Iowa Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program

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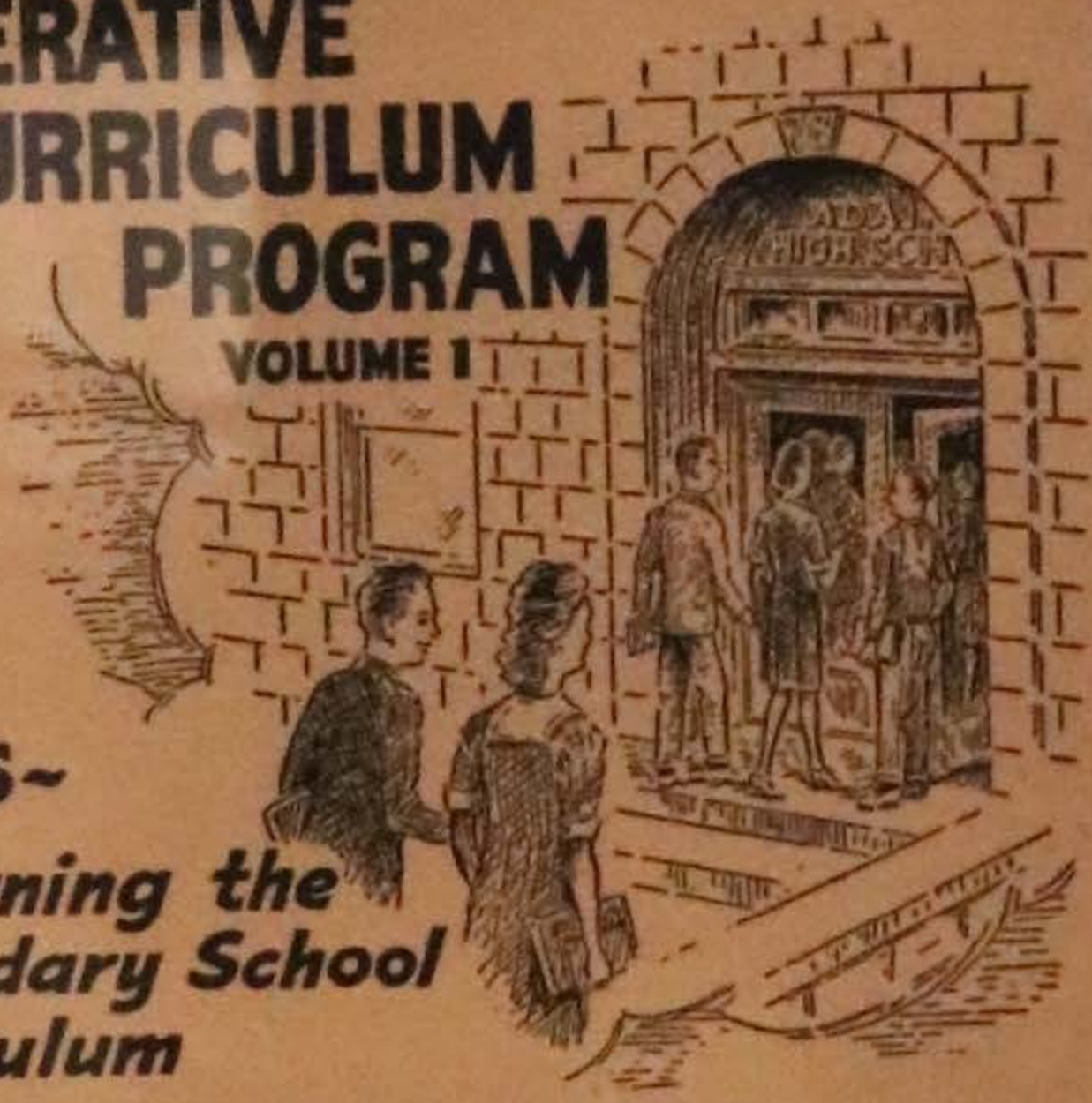
STATE OF IOWA
1945

IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOL COOPERATIVE CURRICULUM PROGRAM

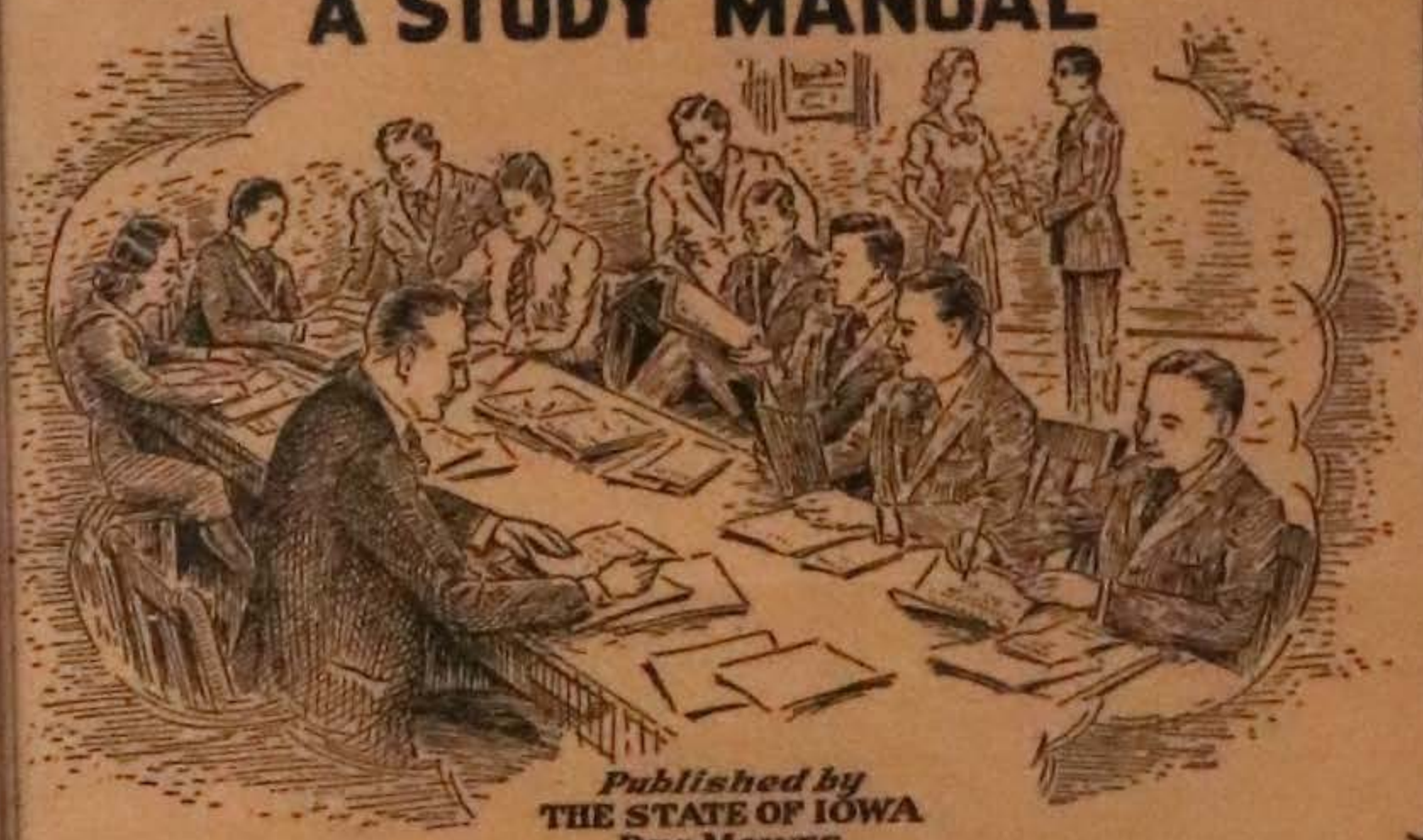
VOLUME I



ISSUES~

Concerning the Secondary School Curriculum

A STUDY MANUAL



Published by
THE STATE OF IOWA
DES MOINES

IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOL
COOPERATIVE CURRICULUM
PROGRAM

ISSUES CONCERNING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

A STUDY MANUAL

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

Published by
THE STATE OF IOWA
1945

Iowa Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program

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STUDY MANUAL

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FOREWORD

Changing conditions and changing concepts of the functions of secondary education have brought about during the past decade widespread activity in the field of secondary school curriculum revision. In the light of these changes the high schools of Iowa need to take stock. The present curriculum needs revision.

With this thought in mind, a long-time cooperative secondary school curriculum study is being launched. The first year will be spent in a study of curriculum issues, with school administrators, teachers, and lay people cooperating with the Department of Public Instruction in setting up a general philosophy. A partial list of the issues to be studied includes:

1. What are the aims of secondary education?
2. What subject matter and activities will best serve in the realization of these aims?
3. What instructional procedures will contribute most?
4. What organizational and administrative procedures will best further the objectives set up?

When high school administrators and teachers, lay people, and the Central Planning Committee have cooperatively decided on the broad, basic principles involved, the second step in the program, production, will start.

In order to facilitate study and discussion of the problems incident to curriculum production this study manual is provided. This volume has been made possible through the generous donation of time and service by Iowa educators. Grateful acknowledgment is made to members of the committee responsible for this manual: Dr. L. A. Van Dyke, technical director; Mr. Carl T. Feelhaver, chairman; Dr. J. B. Paul, Mr. E. A. Thompson, and Mr. W. H. McFarland, editor. Valuable assistance has also been rendered by other members of the Central Planning Committee, Mr. Joe L. Gettys, Mr. D. A. Hayworth, Dr. Barton Morgan, Mrs. Clara Strickland, and Mr. J. P. Street.

JESSIE M. PARKER,
Superintendent of Public Instruction.

January, 1945.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

THE FERMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Criticisms of secondary education are not of recent origin, neither are they solely made by the laymen. Moreover, the criticisms have not varied greatly during the past quarter of a century. The serious ones of late have come more often from within the profession than from without. Many of the latter are based on scientific studies. The fact that contemporary secondary education too often educates youth for the life of yesterday rather than for the life of today and tomorrow appears to be the most common criticism. For example, in the Maryland Youth Survey,[1] Bell says that his data " . . . reveal the activities and the thinking of a generation that is still making an effort to adjust itself to the educational, social, and vocational realities of an era that is past." The Regents' Inquiry[2] in New York State discloses the fact that "The school work for boys and girls has not been re-designed to fit them for the new and changing work opportunities which they must face in modern economic life. . . . The school program does not sufficiently recognize the increased difficulties of becoming and of being a good citizen. . . . The educational system has not caught up with the flood of new scientific knowledge about the natural and social world. Our educational program fails to give boys and girls a scientific point of view and an understanding of the world. . . . The educational system has not been re-planned to meet the new conditions of modern life and the new ways of living. . . ."

Again, the inadequacies of secondary education are recognized in the brief report prepared by a special curriculum committee of the American Youth Commission.[3] The report,

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[1]Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1938, p. 6.

[2]L. H. Gulik, et al., *Education for American Life*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938, pp. 4-5.

[3]American Youth Commission, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, American Council on Education, 1940, p. 11.

entitled *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, suggests several changes which might properly be considered in a program of curriculum development. The statement is made that "while it would be a mistake to make sweeping charges as to the ineffectiveness of all secondary education, it is legitimate to urge fundamental reconsideration of the curriculum, particularly in view of the fact that there are a great many pupils in secondary schools for whom the courses now administered in these schools are not appropriate. Even where particular courses and certain parts of other courses are entirely defensible, the complete curriculum must be described as inappropriate because of its emphasis on items that do not accord with the ability or the outlook of the future of the majority of pupils."

The vast amount of experimentation since 1930, which includes the cooperative and group projects in the various states, the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, the organization of programs of work experience and the like, has been carried on for the purpose of improving secondary education and meeting some of the popular criticisms of the secondary school.

The writers of recent articles in lay magazines have aroused considerable controversy in their discussions over the emphasis on either the practical or cultural aspect of secondary education. All of these facts serve as ample proof that there is ferment in the field of secondary education.

NEED FOR CONTINUED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

There are a number of factors which signify the need for continued curriculum development. One of these is the increase in pupil population. Approximately 60 per cent of the youth of this country of high school age are enrolled in secondary schools. They come from all levels of society, and the majority are in need of a program different from the one offered for college preparatory pupils. The program of instruction which may have been suitable when the pupils were few and selected does not fit the needs of the majority of those now in the secondary schools.

Another factor which points out the necessity for curriculum development is the continual expansion and revision of knowledge. The new contributions to knowledge which have re-

sulted from research in recent times have made necessary a broader inclusiveness in the programs of all secondary schools. At the same time certain materials accepted as necessary have outlived their usefulness. Since many prospective citizens do not continue their education beyond the high school, it appears evident that instruction with regard to problems of organized society should not be left out of the high school program or postponed to the period of college attendance. As long as discoveries are made at the present rate, curriculum development must be a continuing undertaking.

Certain social changes, which have taken place and which are constantly unfolding, imply a persistent task in curriculum development. For example, the shift of population in the state of Iowa from rural to urban centers is quite important. According to the United States Federal Census of 1940, a big movement has taken place during the past one hundred years. Each decade from 1840 to 1940 discloses a sizeable increase in urban population and a sizeable decrease in rural population. In 1840 our government had very little, if any, urban population to report for Iowa, but in 1940 it reported 42.7 per cent of 2,538,268 persons as living in urban centers. During the same period the rural population percentage decreased from approximately 100 per cent to 57.3 per cent. This tremendous shift in population from rural to urban, if it continues, identifies one of the many problems which must be faced in Iowa high schools.

The concentration of enormous populations in small and highly congested areas has proceeded at an unparalleled pace and has brought with it factors of the most fundamental importance to the curriculum. The problems of sanitation, public health, juvenile delinquency, disease, contagion, etc., cannot be considered as unimportant elements in the whole curriculum picture.

The mobility of the population in our state, especially the mobility of youth, is another emerging problem for consideration. The United States Census tells us that a nation-wide movement of tremendous proportions took place between 1920 and 1930. Forty per cent of the farm youth—10 to 20 years of age—left the farms and migrated to urban centers. Iowa's youth played no small part in this national internal migration. With fewer and fewer opportunities on the farm, the movement is apt to continue but probably at a slower pace. The migration

of youth from farm to city, across state lines, and from region to region, creates significant social and educational problems. It is no easy task for those who grow up in a simple rural culture to adjust to the more complex and sophisticated culture of the cities.

Other social changes such as smaller families, increase in numbers of broken homes, changes in the church, married women working, increase in commercial recreation, etc., carry educational implications of great importance. Even the pressure brought on the youthful consumer by the radio, magazines, advertising, bill boards, and newspapers, signals the need for developing new types of educational experiences in our secondary schools.

There are other socio-economic changes of perhaps equal importance bearing on the high school curriculum, one of which is the impact of an advancing technology on our economic system. The old trades, requiring highly specialized skill and long periods of training, are disappearing. The craftsman is giving place to the machine tender; he is surrendering his special knowledge to the specialist and his skill to the machine. The majority of factory workers are only semiskilled, and they perform operations which are highly repetitive.

This advancing technology has been accompanied by an increasing exclusion of young people from gainful employment. The American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education points out in its recommendations, *A Program of Action for American Youth*, that youth is at a disadvantage in seeking employment. Without experience or training youth finds it difficult to get started on a vocation. Fully one-third of the unemployed workers of the nation in 1937 were young people 15 to 24 years of age. The rate of unemployment was highest in the group 15 to 20, who were out of school and seeking work. These facts have important implications for secondary education when it comes to any program of curriculum development.

Research in the field of psychology has brought out many interesting facts which have a bearing on curriculum improvement. Many factors have been studied in the attempt to learn more about their relation to the speed and permanence of learning. Investigations have been made of the effect on learning of age, sex, previous learning, spacing of practice

periods, spacing of review periods, frequency of testing, motivation in its many ramifications, work methods, physiological maturity, and emotions. Research on mental discipline and automatic transfer of training has shown rather conclusively that these theories of learning have been greatly overrated.

Another factor which indicates a need for continued curriculum development in Iowa secondary schools is found in the results of the Iowa Every-Pupil Testing Program. The results in these tests, particularly in the fields of mathematics and English, point to needed adjustments which dare not be overlooked if an adequate secondary curriculum is to be provided for the youth in Iowa high schools.

A study entitled "Type of School District as a Factor in High School Attendance in Iowa" by R. C. Williams has certain implications for curriculum development. The data disclosed that only 44 per cent of the rural eighth grade graduates who attended high schools stayed long enough to graduate, while 73 per cent of the eighth grade graduates from the consolidated districts and 68 per cent of the eighth grade graduates from the city-town districts stayed to finish their high school courses.

The factor of transportation had much to do with the attendance of the eighth grade graduates, but it can easily be inferred that still another factor—that of curriculum offerings—had considerable influence in the situation. In all probability, the curriculum offerings of each high school played a significant role in attracting or repelling the prospects. Furthermore, it would seem reasonable that the same factor served to hold or to discourage attendance of the eighth grade graduates after they entered high school.

DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN IOWA

The earliest secondary schools in Iowa were private academies and seminaries. These educational institutions made their appearance along the Iowa side of the Mississippi River soon after Iowa became a territory. Union Academy in Des Moines county was the first to be approved by the Iowa Territorial legislature in 1839. Many academies and seminaries were incorporated during the territorial period, but most of them had an existence on paper only. A few schools, such as the Denmark Academy and Howe Academy, grew into strong institutions and continued to serve for a fairly long period of

time. Approximately ninety of these private secondary schools can be identified between 1839 and 1890. Our present day free public high schools actually took root from the legislative action in 1849, when school districts were permitted to establish schools of higher grade. As evidence, we find the Dubuque Board of Education in 1856 prepared a course of study for a central high school. On December 1, 1856, Tipton opened a high school with a two-year course. At the close of the winter term of 1856, certain pupils of the Muscatine schools were examined in algebra, geometry, astronomy, physiology, and history, thus disclosing high school instruction being offered. These were the first public schools to offer high school instruction, and they were not tuition-free. By a law passed in 1857, high school instruction was made possible under a system of public taxation. Soon Mount Pleasant, Burlington, Davenport, Iowa City, and other places established high schools.

In 1871, the Superintendent of Public Instruction reported only forty high schools in existence. By 1941, seventy years later, Miss Jessie Parker, Superintendent of Public Instruction, reported 921 on the list of approved high schools. Furthermore, she reported a total of 8,974 high school teachers employed in these 921 schools. The average sized high school in 1940-41 had 159 pupils and the median sized high school had 82 pupils. The latter may be said to be the typical sized high school of Iowa. This growth is certainly ample evidence of Iowa's confidence in public secondary schools.

NATURE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM PROGRAM

In July, 1944, Miss Jessie Parker set up a central planning committee and invested in it the full responsibility for planning and co-ordinating the statewide secondary school program. The following individuals were appointed to membership on this committee:

Miss Jessie M. Parker, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, *Ex-officio*

Dr. L. A. Van Dyke, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, *Technical Director*

Mr. W. H. McFarland, Department of Public Instruction, *Editor*

Mr. Carl T. Feelhaver, High School Principal, Fort Dodge

Mr. Joe L. Gettys, Superintendent of Schools, Harlan

Mr. D. A. Hayworth, East Junior High School Principal, Sioux City
Dr. Barton Morgan, Head of Vocational Education, Iowa State College
Dr. J. B. Paul, Director of the Bureau of Research, Iowa State Teachers College
Mr. J. P. Street, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
Mrs. Clara Strickland, Teacher, Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs
Mr. E. A. Thompson, High School Principal, Tipton

The design back of the Iowa Curriculum program is to engage the attention and the active participation of administrators, teachers, and lay people in a cooperative plan of curriculum improvement. Much of the ground work is to be done through local, county, and state discussion groups. Progress in this plan is predicated on the thesis that "talking it through" will produce the basis for united action. Furthermore, such a plan provides democratic procedures.

