time pursuits* may well be taken care of by a broad, well balanced, and diversified activity program in which opportunities are available for participating in a variety of sports, in group and individual music activities, in dramatics, art, hobby clubs, etc. All students are to be encouraged to participate in some avocational activities.

(d) There are differences also in *mental and physical health and emotional stability*. Extreme deviations may need to be taken care of in special classes or even in special institutions, but adjustments can be made in most schools to provide for less severe deviations. Special corrective classes in physical education may take care of certain types of physical disabilities. Home instruction by radio or by special teachers is often possible, and in some larger schools the services of psychologists and psychiatrists may be made available for cases involving mental and emotional instability.

From the vocational angle, the work in grades seven through nine should probably consist of common learnings, with little attempt being made to provide for different vocational requirements. <sup>1</sup>The Educational Policies Commission states, "Grades VII, VIII, and IX might be called the period of the common secondary school. The educational needs of boys and girls from twelve to fifteen are, on the whole, common to all. Hence the curriculum for these three years is, in its broad outlines, the same for all pupils, though with

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<sup>1</sup>Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, 1944, p. 55.



ample opportunity within each class for the teacher to take account of differences among individuals.

"During these early years of adolescence, the pupil continues to grow in knowledge and understanding of the world in which he lives; in ability to think clearly and to express himself intelligently in speech and writing; in his mastery of scientific facts and mathematical processes; and in his capacity to assume responsibilities, to direct his own affairs, and to work and live cooperatively with other people. At the same time, he is introduced to a wide range of experiences in intellectual, occupational, and recreational fields, so that he may have a broad base for the choices of the interests which later he will follow more intensively. He is helped to understand the processes of physiological and emotional maturing, characteristic of these years, and to develop habits of healthful living. He gains greater insight into his own abilities and potentialities.

"In the later years of adolescence—from sixteen to twenty or thereabouts—some of the important interests of individual students diverge. Most striking are the differences in occupational interests. Some youth look forward to farming, some to business, some to mechanical occupations, some to medicine, teaching, nursing, or engineering, some to military service, and some to homemaking. Whatever the interest may be, whether the time of employment be near at hand or still remote, a youth rightly feels that he wants a part of his school experience to advance him on his way to entering the occupation of his choice.

"Among older youth, moreover, one frequently finds diverse intellectual interests, which are of great significance for education. Here is a boy who enjoys mathematics for its own sake, and another who is fascinated with literature. Here is a girl who spends many extra hours in the science laboratory because of sheer intellectual curiosity, and another who is no less devoted to music.

"Marked differences also appear in recreational interests, which run the gamut from athletics to reading, from art to woodcraft.

"In these three fields—occupations, intellectual pursuits, and recreational interests—the curriculum of Grades X through XIV is differentiated to suit the needs of individ-



uals. Each student aided by his counselor and teachers, develops an educational program consistent with his purposes and capacities.

"In other fields, however, educational needs continue to be predominantly common to all youth. Most notable is the common need of all youth for education in the responsibilities and privileges of citizenship. Youth also have common need for education in family living, in health, and in understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage. In these areas, the curriculum of the upper grades is substantially the same for all students, and adjustments to individual needs and abilities are made within the classes.

"Normally the first half of the tenth grade is the time when a student moves on from the common curriculum to the partially differentiated program. As we shall see shortly, this is a time of intensive guidance and planning. No student is compelled, however, to make choices before he is ready to do so, or to postpone his decisions until he reaches tenth grade. Within a flexible program, continuous from Grades VII through XIV, it is possible to suit the time of transition to the varying ages at which students mature. There are some youth who, at fourteen or fifteen, are already well started on courses preparatory for occupations or for college. And occasionally one finds a student who, at seventeen or eighteen, has not yet 'found himself' and is still pursuing a course designed to help him reach an intelligent decision regarding his future."

#### H. Guidance

*Need for guidance.* In the complex life of the present day, youth, as never before, needs guidance. His *social* life has changed. He has more leisure time; he receives less guidance from home; he is confronted with a vast new field of recreation and amusement; his standard of living has risen, and he has moved cityward. His *economic* life has become more complex. He lives in a day of high specialization in industry; it takes longer for him to prepare for a profession; he finds less opportunity for apprenticeship training. His *civic* responsibilities are greater than ever. He is confronted with perplexing problems of government on the municipal, state, national, and world basis. He must understand ideol-



ogies regarding the proper functions of government. The money value of education must be subordinated in his thinking to the value of education as an aid in helping him meet his civic responsibilities. There are more of his kind in the high schools than there were before. More youth need guidance, and there are more subjects for him to study. His high school course is no longer prescribed; there are choices to make.