The discussions are to be carried on with the county as the liaison unit and each high school teaching staff within the county as a basic unit. The superintendent of schools in each county seat town will be asked to serve as temporary chairman for the county liaison unit. As soon as possible he will call a meeting of all superintendents and high school principals in his county. Some member of the State Central Committee will be made available to discuss the general plan at the first county meeting, and then a permanent county chairman will be elected by each county liaison group. The administrators in each county will then be asked to organize a series of meetings with the faculties in their own schools for the purpose of discussing the issues raised in this manual, making suggestions, and expressing their viewpoints on curriculum problems.

The key division in the state curriculum organization is the basic unit—the individual high school teaching staff. If it is active and aggressive, we can make some progress on a statewide basis. These basic units can become the most effective centers for bringing about statewide improvement in the secondary school curriculum. Each basic unit will be urged to carry on its own discussion of the issues confronting secondary education. It will be asked to hold discussions

with local groups of patrons and to report its conclusions to the county liaison unit.

The first year or more in the curriculum program will be devoted entirely to study and discussion sessions with teachers and patrons in each community. One of the greatest values accruing to the schools participating in the project should be the opportunity for better teacher and community understanding. The close relationship of the teaching staff to the community that should develop through these meetings promises to do much to establish a community-school concept. If the program accomplishes nothing more than to get the teaching staff and interested people in the local community to think through, to develop, and to formulate a tentative statement of their philosophy about the secondary school, a great service will be rendered. Administrators may find that this method of curriculum study furnishes not only a check-up on the adequacy of our present secondary school program, but gives an opportunity to introduce more democratic administrative practices, more in-service training for teachers.

During the second year the county liaison group, composed of superintendents, principals, teachers, and representative citizens of the communities, is expected to meet again to draw up the common understandings and report them to the Central Planning Committee. From these reports will evolve a working philosophy—one that will not dictate, but one that will guide and help—one that will be significant enough and sufficiently meaningful to influence school practices. As soon as a statement of philosophy and purposes for the secondary schools of Iowa is drawn up and approved, production committees will be appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to prepare the curriculum materials in the various areas. The entire program will of necessity require considerable time. It is quite evident that the determining of common purposes through discussion will take at least a year or more. It is estimated that the production work in developing curriculum materials will extend over two or three years, perhaps longer.

THE USE OF THE MANUAL

The Iowa Secondary School Curriculum Manual has been prepared by the Central Planning Committee in an effort to make available in a convenient discussion form a statement

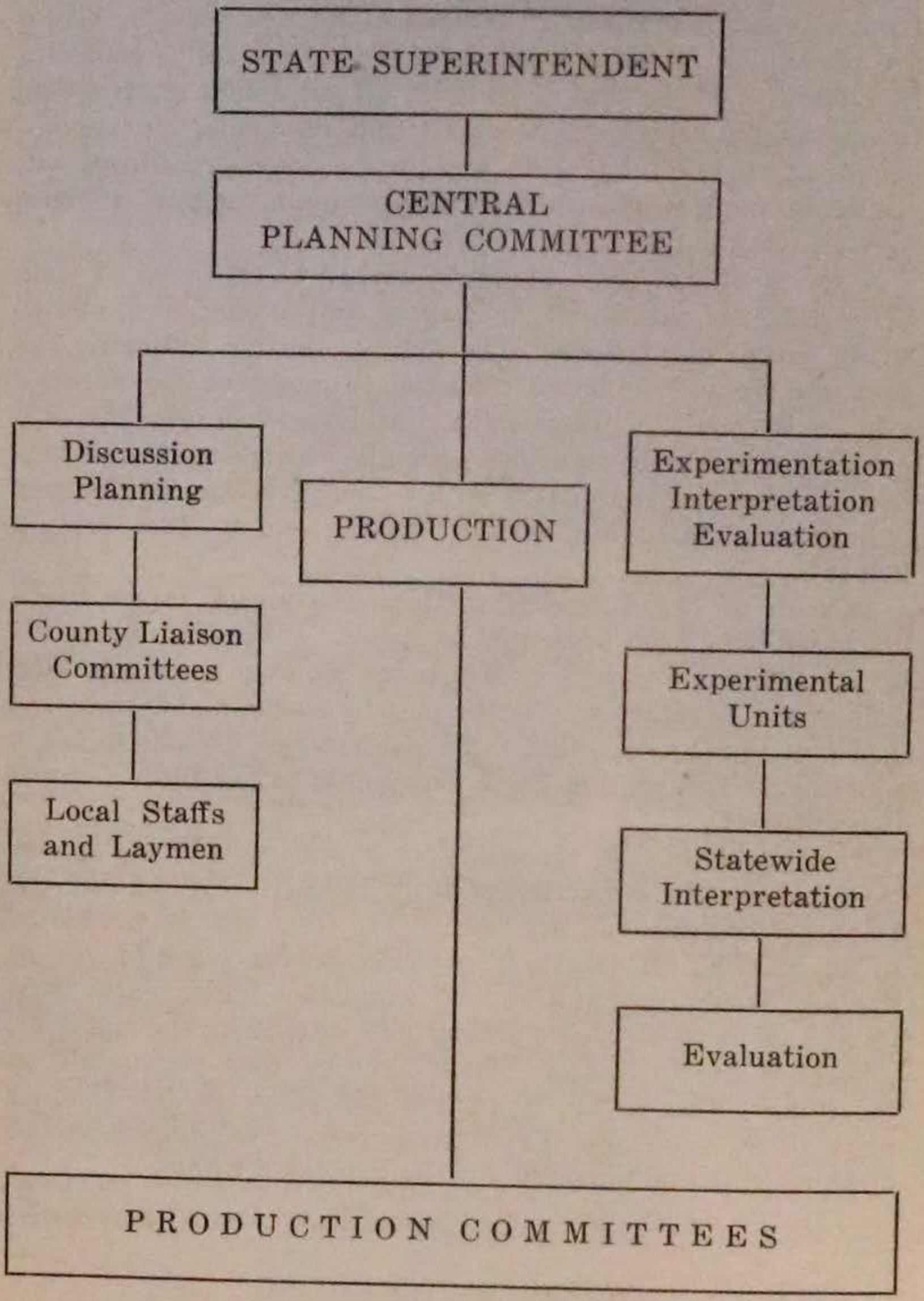
of certain of the most essential issues that confront secondary schools. The Manual should assist in keeping discussions from wandering aimlessly. While a number of pressing issues are presented, no claim is made that the Manual is complete in every respect or that it includes all the issues confronting the secondary school. It is hoped that the issues on content, organization, administration, and instructional procedures will stimulate many worthwhile discussions upon the part of those participating in the statewide program.

A series of questions has been set up at the head of each of the different sections of the Manual for the purpose of stimulating group discussions. The subject matter following the questions provides factual material to augment the reader's own background of information. An effort has been made to present both sides of all issues. Should the reader have library facilities and desire to carry on his own investigation, he may find the suggested bibliography at the end of each section helpful.

In each of the following sections the major topics to be discussed have been presented as *issues*. It was not the intent of the Central Committee to present its own conclusions on each of these problems. The purpose of the manual is to *arouse discussion* in the hope that local faculties will be able to reach conclusions and present their viewpoints to the State Central Committee.

The danger of this procedure, of course, is that the reader may feel that he is left dangling in the air after reading the brief presentation of arguments *pro* and *con* as presented in the manual. However, if several teachers begin to discuss the arguments pro and con as suggested under each issue they should experience no difficulty in expanding the materials presented and in finally expressing their own viewpoints on the issue. *This is the important procedure in the opening phase of the program.* From it will come a definite statement of philosophy and purposes for the state as a whole.

IOWA PLAN FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT



CHAPTER II

ISSUES CONCERNING CONTENT AND DIRECTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Popular credence is given to the educational slogan that "the teacher makes the school." Certainly some evidence and many testimonials could be produced to support that viewpoint. Many adults look back on their own school days and recall qualities in certain teachers which seemingly made a deep imprint on their lives.

It doesn't necessarily follow, however, that a teacher is good regardless of what he teaches. Too often the statement is made that the subject matter of the school is relatively unimportant; it is the concomitant values, the attitudes and ideals, that stay through the years. Not infrequently laymen have suggested that it doesn't matter much what courses a student takes in high school or college as long as he picks up some polish and learns how to get along with people. Unhappily, it is these same individuals who raise a furor about the Rugg books and who charge that kids nowadays don't know the three "R's."

A good teacher cannot do much with a weak curriculum, and a good curriculum cannot save a weak teacher. The questions of *what* to teach and *how* to teach have long been two of the "toughest" problems facing educators. They are first questions in any long term effort to improve the program of the school. The following issues deal with the question of *what* our high schools should teach. It is essential that we agree on some workable answers to these issues if we are to keep pace with the changing educational demands of society. It is not presumed that the issues presented here for discussion are all-inclusive. They are representative, however, of some of the most persistent problems in secondary curriculum development.

The following treatment is necessarily brief. It presents some background and a few "pro" and "con" arguments in order to stimulate discussion. As stated in the introductory chapter, this study manual is a part of the first phase of a statewide secondary school curriculum development program. The

purpose of this introductory step is to think through some of the curricular issues facing secondary schools. Out of local discussion meetings and other study groups must grow a positive statement of philosophy for secondary education in Iowa if the program is to have any direction. This should be kept in mind as the ultimate purpose of any discussion which stems from the following statements of issues.

As school faculties and other groups go through the materials presented here, other questions and issues will be raised. It was not possible for the Committee to present an exhaustive treatment of curriculum problems without making the manual so cumbersome as to discourage its use. The Committee has not attempted to present its viewpoint or to suggest a solution at the close of the discussion of each issue. It is the belief of the Committee that statements of guiding principles and possible solutions should follow a thoroughgoing debate of issues.

PART I

Immediate Issues

I. WHAT RELATIVE EMPHASIS SHOULD BE PLACED ON GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

1. Should the secondary school attempt a program which includes both general and vocational education?
2. What is general education? What subjects in the present high school curriculum may be regarded as general education?
3. What proportion of the secondary school program should be devoted to general education?
4. What is vocational education? What place should vocational education occupy in the high school program?

The task of the high school faculty sincerely concerned with its own curriculum program is not made easier by the widespread feuding among educational leaders on the issue of general versus vocational education. President Hutchins of Chi-

cago, writing in the September, 1943, issue of *The Phi Delta Kappan,* says, "Any resemblance between technical training and education is purely coincidental." Stringfellow Barr in an article in the *New Republic* entitled "The Education of Freemen", writes, "Above all, we have produced illiterate specialists and experts, incapable of solving unexpected problems which the twentieth century seems determined to throw in their laps."

John Dewey takes exception to the viewpoint expressed by Hutchins and Barr in an article in the August, 1944, issue of *Fortune* entitled "Challenge to Liberal Thought." Dewey says, "A truly liberal, and liberating education would refuse today to isolate vocational training on any of its levels from a continuous education in the social, moral, and scientific contexts within which wisely administered callings and professions must function." The National Society for the Study of Education[1] states that ". . . it (vocational development) will fall short of the vocational aim unless *at certain points and under certain conditions, conscious, honest, and insistent attention is given to the training of skills necessary for vocational success.*"

Definition of General Education

General education is so elusive of definition that it has become all things to all people. It has been so variously rationalized by special groups to meet their convenience that it has become an amorphism. The classicist has defined it as the study of the liberal arts and the great books of the past; the fundamentalist would center it around training in the basic tools, and the progressive insists that it is the continuous development of the child as he adjusts to his social and physical environment. To the average laymen and teacher, hopeful of finding a description in terms of what reasonably might be expected to take place in a school, these definitions are limp verbalisms.

A more usable and definitive attempt to describe general education has been made recently by a special committee of the North Central Association. Perhaps as more statements of this type are developed, school staffs will be able to set up

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[1]National Society for the Study of Education, *The Forty-Second Yearbook, Part I, Vocational Education,* Department of Education, The University of Chicago, 1943, p. 7.

a tangible program of general education within a framework of sound theory. Johnson[1] in his introduction to the North Central report, says general education is general in at least three respects:

"First, *general education is intended for everyone*—not merely for the selected few who become scholars or who enter the professions.

"Second, *general education is concerned with the total personality*, not merely with the intellect but with emotions, habits, attitudes.

"Third, *general education is concerned with the individual's non-specialized activities.* It consists of preparation for efficient living, no matter what one's vocation."

The Committee on Philosophy of the Missouri State curriculum revision program has defined general education in terms of the common interests and needs of students. The Committee states, ". . . it is reasonable to expect that every young person will have experience demanding certain general skills and information in such areas as communication, the physical environment, living with others, government, occupational activities, and health."[2]

The University of Minnesota has been working intensively on the problem of general education at the college level for more than a decade. The following elements of general education were presented by Dean T. R. McConnell as a part of a faculty report on general education at a recent conference on teacher education.[3] While these elements have been defined in terms of a university program, they are sufficiently broad to offer some valuable suggestions to high school faculties.

"The elements of general education may be rather simply stated. General education should enable the student:

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[1]North Central Association, General Education Committee, *General Education in the American High School*, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942, p. xii.

[2]Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum, *A Statement of Philosophy, Purposes, and Design for the Secondary Schools of Missouri*, Lloyd W. King, State Superintendent, 1940. Bulletin 1, p. 17.

[3]Address by Dean T. R. McConnell, College of Arts and Science, University of Minnesota, at the Fifteenth Annual University of Minnesota Conference on Higher Education with Special Reference to the Education of Teachers.

"1. To understand other persons' ideas through reading and listening, and, in turn, to express his own ideas effectively to others.

"2. To attain a balanced social and emotional adjustment through an understanding of human behavior, the enjoyment of social relationships, and the experience of working cooperatively with others.

"3. To improve and maintain his own health and to make intelligent decisions about community health problems.

"4. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.

"5. To participate as an active, responsible, and informed citizen in the discussion and solution of the social, economic, and political problems of American and international affairs.

"6. To understand the fundamental discoveries of science in their implications for human welfare and in their influence on the development of thought and institutions; to understand and appreciate the scientific method and to use it in the solution of concrete problems.

"7. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as an expression of personal and social experience; and, if possible, to participate in some form of creative activity.

"8. To develop a set of principles for the direction of personal and societal behavior through the recognition and critical examination of values involved in personal and social conduct.

"9. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will enable him to utilize fully his particular interests and abilities."

Local faculties and special groups concerned with the development of a positive, usable, and forward looking program of general education may find these statements helpful as a point of departure. It is essential, however, that these groups cut through the verbalism and ambiguity surrounding general education if they are to resolve the present ferment in secondary education. It is essential also that local faculties define a program of general education in terms of concrete and workable content if they expect support from lay boards and patrons.

Vocational Education Defined

Vocational education is popularly regarded as education which trains students to do a certain type of work so that they can get a job and make a living. Probably most educators would define it that way. Over a period of years, much of the educational program which has been labeled vocational education has been largely directed toward training for technical skills in agriculture, typewriting, shorthand, carpentry, printing, salesmanship, automechanics, and similarly specialized areas.

It has been this specialized and rather narrow type of training that has brought sharp criticism and ridicule from supporters of general or liberal education. It is argued that such training results in the development of "technically skilled cultural morons." It is argued also that in modern industry, most jobs can be learned in from four to five weeks and that it is an abuse and waste of school time to attempt to train workers for such jobs in the school.

This narrow conception of vocational education is equally unacceptable to thoughtful students and workers in the field of vocational education. The National Society for the Study of Education in its *Forty-Second Yearbook, Part I, Vocational Education,* states that, "Vocational Education is learning how to work. For the educator, it is teaching others how to work." The Yearbook Committee emphasizes that many subjects and many types of educational experience contribute to vocational education. The Committee believes that, "Whether or not a school subject is general or vocational, is partly a matter of intention and partly a matter of chance. Reading, writing, figuring, drawing, health, music, and good deportment are all accomplishments of good family members, good companions, and good neighbors, regardless of how they earn a living. However, each of these subjects may turn into job skills of the highest earning value."

It is the viewpoint of this yearbook that education must be designed to meet the needs of youth and that among these needs are, "to know about jobs", "to make a choice of vocation or rather, a series of tentative choices", and "to learn how to work." Vocational education must be concerned with training in special skills which are required to do certain types of work, but it must also be concerned with the ability to work with other

people, to accept responsibility, to understand problems of labor and management, to know vocational opportunities in various fields, and to appraise one's own abilities to do certain types of useful work.

Arguments for General and Vocational Education

The arguments for general education and for vocational education in the secondary school are familiar to most teachers and administrators. Some champions of general education believe that it is the function of the high school to develop an understanding of the cultural heritage and a knowledge of the great civilizations of the past. Education must teach students how to think; it must provide them with tools of learning and a knowledge of facts, generalizations, and moral principles which will enable them to adjust readily to the changing social, economic, and political scene. If students are to learn to think, to develop a sense of moral values, and to understand their own civilization, they must study the great thinkers of the past. They must know the story of man's development, the problems, personalities, technical developments, and social movements which have shaped our modern world. The student must read and feel the great truths, the beauty, and the moral principles as transmitted through the works of the greatest writers and thinkers that our world has produced. Others interested in a balanced program of general education are not so much concerned about an emphasis on the study of past civilizations as they are about the all around development of the individual student. To them general education seeks to develop the common qualities necessary for all citizens in a democracy. These common and non-specialized educational experiences are the sine qua non of our educational program.

Those who believe in the value of vocational education contend that, if it is the function of the school to develop responsible and intelligent citizens, students must learn to carry their own economic load. It is argued that many students who enter high school cannot remain to graduate because they are needed to contribute to the support of their families. Others become discouraged and drop out of school because of lack of ability to succeed or lack of interest in traditional curricular offerings. These students must find a job immediately upon

leaving school, as must the 75 per cent who graduate and do not go to college. Somewhere between the maudlin concept of leading each young person around by the hand until he is a mature worker and the "sink or swim" philosophy should be a sane and efficient answer to this problem of vocational training.

A Dual Function

In his "Proposals Relating to the Educating of Youth in Pennsylvania", written in 1749, Benjamin Franklin said, "As to their studies, it would be well if they could be taught everything that is useful, and everything that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful to them and most ornamental, regard being had for the several professions for which they are intended."

Many high schools have offered both general and vocational training for more than a quarter of a century. Since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 an increasingly large number of high schools have included vocational agriculture, vocational home economics, and trades and industrial subjects in their curricula along with general and academic subjects. With the passage of the George-Dean Act in 1936, providing federal aid for instruction in trades and industries, distributive education, etc., the scope of vocational education was considerably extended.

The expansion of vocational education has meant a progressively smaller amount of time available for general and cultural studies. With the demands for greater emphasis on the ability to read, write, and to speak effectively, on a more thorough understanding of social, economic, and political problems, on the importance of science in modern living, on health, the fine arts and leisure time activities the high school has been hard pressed to meet the increasing demands for vocational training.

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II. SHOULD THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROVIDE TRAINING IN BASIC SKILLS?

1. What are the basic skills in modern education?

2. Is there evidence that high school students are not well prepared in basic skills when they leave school?

3. Are present day high school students as well prepared in basic skills as high school students of thirty years ago?

4. How does Iowa compare with other states in teaching the basic skills?

5. Why not let the elementary school handle all of the basic skills?

Strangely enough, there persists a sizeable group of laymen and educators who believe strongly that high school graduates should be able to read, write, spell, speak, and compute with some degree of facility. Business men, educators, army and navy officials, newspaper columnists, and others have expressed a growing suspicion that our schools are indifferent to the need for teaching basic skills. Employers emphasize that with the exception of character, the thing they want most in high school graduates is ability to perform creditably in the three "R's". And college faculties continue to view with alarm the lack of preparation of high school graduates in the fundamental tools required for successful college or university study.

Definition of Basic Skills

High school and elementary school teachers also have expressed concern over the performance of students in the basic skills. Frequently, however, teachers have insisted that the problem is confused by lack of definition. What should be included in the basic skills? Should these skills be limited to the popular definition of "Reading, 'Riting, and 'Rithmetic"? Or do basic skills, as some instructors believe, include training in how to study, in the arts, and in democratic procedures? If the basic skills are limited by definition to the three "R's", then where does training in physical skills—the ability to work with one's hands and bodily coordination—belong?

Skills required for learning become progressively more complex as the individual is required to make increasingly complicated school and social adjustments. The skills required to read and to understand a chapter on inert gases in a high school chemistry textbook are considerably more complex than those required for a "Dick and Jane" story in an elementary school reader. Skills in mathematics, in oral and written expression, in studying social sciences, natural sciences, etc. become more and more complex as the individual progresses from one educational level to the next.

If the schools have been remiss in teaching basic skills, perhaps a part of the explanation lies in the failure to agree on a working definition. Some of the most useable definitions have grown out of the development of standardized tests. For example, the "New Stanford Achievement Tests" include the following sections: (1) Reading—Paragraph meaning, (2) Reading—Word meaning, (3) Spelling, (4) Arithmetic Reasoning, (5) Arithmetic Computation. While this is not a definition as such, the divisions of the test together with the items included, imply an agreement on what constitutes the basic skills. The "Iowa Every Pupil Test on Basic Skills" also implies a definition of these skills as is indicated by the following test divisions: (1) Reading—comprehension—vocabulary, (2) Work Study Skills—map reading—use of references —use of index—use of dictionary—alphabetizing—graphs, (3) Basic language skills—punctuation—capitalization—usage—spelling—sentence sense, (4) Basic arithmetic skills—fundamental knowledge—fundamental operations—problems.

If one of the problems in improving the secondary school

curriculum in Iowa is to strengthen the instructional program in basic skills, it is a necessary first step to agree upon a workable definition of these skills as a point of departure.

Evidence in Support of Criticisms

What are the facts? Is there any evidence to support the claim that the schools are ineffective in teaching basic skills? Unless there is evidence to support these charges it would seem to be waste motion for school faculties to attempt any extensive changes in their present programs to make room for more emphasis on fundamentals. Probably the most that can be said is that there is some evidence that certain schools or states do not seem to be achieving effective results as measured by standardized tests. Other criticisms are based largely on general impressions. Spaulding in reporting on data from the New York Regents Inquiry[1] calls attention to the fact that a disturbingly large percentage of high school pupils fail to achieve the average performance of eighth grade students in ability to read, ability to solve arithmetic problems, and in ability to write. He states that 10 per cent of the seniors failed to achieve as high scores on a test of ability to read and to understand straightforward English as did the average eighth grade student. And a far larger proportion of ninth, tenth, and eleventh grade students failed to reach that average. In a test on ability to solve common-sense problems in arithmetic more than 20 per cent of the New York seniors examined failed to achieve the eighth grade average. Spaulding states that letters written by New York high school students provide overwhelming evidence that these students are leaving school without having gained ingrained habits of good English usage.

A number of studies of reading ability of high school students have been made which show that a relatively large number of students do not read well enough to succeed in high school. Center and Persons,[2] in their study of the reading ability of students in the Theodore Roosevelt School, New York City, state that, "The sudden and widespread consciousness that hundreds and hundreds of boys and girls present

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[1]Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life,* McGraw-Hill, 1938, p. 40-43.

[2]S. S. Center, and G. L. Persons, *Teaching High School Students to Read,* Monograph No. 6, National Council of Teachers of English, Appleton Century, 1937.

themselves for high school education without skill in reading; a skill basic to success in education, is evidence that soon one of two things must happen in the field of secondary education: a way must be found to educate individuals who cannot read; or a way must be found to teach reading on the secondary level." These writers report that 64.5 per cent of entering ninth grade students in the Theodore Roosevelt High School ranked below the ninth grade average achievement of the New Stanford and Haggerty reading tests whereas only 24.5 per cent showed an I. Q. of 89 or below on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. This study presents clear evidence that the reading level of ninth grade students in this particular high school was far below the standard that might be expected in terms of their mental ability. While no conclusions concerning the reading ability of high school students in general may be made from this study, the rather large number of studies made in other schools with similar results presents strong evidence that a problem exists.

The Problems in Iowa High Schools

There are no published studies comparing the performance of Iowa high school students in basic skills with students in other states. Some unpublished results of the United States Armed Forces Institute Tests of General Educational Development are available, however, and show performance in reading, in correctness of expression, and in computational skills. In Table I is shown the rank of Iowa high school seniors on a Test of General Educational Development as compared to students in the other forty-seven states and the District of Columbia. These tests were administered to 35,432 high school seniors between April and June, 1943, in 814 schools throughout the United States. In Iowa, 834 seniors were tested in 31 high schools.

TABLE I

Iowa Median Score and Rank on United States Armed Forces Institute Test of General Educational Development

Section of Tests	Iowa Median Standard Score*	Iowa Rank Among 48 States and D. C.
Test I—Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression	51	16½
Test II—Interpretation of Reading Material for Social Studies	50	30½
Test III—Interpretation of Reading Materials in Natural Sciences	51	17
Test IV—Interpretation of Literary Materials	49	26½
Test V—Test of General Mathematics Ability	52	15

*Raw scores have been converted to standard scores by application of McCall T-scale technique. On this T-scale a standard score of 50 corresponds to a test performance of a typical (median) graduating high school senior for the country as a whole.

It may be seen from Table I that Iowa high school seniors ranked 16½ on the Test of Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression, 17 on Interpretation of Reading Materials in Natural Sciences, and 15 on the Test of General Mathematics ability. It may be concluded that the average achievement of Iowa high school seniors is good on these three tests as compared to the achievement of seniors in other states. However, in tests of "Interpretation of Literary Materials", Iowa seniors ranked 30½ and 26½ respectively. It would appear from these results that Iowa high school seniors are somewhat weaker in background and in the complex reading skills required to read social studies and literary materials effectively.

From Table II it may be seen that the median standard scores for Iowa high school seniors are below those for the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Western States on three or more of the five tests, while Iowa ranked above the North Central average on three out of five tests. Results for Iowa were highest in "General Mathematical Ability" and lowest in "Interpreting Literary Materials."

TABLE II

Comparison of Iowa Median Standard Scores on Each of Five Tests of General Educational Development with Six Regions and Total United States

	For High School Seniors				
	I Correctness Effectiveness of Expression	II Reading Social Studies	III Reading Natural Science	IV Interpreting Literary Material	V General Mathematical Ability
Iowa	51	50	51	49	52
New England	53	51	49	53	49
Middle Atlantic	52	52	51	51	50
Southern	48	46	47	46	48
Northe Central	49	50	50	50	51
Northwestern	49	51	52	51	51
Western	52	53	52	55	49
Total U. S.	50	50	50	50	50

These results merely compare the performance of Iowa high school seniors with the performance of seniors in other states and do not tell how strong or weak their achievement is in terms of desirable performance for high school graduates. Until such time as an acceptable definition of desirable performance upon the part of high school students in each of the basic skills is available, it is impossible to say that Iowa students are good or poor in these skills. Certain it is, however, that a large number of Iowa students fall below the average achievement for the country as a whole, and even though the Iowa average is equal to the national average, those students who fall below the average deserve serious attention.

Responsibility of the Elementary School

It is argued by many high school teachers and administrators that the teaching of basic skills is the function of the elementary school and that the high school ought not to be expected to take time to provide such training. The answer to that question must be made in terms of the educational philosophy of a particular school. Certainly one of the chief functions of the elementary school is to provide training in the fundamental tools. If for some reason, however, the elementary school is unsuccessful in the case of an individual student, should the students be refused admittance to high school, or should

the high school admit him and provide additional instruction in these skills?

High school records and standardized test results show that a rather large minority of elementary school graduates applying for admission to high school is not well enough grounded in the basic skills to do acceptable high school work. This may be due to a number of different causes. Many of these students come from one-room rural schools where they have had several different teachers and in many cases these teachers have been poorly trained. In other cases the students may have been ill or forced to drop out of school for a while with a resultant gap in their educational development. Many students have had to move a number of times from one community to another and have suffered from a lack of continuity in their school experiences. There may be several explanations for a student's weakness in basic skills when he enters high school. The question is whether or not the high school proposes to help him.

Much of the emphasis in the preceding discussion has been on the responsibility of the high school for *remedial* instruction in the basic skills. Perhaps a more significant problem is that of providing *developmental* instruction in these skills. Should the high school continue to provide this instruction on a progressively higher level? As the student continues in high school the skills that he uses in mathematics, reading, and expression become more and more complex. Should not the high school recognize this developmental problem and provide special training in these skills as needed?

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in general. Modern youth are pampered and protected in the school. They start to school too young, stay too long, get married too late, and die too soon. Instead of learning good work habits and qualities of responsibility, the critics of education charge that youth are permitted to "get by" and that they spend much of their time in idleness and on social trivia.

Work experience is the answer to many of the problems of modern youth and to some of the serious gaps in present-day education. It is believed that it will provide a practical type of vocational guidance which youth cannot get in any other way. Work experience gives them an opportunity to learn about jobs and about their own abilities and interests in specific jobs on a first-hand basis. It eliminates the guess work and verbalism of vocational guidance.

Youth need to learn to develop good work habits and wholesome attitudes toward work. Employers claim that among the most common causes of failure on the job are carelessness and indolence. Inability to get along with other workers and with superiors is another cause of failure. The supporters of work experience state that it provides an ideal program for learning work habits and good attitudes toward work. It makes it possible for the school to supplement and to supervise the educational experiences on the job and, therefore, insures superior results.

It is argued that simply learning to work with other people and to understand the problems of one's neighbors in earning a living is reason enough to include work experience as a part of the school program in a democracy. Such experience is cultural. It gives all students a much broader and more tolerant outlook on life than the study of formal subjects within the confines of the classroom. In a democracy, class lines and social prejudices must be broken down. These distinctions can be removed only through mutual understanding and association with other people. Work experience in the public schools for all youth regardless of economic background is a great leveler. It is the most direct first-hand training in democracy that the school can provide.

Other reasons are advanced for including work experience in the school. It brings the school closer to the community; it reinforces the learning experience of the classroom through application; it develops self discipline, and it provides for wide differences in abilities and interests of students.

Limitations of Work Experience

There is no unanimity of opinion on the values of work experience as a part of the secondary school curriculum. One important argument is that the school is already attempting to do so much that it is failing to do anything well. One of the chief weaknesses of the present secondary school curriculum is its multiplicity of offerings and wasteful duplication. In the past two decades the school has attempted to assume more responsibility for training in family living, for religious instruction, for moral, social, and vocational guidance, for recreational training, for consumer education, for health instruction, and for various other areas which were not included in the school program a few years ago.

The secondary school cannot do all of these things within its present time limits. It is doubtful if it could do all of these things well if its time limits were doubled. The editors of *Fortune* in the July, 1943, issue comment on the predicament of the school in an article entitled "Ferment in Education." It is their opinion that, ". . . it may be possible that our schools have weakened themselves by refusing to limit themselves. Indeed they are not unlike certain competing Washington Agencies. They are accepting the functions that our other institutions—church, industry, home, political organization—have appeared to relinquish and by trying to do too much may very well end by doing too little."

Perhaps the most emphatic opposition to work experience has come as a result to the suggestion that it be required for all pupils. It is the considered opinion of many educators that work experience is not a part of general education, but is specialized in its purpose. These teachers and administrators believe that some students who are preparing for advanced work in higher institutions, possibly toward a definite profession, need to devote the time which would be required for work experience to more intensive study in languages, mathematics, science, music, or some other preparatory subject. It is their conviction that it would be just as much a violation of the principle of educational adaptation to individual differences to require all students to engage in work, as it formerly was to require all students to take Latin. Moreover, some students are intensely interested in further cultural training and desire to take more than the normal load by electing advanced work

in languages, science, literature, etc. It is argued that these students would gain more from these experiences than from required work experience.

Some of the opponents of work experience believe that much of the work available for students would not be educative and might actually be miseducative. In many communities the work experiences available are too narrow and too limited to be of value from the standpoint of vocational training and guidance. For example, in the small town or in the residential suburb, the work experiences offered are limited to retail businesses, to garages, and to an occasional small industry. Of course, many farm boys can get agricultural experience, but they are already doing that without any school requirement. The important thing, however, is that many of these youth (around 50 per cent in Iowa) leave their home communities and migrate to urban centers to engage in occupations quite different from those represented in their home towns.

One practical objection to this proposal has developed already in connection with the present limited diversified occupations program. Many schools have found that the success of the program depends upon the capabilities of the students employed. Immature and irresponsible students have caused both employers and school coordinators much difficulty. Frequently employers have refused to continue to cooperate with the school after one or two unhappy experiences with student personnel. Some schools, therefore, have made their program selective, limiting it to superior students. This, of course, defeats the purpose of work experience for all students who are interested in vocational training through this medium. It also raises a very stubborn issue for those who would require such experience for all students.

One answer to this objection would be to provide work experience in and around the school for those students who are not able to assume responsibility for a job in business or industry. At best, however, this would be a synthetic program and would not provide the training and guidance which is claimed as one of the chief values of work experience. It would also result in a considerable additional expense to the school.

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IV. DOES THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM NEED PRUNING?

1. Are Iowa high schools attempting to offer too many courses. Are high schools spreading themselves too thinly?

2. Is there too much duplication and overlapping among high school courses?

3. Can individual pupil differences be met effectively without a wide election of courses?

4. What courses might be eliminated from the high school curriculum in order to strengthen it?

It is frequently charged that the greatest single weakness of the present day high school curriculum is its multiplicity of subjects. Structurally it resembles a large ramshackle hotel which began as a simple two-room cabin and grew one room at a time until it overran the surrounding countryside. A recent research bulletin of the United States Office of Education[1] reports that the total number of subject offerings in high schools in the United States in 1895 was about fifteen. In 1934 the total subject offerings reported after duplications had been eliminated was approximately 206.

Some large high schools are offering as many as 150 separate courses, ranging all the way from classes in maid service to

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[1]Carl A. Jessen and Lester B. Herlihy, *Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects*, 1933-34, United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1938, No. 6.

Cicero. Newburn[1] reports 149 separate courses in a study made of the programs of studies in Iowa high schools. Spears comments in his book, *"The Emerging High School Curriculum,"* that, "The American secondary school has been a sort of snowball that started rolling in 1635 and today contains a bit of everything with which it has come into contact."

One of the first tasks of high school teachers and administrators is to review critically the present offerings of the high school program with a view toward eliminating those courses which have outlived their usefulness. It is essential also to examine carefully the content of all courses for padding and unnecessary duplication.

Accumulation of High School Courses

The present patch-work accumulation of course offerings in the high school program of studies is the result of a haphazard additive process over a period of 300 years. In part, it reflects the growing pains of the American secondary school. The original Latin-grammar school was a college preparatory school for aspiring young ministerial students. Its curriculum was the classical language-centered program of its English sire. As more students with purely secular educational interests demanded admission, additional subjects, such as mathematics, natural philosophy, and history, were added to the program.

The Latin-grammar school soon outlived its usefulness in a rapidly expanding frontier nation. Small merchants, tradesmen, and farmers wanted a school that would train their sons for the practical pursuits of business, farming, and the professions. Demands grew for a secondary school which was more than a preparatory institution. Franklin proposed a school that would not only teach the ornamental languages and arts but would provide training in useful pursuits such as navigation, accounting, agriculture, surveying, writing, and speaking. In 1751 the academy was organized to meet the popular demands for a new type of secondary school.

The academy served as the prevailing type of secondary school for almost a century. But as it became more conservative and narrow in its dotage, the academy, in turn, was re-

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[1]Harry K. Newburn, *The Program of Studies in Iowa High Schools,* University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, Number 432, 1938, p. 26.

placed by the public high school. The first public high school was established in Boston in 1821. The agitation for this type of school came from labor and merchants. Again the demand was for a more practical educational program. The so-called English branches were placed on a par with classical languages, and such subjects as arithmetic, algebra, geometry, astronomy, botany, chemistry, civics, political economy, bookkeeping, and drawing made their appearance in the curriculum of the high school.

From 1890 on, high school enrollments increased rapidly. The school population became increasingly heterogenous, and school faculties were hard pressed to adapt their programs to the divergent interests and abilities of the new volume of students. The easiest and most logical answer seemed to be to add new subjects.

Pressure groups, college entrance requirements, legislative enactments, and a rapidly expanding body of knowledge contributed to the increasing number of courses in the high school program. Labor demanded courses in trades and industries. Girls were admitted to high school, and women's organizations insisted on courses in domestic science, stenography, and handicrafts. Business men wanted more commercial training, and farming interests were successful in securing the passage of legislation providing for the teaching of agriculture.

It is not difficult to retrace our footsteps to see how we acquired the mass of subjects that we now have. Getting rid of any of them, however, is a more difficult "chore."

Advantages and Disadvantages of a Large Number of Course Offerings

It has been said that any time any organization or agency has a favorite project or idea that it wants to "sell" it proposes a new course for the schools. Is it desirable to offer a wide range of special courses in the high school? Certainly this represents one way of training future citizens in conservation, safe driving, fire prevention, first aid, temperance, and many other worthwhile social and civic problems.

At the same time, a large selection of courses permits an adaptation of the school program to the interests and talents of individual students. Some students are interested in languages, others in music, some in aviation, and still others in

bricklaying. If educators subscribe to the principle that the school should meet the needs of individual students, does it not follow that a wide range of course offerings is one of the most practicable methods of meeting that purpose?

It has been argued that a large variety of elective courses has served to keep students in school who otherwise would have lost interest and withdrawn. If universal secondary education is desirable to train youth for democratic citizenship, it is important that the program of the school be made stimulating. One method of making the school interesting is to provide subjects adapted to the special interests and intellectual capacities of students enrolled. Students are interested in those subjects in which they can be successful.

Many objections have been voiced, however, to the tendency of the secondary school to offer courses in everything from trigonometry to sign painting. The most serious objection is one that has been previously suggested; the school is trying to do so many things that it isn't doing anything well. The elective system has been attacked as vicious because it so scatters the interests and energies of students that they do not master those fields which are essential as foundations to self-directed study and to an intelligent assumption of the responsibilities of citizenship.

It is claimed that modern students merely nibble at small samplings of educational food without ever eating a square intellectual meal. The result is that "they know more and more about less and less." The reason that students do not know how to read, to write, and to speak effectively, do not understand the rest of the world, or cannot manage their own checking accounts is that they have failed to spend enough time on basic subjects.

Possible Eliminations

The arguments against the multiplicity of subject offerings unfold beautifully until the question of specific courses to be eliminated is raised. It then becomes convenient to spend some time discussing the international political scene.

Specific proposals have been made to drop all highly specialized vocational courses during the regular four years of high school. Vocational education in the high school would then emphasize vocational guidance and training in general fami-

lies of skills such as shop, agriculture, home economics, and business. It has been proposed also that advanced courses in languages be discontinued in high school along with certain specialized science courses such as botany or physiology, and perhaps some advanced mathematics courses.

It is possible that certain commercial work such as shorthand as well as such courses as advanced public speaking, and advanced languages might be dropped without seriously impairing the general education program of many high schools. There are a number of abortive courses in social studies which need to be examined carefully. Such limited courses as ancient history, medieval history, English history, psychology, and political geography are difficult to justify in a high school program.

Any attempt to eliminate subjects or courses from the school curriculum is extremely difficult because of the subjective nature of the decisions to be made. Before attempting to eliminate a particular course from its curriculum, a local faculty should attempt to agree on certain basic questions or criteria such as the following:

1. Does the course have social value—does it make a real contribution to the general welfare?
2. Does the course support the purposes of secondary education?
3. Is the content of the course suited to the maturity of high school pupils?
4. Does the course have important long-time values?
5. Does the course fit into the continuity of related courses so as to strengthen the student's understanding of a significant field of knowledge?
6. Does the course lend itself to sound teaching procedure?
7. Is pupil interest sufficient to insure an enrollment in the course?
8. Is the course free of propaganda and content designed to serve the selfish interests of special groups?
9. Is the course adapted to adolescent needs?