*The school's responsibility for guidance.* Inasmuch as the school is the one definitely designated agency committed to educating youth, and because guidance is in fact at the very heart of the educational program, guidance becomes a primary responsibility of the school. The school is in the best strategic position to offer counsel and guidance. It has direct contact with pupils over a long period of time, thus facilitating an opportunity for first-hand, intimate knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses, the interests and inclinations, and the personal problems of the pupils. The school can be objective in its estimate of pupils, and it can have at hand the facilities, in the way of cumulative records, libraries, teacher-counselors, tests, and other items, necessary to proper guidance. Guidance thus becomes a definite and impelling obligation of all secondary schools.

*What is guidance?* Guidance has been defined in various ways: <sup>1</sup>"It is that phase of education which has as its primary function the adjustment of boys and girls to the school, to work, and to the life about them." <sup>2</sup>"It is help given to the individual that will enable him to make wise choices in times of crises in his life." <sup>3</sup>"It has been defined as a means of conserving human values. It seeks to assist the individual to discover himself—his interests, ambitions, and abilities; to discover the world about him—its institutions, opportunities, and responsibilities; and to adjust himself socially, economically, and morally, to an environment characterized today, more than ever before, by change. Guidance does not attempt to dictate to the pupil; it seeks to encourage

<sup>1</sup>"Suggestions for Developing Guidance Practices in Secondary School," Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1939, p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>A. J. Jones quoted in "Guidance," Board of Education, Idaho, 1933, p. 14.

<sup>3</sup>"Guidance in the Virginia Secondary Schools," Virginia State Board of Education, July 1936, p. 9.



him to bring all pertinent information to bear on the problem at hand in order that a wise decision may be made. Guidance does not operate merely when the student is faced with a decision; it seeks constantly to develop a point of view, an attitude of clear thinking, so that when a crisis arises, he will be prepared. Guidance is not to be regarded as an *aim* of education; it is a *function* that should characterize the entire educational program."

Summarizing then, we find that most definitions present a common concept. Guidance has to do with the whole person and with all of his activities. It seeks to guide him in the direction in which he should go.

*The scope of guidance.* Guidance cannot successfully be confined to one class, to one grade, to one phase of life or activity, to a special counselor. It is as broad as education, and needs to be an integral part of the whole educative process. It should give significance to all teaching and learning; to the teacher it serves as a director of his efforts in supplying his pupils with what direction they need in realizing their greatest potentialities; to the pupil it serves as a guide in helping him to realize his possibilities. It is concerned with the social, moral, physical, educational, and vocational development of the pupil. These various aspects of guidance are so closely tied together that they cannot be separated in actual practice; they can be separated only in talking of them.

*Social, moral, and civic guidance* attempts to help the pupil develop to the fullest as an individual and as a member of society. It is concerned with helping him develop desirable personality characteristics, proper ideals and attitudes, sound personal and work habits. It aims toward the development of proper relations to others, to the family, the school, community, nation, and world. It involves the pupil's vocational and recreational activities and his attitude toward the proper use of leisure time.

*Educational guidance* seeks to aid the pupil in gaining reliable information concerning school subjects, courses of study, and curricula. It aims at school orientation, at discovering the interests and capabilities of the student in school pursuits, at advising him regarding the desirability



of continuing his schooling, at inculcating sound habits of study and wholesome ideals of work and achievement.

*Vocational guidance* is directed at helping the pupil gain information concerning possible occupational opportunities; to aid him in exploring his own interests, aptitudes, and abilities, with a view to guiding him into an occupation in which he will be successful and happy; to acquaint him with the possibilities for employment and the remuneration to be expected; to aid him in planning his training for the occupation chosen; to inform him of occupational trends, and to develop worthy attitudes toward work.