A study of the value of individual courses in light of a definite set of criteria will be helpful in reducing the subjectivity and prejudices involved in eliminating certain courses from the curriculum.

Possible Combinations

Considerable progress has been made in combining certain specialized courses into general courses more suitable to the maturity and interests of high school students. Botany and zoology have been combined as general biology; government, economics, and sociology as modern problems; American and English literature as world literature, special beginning speech classes with general English, advanced shorthand and typewriting as office practice, etc. Similar combinations in other fields have been or are being worked out.

The development of core programs in some schools is a more extreme answer to this problem of combining courses and eliminating needless duplications. Another possibility is to discontinue such courses as commercial arithmetic, business English, commercial geography, dramatics, consumer science, and debate because of the possibility of this content being given sufficient attention in other courses. These proposals will receive vigorous opposition from special subject teachers, but if we agree that the curriculum is overcrowded, someone must display some courage in attacking the problem.

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V. SHOULD THE WELFARE OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS OR THE WELFARE OF SOCIETY BE THE DOMINANT AIM IN SHAPING THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

1. What are some of the everyday school problems which must be decided in terms of the question of whether the interest of individual students or the interest of the social group should be given first consideration?
2. What are some of the specific curriculum decisions which depend on one's point of view on this issue?
3. What are some of the reasons advanced for the welfare of society as the dominant aim of education in a democracy?
4. What are the important arguments advanced in support of the welfare of the individual as the chief concern of education?

At first glance this may appear to be a synthetic question. What difference does it make as long as the ultimate purpose is the same—to train for democratic citizenship? The individual and society are mutually dependent. One cannot exist without the other. Does it not follow then that whatever is good educationally for the individual is good for society, and, conversely, whatever is good for society is good for the individual? John Dewey[1] insists that there can be no issue between the welfare of the individual and that of society. He writes, "*Social* cannot be opposed in fact or in idea to *individual.* Society *is* individuals-in-their-relations. An individual apart from social relations is a myth . . . or a monstrosity."

Obviously, there is no such thing as social apart from individuals. And individuals apart from social relations are either hermits or social freaks. However, the question of proper emphasis in educational activities designed to serve the special interests of individual students as compared to those designed to serve all students as a part of their training

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[1]William H. Kilpatrick and Others, *The Educational Frontier*, D. Appleton-Century Company, 1933, p. 291.

for citizenship, is very real to school faculties. Its significance to the secondary school is indicated by its inclusion as one of the ten basic issues of secondary education as defined by the Committee on Orientation of the Department of Secondary School Principals.[1] The Committee has rephrased the question as follows: "Shall an individual's narrowly conceived or purely personal interests take precedence over his social responsibilities and jeopardize the welfare of his group?"

While the secondary school has become concerned over this issue only in recent years, actually it has been one of the basic questions of philosophy and education for many centuries. It was one of the popular issues argued by the Greek philosophers. Plato, in outlining his utopian state in *The Republic*, proposed to resolve this question of the individual's place in society by emphasizing the importance of educating each individual to do that for which he has aptitude by nature in such a way as to be useful to others. But Plato submerged the individual in his attempt to classify all individuals into three neatly defined occupational and social groups.

The development of the individual in relation to social progress was of serious concern to the philosophers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Rousseau and other eighteenth century philosophers maintained that education in accord with nature was the hope of organized society. Rousseau wrote in his *Emile*, "Everything is good as it comes from the hand of the author of nature; but everything degenerates in the hands of man." The emphasis here is on the development of the talents of the individual even though the basic interest may have been in social progress.

It is not the purpose of this discussion to attempt a review of any sizeable body of philosophy and literature dealing with the problem of the individual in relation to society. Our purpose is to present the issue, call attention to some of the questions raised by educators in considering its implications for the high school curriculum, and to urge local faculties to think it through in light of their own school programs.

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[1]Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. *Issues of Secondary Education*, Bulletin 59, January, 1936, Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, p. 129.

Importance of the Issue to Curriculum Planning

Perhaps a fundamental conflict between society and the individual cannot exist; nevertheless, many conflicts develop between the special interest of students and the welfare of the entire student body in planning and administering the educational program of a school. The question faced by the small school in deciding whether to offer college preparatory subjects for a few students is illustrative of the special conflicts involved. Most small high schools are limited to few elective subjects by the small number of teachers on their staffs. If special preparatory subjects in fields such as languages and mathematics are provided for the 10 or 15 per cent who go to college, these subjects become virtual requirements for the 85 or 90 per cent who do not go to college.

Conflicts develop also between the special interests of individual students and the program of general citizenship training of the school. Not infrequently students and parents insist that exceptions be made to course requirements such as American history so that an individual student may take special work in some other field. Many schools recognize health and physical fitness as one of their principal objectives and, quite logically, expect all students to participate in this phase of the school program. However, parents sometimes demand that this requirement also be waived so that their sons and daughters may elect courses which appear to be of greater direct value to them in terms of their individual vocational or preparatory interests. The school administrator is then required to decide whether first consideration should be given to the social welfare as represented by the training a student is presumed to get in health and physical education, or whether the special interest of the student should be given precedence.

Social Welfare as the Directing Principle of Education

Aristotle writes, "Virtue bears its finest fruit only in social relations. Consequently, morality comes to its full realization only in the state. In the first place, the community interest, the well-being of the many is a richer and higher good than is the personal and private good of the individual. And even

the personal and private good of the individual is secured only in the corrective agencies of the state."[1]

The Committee on Orientation of the Department of Secondary School Principals supports Brigg's thesis that: "The state maintains free public education to perpetuate itself and to promote its own interests." The Committee holds that the school must place major emphasis on training for social cooperation. If a conflict arises between the interests of the individual and those of the group, then group welfare must be given first consideration.

The Committee on Orientation also emphasizes that since democracy is the strongest controlling idea of our society, it must be understood, accepted, and practiced by all of our young people. Consequently, the school must direct its educational program toward this end. Since democracy is being besieged both from within and without and because of the increasing social responsibilities of government, it is now more essential than ever that the schools aid in developing an informed and intelligent electorate.

It may be argued also that any educational program which permits personal interest to take precedence over social training lacks unity and coherence. It becomes purposeless and actually miseducative rather than educative. Its energies become so badly scattered that it tends to lose its power, and the individual loses rather than gains from his educational experiences.

Individual Welfare as the Aim of Education

The proponents of the welfare and growth of individual students as the focal point of secondary education in a democratic society present some convincing arguments in support of their position. Some of these arguments are as disarming as a "G. I.'s" explanation of why he was caught out-of-bounds.

Perhaps the most persuasive reason advanced for individual emphasis is that society gains as much as does the student from any increase in the individual social competence, personal power, and achievement of the student. If, through intensive training, a boy learns to work with other people, provide competent group leadership, and to be a first class salesman

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[1]Trumbull G. Duvall, *Great Thinkers*, Oxford University Press, 1937, p. 87.

or mechanic, then he is better able to carry his share of the civic and economic load and is more likely to become a stable and responsible citizen. In other words, his specialized achievements make him a positive and contributing member of society, able to establish and maintain his own home and to assume his share of civic responsibilities.

The supporters of an educational program pointed toward individual development contend that an emphasis on social welfare leads to regimentation and to the danger of authoritarian control. It is their conviction that a shift in emphasis from individual to social weakens the qualities of individual responsibility and drive. It is suggested that a major emphasis on social welfare makes the individual weak and easily dominated by unscrupulous politicians.

There is also the possibility that a dominant social emphasis may easily be made a smoke screen for political propaganda. In the hands of self-interested political groups, an educational program dominated by group uniformity may become a vicious tool for perpetuating a particular political group or for advancing special political viewpoints. Under such domination the school would cease to function as a democratic institution.

It is the conviction of those who support the doctrine of training for individual welfare in education that the tradition of America is individualistic. Our country was built by individualists who had special abilities and great courage to pioneer in new ventures. The great American dream has always been a source of inspiration to American youth—a dream that in a democracy a boy has an opportunity to reach the top if he has the ability and is willing to make the effort.

The issue is not an easy one to resolve. There are powerful and conflicting arguments on both sides. It is an issue, however, that must be clarified before secondary education can move ahead toward a well-balanced curriculum designed to train students to work and to live together successfully in a democracy.

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VI. TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM BE SHAPED BY COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS?

1. Do college entrance requirements continue to exercise any considerable influence on high school subject offerings.
2. What percentage of entering ninth grade students graduate from high school? What percentage of these graduates go to college? Is there any evidence that the non-college preparatory students are forced to take college preparatory subjects in your school because of limited offerings?
3. What are the most serious weaknesses of specific accreditation standards as set up by state departments of education and regional accrediting agencies. Are accrediting standards desirable?
4. Do you agree that most college entrance prescriptions constitute a good program of general education?
5. Is the trend toward admission to college upon the basis of a recommendation from the faculty of the graduating high school an improvement over present college entrance requirements?
6. Should high school faculties plan their curricular programs in terms of the probable needs of their students regardless of college entrance requirements?

A growing number of high school and college officials seem inclined to discount the degree of the influence of college entrance requirements upon the high school curriculum. Unquestionably, the past few years have brought greater flexibil-

ity to the entrance requirements prescribed by many colleges. It seems evident also that during this period differences between the college entrance curriculum and the general curriculum of the high school have become less pronounced. Nevertheless, there remain some interesting problems growing out of the relationships of college requirements to high school curricula.

The first secondary schools in America were college preparatory institutions. The curricula of the early secondary schools were fixed by the admission requirements of Harvard College, and college entrance prescriptions have greatly influenced the curriculum of the secondary school since that time. For more than 100 years Latin and Greek were the dominant requirements for college entrance. Gradually, however, the offerings of the college became broader, and with these changes came broader subject requirements for admission to college. Such subjects as mathematics, science, and history gradually found their way onto the list of high school subjects acceptable for college entrance. The report of the college dominated Committee of Ten in 1894 set the pattern for curricular offerings in high schools throughout the country for more than two decades. The rise of accrediting agencies such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the practice of centering the accreditation of high schools in the state university in some states also served to give the secondary school curriculum a strong preparatory flavor.

With the rapid increase in high school enrollments during the past three or four decades, it has become evident that the high schools must give increased attention to suitable programs for those students who do not plan to go to college. College entrance requirements first began to reflect a recognition of the broader functions of the secondary school around 1925. The emphasis on specific subject requirements became less about this time, and greater consideration was given to the capacity, character, and purposes of the student.

Despite the steady move toward greater flexibility in entrance requirements, the curriculum of many secondary schools is still influenced to a considerable extent by college entrance prescriptions. Many colleges and universities continue to require specific courses for entrance. This is especially true

of various divisions in the universities. For example, the College of Engineering or the College of Law may prescribe certain high school credits for admission quite different from those of the College of Arts and Sciences in the same university.

In the small high school, with its limited teaching staff, if one student wishes to qualify for entrance to a certain college, most of the other students in his class are virtually required to take the same subjects. In Iowa, for the 1943-44 school year, the high school of median size enrolled sixty-seven pupils. This means that there were about 450 high schools in the state with enrollments of less than sixty-seven. It is obvious that if these schools attempted to prepare some students for college entrance, most of the others were forced to take the same courses.

Percentage of High School Students Going to College

In 1934, there were 6,455,001 students enrolled in the public and private secondary schools of the United States. About 1,970,000 of these were enrolled in the ninth grade, and about 1,000,000 were enrolled in the twelfth grade.[1] Of these 1,000,000 seniors only 830,000, or 83 per cent, graduated and only 26.5 per cent entered college. It may be seen from these figures that about 50 per cent of the students who enter the ninth grade of high school remain to graduate, and only 13 per cent of these ninth grade students enter college. In some schools, of course, a much larger percentage of graduates enter college, and in others a smaller percentage go on to college. This means that 1,653,000 students, or 87 per cent of those who enter the ninth grade each year, do not go to college. Certainly, then, one of the very important questions facing high school faculties in planning their curricular programs is whether or not the 87 per cent should be expected to follow the same program designed to care for the special needs of the 13 per cent. If this question is answered in the negative, then should not the program of the school be concerned primarily with the needs of the large majority who leave school either before or immediately following graduation and enter directly into out-of-school responsibilities?

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[1]United States Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1933-34", *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, 1932-34, Bulletin, 1935, No. 2.

College Entrance Requirements as General Education

It may be argued that the usual college entrance requirements constitute a well-balanced program of general education and that the issue is not as sharply drawn as some educators would have us believe. For example, one nearby university requires three units of English, three units of social studies, and one unit of mathematics for admission to its college of arts and science.

Why, then, all of the concern about college entrance prescriptions? Surely most programs of general education either for college preparatory students or non-college preparatory students would include at least three years of English and two or three years of social studies. Many colleges, of course, set up more restrictive prescriptions, and there are certain discriminations such as a limit of 6 units in the field of vocational subjects, music, art, etc., which tend to exercise some influence on high school programs.

Some secondary school people maintain, however, that even these minimum prescriptions unduly impede faculties in attempting to develop more effective programs of general education. For example, many colleges recognize algebra but do not recognize general mathematics as being acceptable toward meeting requirements in mathematics, and it is rumored the same college registrars develop symptoms of schizophrenia whenever a high school transcript is presented showing credit for a "core" course.

Another group of secondary school people believe, however, that the college prescriptions in English, science, mathematics, and languages provide a balanced cultural pattern for the high schools to follow. It is their contention that the colleges have rendered the secondary schools a valuable service in making available the opinions of the subject experts on their faculties in defining a program of general education.

Validity of Certain Course Requirements for College Entrance

Extensive research has been made on the relationship of high school preparation to college success. These studies show conclusively that a particular course or a particular pattern of courses followed by a student in high school has little or no demonstrable relationship to his scholastic success in college.

The most extensive study made of the achievement of high school graduates in college is the "Eight Year Study" of the Progressive Education Association. The single most important thing that this study shows is that differences between the academic success in college of students following one pattern of high school courses and those following a quite different pattern are negligible. In this study more than 200 colleges agreed to accept the graduates of the thirty high schools participating in the study without requiring the usual courses prescribed for admission. The graduates of the thirty experimental schools were matched with graduates of high schools requiring the traditional college entrance subjects, and the college academic success of the two groups was then compared. Results of the study show only slight differences between the two groups, and these differences were in favor of the students from the more progressive schools participating in the experiment.

A study made by Hammer[1] at the University of Iowa of the relationship between the amount of work taken in a given field of high school instruction and achievement in continued work in that field and in general college achievement during the freshman year shows that specific high school courses have little influence on college success. Hammer concludes that "The success of a student in college is definitely more dependent upon the personal qualities of the student than it is upon the pattern of subjects he has taken in high school." A rather large number of studies on the prediction of college success have been conducted at the University of Minnesota by Douglass, Williamson, and others.[2] These studies show that in schools admitting students directly from high school, the best single basis for predicting college success is the quality of the total scholarship in the secondary school.

It seems quite evident from the large number of studies available that specific course requirements for college entrance are not justified in terms of the relationship that they have to college success. The recent move on the part of the state

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[1]Mervin L. Hammer, *The Relation of High School Subject Matter Combinations to College Success*, Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of Iowa, 1936.

[2]Committee on Educational Research, *Studies in Higher Education*, Report of the Committee on Educational Research for the Biennium, 1936-38, University of Minnesota, 1939.

supported higher institutions in Iowa and other colleges and universities to discontinue specific entrance requirements and to accept high school graduates upon the basis of a recommendation from high school faculties seems to be strongly supported by the findings of research.

Dual Preparatory and Terminal Function of the High School

This issue, in a broader sense, was first raised by Briggs in his book, *Secondary Education*, and later by the Committee on Orientation of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. In its original form the issue was stated as follows: "Shall secondary education primarily have in mind preparation for advanced studies or be primarily concerned with the value of its own courses regardless of a student's future academic aspirations?" Briggs reports that 84 per cent of 148 professors and administrators expressing an opinion on this issue favored the second alternative. This issue as stated, of course, precludes an expression favoring both alternatives.

Nevertheless, many secondary school administrators and teachers believe that the high school should prepare both for college and for occupations if the facilities of the school permit. If the school is too small to provide instruction for both types of students, then any specialized instruction probably should first consider the needs of the majority.

With the increasing flexibility of college entrance requirements, it has been pointed out by some writers that a well balanced program of general education, designed to prepare all students for effective citizenship, should be the primary consideration in planning the high school curriculum. It is their contention that a broad program of general education is the best program both for the college preparatory student and for the student planning to enter some vocation immediately following high school.

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VII. SHOULD THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL EMPHASIZE THE STUDY OF PAST CULTURES OR THE STUDY OF CONTEMPORARY LIFE?

1. What are the important reasons and factors which have influenced secondary schools to move steadily toward a greater emphasis on the contemporary scene?

2. Is a study of the great thinkers and great books of the past a better foundation for effective citizenship than a study of modern problems and thinking? What are the principal arguments on both sides?

3. Which approach is more effective in challenging the interests of students—a contemporary problems approach or an approach through the study of past cultures?

4. Is it the opinion of your group that the school should, and has time, to give adequate emphasis to both a study of past cultures and of contemporary affairs?

5. In what subject fields might a major emphasis be profitably placed on historical development and a study of the works of great men of the past?

6. In what subject fields might the major emphasis be profitably placed on contemporary affairs and materials?

One of the fundamental issues facing the faculties of secondary schools in planning their curriculum programs is where to place the major emphasis in terms of historical sequence. Should major emphasis be placed on the history, literature, arts, and sciences of past civilizations? Or should the curriculum of the school be directed primarily toward an understanding of modern civilization with its multiplicity of social, economic, political, and technological problems?

If educators agree that a knowledge of the past is the first requirement in training youth for the responsibilities of citizenship, then such courses as ancient and medieval history, classical languages, philosophy, English literature, and the backgrounds of science, the history of art and music will occupy a prominent place in the subject offerings of the high school. If, on the other hand, it is believed that secondary education should seek to aid the student to understand something of modern life, and to find his place in it, then such courses as modern social problems, health, vocations, modern science, and homemaking will occupy the center of the stage in the high school curriculum. Certain it is that there is widespread disagreement on this issue at the present time. The trend during the past thirty or forty years has been toward a greater emphasis on the contemporary scene. This movement has developed as a reaction to the rather narrow language-centered curriculum which characterized our secondary schools until early in the twentieth century. Under the old curriculum, teachers forced Cicero and Shakespeare down the throats of future plumbers and farmers as well as future lawyers and doctors.

Probably the first revolt against the traditional curriculum came from the youngsters. They pointed to the professor of ancient history and said, "It doesn't seem to us that he is any more able as a thinker than old 'Judge' Whitecotton who framed our present state civil service law and who never graduated from high school." And they asked, "Why should we study the conquests of Necho II in Syria and the ways the ancient Egyptians irrigated their lands, when the airplane is revolutionizing modern warfare and the present day farmer has to learn to use a tractor and a combine?"

Values in the Study of Past Cultures

It is the conviction of many educated people that a study of past cultures and an acquaintance with the great thinkers of the past is essential to the education of the individual for effective participation in a democracy. It is their claim that one does not learn to think except through the rigid and logical disciplines of mathematics, philosophy, and languages. They believe that a study of the past educates for the present far more successfully than study of the present itself.

It is argued that the student must know the facts and major movements of history, the works of great writers and thinkers, and the story of man's development if he is to meet successfully the rapidly changing and perplexing problems of contemporary life. One learns to think only if he knows the history of ideas and studies the great thinkers of the past. It is the opinion of this group that the curriculum should be built around the liberal arts tradition; they would emphasize the great books of the past and pursue intensively a relatively few subjects. Walter Lippman writes, "During the past 40 or 50 years those who are responsible for education have progressively removed from the curriculum of studies the Western culture which produced the modern democratic state. The schools and colleges have, therefore, been sending out into the world men who no longer understand the creative principle of the society in which they live. . . . Our civilization cannot effectively be maintained where it still flourishes, or be restored where it has been crushed, without the revival of the central, continuous, and perennial culture of the Western World; therefore, what is now required in the modern educational system is not the expansion of its facilities or the specific reform of its curriculum and administration but a thorough reconsideration of its underlying assumptions and of its purposes. . . ."

The Study of Contemporary Life as a Basis for Citizenship Training

Both the modernists in education and the traditionalists are agreed that the purpose of American education should be to train for democratic citizenship. The modernists maintain, however, that the limited time available and the heterogeneous enrollments of the modern high school do not permit an intensive study of the classics and past cultures.

It is their contention that the high school should seek to serve all youth—that it must recognize that many of these youth are forced to leave school either before or immediately following graduation from high school. It is necessary, therefore, to acquaint them as thoroughly as possible with the makeup of modern society and to assist them in adjusting their social environment through carefully directed first-hand experiences.

The modernists claim that present-day education is unrealistic, that it lags too far behind modern social, political, and economic changes. We barely begin to educate for social adjustments to the automobile age when we are suddenly plunged into the air age. Attention is called to the fact that students are drilled on the happenings, personalities, and dates of Victorian politics while they are ignorant and bewildered by the workings of modern local and national politics. The development of Boys' State by the American Legion and the work of the 4-H clubs illustrate the conviction of large groups of laymen concerning the importance of learning through direct experiences in modern living.

An emphasis on the study of contemporary society in the high school curriculum is defended also on the basis that it may serve to improve society. If young people are made aware of the important strengths and weaknesses of modern life they will be better able to serve society and to make intelligent efforts to improve it.

Need for Study of Both Past Cultures and Contemporary Life

Most secondary schools are now providing a compromise program. Some time is spent on the study of ancient, medieval, and modern history, on English and American Literature, and on the historical development of music, art, and the sciences. Other courses are built around modern social, political, and economic problems, contemporary literature, and modern science.

Objections are raised that a compromise program of this nature must necessarily be sketchy and that the student does not study any one subject or field intensively enough to develop any real understanding. It is charged further that this type of program may actually be vicious since it encourages superficiality and careless thinking. Subject matter specialists claim that there is no royal road to learning and that it

would be much better for a student to study three or four subjects thoroughly than to attempt to sample a large number. It is only through an intensive study of a particular subject field that the student is trained in the disciplines of logical thinking which are necessary for further independent study.

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VIII. SHOULD STUDY OF THE LOCAL COMMUNITY SERVE AS THE CENTER OF EMPHASIS FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

1. Is a curriculum program built around the major institutions and activities of a local community inherently more effective for directing the learning of students than a curriculum organized in terms of traditional subject areas?
2. Is learning any more active or effective in a community-centered curriculum than in any other type of curriculum?
3. Are the advantages claimed for a community-centered curriculum largely limited to rural areas?
4. Is there any evidence that the community-centered curriculum actually enriches the program of the school?
5. Is there a real danger that a community-centered curriculum may result in a narrow and provincial viewpoint upon the part of students?
6. Is there any evidence that a curriculum program based on the local community is likely to neglect important learning skills and subject content?

The usual curriculum pattern is a logical organization, emphasizing the systematic study of established subject fields. For example, the social studies are commonly organized on a chronological basis, beginning with the history of early civilizations and ending with a survey of economics, government, or sociology. Literature is organized by nationalities and by types. Science and mathematics are studied logically, beginning with simple concepts and gradually treating more complex materials. Passing attention is given to the social setting of the curriculum, and social applications are made sporadically.

In the community centered curriculum, the institutions, customs, and culture of the local community serve as the source of materials and as the laboratory for learning experiences. The curriculum may discard subject divisions as such, and develop around a study of the way people live and make a living in the community in which the school is located. This type of curriculum recognizes the student as a citizen of the community and seeks to help him to understand and to adjust to the religious, social, civic, industrial, and family life of the local community. For example, in a rural community considerable emphasis may be placed on the study of farming and homemaking. The boys may operate a school farm or carry out projects on their home farms, and the girls may operate a school cottage, take care of small children in the community, conduct canning and sewing projects and related activities. The science, mathematics, English, and social studies materials for the curriculum grow out of, and become an integral part of the agricultural and homemaking activities of the student. Through club organizations the students participate in the social and recreational life of the community.

The school becomes a community center, and the community becomes the expanded classroom of the school. The school serves to enrich the life of the community and to improve methods of farming and homemaking through the activities and study of the young people in the community. Extension classes, community forums, dramatic activities, etc., are sponsored by the school and grow out of and expand the curriculum of the school.

The applications for a rural community may seem more evident than for an urban center. Nevertheless, the commu-

nity centered curriculum has been developed effectively in some of the most crowded sections of our largest cities. It is a type of curriculum organization that breaks with the usual pattern of the school. Courses, rooms, periods, bells, and packaged learning become unimportant in this type of educational program.

Advantages Claimed for the Community-Centered Curriculum

Several important advantages are claimed for developing the curriculum around a study of the local community. One of the arguments most emphasized is that it results in superior achievement. It is claimed that the purposes of the student in studying first-hand, local businesses, industries, and social groups, are real. If motivation (developing genuine purposes) is the most important element in effective learning as psychologists claim, then the local community should serve admirably to supply that motivation. One of the very difficult problems in teaching in a typical school is to develop purposes with students which become their own. Too much classroom learning is vicarious and results in mere verbalisms. The activity of the learner is limited to whatever mental processes and verbal responses may hopefully be expected to take place within the confines of a classroom. When the school is extended so that the entire community supplements the classroom the student not only learns by reading and talking but by seeing, hearing, feeling, and acting.

Another important advantage of the community as the center of the school curriculum is that it enriches the school offerings. It makes available to the school the varied resources of the entire community—people, business, industry, organizations, places, and things. Many enterprising teachers with a limited knowledge of agriculture have enlisted the aid of local farmers to help them teach a course in agriculture. The local community as a source of curricular materials helps to break down the artificial barriers of subject fields and relates new and pertinent information to the curriculum in a natural setting. The traditional subject offerings of history, civics, English, mathematics, and science are expanded to include social and political problems, newswriting, dramatics, retail selling, accounting, recreation, farming, homemaking, mechanics, and the many other institutions and activities of a local community.

It is argued that the community makes learning functional —that it provides a real laboratory in democratic living. The student lives and studies actual flesh-and-blood relationships. He learns to work by working; he learns to sell groceries by selling groceries; he learns to take part in community business meetings by participating in these meetings. He studies about these things in school and participates in them out of school.

And finally, it is argued that the community gains and the school is strengthened. The community gains from the sense of community pride and cooperation that may be developed from this type of education. Adults in the community are stimulated by the young folk to study their own problems and to think about bigger group problems. Boys as a part of their 4-H clubs build up herds, restore land, plant new types of crops, and start "Dad" to thinking.

Vulnerable Spots in the Community-Centered Curriculum

One of the chief objections to a curricular program built largely around local institutions, local traditions, and local people is that it may develop an extremely provincial viewpoint. So much attention may be centered on local activities that students may fail to recognize the broader social setting of these activities. State, regional, and national institutions and problems may become something unrealistic and remote. Local pride and local prejudices may become so intense that adverse rivalry may spring up with other groups. For example, it is not unknown for rural areas to be so far removed from the problems of the laboring man in the city that intense feelings of group antagonism develop against organized labor and the things for which it stands. The same thing might develop, of course, in reverse. If a community-centered school program were to develop such provincial outlooks, then it would be a genuine disservice to the nation.

The community-centered curriculum may be weak also in that it overlooks the importance of systematic teaching of certain skills and content. It is quite possible in a school program concerned with the many diverse activities of community living to fail to provide for needed drill on English correctness and some important concepts in geometry or physics which may not be brought out in a study of day-by-day

things in local town or farm activities. There is still a place for logical and systematic study in the school.

It may also be argued that more than fifty per cent of the young people who graduate from a local high school will leave their home community and move to another community in which the customs, traditions, and the ways of making a living are quite different. A boy who learns all about raising livestock or mining coal may move to an area where the principal crop is cotton or the chief industry is manufacturing airplanes. A girl born and raised in a Dutch community in which the school program seeks to preserve the history, customs, and mores of the Dutch people may find it extremely difficult to adjust to another type of community.

Another objection to this type of curriculum is that it so scatters the energies of the school that the educational program becomes rather superficial. Students do not develop good study habits and serious intellectual interests. "Learning by doing" is interpreted simply as flexing the muscles and mere "busy work." The fact that some mental activity, other than that required in connection with overt projects, has a place in everyday life is too often overlooked.

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IX. SHOULD RELIGIOUS EDUCATION BE INCLUDED IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

1. What are some of the factors which have influenced the public schools to discontinue religious instruction?

2. What implications does the present public school population have for religious instruction in the schools?

3. Is religious instruction in the public schools consistent with the principle of the separation of church and state?

4. What are some of the reasons advanced in support of teaching religion in the public schools?

5. What are some of the objections raised to religious instruction in the public schools?

6. Do you agree that religious training should be an essential part of character education in the public schools?

Juvenile delinquency has increased at an alarming rate during the war years. In some cities, the number of juvenile arrests increased more than 100 per cent from 1941 to 1943. More than half of the persons arrested in the United States during 1943 were 15 years of age or under. Stories of riots and student mobs have appeared all too frequently in our newspapers in recent months. In some cities teen-age hoodlumism has run rampant to the point that teachers on duty in the schools have been mobbed.

Quite justifiably, public indignation against such wholesale juvenile immorality and crime has reached the boiling point. Agencies responsible for youth training have been asked for an accounting. Parents have been called to task for their negligence, and, in some instances, laws have been passed which provide stiff punishment for parents who fail to accept responsibility for the conduct of their children. As a result of this alarming increase in juvenile delinquency many civic and governmental agencies and organizations have been seriously concerned with finding an intelligent answer.

A return to religious instruction in the public schools has been proposed as one answer to the problem of juvenile crime. Early education in America was primarily religious in function and control. The first secondary schools, the Latin-grammar schools, were organized to prepare boys for college so that

they could study for the pulpit. Most of the instructors in these schools were trained for the ministry. Many of the early academies were founded by church groups and emphasized religious instruction.

With the development of public schools, however, questions were raised concerning the propriety of sectarian and religious instruction in these schools. People of different faiths disagreed over the content of religious instruction and gradually such instruction disappeared from tax-supported schools. Religious instruction, Bible study, and devotional services are now rarely found in the public schools although there has been some revival of such training in the past ten years.

Reasons for the Passing of Religious Training in the Public Schools

One of the important reasons for discontinuing religious instruction in the public schools was the widespread acceptance of the democratic principle of separation of church and state. Many people believed that, since the public schools are secular and supported and controlled by the state, they should not attempt to offer religious training of any type. The principle of religious freedom under Article I of the Amendments to the Constitution of the United States has generally been interpreted to mean that the individual citizen is free to worship as his conscience dictates or not to worship at all if he so chooses. Therefore, legislative bodies and courts have generally held that it would be a violation of this principle to require religious study in the public schools.

Another factor influencing the decline of religious instruction in state supported schools has been the inability of various religious sects to agree on the nature of such instruction. Representatives of various religious faiths have been unable to agree upon a common course of study for religious training in the public schools and have frequently insisted that this instruction should be given by laymen or ministers to small sectarian groups. This problem has been accentuated by the rapid growth of school enrollments and the increasing heterogeneity of student bodies. Representatives of all religious faiths—protestants, Jews, catholics, and Buddhists—are now enrolled in the public schools of the United States.

Smith and McElhinney[1] list four prevailing viewpoints regarding religious training in public schools:

1. "It is appropriate for the state to provide both secular and religious education for all youth." Some protestants believe it is possible to give nonsectarian religious instruction without offense to the conviction of parents in such a way as to protect the interests of all concerned.

2. "All education, both secular and religious, lies within the province of the church." This viewpoint is held by those who wish to send their children to parochial schools. This group does not accept the principle of neutrality in religion upon which the public school system is based.

3. "It is the function of the state to provide a secular education for all its youth; the state should not concern itself with religious instruction but should leave this to the home and church to be given or not as these see fit."

4. "The fourth view is that the state should cooperate with the home and church in furnishing religious instruction." This plan has grown in popularity with the development of classes in religion in schools whereby ministers come to the schools to offer such training or students are excused from school at certain hours to attend classes in the church of their choice.

Reasons Advanced for Religious Instruction in the Schools

One important reason for offering religious training in the schools is the need to stem the growing indifference upon the part of the public toward religion and the accompanying decline in church attendance. The church has found it difficult to meet the many changes in living habits precipitated by modern technology. The automobile, the radio, the movies, Sunday sports, Sunday work, and many other changes in recreational and working habits have tended to take people out of churches. It is argued that if most modern youth are to be reached at all for religious instruction it must be done through the public schools.

That religious instruction is an essential part of character education is another important argument for such training

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[1]H. L. Smith and R. S. McElhinney, "Religious Instruction in Public Schools," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (Monroe, Editor), Macmillan, 1941, pp. 948-951.

in the public schools. Proponents of religious education point to the alarming increase in juvenile delinquency and immorality and insist that it is due in no small degree to an accompanying decline in religious training. It is argued that many youth are unmoral—they do not know the difference between right and wrong. It is argued also that many of our young people have no faith in religious things and consequently, no sense of moral value. Religious instruction, say these supporters, must be given in the public schools if character education is to be made effective.

Another reason advanced for religious training in the public schools is that democracy is built on the concepts of Christianity. Tolerance, individual worth, brotherly love, the rights of others, responsibility for one's neighbor and truth are basic concepts both of Christianity and of democracy.

Objections to Religious Instruction in the Public Schools

In addition to the previously stated argument that it is almost impossible to obtain an agreement among the various religious faiths as to the nature of religious instruction, the objection is raised that such instruction violates the principles of freedom of religion and the separation of church and state. Attention is called to the danger of control of the content of the curriculum of the school by powerful religious groups and the forcing of religious instruction upon children who are not mature enough to discriminate between conflicting religious doctrines.

It is claimed by some critics of religious training in the public schools that there is no demonstrable relationship between character education and religious instruction. These critics argue that moral values and character traits can be developed just as effectively on a strictly secular basis as they can by means of religious training. They maintain that the percentage of children attending church schools who become juvenile delinquents is just as high as is the percentage of those who attend public schools.

Other opponents claim that juvenile delinquency has many causes and that religious training is only one small factor. It is their contention that the problem is one of character education and supervision by the home, the school, the community, and the church. The church should function as a

distinct institution and not force religious training on students through the schools.

It is argued that if religious instruction is forced on students in the schools, it will be ineffective and actually may have a negative effect by developing an antagonistic attitude upon the part of students toward the church. Many denominational colleges have abandoned the "compulsory chapel" because of its ineffectiveness.

Some church people object to religious instruction in the schools on the basis that the school is spreading itself too much. They argue that the church is beginning to adjust to changing conditions and that it is capable of handling religious training on its own. While they welcome the cooperation and support of the public schools, they do not believe that it is the province of the schools to go into the field of religious training.

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X. DOES THE GROWING COMPLEXITY OF NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS REQUIRE MORE EMPHASIS ON SOCIAL STUDIES AND CIVIC TRAINING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

1. What are some of the major implications of emerging world relationships for the secondary school curriculum?
2. Does the increasing complexity of domestic affairs demand a more direct attack on social, economic,

and political developments through the content and activities of the high school curriculum?

3. What are the most glaring weaknesses in our present citizenship training program?
4. Is a greater time allotment and emphasis on the social studies the best answer for a strengthened citizenship program?
5. Is citizenship training largely a matter of teaching students how to think and developing adequate backgrounds, ideals, and attitudes regardless of subject fields?

These words are being written on the eve of one of the most important elections in the history of the United States. Both presidential candidates have wound up their campaigns with the plea that all American citizens exercise their right to vote. Both have emphasized repeatedly throughout the campaign that the crucial task facing this nation is unity in the will to win the war and to help build an enduring peace.

It is probable, however, that many eligible voters will not assume their responsibilities as citizens and exercise their right of franchise. It is probable that many others who do vote will vote not on the basis of an intelligent study of issues but upon the basis of prejudice and trivial personal reasons. It is possible that after the war we may become wearied with international affairs and with the conflicts which are certain to develop as representatives of many nations seek to build a durable peace structure. We may lose sight of the fact that the world is steadily shrinking in its time dimensions, that no spot on earth is more than sixty hours from any other spot, that rocket bombs are just emerging in the closing months of this war, that the radio has made world propaganda a reality, and that social and economic distress in one part of the world must seriously affect the rest of the world.

Reasons Advanced for Greater Emphasis on Citizenship Training

The intelligent citizen of tomorrow's democracy must know and understand these things. He must recognize that the nations of the world are interdependent socially, economically,

and politically. He must understand the impact of modern science and technology on the way people live and upon their relations with each other. He must understand how other people live and how they make a living. He should know something of their culture, of their natural resources, and of their racial heritage. And above all, he must be willing to think and to act about these things.

Tomorrow's citizen must also know and understand something of the complexities of our domestic economy. The United States has been changing steadily from an agricultural nation to an industrial nation. With these changes have come disturbing problems of unemployment, social security, big business, little business, taxation, conservation of natural resources, and the mechanics of government. Many equally disturbing social problems have emerged as challenges to the citizen of today and tomorrow. He must face squarely the issues of racial intolerance, labor relations, housing, juvenile delinquency and many others of equal import.

The training of youth to accept responsibility for the many perplexing problems of citizenship is a task for all of the agencies of society. The school is a supplementary agency. Its function is to strengthen and support the training of youth in the home, in the church, in community groups, and in industry. But as other agencies are called upon to accept increasingly heavy tasks the school must accept greater responsibility for youth training. The curriculum of the school must be flexible and readily adapted to the shifting social scene and to the changing needs and problems of young folk.

Weaknesses in Citizenship Training

Social studies teachers, laymen, and school administrators have long been making a serious study of youth and the problems of training youth for civic competence. One of the apparent weaknesses in the procedure of the school has been its artificiality and lack of carry-over from the school to normal civic relationships. There has been too much verbalism and not enough actual change in behavior and attitudes. Students learn to recite the laws and procedures for voting but refuse to vote when they have the opportunity. The school teaches youngsters that democracy depends upon self-discipline and upon every citizen's doing his part in community enterprises,

but after they get out of school our graduates are unwilling to make personal sacrifices to work on group projects or to do a job for the church, the community chest, or some other community enterprise.

Studies show that youth leaving school possess some facts and generalizations about the structure of government, American history, and our national economy, but they know little about their own community and the way it is organized. They have only a very hazy idea of how political parties function and how they might become active participants in the political life of their own communities.

It is the belief of many of our social studies teachers that the school gives too little time to instruction in social, economic, and political affairs and that the program is sketchy and poorly organized. It is claimed that if students are to possess even a minimum knowledge of the complex social and civic structure of which they are a part, more time and emphasis must be placed on the study of these problems in the school. Social studies teachers and school administrators need to make up their minds concerning the scope and sequence of the social studies program in the secondary school if effective results are to be accomplished.

The secondary school is falling down on the job of citizenship training because it is not making a conscientious effort to develop the ability of students to think rationally. Materials are not organized and developed with students so as to challenge them to think. There is still too much rote learning and too much memorization of rules and formulas. Students should be confronted with problems and given an opportunity to think them through, debate them with other students, and do something about them when a solution is agreed upon. It is claimed that citizenship training in the school is weak because of the gap between the classroom and the life of the community. Students do not learn to participate in cooperative community enterprises because most of their educative experiences are confined to the classroom. Students must learn democratic processes and the responsibilities of citizenship through actual participation in these processes and through the actual acceptance of responsibilities. There isn't anything "wild-eyed" or impractical about a group of students working with a representative group of adults in

their local community to promote forums or to make their neighborhood more attractive. And there can be a lot of citizenship training in the process.

Arguments Against an Extended Citizenship Training Program

There are many educators who insist that as much citizenship training can be accomplished in a class in algebra or literature as in social studies or some special community "stunt." It is their contention that the most effective citizenship training results from teaching students how to think, proper work habits, and proper social attitudes. It is argued that these result concomitantly from the association of pupils with good teachers and from careful work and study in any subject field.