*Who shall be responsible for guidance and counseling?* Because guidance is a part of all education, every administrator and teacher, as well as certain special persons assigned to guidance, should have a part in the program. The administrator should provide a place in the program and provide personnel and facilities for guidance and counseling. In schools where it is possible to provide special guidance directors and counselors, it is the duty of these persons to promote the program in every possible way—by outlining and organizing the entire plan, by securing continuity and integration of the guidance work throughout the system, and by affording all possible individual services. Classroom teachers will cooperate by furnishing opportunities for integration, by working in close conjunction with administrators and special guidance personnel, in planning guidance activities in connection with their customary classroom procedures, and by studying opportunities for guiding and counseling the pupils throughout their period of schooling. In most schools there will be no special guidance directors or counselors, and the brunt of responsibility for guidance will fall on the regular classroom teachers.

*Criteria for evaluating the guidance program.* An excellent check list for evaluating the guidance program has been prepared by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction.

<sup>1</sup>"The effectiveness of the guidance program should be evaluated continuously in terms of the philosophy, objectives, and actual practices of each particular high school.

<sup>1</sup>"Patterns for Enriching High School Guidance Programs," Bulletin No. 157, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1943, pp. 4-5.



Adequate supervision of the high school educational program demands the utilization of evaluative procedures to determine the extent to which teachers and administrators are assisting boys and girls to select and achieve worthy goals in terms of potential pupil aptitudes, abilities, interests, and needs. As a basis for the evaluation of the high school guidance program, the following check list may be used by each high school principal, teacher, or guidance agent.

### **Check List for Evaluating the Guidance Program**

#### *I. Personal Data*

1. Do you have and keep up-to-date a complete cumulative record for each boy and girl?
2. Is the school providing an Educational Experience Summary Card (EESR) for each pupil who leaves school, either graduate or drop-out?
3. What tests or other instruments of measurement do you use in determining intelligence, aptitude, interest, achievement, or other pupil traits?

#### *II. Educational and Occupational Information*

1. How do you make available for pupil use, information regarding opportunities for training beyond high school?
2. What per cent of the boys and girls actually make use of this educational information?
3. How do you make available for pupil use, information regarding occupational opportunities?
4. What per cent of the boys and girls actually make use of this occupational information?

#### *III. Counseling*

1. What procedures are followed for counseling each boy and girl individually?
2. How does individual counseling aid the boy and girl in planning their high school program of studies and their extra-curricular activities?



3. How does individual counseling aid the boys and girls in arriving at solutions for their personal and social problems?
4. What plan is followed to train teachers in counseling techniques?
5. What procedures are followed to insure that parents are adequately informed regarding the educational program of their sons and daughters?

#### IV. *Training*

1. What procedures are followed to insure that boys and girls select the proper subjects?
2. What procedure is followed in assisting pupils to enroll in elective subjects according to ability, interests, and needs?
3. How many pupils are registered in each curriculum in terms of aptitudes, interests, needs, and opportunities for success?
4. How many pupils are unable to elect subjects because they are not offered, yet for which pupils are particularly adapted?
5. What per cent of the boys and girls make adjustments in their training program as a result of the guidance they receive?

#### V. *Placement of Pupils*

1. What procedures are followed in assisting boys and girls to enter specific vocations and secure specific positions?
2. What procedures are followed in assisting boys and girls to make proper adjustments to an institution of higher learning?
3. What per cent of the boys and girls enter work directly upon graduation or upon leaving school?

#### VI. *Follow-up of Former Pupils*

1. What procedures are followed to keep in touch with former pupils, either graduates or drop-outs?



## I. Libraries and Their Use

Educators quite generally are increasingly recognizing the importance of the school library in the instructional program. It is the very center of the teaching-learning process—the stock-pile of the building operation. Without a well-selected, properly equipped and organized, and efficiently managed library the work of the school is handicapped.

In too many Iowa high schools, especially in smaller schools, where no regular librarian is employed, the library is a haphazard collection of books—some fiction, some reference books, some samples and old textbooks, many with ancient copyrights, and a great number in a dilapidated, unattractive condition. Too often the books are not catalogued and organized, and there is little management in the way of book accounting and library maintenance.

This situation is largely due to the fact that, in the absence of a specially trained librarian, a classroom teacher, with little library training and a full teaching load, is assigned the added responsibility of looking after the school library. It will doubtless continue to be necessary in the small high school for some high school teacher to serve as teacher-librarian, but superintendents and principals in planning their organization should assign the library duties to a teacher who has had some library training, and then lighten that teacher's teaching load so as to permit her sufficient time to properly serve as librarian. In the large senior high schools the problem right now is not so much one of time as of training. The junior high schools have a problem in both respects. In spite of the fact that the junior high school is considered the strategic point in the library program, it is pretty much disregarded in Iowa. We have "superimposed" school library service at the top, by beginning with senior high schools, are slowly working down, and have yet to get at the matter which logically would come first—the elementary school.

*Philosophy of school library service.* Quoting from the "Teacher-Librarian's Handbook," by Mary Peacock Douglas, published by the American Library Association, we find this treatment of the philosophy of school library service. <sup>1</sup>"No

<sup>1</sup>Mary Peacock Douglas, "Teacher-Librarian's Handbook," American Library Association, 1941, pp. XVI to XVIII.



better definition of the purposes and functions of the school library can be expressed than that in the statement prepared by Anna Clark Kennedy, Senior Supervisor of School Libraries, New York State Education Department, for the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association. It is printed here as basic philosophy for school library service.

### THE SCHOOL LIBRARY IS . . .

*"A service agency.* It functions to further the school's objectives. It has no distinct subject matter, but provides materials for all subjects and all interests of pupils and teachers. It becomes increasingly effective as teachers and pupils learn to use its resources and employ its services for their work and play purposes. Through the library, books are distributed to individuals, groups and classes. They are sent freely to classrooms, laboratories, shops and study centers—wherever they will be used. From all parts of the school, pupils, teachers, committees, classes, individuals go to the library to use books, magazines, pictures, and maps; to find facts and illustrative materials; to read.

*"A teaching agency.* The school library has a positive, active, teaching function. It suggests the reading of books which might otherwise be unknown or neglected. It supplies materials for developing and expanding interests. It stimulates new interests. Through its reference tools, indexes, bibliographies, and catalogs, the realms of information and knowledge may be explored. The library cooperates with other agencies of instruction in helping pupils learn how to use books and libraries, how to find information, how to study. By its bulletins and exhibits, by its posters, direction sheets, and guides, by its appearance and atmosphere, the library teaches informally and encourages learning. By its introduction to the public library, it suggests the lifetime use of reading to further any interest or experience. The beauty, order and quiet of the library, the efficiency of its organization, the appeal of its books invite reading, make study attractive, carry on and increase the enthusiasm, zeal, or motive started within its own walls or in the classroom, assembly, shop, laboratory or gymnasium.



*"A book center.* The school library is a book center. In it the books and materials to satisfy the interests and to meet the needs of the pupils and teachers of the school are organized, catalogued, shelved or filed, and displayed so as to be easily found and used.

*"A reading center.* The school library is a reading center, a place for enjoying books, for investigating problems, for study; for using all sorts of printed materials—clippings, pamphlets, pictures, maps and magazines. The physical features of the room—particularly the provisions for lighting, for seating, for ventilation and for regulating temperature—make the reader comfortable and facilitate reading and study. The school librarian—skilled in bringing books and people together, understanding school needs and prepared to cope with school problems, ready to utilize the results of the school's testing program, quick in discovering reading difficulties and in finding aid for dealing with them; alert to improve the conditions for study and to help individuals improve their study habits, effective in relating books to the happenings of the world and the interests of the world to books—is so subtle a guide and leader that the reader is almost unaware of his services. The school librarian makes the library a reading room, a book laboratory, a work center for the entire school.

\* \* \*

*"The children:* It is evident that children and young people who are learning to read and those who, knowing how to read, are reading to enjoy and use books are the first essentials of an active school library.

*"The teachers:* Next in importance come their teachers. Before a school library can perform all of its services, the teachers must know its resources and realize how its work leads to and develops from their work. Teachers who share their enthusiasm for books share with the librarian the work of reading guidance. Teachers who teach with and through the library are enriching and extending interests, making school work vital, and helping their pupils gain worthwhile skill in acquiring information and using the tools of scholarship.



*"The administration:* Before a school library can function effectively—in fact, before a really adequate school library is provided—the superintendent, the principal and the librarian must understand its purposes and recognize to some extent what it can do for the school. The superintendent can interpret the library to the Board of Education and to the community only when he knows its importance. And on his interpretation depends the financial support essential for the library's existence and growth.