One argument commonly made against proposals to expand the so-called citizenship training program in the secondary school is that it takes time from the traditional academic areas of the curriculum. If more time and attention is given to the social studies and to participation in community activities it means less time for languages, science, mathematics, literature, history, and other "solid" subjects. The greatest weakness of our curriculum now, says the academicians, is its superficiality and lack of opportunity for thorough study of subjects which require rigorous mental application.

It is claimed that proposals for citizenship training and for the social studies field in general are "fuzzy" and that they result in a haphazard sampling of unrelated topics without any real learning. Critics point to such "stunts" as a year spent on the study of the dairy industry or some other narrow segment of the social scene and inquire about the place for systematic study of history, government, and sociology in a curriculum based on such topics.

Attention is called also to the widespread confusion and lack of agreement in the social studies field. Critics ask why greater time allotments should be granted to a field in which the alleged experts cannot agree concerning its scope and sequence.

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XI. DOES THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONSTRUCTIVE AVOCATIONAL INTERESTS AND SKILLS DESERVE GREATER EMPHASIS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAM?

1. Are most high schools now overemphasizing extra-curricular activities and leisure time training?
2. Does it seem probable that our industrial economy will provide fewer working hours for employees in the years ahead?
3. Is it a responsibility of schools to provide systematic training for constructive avocational and recreational pursuits?

Critics of the present day high school maintain that too much time is spent on trivia. These critics point to the tremendous amount of time spent on basketball, football, music, dramatics, clubs, and other extra-curricular activities. They question the value of these activities even for leisure time training. Certainly few adults have an opportunity or are interested in playing basketball and football after they leave school. And while a better case may be made for the carry-over values of music, a considerable part of the music training in school is preparation for contest work and is not designed to develop a well rounded appreciation of music. Granting that these activities are interesting to high school students, say the critics, too much time is taken from the serious purposes of the school, with the result that we are training a generation of playboys and playgirls who do not know how to work and to study.

Meanwhile, educators, industrialists, social scientists, and government officials point to the steady trend toward greater mechanization of industry, agriculture, business, and the home. These authorities warn that the school and the community must take cognizance of the shorter working day and week which is a necessary result of the trend toward mechanization. Figures issued by industry, labor, and the government show clearly that production per man hour has been increasing at the rate of 3 or 4 per cent each year for a period of ten years. The steady replacement of workers by machines is a well-known story. Two proposals to meet the unemployment problem resulting from this trend are to spread employment over a greater number of workers by shortening the working day and week and to provide a public works program to absorb surplus labor. The ideal answer perhaps would be to provide full employment in business and industry by encouraging private enterprise to branch out into new production fields. Granting that this may be the most acceptable solution, we cannot escape the realities of large scale unemployment for the past fifteen years. Even with the possibilities of a post-war boom, the prospects for greater domestic and foreign markets to match our increased production seem uncertain and temporary. Although it seems reasonable to expect a huge consumer demand for many goods and services during the immediate years following the war, this situation will level off after a few years. It seems likely that the average worker will have an unprecedented amount of leisure time on his hands in the years ahead.

It is the belief of many educators and laymen that there is a very real need to educate the American people for constructive use of leisure. Research shows that much of the free time of the American public is now spent in commercial recreation. We want to be entertained. We enjoy watching other people get some strenuous physical exercise, but we want no part of it ourselves. Americans listen to soap operas on the radio and watch our favorite glamour boys and girls perform in the movies, but we don't read books. The books we do read are extremely "fluffy." Few American people follow a constructive avocational pursuit. While gardening has become quite popular during the war, such constructive hobbies as

handcrafts, home mechanics, painting, music, literature, dramatics, and others have a very modest number of enthusiasts.

Responsibility of the School

It seems logical that, if any significant change in the recreational habits and interests of the American people is to be brought about, the secondary school must assume a considerable degree of leadership. Although organized recreational agencies can and are doing an excellent job in many communities, it is difficult for them to contact a sizeable proportion of people whose interests and habits are already set. It is important to attempt to direct the avocational interests of youth before they leave school if any large numbers are to be reached.

The secondary school in many communities is in a position to exercise considerable influence not only on youth in school but on adults. A large number of small communities are unable to support an organized community recreational agency in addition to a school program. If the school assumes leadership in such communities and provides the part-time services of its staff plus building facilities, a sound recreational and avocational program should be possible even in small rural centers.

For example, one of the greatest needs in many small communities is a library. It seems logical that the high school libarary could be expanded so as to serve the entire community at a considerably smaller cost than would be required to build and maintain a separate public library. At the same time, the value of the library for school purposes would be enhanced because of additional support from special community funds. The same thing would be true for such joint community-school projects as forums, little theatres, musical activities, handiwork classes, adult sports programs, etc.

Type of Training in Schools Debatable

Should the school provide systematic training for avocational pursuits or should it emphasize play activities? Should the school provide avocational training for adults as well as for youths? Should special classes be organized in recreational

activities or should these be developed as a part of established subject fields?

Perhaps the first question in considering the problem of avocational training in the schools is whether such training is needed at all. Even though it is agreed that future workers are likely to have more free time, might it not be wiser for the school to go ahead with its regular program and not attempt to meddle with the way people spend their leisure?

Schools have provided leisure time activities such as parties, dances, athletics, music, dramatics, and hobby clubs over a period of three or four decades. While these activities are aimed primarily to satisfy the immediate recreational interests of adolescents, some of them have direct and concomitant carry-over values for adult life. It is objected, however, that many of the present high school extra-curricular activities are not constructive and that they are organized primarily to provide a pleasant way of passing some idle hours. It is the conviction of some students of sociology and education that we should direct a part of our educational program toward training youth and adults to enjoy creative avocational experiences.

Attention is called to the possibilities in community theatres, out-of-school musical groups, gardening, photography, home workshops, art and handicraft work, reading, forums, and similar activities which have more than a passing value. We need to regain the pride of the artisan in doing creative work with his hands. We need to develop a greater interest in active participation in sports. Hiking, golf, tennis, swimming, hunting, and fishing should be encouraged. They would be better than sitting passively through an afternoon to watch somebody else play baseball, basketball, or football.

It has been proposed that such recreational and avocational training should be provided through the school for adults as well as for youth in school. The school should become a community center for recreation and constructive avocational training for all persons who may be interested. It is argued that this is the only practical and effective way of meeting the rapidly developing problem of what to do with our increased leisure time. In many communities, of course, other agencies are already functioning, and the school would be expected to

coordinate its program with these organizations through a joint council.

Some educators question the need for special classes or additional training programs to meet the problem of leisure time activities. It is their contention that schools can handle this problem in regular classes in music, art, general shop, literature, and physical education. It is their belief that the organization of additional classes and activities would merely serve to further dilute the program of the school. This argument, however, does not answer the need for adult training. Neither does it consider the inertia in present curricular content and the feeling upon the part of many teachers that their courses are already over-crowded.

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XII. HAS THE WAR DEMONSTRATED A NEED FOR GREATER EMPHASIS ON MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

1. Is there evidence that high school graduates who entered the army and navy were poorly prepared in mathematics and science?
2. What type of training in mathematics and science for most enlisted men did the army and navy want?
3. What are the principal reasons advanced for more science and mathematics in the post-war high school curriculum?

4. What relative emphasis should be placed on mathematics and science in the secondary school curriculum after the war?

The war has focused critical attention on several phases of the high school curriculum. Rejections of men by the armed services because of physical defects or illiteracy have raised serious questions concerning the effectiveness of the school program in teaching physical education and tool subjects. The need for trained specialists in such fields as radio, aeronautics, motor mechanics, etc., has resulted in demands for more technical training in the high schools. Because of the great need for men with good backgrounds in science and mathematics and a long time trend toward decreased high school requirements and enrollments in these fields, army and navy officials have been rather pointed in their criticism of the high schools for failing to insist on more work in these areas.

Admiral Chester W. Nimitz,[1] in a letter to Professor Bredvold of the University of Michigan Committee on Military Affairs, states, "A carefully prepared selective examination was given to 4,200 entering freshmen at 27 of the leading universities and colleges of the United States. Sixty-eight per cent of the men taking this examination were unable to pass the arithmetical reasoning test. Sixty-two per cent failed the whole test, which included also arithmetic combinations, vocabulary, and spatial relations. The majority of failures were not merely borderline, but were far below passing grade. Of the 4,200 entering freshmen who wished to enter the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps, only 10 per cent had already taken elementary trigonometry in the high schools from which they had graduated. Only 23 per cent of the 4,200 had taken more than one and a half years of mathematics in high school."

Similar statements have been made by army and navy representatives concerning the need for more training in science for boys who were entering the armed services. Military men have particularly emphasized the need for a basic course in high school physics as a background for many types of military service. This need has also been expressed by school

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1 "The Importance of Mathematics in the War Effort," Reprint of a letter in *The Mathematics Teacher*, February, 1942.

administrators and science teachers. The report of the Co-operative Committee on Science Teaching[1] states, "The technical developments during the past fifty years in the fields of transportation and communication, such as the new electronic devices in the field of radio, have everywhere stimulated progress in the field of physics on an unprecedented scale. Despite these scientific developments there has been a steady decline over a number of years in the teaching of high school physics."

Thse statements indicate that many men entering the armed services in the early months of the war lacked the fundamental training in mathematics and science that the officers and instructors in charge of their training felt they should have. One of the important responsibilities of high school teachers concerned with a long-time program for mathematics and science in the high school curriculum is to examine the needs of the armed services in these areas and to compare these needs with peacetime objectives in order to plan an intelligent program for the postwar high school.

Types of Training in Science and Mathematics Needed for the Armed Services

An examination of proposals by various committees for wartime adaptations in teaching mathematics and science to serve the requirements of the armed services shows that most of the proposals follow the general outline of courses ordinarily offered in secondary schools. A few special courses for a limited number of students have been proposed, but outside of such courses as pre-flight aeronautics, fundamentals of electricity, refresher mathematics, etc., regular high school courses and sequences in science and mathematics have been recommended. The principal difference between the wartime and pre-war programs is the recommendation that more boys be required to take work in these fields.

In mathematics, both military officers and civilian educators seem more or less agreed that the greatest need for most men is more thorough training in arithmetical processes. For

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[1]"High School Science and Mathematics in Relation to the Manpower Problem," A Report of the Cooperative Committee on Science Teaching, Reprint from *School Science and Mathematics*, February, 1943, p. 130.

example, the Cooperative Committee on Mathematics and Science[1] recommends for students with less than average mathematical ability a course in which, "The main goal of the course is to insure growth in the fundamentals of arithmetic." This Committee[2] in summary states, "In mathematics the college preparatory sequence of advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry should be taught to a small proportion of students. A new course should be specially designed to teach the mathematics necessary for technical jobs held by enlisted men in the armed forces. This should be a kind of advanced general mathematics. Finally, a refresher or review course in arithmetic might be taught to boys in their last semester of high school if they fall below a certain standard on an arithmetic screening test."

A survey of nearly 200 army officers made in an effort to secure a list of essential mathematical concepts for the minimum needs of the army reveals that[3], "The mathematical needs of enlisted men in their basic training are largely arithmetical, with but the simplest phases of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry."

The proposals for pre-induction training in science also show that the usual high school courses include much of the content desired by the armed forces. A few special wartime courses in science have been developed, but with the exception of such technical courses as *Fundamentals of Radio*, the normal high school courses in physics and chemistry appear to meet the need of the armed services.

The most pressing problems from the viewpoint of the army and navy seem to be to get the high schools to enroll more boys in science and mathematics courses and to do a more effective job of teaching the courses normally offered. The military recognizes that not all boys have the interest and ability to profit from advanced work in science and mathematics, and they have recommended through various committees that high schools develop an effective guidance program for directing capable boys into advanced work in these

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1Ibid, p. 146.

2Ibid, p. 153.

3"Essential Mathematics for Minimum Army Needs, Report of a Committee Working with the Cooperation of the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch of the Army Service Forces and the United States Office of Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, October, 1943.

fields. Boys who do not have an aptitude or interest in mathematics and science should be expected, however, to know the fundamentals of mathematics and elementary science.

Reasons Advanced for More Science and Mathematics

The most frequent argument for increased emphasis on mathematics and science in the postwar high school curriculum is that we were caught short at the beginning of this war. Such statements as those made by Admiral Nimitz and officers of the War Department are cited to show the lack of essential training in these fields. Mathematics and science are the tool subjects in modern warfare and we cannot afford again to be caught unprepared.

The rapid development of technology and the need for the average person to understand something of the scientific age in which he lives is one of the most effective arguments for greater emphasis on mathematics and science in the general program of the high school. In a world in which the airplane, rockets, television, radar, synthetic chemical products, penicillin, and air conditioning are to play a big part in our everyday lives, the intelligent citizen of tomorrow must possess a thorough background in mathematics and science.

The decreased offerings and enrollments in high school science and mathematics are pointed out as glaring inconsistencies in modern education. In an age of science and in a world in which our national safety and freedom depend upon technology, it is argued that these enrollment trends should be reversed. The faculties of our secondary schools must offer more courses and encourage larger enrollments in science and mathematics if the school is to meet its obligations to modern society.

The old mental discipline argument has been revived also during the press of war preparation. Again it is claimed by some champions of science and mathematics that these subjects possess unique powers for training the mind to think logically and clearly. These arguments are supported purely by personal opinion, however, and ignore numerous research studies to the contrary.

Place of Mathematics and Science in the Curriculum of the High School After the War

The emphasis to be placed on the study of science and mathematics in the secondary school program must be determined in terms of the over-all purposes of the secondary school. These purposes, in turn, must be formulated to meet the requirements of society and the interests and type of training needed by high school students. If the program of the secondary school must place greater emphasis on general education, upon training in the basic skills, civic competence, work expe-rience, health and physical education, and constructive avocational activities, then there is little room for a more intensive and expanded program in science and mathematics.

Much of the decrease in offerings and registrations in science and mathematics during the three decades preceding the war was due to the feeling upon the part of laymen, educators, and students that these courses were not serving a real need. The content in both fields was highly specialized and designed largely as preparation for further study within the field rather than to assist youth in adjusting to a kaleidoscopic and scientific world.

It is the opinion of many educators and laymen that science and mathematics must occupy an important place in the high school curriculum. But they believe that before greater time allotments are given to these fields they should be carefully reorganized so as to effect an economy of time and to ser e important social needs. Attention is called to reports of special wartime committees in which the need in computational skills and rather simple mathematical concepts is emphasized for a large majority of youth. Much of the content in mathematics emphasized by the armed forces is the same as that proposed by such organizations as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics as a base course in general mathematics for civilian life.

A study of wartime requirements in science indicates a demand for training in elementary physics. Whether or not physics should be the basic course in science in peacetime is debatable. Before the war, trends in high school science enrollments showed a distinct swing toward general science, general biology, and combined physical sciences. Problems in health, conservation, consumer science, nutrition, homemak-

ing, as well as generalizations concerning the nature and structure of matter and the harnessing of nature were emphasized. Whether these courses should be replaced by a systematic preparatory course in physics as the most adequate type of training is one of the difficult problems facing high school faculties.

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PART II

Other Issues on the Content and Direction of the Secondary School Curriculum

Other problems and questions relating to *what* the high schools should teach are as important as the ones discussed in the preceding section. It was the opinion of the committee, however, that the first twelve issues were more fundamental than some of the issues presented in this section. This manual serves primarily to raise issues for consideration of local faculties. Each faculty group should select issues for study and discussion which they feel are fundamental and of interest to their school.

XIII. HAS THE WAR DEMONSTRATED A NEED FOR IMPROVING THE HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

1. What is the present status of health and physical education programs in Iowa High Schools?
2. What has been the percentage of men rejected by the armed services for ill health or physical defects? What has been the percentage in Iowa? How have these percentages varied with shifting standards of the armed services depending upon the need for men?
3. What percentage of these disabilities might have been prevented or corrected through a good health and physical education program in the schools?
4. What constitutes a good health and physical education program? Is competitive athletics an acceptable substitute? Compare the amount of money spent on athletics and on physical education.
5. What are some reasons opposed to the expansion and improvement of the health and physical education program in high schools?

XIV. IS THERE A NEED FOR MORE EMPHASIS ON LANGUAGES IN THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL?

1. What are the important trends in offerings and methods and the present status of foreign language instruction in the American high school?
2. Does the changing international scene require that the average American citizen study more languages?
3. Should the high school require all students to study at least one foreign language?
4. What are the important arguments against more emphasis on language instruction in the high school? Why have languages lost enrollments?

5. What are some significant reasons for greater emphasis on languages in the American high school? Should this emphasis be on classical or modern languages?

XV. ARE THE FINE ARTS (MUSIC, ART, AND DRAMATICS) BEING NEGLECTED IN THE CURRICULUM OF IOWA SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

1. What percentage of Iowa schools are offering work in the fine arts? What percentage of students are enrolled in these courses?
2. Do the fine arts belong in a program of general education?
3. What is the case for requiring all high school students to take some work in the fine arts?
4. Are the fine arts "frills"? Is the curriculum too crowded to include any expansion of the fine arts program?

XVI. SHOULD THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL GROW OUT OF THE INTERESTS OF YOUTH OR SHOULD IT PREPARE FOR ADULT LIVING?

1. What is meant by a curriculum program which is developed around the interests of youth? What are some of the important common interests of youth?
2. Do the common interests of youth conflict with needs for adult living?
3. Does the present high school curriculum adequately recognize either youth interests or adult needs?
4. What are the values and limitations of a curriculum which is directed largely toward preparation for adult living?

XVII. SHOULD THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SEEK TO IMPROVE SOCIETY OR SEEK MERELY TO ADJUST YOUTH TO EXISTING SOCIETY?

1. If it is the business of the school to improve society, who should be responsible for setting the social objectives of the educational program?
2. Is it possible to plan a desirable social pattern sufficiently far ahead to develop an educational program which seeks to achieve that pattern?
3. Is an educational program designed to remake our society antithetical to American constitutional democracy?
4. If the school refuses to attempt to improve the existing social order, then how can society intelligently seek self government?

XVIII. SHOULD GUIDANCE BE ORGANIZED AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM OR AS A SEPARATE SERVICE?

1. What is guidance? Is guidance as broad as education itself?
2. Are there distinctive educational services which are now commonly regarded as guidance which have been, and are likely to be, overlooked unless special provisions are made for them?
3. Is guidance as a separate division in the secondary school program likely to become theoretical and too far removed from other phases of the program?
4. What part must the classroom teacher play in an effective guidance program?
5. How may guidance supplement and enrich the content and procedure of classroom activities? How may the reverse be effected?
6. What are some of the important weaknesses of guidance programs as they have been attempted in various schools?

CHAPTER III

ISSUES CONCERNING ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The effectiveness of a school in the education of youth is conditioned quite largely by what takes place in the classrooms, libraries, playing fields, and laboratories. What happens in these centers of learning is affected, however, by the philosophy adhered to by those who determine school policies and by the organizational and administrative setup. The administration of a school may help or hinder the school in performing its function of educating youth so that they may live worthwhile lives.

We are living in a swiftly changing social order. Our youth must be able to accommodate themselves to these changes, and to live under new conditions. *What we teach* and *how we teach* must change also, else our youth will not secure the educational training and experience which they need. The failure of the school to keep attuned to the times, the lag between what is taught in the school and what goes on in life outside the school frequently grows out of ineffective administration rather than inefficient teaching.

If in this age of internal combustion engines we fail to learn in school about the management and care of a gasoline power plant, the failure is due as much to faulty leadership as to faulty teaching. If in an urban environment we are not taught how to solve problems connected with sanitation and public health, the fault again lies as much with the administrator as with the teacher.

This section has to do with questions that are primarily administrative in nature. The following questions are suggested to serve as possible starting points for a discussion of problems connected with the organization and administration of the secondary school curriculum. There is no thought of attempting to limit the discussion to these particular items. These items will have served the purpose for which they were formulated if they provoke a discussion which leads out into other areas.