*"The principal* must know what he can and should expect from the library in order to provide properly for its functioning in the school. Just as the library's objectives are limited or extended by the school's objectives, so is the administration of the library largely determined by the principal's plan for its use. His attitude and his work with pupils, teachers, and librarians is of the greatest importance in enabling the school library to flourish or in restricting its usefulness.

*"The librarian,* the book collection and the library quarters are the three immediate essentials—the factors without which a school library does not exist. The librarian is the most important single factor not only because the selection, organization and use of the book collection and the administration and teaching program of the library are dependent on his work, but also because the understanding of the superintendent and principal, the cooperation of teachers, the enthusiasm of pupils are due largely to the librarian's vision of the library and his ability to make school library ideals practical, tangible, and significant realities."

*Minimum requirements.* In order to realize the purposes of the school library, certain minimum requirements and standards must be met. These are outlined in detail in Official Library Bulletin, Number 45, "Iowa School Libraries," published by the Department of Public Instruction in 1941. Here will be found a rather extensive treatment of (1) Iowa school library standards, (2) selection of books for the school library, (3) housing, organizing and management of the small school library, (4) agencies cooperating with Iowa school libraries, (5) books recommended for collateral reference and enrichment of high school subjects, (6) a direc-



tory of publishers, and (7) a selected bibliography of school libraries.

An excellent treatment of equipping, organizing, and managing the library is to be found in <sup>1</sup>the "Teacher-Librarian's Handbook," referred to earlier. Here are discussed (1) the pupils and the teacher-librarian, (2) organizing of the book collection, (3) classification and cataloging, (4) book selection and ordering, (5) use of books and libraries, (6) care of the library and of the books, (7) room arrangement, furniture, equipment, and supplies, and other pertinent topics. The following suggestions are quoted directly from the "Teacher-Librarian Handbook":

*Use of the library.* The use of the library should be designed to train the pupils to:

1. Learn to enjoy reading.
2. Develop judgment in selecting worth-while books.
3. Acquire ability to use library tools and indexes.
4. Acquire ability to use factual books and materials.
5. Form the habit of using libraries and library materials.
6. Respect the rights and privileges of using public property.

If the library is to act as a coordinating agency in the school, certain elements must be expected regardless of the method of organization.

1. *From the librarian:*

- (1) Professional training.
- (2) Knowledge of books and understanding of children.
- (3) Knowledge of teaching methods (experience valuable) and knowledge of the courses of study.
- (4) Ability to organize a library.
- (5) Power to create interest in children and teachers.
- (6) Ability to help with study problems.

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<sup>1</sup>Mary Peacock Douglas, "Teacher-Librarian's Handbook," American Library Association, 1941.



- (7) Stimulation of leisure reading.
- (8) Organization which makes materials available.
- (9) Instruction in the use of the library and its tools.

2. *The pupil should expect from the library:*

- (1) Opportunity to learn how to use the library.
- (2) Generous collection of books, pictures, magazines, and other printed material for personal enrichment and class enrichment.
- (3) Aid in extra-curricular problems, interests, and hobbies.
- (4) The formation of a library habit that will continue when school is over.

3. *The teachers should expect the librarian:*

- (1) To supply material and give library assistance in classwork.
- (2) To ask for suggestions in purchasing subject materials.
- (3) To help with the retarded and advanced pupils.
- (4) To send notice of new and suitable material for classwork.
- (5) To furnish reference and enrichment material.

4. *The librarian should expect from the teacher:*

- (1) Knowledge of books relating to her subject in order to recommend the best ones for purchase.
- (2) Knowledge of books and materials available in the library.
- (3) Preparation of students to use the library.
- (4) Advance information for materials to be needed.

When the teacher, pupil, and librarian cooperate in studying any unit of work greater interest is developed. Indi-



vidual interests and differences can be satisfied with greater ease.

## II. *The Teacher-Librarian as a Stimulating Agent*

The teacher-librarian must be aware of many devices for encouraging the use of library materials.

### 1. *Devices employed by librarians to encourage pupils to use the library.*

- (1) Encourage reading by telling pupils of books which may interest them.
- (2) Encourage pupils to go to library individually as need for reference material arises.
- (3) Encourage reading by giving pupils lists of suggested readings.
- (4) Encourage teachers to take classes to library for periods of reference work.
- (5) Encourage reading by means of posters on classroom and library bulletin boards.
- (6) Teach pupils how to use the library as situations requiring its use arise in connection with classwork.
- (7) Devote a unit of work in one or more courses to teaching pupils how to use the library.
- (8) Take classes to library to spend periods for pleasure reading.
- (9) Have pupils prepare publicity for the library.
- (10) Read excerpts from library books to stimulate interest.
- (11) Take library books to classroom to "sell" them to the pupils.
- (12) Post articles and clippings on classroom bulletin boards and inform pupils where additional materials can be found.
- (13) Exhibit interesting books.
- (14) Become acquainted with books in library which pupils may enjoy reading.



- (15) Teach pupils how to use reference books related to specified courses.
- (16) Recommend magazines to be used by pupils.
- (17) Recommend to pupils books relating to their extra-curricular interests.
- (18) Emphasize current problems and encourage pupils to keep in touch with magazines and newspapers to be found in library.
- (19) Have pupils keep record of books they read.
- (20) Consult with teachers regarding pupils who reveal poor reading habits.
- (21) Call attention to services available from the public library.
- (22) If available, use radio broadcasting and interschool loudspeaker system for book talks and book announcements.

2. *Devices employed by librarians to encourage teachers to use the school library.*

- (1) Notify teachers of new books and materials received.
- (2) Have frequent informal talks with teachers.
- (3) Send teachers list of interesting magazine articles.
- (4) Attend and talk at departmental meetings.
- (5) Place library notes on principal's bulletin board.
- (6) Ask teachers to suggest new books to be ordered.
- (7) Attend to teachers' requests promptly.
- (8) Attend and talk at faculty meetings.
- (9) Work with social studies teachers in developing units of work on library services to be included in course of study and to be taught to all pupils.
- (10) Become familiar with course of study and assist in developing new courses of study.



- (11) Have a faculty reading table in library.
- (12) Invite new teachers to library at opening of school year.
- (13) Visit classes.
- (14) Send all teachers each week a form asking what library assignment will be made to the pupils.
- (15) Mention names of teachers making outstanding use of library in monthly report to superintendent.
- (16) Give to teachers names of little used books relating to their courses.
- (17) Send teachers names of books, and suggestions, for book week activities.
- (18) Ask teachers for suggestions for book week activities.
- (19) Post on bulletin boards reviews and jackets of new books.
- (20) Have book exhibits at faculty meetings.
- (21) Have faculty meetings held in the library.
- (22) Hold open house for teachers between semesters.
- (23) Have a tea in library for teachers at opening of school year or at midterm.
- (24) At each faculty meeting use five-minute period to discuss new books in library and features of library service.
- (25) Devote at least one entire faculty meeting to discussion of school library and its use.

3. *Devices employed by librarians to encourage recreational reading.*

- (1) Place book and library news in school paper.
- (2) Make scrapbook of clippings from book jackets describing books.
- (3) Cut book reviews from book jackets, paste on different-colored cards, file in box where easily accessible.



- (4) Prepare and distribute book-news bulletin prepared by library club.
- (5) Keep in library bookmarks with suggested books for reading.
- (6) Cooperate with public library by advertising available books.
- (7) Have informal talks with pupils.
- (8) Give book talks to homeroom groups, school clubs, English classes, other classes, assembly programs.
- (9) Have member of pupil library staff give talks to homerooms.
- (10) Visit classes and when opportunity arises discuss books related to the subject being studied.
- (11) Notify clubs of new books in which members may be interested.
- (12) Display books in library and elsewhere.
- (13) Devote one section of library shelves to books concerning hobbies, one to books recently made into movies, etc.
- (14) Make study of pupils' reading habits and interests.
- (15) Present book plays at assembly programs.
- (16) Advertise books through library instruction.

#### J. Extra-Curricular Activities

*The place of so-called "extra-curricular" activities in the educational program.* It is probable that most of the activities now included in the so-called "extra-curricular" program were included in the educational programs of Athens and Sparta. There is nothing new about them—with the exception of the Boy Scouts, Girl Reserves, Hi-Y, and home room organizations, which are in fact recent additions to the school activity program. Most of the others—athletics, music, dramatics, debating, student participation in school government, and interest clubs are of ancient origin. Colleges first included these activities in their programs, and



later, the high schools, ambitious to emulate the colleges, brought in the same activities.