I. SHOULD CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT GROW OUT OF THE COOPERATIVE PLANNING OF FACULTIES, STUDENTS, AND LAYMEN RATHER THAN FROM THE PRONOUNCEMENTS OF SPECIALISTS?

1. What values may be expected to result from teacher cooperation in curriculum planning?
2. What are some of the practical problems of teacher cooperation in curriculum planning?
3. What are the important advantages of curriculum planning by specialists? Disadvantages?
4. Is there a workable solution for this problem for the typical high school?
5. Can the American public be made better acquainted and more concerned with the education of our youth through participation in curriculum planning?
6. Is pupil participation in curriculum planning likely to result in more thorough understanding and better adaptation to pupil interests?

The purpose of curriculum planning is to provide effective educational experiences for pupils. Curriculum planning should direct the learning experiences which take place in the classroom, on the playing field, and in the laboratories of the school toward carefully conceived educational goals. Any curriculum planning which does not result in more effective learning experiences is so much waste motion.

Values of Cooperative Curriculum Planning

It is the belief of many teachers and students of curriculum development that the cooperative participation of teachers in curriculum planning enhances to a considerable extent the effectiveness of the educational program. It is their opinion that unless the teacher actually takes part in planning the curriculum, he will fail to understand fully its philosophy and its provisions for implementation. A teacher who has thought through, with a group of other teachers, the purposes of a course in "Problems of Democracy" is likely to make a better

interpretation of these purposes in his teaching than a teacher who attempts to take them over as something pre-fabricated. For example, the writer has observed a teacher attempting to teach a "Problems of Democracy" course upon the basis of materials in a single textbook which was seven years old. Courses in modern problems or problems of democracy were developed in order to keep pace with the rapidly changing political, economic, and social scene. To attempt to rely completely upon a seven-year old textbook for materials in a course of this type shows a complete lack of understanding upon the part of the teacher of the purposes of the course.

Cooperative curriculum planning upon the part of classroom teachers also provides a valuable means of in-service training. If it does nothing else, the experience gained in checking through reference materials for bibliographies is valuable training for the teacher. In addition, the exchange of experiences and successful teaching procedures and aids with other teachers should prove stimulating and extremely helpful. In the final analysis, the teacher is responsible for directing many of the learning experiences of youth, and any procedure which contributes to his growth is making a valuable contribution to the improvement of the curriculum.

Difficulties in Cooperative Planning

In most high schools teacher participation in curriculum planning would not be without some troubles. In the first place curriculum planning takes time, and teachers in small and medium sized high schools are usually heavily loaded. A teacher who teaches five classes of English and social studies per day, supervises two study halls, has noon-hour duty, and coaches two or three plays during the year is busy. He has his leisure time well provided for in grading papers, making daily preparation and selling tickets at basketball games. To expect this teacher to spend any great amount of time in curriculum planning is unrealistic thinking.

Another problem which will be met in any effort to secure teacher participation in curriculum planning is the lack of adequate library facilities in the typical high school. Constructive curriculum development requires access to professional books and periodicals, to testing materials, and to suitable pupil references. It also requires access to visual

and other teaching aid. Many high schools are not located near a library or teacher training institution which may have these facilities and cannot afford to provide them in their own schools.

Problems of inadequate professional leadership, the lack of experienced teachers on local staffs in small communities, community opposition or indifference, and similar obstacles must be taken into consideration in weighing the merits of cooperative curriculum planning. Such planning takes a lot of time in debating issues and in resolving differences in individual viewpoints. Clashes in personality develop to harass local committees as do editorial and other technical problems. There are answers to these problems, however, and the values of cooperative planning more than compensate for the difficulties met.

Advantages of Curriculum Planning by Specialists

One of the answers to the dilemma of the small high school is to turn the business of curriculum planning over to the specialist. As a matter of fact that is what most high schools are doing. Many high schools limit their curriculum planning to an agreement on courses to be offered and to the adoption of suitable textbooks for the courses to be included. It isn't good, but it is about all that they can do under the circumstances. Many other schools borrow courses of study prepared by larger systems or follow various state syllabi.

Textbook authors and curriculum specialists in large systems have the benefit of experience, training, research facilities, and libraries. They usually are in systems where they are free to do some experimenting. They have had time to think about curriculum problems, to visit other schools and to exchange ideas with other teachers. Why not use the results of their experiences then in the small or medium sized school?

A curriculum specialist, employed by a local school, usually is able to develop curriculum materials much more quickly than could a committee of teachers. Turning the job over to a specialist eliminates the loss of time in educating committee members, debating minor or extraneous issues, editing contributions of individual members and the many other time-consuming jobs which beset a local committee.

The expert usually knows his subject field better than the

average teacher and has had wider teaching experiences. His business is to keep abreast of the times and to know research and recent developments in curriculum construction. Why not capitalize on his superior equipment?

Limitations of Specialists

Planning by specialists, however, has some important disadvantages. Perhaps the most serious one is the fact that the specialist usually does not know the local community and the local students. His proposals are prepared for a theoretical school situation and may not be well adapted to a particular school. The references and procedures planned for a course in American history to be used in a high school in a small university suburb would need considerable modification if used in a metropolitan school in which most of the students are from foreign born homes and do not have good educational backgrounds.

Other limitations of planning by specialists are lack of familiarity with library and instructional facilities in local schools, a tendency to be too theoretical, failure of teachers to understand the purposes of the specialist, and the resistance of teachers to something imposed upon them.

Some Ways Out

Any issue has a number of conflicting arguments or it would not be an issue. There are ways out of the apparent dilemma posed by the preceding conflicting viewpoints. One answer is the summer workshop for teachers. Here teachers are not rushed for time, can plan materials for their own schools, have the benefit of university and college libraries, and can work closely with consultants who are specialists in various fields. More and more local schools are recognizing the values of the workshop, and many are defraying a part of the teacher's expenses.

The county or state curriculum development program which employs study meetings as well as cooperative production procedures is another answer. Local schools can pool their resources under this type of curriculum planning and can secure specialists to consult with them in developing materials for classroom use. The membership of teachers from schools

of different types on advisory committees insures a workable adaptation to local community needs and conditions.

Other procedures such as bringing specialists in to the local school to advise and direct the work of teacher committees, extension class work through nearby teacher training institutions, and inter-school planning have been tried successfully.

Participation of Laymen and Pupils

Most communities have laymen who can make valuable suggestions to the schools in planning the large outline of the curriculum program. They are far enough away from the details of the classroom to evaluate the effectiveness of general objectives and procedures. Advisory committees made up of laymen and teachers have performed valuable service in curriculum planning in a number of communities.

The extent of pupil planning desirable is debatable. Some theorists have proposed that no pre-determined curriculum materials be imposed upon pupils. They insist that planning should be a joint teacher-pupil enterprise in the classroom. Certainly there is a need to obtain and to consider seriously the reactions of pupils to the curriculum of the school. A workable procedure seems to be to secure pupil suggestions in the day-by-day operation of the curriculum as it has been planned in its general outline by faculties, specialists, and laymen. Modifications and improvements can then be made by individual classroom teachers as a result of the give-and-take between teacher and pupil.

If an educational program is to be successful, it must be planned before it is put into operation.[1] The program should be planned by those who are going to be affected by it. The three groups who are going to be affected are the laymen, the teachers, and the students. As these three groups work together in constructing or revising the course of study, they will become alert to new needs, to ways of fulfilling these needs and to the existence of persons who wish to cooperate in fulfilling them.

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II. SHOULD CURRICULUM MAKING BE AN OCCASIONAL OR A CONTINUING PROCESS?

1. What is a workable definition of curriculum making?
2. Should the curriculum be kept abreast of the times in a rapidly changing social order?
3. What are some of the glaring lags in the present curriculum?
4. What can local faculties do to keep the curriculum up to date?
5. Should provision be made for systematic, continuous, and intensive research looking toward the development of more effective methods and materials of instruction for the secondary schools of Iowa?

If the curriculum of the school is defined as all of the educative experiences in which students engage under the direction of the school, its nature and scope necessarily will be continuously changing. Even though the course offerings of a school remain relatively fixed, changes in pupil personnel, textbook materials, and teaching personnel force changes in the curriculum. The educative experiences of youth in activities outside of the classroom are constantly changing. The inventiveness and drive of youth insure such change regardless of how traditional the organization of the school may be.

The basic question raised in this issue is not whether the curriculum will change but whether this change should be given thoughtful direction by educators in order that the program of the school may keep pace with the changes in society and with developments in the psychology of learning and in techniques of teaching. Curriculum making implies planned changes in the educational program of the school. It means the development of new curriculum content and teaching procedures pointing toward definite educational goals.

Curriculum Lags

Those who believe that curriculum making must be a continuous process call attention to the fact that almost every decade between 1890 and 1930 witnessed a doubling of the enrollment in our secondary schools. No other nation has enrolled as large a proportion of its boys and girls of secondary school age in its secondary schools. In 1940 approximately two thirds of American youth from 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in a high school. Changes in our secondary school curriculum have not kept pace with these changes in pupil population. These youth come from every walk of society and with every possible expectation in so far as future careers are concerned. The curriculum which was possibly adequate when high school pupils were few in number and highly selected does not now meet the needs of the great majority of youth enrolled in our secondary schools.

The proponents of continuous curriculum making also call attention to the lag of the educational program of the school behind social needs. Curriculum change is not keeping pace with social change. In a society that is becoming steadily urbanized and mechanized, with fewer and fewer opportunities for youth to learn to work and to accept responsibility at home it seems incredible that most schools have made little effort to provide such educative experiences for any sizeable proportion of their students. With an increasing need for intelligent citizens of these United States who can understand the languages and customs of other nations, it is indeed strange that high schools should continue to emphasize Latin rather than modern languages. The assumption that Latin is required for an understanding of modern languages has been refuted repeatedly.

Many schools in Iowa are offering only a minimum number

of courses in the area of social studies. Typical offerings are one year of world history, one year of American history and one semester each of American government and economics.[1] Few schools are attempting to develop even a superficial acquaintance with the pressing problems of international relations facing this nation. Even such persistent domestic problems as unemployment, social security, taxation, education, and federal-local relationships are receiving only passing attention in many of our high schools. And the relationships of the individual student to the real and living institutions of his local community are neglected almost entirely in many schools. The radio, the airplane, and the motion picture are a part of the American social scene; nevertheless, they have had little influence to date on the program of the school.

Importance of Stability in the Curriculum

Busy teachers working in the classroom six hours each day, correcting papers and planning lessons each night, and sponsoring extra-curricular activities in between times, may well be apprehensive and confused by the shouting of theorists for continuous curriculum making. What do they mean? Are they suggesting that we no sooner get a course or a program put together than we tear it apart and begin all over again? There are practical limits of time and energy to be considered. Curriculum materials need to be tried out, refined, and improved, but not kept in a constant state of turmoil and confusion. Change merely for the sake of change has no virtue.

Teachers of experience have become wearied with quick-change curriculum artists. Granting that education must move ahead with the social scene, and granting that teaching procedures must be altered as modern psychology is able to tell us more about the learning process, yet there is virtue in continuity and in careful deliberation. Secondary education has suffered many curriculum fads in the past few decades. Some of them have met a genuine need and have stayed; others have been quickly discarded. Special consumer courses, safe driving, conservation, aeronautics, salesmanship, maid service, general language, household mathematics, personal grooming, and many other courses have crossed the educa-

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[1]Harry K. Newburn, *The Program of Studies in Iowa High Schools*, University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, Number 432, 1938.

tional scene in the last few years. So have the project method, problem method, contract method, Dalton plan, Winnetka plan, and Morrison plan. Since 1930 theorists have proclaimed, and some schools have experimented with, the correlated curriculum, integration, fusion, core programs, and the experience curriculum. Perhaps each of these experiments has made a contribution to education. Nevertheless, the transitory nature of many of them contains a note of warning against superficiality in curriculum planning.

What Can Local Faculties Do?

Local faculties can do much to keep their curriculum program abreast of changes in pupil population, social needs, and educational theory. Individual teachers can join national and state organizations which publish yearbooks and periodicals in their fields. Such organizations as the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Council of the Social Studies, and other N. E. A. organizations are developing much valuable material for the classroom teacher. The summer workshop is another excellent opportunity for the individual teacher to keep abreast with educational trends. The local or county curriculum committee and other study groups may also prove to be very helpful. Experimenting and planning with pupils and laymen should prove stimulating if done sanely and with definite purposes in mind.

Need for Continuous Curriculum Research

Education is science to the extent that it uses the methods of science. Certainly there is no greater need for a scientific attack on educational problems than in the field of the curriculum. Provisions should be made for systematic and continuous research on curriculum problems both at the state and local levels.

From the Regents Inquiry of the State of New York comes the recommendation that the Regents, "provide for systematic, continuous, and intensive research looking toward the development of more effective methods and materials of teaching. The Department may accomplish its best results not by directing and ruling, but by helping the people of the state to see what needs to be done and how to do it."[1]

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[1]Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, McGraw-Hill, 1938.

John K. and Margaret A. Norton[1] indicate: "There exist research studies which should not be ignored by those who draft modern courses of study. In the following six areas there exist research findings which have a bearing on curriculum revision:

"1. Surveys of present conditions in education and society.

"2. Determination of general educational objectives and the objectives of each school subject.

"3. Selection of curriculum content on more or less objective bases.

"4. Discovery of students' interests and of methods of teaching by which they learn most easily.

"5. Development of various types of standardized tests.

"6. Analyses of textbooks.

"Every scientifically-minded person is anxious to get all the factual data available that will assist him in determining what are the desirable courses of action."

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[1]John K. and Margaret A. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Building*, Ginn and Company, 1936, pp. 92-111.

III. SHOULD THE CURRICULUM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROVIDE FOR ACCELERATION?

1. Ought it to be possible for capable students to complete the high school program in less than the usual time allotment?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of acceleration in high school?
3. Should acceleration in high school be continued after the war?

The emphasis upon acceleration during the war has focused new attention on an old educational problem. The demand for wartime acceleration on the part of parents whose sons would soon be called to service is understandable. These parents wanted their sons to complete as much of their education as possible before entering the armed forces. They were afraid that these boys might not want to return to high school when they came home as matured men. Parents felt that the completion of high school work might qualify their sons for promotion in the armed services and for special types of service for which they were fitted.

Some parents wanted their sons to complete a year or two of college before they were called into the army or navy. They believed that if these boys got started in college they would be more likely to return to the campus after the war. Others believed that more intensive and specialized education might better discipline boys for the rigors of military life and help them to meet the exigencies of combat more effectively. These demands are both a criticism and a praise of secondary education. They are a criticism of the lockstep, time-counting organization of the school program. They are praise of the value of education and further testimony of America's faith in education.

Acceleration of Capable Students

The acceleration of capable students is not a new experience in the American high school. Many schools have not only permitted, but have encouraged superior students to finish high school in less than the usual four years. However, this has usually been accomplished by the student's taking

additional courses each year and thereby accumulating additional credits. There has been little cutting down of actual credits required for graduation or few provisions for acceleration within courses.

A few schools have experimented with programs which permitted students to progress within courses at their own rate. Modifications of the contract plan, Dalton plan, and Morrison mastery technique have been attempted, permitting students to complete the work of certain courses in less than the usual time and to receive credit upon the basis of a satisfactory showing on course examination. The University of Chicago and other institutions of college grade have provided such programs for more than a decade.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Acceleration

Opinion among educators differs sharply as to the merits of acceleration at the high school level. One of the principal advantages claimed is that it provides encouragement and challenge for the superior student. Studies of individual differences show clearly that capable students learn much more than the average or slow student in considerably less time. If these faster students are forced to remain in the same classes with other students and to proceed at the same rate they tend to lose interest and to become bored. On the other hand, if these students of superior ability are permitted to proceed at the same rate, they are challenged and are stimulated by being able to study additional subjects or to finish high school in less than the usual time requirement.

A second reason advanced for acceleration is preventive. It is claimed that some superior students lose interest in school in being forced to proceed at the same rate as less capable students, thus actually developing slipshod work habits and attitudes which handicap them after they get out of high school. Acceleration on the other hand develops initiative and drive and encourages attitudes of genuine scholarship.

The experience of elementary schools with acceleration indicates that most accelerated pupils suffer no detrimental effects in terms of high school scholastic record, gains in achievement quotient, and adjustment to high school and later life.

Nevertheless, there has been a growing tendency in the

elementary schools since 1930 to discourage acceleration. It is the opinion of many elementary school teachers and administrators that the accelerated pupil frequently loses something important in the thoroughness of his educational background. While there are numerous exceptions to this experience, it is true that many accelerated pupils do not adjust effectively for some time after their promotion.

One of the chief objections to acceleration at the high school level is that the student who finishes school in two or three years misses many important values outside of the classroom. Superior students frequently become leaders in student activities in their junior and senior years. If they rush through high school they miss this valuable leadership training. It is important for students to learn to work with people as well as to acquire information out of books.

A further objection raised to acceleration in high school as a normal procedure is made upon the grounds that accelerated students are socially immature and have difficulty in adjusting to campus life during their first year or two at college. Those who do not go to college experience difficulty in finding employment because of their age. A student who finishes high school at fifteen or sixteen, unless he is also physically mature, frequently finds it difficult to adjust to social life on the college or university campus where he is associated with older and more mature students.

However, those who oppose acceleration recognize the need for a differentiated program in high school for the more capable students. Rather than encourage earlier graduation from high school, they propose an enriched program for the superior pupil. Since many capable students do not continue their education beyond high school, the enriched program enables such students to secure a much more adequate education. It also keeps them off the labor market and away from the association with adults who may not stimulate them to further learning to the extent that they may be stimulated by youth of their own age. On the other hand, Learned and Wood[1] observe, "When a freshman hurdle is set at two feet, shall we permit a student who can jump five feet to advance to the five foot hurdle? No, he shall remain among the two-

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[1]William S. Learned and Ben D. Wood, *The Student and His Knowledge*, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938.

footers until the normal progress of the curriculum advances him to the next notch, and to justify this moratorium on his progress, we urge that it is for the sake of the social values involved in the delay. . . . Therewith, the sanctity of a specified time service is maintained and the authority of the instructor as an intellectual policeman on his beat is vindicated."

After the War

It is probable that a sizeable number of older youth will return to high school after the war. Some of these youth will come from wartime jobs and others will return from military service. They will be impatient to finish high school in less than the prescribed time. Many will have had experience with short intensive training courses as well as with military and industrial experience far beyond the maturity of high school courses. How will the high school meet the problems of these youth? Is it educationally sound to expect them to jump the same hurdles and to keep the same pace as fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen year-old students? Will not the interests and experiences of these older students require adaptations in the traditional pattern of the high school program?

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IV. SHOULD READINESS FOR PROMOTION AND GRADUATION BE DETERMINED BY DEMONSTRATED COMPETENCE OR BY CONSULTING THE CALENDAR?

1. Is the high school diploma becoming meaningless?
2. Does the American high school attend only secondarily to the problem of educating the student and of recognizing educational achievement?

3. Would it be better if high school promotion were based on demonstrated competence rather than on accumulated credits or hours of work?
4. Should the diploma give an index to the quality and type of education completed?

There is a marked difference in ability and achievement among those who are enrolled in the American high school. The differences are much greater now that approximately two-thirds of our young people are enrolled in a high school. These initial differences become greater rather than less as students proceed through the high school course.

Along with the increase in the student body has come an increase in the number of course offerings. This increase in course offerings, together with the introduction of the elective system, has made it possible for two pupils to graduate from the same high school and to receive the same type of diploma, even though they receive a widely different set of educational experiences while in school.

The diploma has therefore become more or less meaningless. It has come to mean little more than that the graduate has been in residence for a period of four years. What can be done that will make the diploma more meaningful? Might it not be well, in addition to granting a diploma which indicates the completion of a period of residence, to grant diplomas also which are based on demonstrated competence? Since in some of our larger high schools pupils may graduate with widely different experiences, might it not be well that these diplomas designate the areas in which the students' work has been done?