However, the attitude toward "extra-curricular" activities has undergone change. At first, these activities, so foreign to the early American traditions established in the Latin grammar schools, academies, and first high schools, were *ignored*. If students wanted such activities they had to provide them themselves. They were not even acknowledged to be a proper part of school life. Later, as they became more common, they were openly *opposed* by teachers and administrators, who felt that valuable time should not be taken from the traditional academic subjects for these "frills." Then, as the various activities became more thoroughly entrenched, and as their existence came into more popular favor with students, parents, and some teachers they were *tolerated* in some schools and openly *welcomed* in others. However, they were considered "extra-curricular"—as something outside the regular educational program. They did something for the school, but still they were a sort of "step-child," not to be wholly accepted into the family circle of legitimate school endeavor.

As the concept of education changed from the idea that education is largely mental development, brought about by mental exercise and gymnastics through the manipulation of subject-matter, to the idea that education is all-round development—mental, moral, social, physical—the value of the activity program became increasingly apparent. Educators now quite generally agree that the "extra-curricular" activities do contribute in many ways to the complete development of youth, that they are not "frills" or "fads," that they do make distinct contributions to youth development, and that they are not in truth extra-curricular at all, but a vital part of general education. They should, by virtue of this fact, not be called "extra-curricular," but should be recognized as a part of the curriculum. The term, extra-curricular, is entirely a misnomer for the part played by these activities in the total picture of educational development, but it is a good description of the attitude taken by teachers and administrators toward the activities. Perhaps the name used is not too important, but if we accept the concept that the curriculum is made up of all of the experi-



ences to which a child is subject under the direction of the school, we must by logical necessity and by definition reject the term "extra-curricular" as inapplicable to music, physical education, dramatics, debate, etc.

*The aims of these activities.* <sup>1</sup>McKown lists eight objectives of the activities usually termed "extra-curricular."

1. To capitalize, for educational profit, important fundamental drives.
2. To prepare the student for active life in a democracy.
3. To make him increasingly self-directive.
4. To teach co-operation.
5. To increase the interest of the student in the school.
6. To develop school morale.
7. To foster sentiments of law and order.
8. To discover and develop special qualities and abilities.

*Basic principles to be observed.* In building the activities program certain principles should be observed. <sup>2</sup>McKown also lists certain basic underlying principles:

1. The student is a citizen of the school.
2. The school must have a constructive program.
3. These activities should be scheduled in school time.
4. All students should participate.
5. All admission and participation requirements should be democratic.
6. Students severing connection with the school should cease to participate in its activities.
7. Adequate provision for administering and supervising these activities should be made.

<sup>1</sup>Harry C. McKown, "Extra-Curricular Activities," Macmillan, 1938, pp. 12-16.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 17-22.



8. These activities should be considered a part of the regular program of the teachers.

9. The teacher-sponsor should be an adviser and not a dominator.

10. Activities should be started in a small way and developed gradually and naturally.

11. No activity should be organized without very careful consideration, nor allowed to die without protest.

12. Financing should be adequate, fair, and safe.

13. A school with only extra-curricular activities would be as absurd as a school without them.

*Scope of activities.* The last principle listed by McKown has vital implications. Administrators, responsible for formulating or approving activity programs, have the serious problem of properly balancing emphasis between the usual academic program and activities. It is easy to "go to seed" on activities, to allow them to outgrow their proper places in the educational program. There are ample illustrations of schools which have permitted an overgrown athletic program to throw the school educationally out-of-joint. Some schools have gone "all-out" for music to the detriment of the school as a whole. Over-zealous coaches, teachers, or directors, and sometimes administrators, spurred on by popular demand of parents and fans, have overdone certain activities in order to establish themselves in the community. This has been particularly true in athletics and music.

The solution to this problem of proper allocation of emphasis is not easy. When ardent lay devotees to any activity demand results in the way of victories in any kind of interscholastic competition it is too often incumbent on the coach, teacher, or director to deliver victories or hunt a new job. It is but natural for him to want to win; first, because he himself is usually a devotee to the activity, and second, because his own professional well-being is involved.

Not all communities are guilty of bringing undue pressure on those responsible for sponsoring and directing activities. Some communities demand a well-balanced program. In all cases responsibility for maintaining proper



balance must rest with the administration—the school board and the superintendent or principal. If re-educating the public regarding activities needs to be done, it is the duty of the board of education to take a definite stand by making rules to govern the place of each activity in the educational program, and it is the duty of the superintendent or principal to give due publicity to the desirable allocation of time, effort, and money to the several activities which occupy the students' time.

*What is an adequate activity program?* What activities should be included? The answer will, of course, depend somewhat on the size of the school, the teaching personnel, and the facilities available. Small schools will of necessity have a limited program as compared with larger schools. One of the severest objections, in fact, to maintaining a high school with a very small enrollment and limited financial support is the fact that an adequate activity program cannot be maintained. A desirable program should include reasonable opportunities for a student to participate in the activities in which he is interested. The extent to which he should be allowed to participate would depend on his ability to carry the load, his health, and probably other factors, such as outside work, home duties, etc. In any event he should not be permitted to carry more activities than he can handle without affecting adversely his classroom work. Arguments to the contrary notwithstanding, there is still value in the honest and thorough-going pursuit of academic studies, in the self-discipline imposed when a student stays with a job which may not appeal to him at the moment as being fun or even interesting, but which holds promise of paying future dividends in terms of knowledges or skills for which there may be a future need. Ideals concerning accomplishment and worthy work habits are still worthwhile. Participation in activities outside the classroom need not neutralize classroom achievement, provided scheduling student time is sanely done, and provided activity directors and classroom teachers have a true perspective of the total educational picture.

There is danger in smaller schools, where the limited personnel does not provide leaders or directors of several different activities, of concentrating all activity time on one



or two activities, such as athletics, or athletics and band. In such schools, students who have no particular interest or ability in these activities are left unprovided for. In some instances also, where interscholastic competition is overemphasized, only the gifted students receive adequate attention. This may be true in athletics, where varsity teams receive major attention and the general physical education program is neglected. It may occur in music, where bands or choruses, being groomed for competition get most of the instructor's time, while equally eager but less gifted pupils are left to shift for themselves. It has happened in dramatics, debate, and even in academic subjects, such as commercial training, where a typing or shorthand team is being trained for interschool competition. This is not necessarily an indictment of interschool competition, but it is indicative of dangers inherent in contests, when administrators and instructors lack proper perspective.

The actual listing of definite activities suitable to a given school is difficult, due to many extenuating circumstances, such as enrollment, available funds, equipment, the supply of trained instructors, etc., but a good case can be made under certain conditions for almost any of the usual activities now found in secondary schools.

The school assembly, the student council, home room activities, clubs, literary societies, school trips and tours, school publications, social events, and perhaps other activities are possible in all schools, even the smallest. Some other activities will be restricted by enrollment, facilities, the availability of instructors, financial ability, and other considerations. Among this latter class are dramatics, music, debating, and some types of athletics.

The school authorities should take stock of the possibilities in their school, build slowly but well, and make the program continuous and consistent. There is no virtue in a will-o-the-wisp procedure, which introduces an activity one year and drops it the next if the teacher in charge leaves the school. The program needs to be established first, and teachers then employed to implement it.

*Administration of the program.* The general principles involved in administering an activity program are much the same in schools of all sizes, though the technical details



will vary according to the size of the school. In all cases the school *superintendent* or *principal* will be the co-ordinator of the program. It is his responsibility to give final approval to the over-all plans and to determine ultimately plans for co-ordinating and integrating the activities with the whole educational program. An *activity council* might be helpful in an advisory capacity in making over-all plans. Within the activity itself in large systems there is usually a *director*, who plans specifically the program of the school. *Sponsors* promote the various activities in direct contact with the students. They may be coaches or instructors or classroom teachers. *Classroom teachers* may act as co-operators, aiding the program generally and in specific activities, and tying the instructional and activity phases of the school's work together.

All money should be handled through the central activity fund, though budgeting should be done and expenditures authorized by the activity officers with the approval of the activity sponsors or directors. Strict accounting should be made for all funds both to the superintendent or principal and to the board of education, and persons responsible for care of the funds should be bonded as required by statute.