Criticisms of Present Practices

Some school people believe that the blanket issuing of the traditional diploma has made it meaningless. Lay people have lost confidence in the school's integrity because of the practice, and high school graduation has lost its significance. Employers have become skeptical of the meaning of graduation.

From the student's angle, reaction is equally bad. Superior students may feel that their conscientious achievement has been undervalued and discounted, while the actually inferior

students and the acknowledged "dawdlers" may assume that they have "gotten by", thus perhaps entrenching an inclination to believe that to "get by" is good enough.

Then, it may be argued that the traditional diploma does nothing for the student in the way of pointing out his possibilities for the future. Does his high school record justify the continuation of his education in college? Has he shown aptitude for salesmanship? Might he succeed in engineering?

Spears states[1] "It can hardly be denied that the talented have been neglected and subjected to mediocre standards during this decade-by-decade doubling of the school's population; but such neglect should be attributed to the school's misinterpretation of equality of educational opportunity and its disregard of the doctrine of individual differences, rather than to the coming of the masses in the school. If the school is but willing to accept these differences among youth, to relinquish its faith in certain minimum essentials and cultural aspects of the older program, and to cut away such impedimenta as a marking system that recognizes only one standard of achievement for an entire class—then it can free the more talented from mediocrity and adjust their work and expectations in accordance with their promise as present and future leaders of their social groups."

Need for Differentiated Program

Most teachers and administrators recognize the importance of working out a solution to this problem which avoids either extreme. Certainly failure discourages students and causes them to withdraw from school. On the other hand, the lowering of scholastic standards is not a satisfactory solution. A student might well be better off out of school and on his own than to be pampered and permitted to develop a false sense of values in school.

One answer is to provide differentiated instruction and adequate guidance in the school so that all pupils may become properly adjusted. Theoretically this seems to present a happy solution. In practice, it isn't quite so happy. Some students are so fixed in their habits of indolence and irresponsibility that even the best psychiatrists cannot do much

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[1]Harold Spears, *Secondary Education in American Life*, American Book Company, 1941, pp. 373-374.

to help them. The differentiation of curricula and instruction must be done within the practical limits of time and facilities available in the school. We still have many small schools with limited facilities and many large schools which are overcrowded and inadequately equipped. The amount of differentiation under such circumstances is seriously restricted by practicalities.

If a school does provide a differentiated program, should this differentiation be indicated by the type of diploma granted? For example, if a boy takes seventy-five per cent of his work in trades and industrial arts should he receive the same diploma as the girl who finishes a general curriculum? Furthermore, should not the diploma indicate the scholastic rank of each graduate?

Experiences with Specialized Diplomas

Some high schools such as the St. Louis city high schools issue special diplomas. The St. Louis schools issue two diplomas, one which serves as a recommendation for college entrance and one indicating non-academic interest and training. Other high schools have been and are experimenting with similar plans.

Spaulding,[1] in his recommendations relative to high school diplomas, comments as follows: "The diploma itself ought to be a statement of what the pupil has gained from high school education, and not just a record of the scholastic motions he has gone through. If a school has been seriously attempting to make its pupils ready for higher education or for out-of-school living, its diplomas ought to indicate that fact. They can do so most straightforwardly if, instead of certifying merely that a pupil has passed certain courses, they attest that the pupil has attained the goals which the school has been seeking for him; that in the judgment of the school faculty he is prepared either for entrance into a specified vocation or for admission to a specified type of higher educational institution, and that he can be positively recommended as likely to take an acceptable part in the out-of-school social groups to which he will perforce belong."

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[1]Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, The Regent's Inquiry, New York, 1938, 282 ff.

Spears states[1] "Graduation at the Secondary School of the Colorado State College of Education is not denied any student who has completed six years of secondary-school enrollment beyond the sixth grade with a record consistent with his ability; but the school (1) graduates students with fewer than the conventional number of years of school attendance, (2) recommends the continued enrollment of students beyond the conventional number of years, and (3) graduates each student with a statement of recommendations relative to vocational and educational plans and interests.

"The statement setting out the school's opinion of the student's abilities and deficiencies, both personal and vocational, is sent out to college-admission offices, possible employers, and others, as well as to the parents. The statement does not go out as a verdict but as the most intelligent advice and information which the school can make on the basis of its experiences with the student."

There are some serious objections to the special type of diploma. In the first place, some capable students may elect to take a special vocational curriculum and later decide that they want to go to college. If they hold a special vocational diploma they may find it difficult to be admitted to certain colleges even though they are quite capable of doing college work. There is a danger in attempting to label students in terms of any pre-determined classifications.

A second objection to the special diploma is that it may set up class distinctions within the school. Students working toward one type of diploma may have a tendency to assume an attitude of superiority toward students working toward another type of diploma. This is probably an over-worked argument, but it does happen.

Demonstrated Competence as a Basis for Promotion

Perhaps the best answer to the charges that the school has lowered its scholastic standards is to shift the basis for promotion from time spent in course work and the awarding of units of credit to demonstrated competence as measured by examinations and other suitable methods of evaluation.

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[1]Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, American, 1940, p. 219.

Minimum standards for promotion could be established in each subject or area, and such student would be required to meet these standards before being promoted. The high school diploma would then have meaning, and students would be placed upon their own initiative. They would be enabled to proceed at their own rate and when they did receive credit for work completed they would do so with a feeling of genuine accomplishment.

There are arguments against this plan, such as the lack of suitable testing instruments and the danger of freezing the curriculum, but it is an answer to some of the serious weaknesses of our present program. Certainly it deserves thoughtful consideration upon the part of teachers and administrators.

Spaulding says,[1] "In the case of all its pupils, the high school should take independent responsibility for their promotion from grade to grade, and for the award of high school diplomas. If its appraisal of its pupils' work is to be consistent with its educational aims, the high school must eventually grant diplomas not in terms of formal credits or hours of work, but on the basis of the competence which its pupils achieve."

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[1]Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life:* The Regents Inquiry, McGraw-Hill, 1938.

V. SHOULD THE PROGRAM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BE EXTENDED UPWARD TO INCLUDE THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH YEARS?

1. Is the establishment of new programs of semi-professional training making it necessary for certain secondary schools to add one or more grades beyond the twelfth?

2. Do the problems connected with unemployment and the need for a more comprehensive education make desirable the addition of one or two years' training beyond the present high school level?

3. Is it necessary for all schools to extend their present programs to include two additional years?

4. If two years are added to the high school program, what type of administrative organization would best suit the purposes of secondary education?

5. Are there some serious disadvantages in keeping youth in school too long?

6. Measured in terms of educational values to society, can the additional cost of this program be justified?

According to Spaulding[1] "Changes in the high school curriculum and in the attention which schools pay to individual pupils will be difficult to make as long as the schools hold rigidly to the conventional four-year high school organization. Provision of tryout courses on which a dependable program of educational guidance may be based will require the downward extension of the secondary school work into the seventh and eighth grades. The establishment of new programs of semi-professional training will make it necessary for certain secondary schools to add one or more grades beyond the twelfth. If it is to be effectively planned and coordinated, the work of these lower and higher grades ought to be under the same supervision as that of the four grades now included in most of the high schools."

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[1]Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, The Regents' Inquiry, New York, 1938, p. 284. ff.

Scope of Secondary Education

Reeves[1] comments as follows concerning the scope and function of the secondary school: "The function of the secondary school as a preparation for college—still an important function—must be set in its place beside its function as a preparation for living in a democratic nation. . . .

"First, let me define the period of secondary education. I believe it should cover the years from twelve to twenty; or, if we use a scale of grades, it should cover the period from the seventh to the fourteenth year inclusive. This extends secondary education through the years now designated by the term 'junior college'. Such an extension would make it easier for the secondary schools to cover the wide range of subject matter required for effective citizenship training and would, at the same time, keep large numbers of young people out of the labor market for a somewhat longer period than at present."

Nature of the Extended Program

It is entirely probable that a thirteenth and fourteenth year should be added to only a small proportion of our present high schools. The state might well provide transportation so that larger areas may be serviced by one school. Conceivably, the county might serve as a unit, or in some localities the unit might include a region larger than a county.

The larger unit and greater pupil population will make it feasible to provide a school plant with equipment adequate to meet the varied needs of the entire student body. Since, for many of our young people, graduation from the junior college will make the completion of their youth education program and mark their induction into a life vocation, there must be adequate provision for preparing these young people in a variety of vocations.

Ultimately, under a 6-4-4 plan of organization, some of our present high schools may discover that they can do a more creditable piece of work if they limit themselves to the first two divisions and depend upon the junior college to provide the facilities for the last four years in the general education program.

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[1]Floyd W. Reeves, *What Kind of Secondary Education Tomorrow?* Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, March, 1942, pp. 100-101.

Extended School Meets Youth Needs

Proponents of the upward extension of the secondary school believe that it will better meet the educational problems of youth than the present type of organization. They contend that it will provide time for a more comprehensive program of secondary education, a program including both general and specialized training. One of the weak spots in secondary education at present is that the nucleus of common materials has been almost crowded out of the curriculum by the constant addition of specialized subjects. An upward extension of the secondary program would provide more time for a comprehensive program of general education at the lower level and still permit specialization in the upper years. With increasing demands being made upon the schools for a more thorough and intensive job of citizenship training as well as for more specialized work in vocational and pre-professional fields, it is argued that an upward extension of the secondary school is the only workable answer.

The extended secondary program also would permit more intensive work in vocational and other specialized fields in the upper two years of the new school. In addition to providing more adequate time allowances, this reorganization would permit specialized training at a time when students are more mature and closer to an actual job or professional training situation. In other words, students would be likely to be much more strongly motivated by the immediacy of specialized training if taken in the last two years of an extended secondary school than they would under the present type of organization.

It is possible also that the upward extension of the secondary school would tend to hold more youth in school. Many youth now leave school during the eleventh or twelfth years and 75 per cent do not continue after graduation from high school. If the thirteenth and fourteenth years were made an integral part of secondary education, more youth might be expected to continue beyond the twelfth grade. Certainly that has been the experience of Pasadena, Jefferson City, and other schools now operating a 6-4-4 program. One of the principal reasons for this increased holding power is the more effective articulation of courses and activities between high school and college. Another reason is the reduced cost of attending

the new type school as compared to the cost of college or a special vocational school. Economic selectivity as a factor in elimination is reduced under the 6-4-4 type of organization.

Extended Program Not Adapted to Present Local Conditions

It would be neither feasible nor economical, however, for every high school district in a state such as Iowa to add two years to its present high school program. Iowa now has about 920 high schools with a median enrollment of 68. Many of these schools have limited educational facilities. Their plants and equipment are limited; they do not have adequate financial resources to support a strong four-year high school program, and the communities in which many of them are located are not large enough to provide a varied type of vocational experience.

Any attempt to extend the program of the secondary school on a statewide basis would require provisions for a fundamental reorganization of present high school districts. While communities such as Sioux City, Fort Dodge, Des Moines, Cedar Rapids, Waterloo, Burlington, Council Bluffs, etc., should be able to effect a new type of organization without great difficulty, it is probable that small rural schools would need to combine their resources to maintain an economical upper unit. One of the principal dangers in developing an extended unit in the small community is the tendency to use financial resources badly needed in the elementary and intermediate schools.

Faculty Problems

One of the practical difficulties which has been met in schools now operating an extended secondary school program is the difficulty of finding suitable teachers for the upper unit. The tendency at first was to use qualified junior college instructors, but these teachers frequently were so accustomed to the traditional lecture method and subject emphasis of college teaching that they defeated the purpose of the reorganized program.

The upward extension of the secondary school requires well trained and experienced teachers who are thoroughly prepared in their subject fields and who know how to teach

secondary school youth. It requires faculty personnel who understand the problems and functions of secondary education. There is no place in this new type of program for departmental jealousies and academic stratification. There must be complete departmental cooperation and an intense interest in educating youth.

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VI. TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM BE ARTICULATED WITH LOWER AND HIGHER EDUCATIONAL UNITS?

1. Is there a need for planned continuity in the curriculum program through elementary, secondary, and higher educational levels?
2. What are the special problems in effecting continuity in the curriculum between educational levels?
3. What degree of articulation exists between the elementary school and the high school? Between high school and college?
4. How may better articulation be effected between successive educational levels?

It is not uncommon in curriculum development for each division of our educational structure to work independently of other divisions. The elementary school plans its own curriculum program; secondary school teachers develop a completely separate program, and the colleges develop still

another type of program. Rarely are provisions made for representation of teachers from different divisions on the same curriculum committees. One unfortunate result is that there is a lack of continuity from one educational level to the next, and frequently there is much duplication of effort. It would seem that if the primary purpose of education is the continuous growth and development of individual pupils, it would be extremely important that their educative experiences have as much continuity as possible.

One example of the lack of articulation between school levels is shown in the placement and treatment of American history. Some schools teach American history in the fifth grade, again in the eighth, and repeat it in the eleventh. It might be quite defensible to spend this much time on American history, but frequently there is too much duplication of the same materials and too much drill on the same facts. Similar duplications between high school and college work in history, English, science, and mathematics are not uncommon. Further evidence of lack of articulation is shown by the high percentage of failures among beginning students in college. Some colleges report that as high as 40 per cent of their freshmen students fail in one or more subjects during their first semester in college. Koos[1] estimates from a study of 200 students selected at random during their first two years of college, that from one-sixth to one-fifth of the college content was a repetition of courses taken in high school.

Sometimes duplication has been defended upon the grounds that students do not know the materials they are supposed to have studied at a lower level. If there is any foundation for this statement, it is an indictment of the entire educational program and an admission that little effort is being made to adapt instruction to the capacities of individual students. It is an indictment of formal education in general because it presumes that courses taken at a lower level have no preparatory value. If this charge has any basis in fact, may it not be presumed also that courses at a higher level are of questionable value? For example, the armed forces recently have charged that many *college* graduates are poorly grounded in

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[1]Leonard V. Koos, *Organizational Relationships of Junior College and High School*, American Association of College Registrars 18; (1942-43).

fundamental skills in mathematics. The answer to these charges, however, would appear to be a program for improving teaching efficiency and not more duplication.

Proper articulation between educational levels provides for a better understanding between levels of our educational system, for better guidance and adaptation of curricula to the needs of students, for economy of time, and for increased holding power of students.

Special Problems of Articulation

One of the factors making articulation between the elementary school and the high school difficult is the failure of high school teachers to inform themselves concerning the elementary school curriculum. Few high school teachers make any effort to learn the purposes and broad outline of the elementary program. Consequently, they begin with page 1 of their own textbook and proceed from that point, without making any effort to discover the previous educational background of their students. The same criticism may be made of college teachers with respect to high school programs—except that the gap is wider between high school and college.

The admission of students to high school from several different elementary schools and to college from many different high schools presents another serious problem in articulation. Each lower school follows its own curriculum program unless several are coordinated under a single supervisory unit. The frequent diversity in educational backgrounds as a result of this discrete educational pattern makes it extremely important that upper units take the initiative in acquainting themselves with the programs of feeder schools. It is also essential that they learn as much as possible about the abilities and educational development of each entering student.

Other problems in articulation grow out of the rather abrupt changes in teaching methods between successive levels of our educational ladder, the increasing specialization of subject content from one level to the next, and the differences in textual and reference materials used at each level. Continuity will not take care of itself under such diverse conditions; it must be carefully developed.

Methods of Securing Articulation

Securing continuity between educational levels is a rather complex problem and varies from one school to another. A high school in a rural area, drawing ninth grade students from several village and rural elementary schools, has a problem quite different from that of the city senior high school whose entering students come almost entirely from two or three junior high schools in the same system. Similarly, the methods of the college in articulating its program with the many high schools which send students to its freshmen class must be adapted to the special problems of coordination between high school and college.

If schools belong to the same system, or if there is an effective county of regional organization, then some degree of continuity can be secured by special committees for that purpose. For example, a curriculum steering committee in English may be organized in a city or town school system with representatives from both the elementary and secondary schools serving on the committee for the specific purpose of securing articulation. Another possibility would be for college or university curriculum committees to invite some high school teachers to advise with them concerning materials and teaching procedures at the high school level.

Other procedures which may be used to secure greater continuity are joint faculty meetings, intervisitation on the part of teachers in different divisions, faculty workshops enrolling staff members from each type of school, and special research studies and bulletins.

A well organized guidance program which enlists the cooperation of staff members from each successive school level may also be effective in securing better articulation. Examinations such as the New York Regents Examinations have served to a certain extent to increase articulation between high school and college, but there are a number of serious objections to such examinations as they affect other phases of the school program.

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VII. SHOULD CERTAIN SUBJECTS BE PRESCRIBED FOR GRADUATION FROM HIGH SCHOOL?

1. Are there certain subjects, providing common knowledges, skills, and attitudes, which should be required of all students in order to train them to live successfully in a democratic society?
2. Might it not be desirable to increase the subject prescriptions in the high school program?
3. Does there seem to be a relationship between patterns of subjects taken in high school and the student's later success?
4. Would it be well, after a student has determined the areas in which he has the most interest, and for which he has the greatest aptitude, for him to be required to select subjects which center around these areas?

Advantages of Prescription

In order that youth may be trained for the general group life and citizenship in the democratic state, they need a common background of experiences and an acquaintance with our common social inheritance. This portion of their training, participated in by all members of the student body, consti-

tutes the general program of education. In some schools it is referred to as the core curriculum. The areas dealing with health, citizenship, the basic skills, and certain aspects of our literary heritage belong to this category. This common core should occupy a central position in any high school curriculum. From this common base should stem further specialized training conditioned by the ability, interest, aptitudes, and vocational expectancy of the different individuals. It is entirely probable that the amount of emphasis on this area of common experiences should be increased rather than diminished in the average high school.

Lay people are usually of the opinion that certain fundamental subjects should be required of all students. While this attitude may be questioned, it does reflect the thinking of many people. The National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, in Report No. 21, "The Public Looks at Education," states, "When asked to name the most important things children should get from their public education, Americans rank a mastery of academic subjects and the development of desirable character traits of first and equal importance, followed by vocational training, citizenship education, and experience in making social adjustments."

The Educational Policies Commission says,[1] "Throughout the junior high school period, it was agreed, the educational needs of the pupils are sufficiently alike to justify a common curriculum for all pupils, with ample provision for differentiated treatment of pupils within classes to take account of diversities of interests, aptitudes, and abilities."

It may be argued that if there are certain desirable educational objectives for all students, then certain definite subjects which best serve to realize those objectives should be required. Using health as an illustration, we may conclude that this universally accepted objective of education can best be attained by health training for all students. Economic competence can best be assured by effective training in economic living. Since all people should be able to manage their economic affairs well, all need training in economic living. The universal requirement of other subjects as well might be justified in similar manner.

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[1]Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, National Education Association, 1944, p. 230.

Bagley[1] quotes George E. Carrothers, director of the Bureau of Cooperation with Educational Institutions, University of Michigan, as follows: "It seems impossible that we shall ever return to the day when it is felt essential that everyone who is going to college shall have studied two years of algebra, geometry, Latin, French, and German. But I cannot help wondering if we have not, in some quarters, gone too far in making such subjects optional. If all the students are not subjected to a minimum of mathematics and languages, can we make an intelligent decision about the advisability of each individual's pursuing further this or that branch of study? An insufficient mental discipline, an inadequate acquaintance with the necessity of hard work, may render boys and girls unable to cope with the difficult tasks which will confront them in the university."

Disadvantages of Prescription

The tendency in smaller high schools is to require practically the same subjects of all students. There are few electives because only a minimum of subjects can be offered. This situation may work a hardship on some students—those with particular "flairs" for art, music, technical pursuits, or activities not provided for in the usual small school program. Briggs states,[2] "The argument for differentiated curricula is based on individual differences and on the demands of the world for a wide variety of specializations. As is now well known, individuals for native or acquired reasons differ greatly at adolescence in interests, capacities, knowledges, skills, and needs. No higher curriculum, however the rate of its administration is varied for slow or accelerated groups, can be equally good for all; adapted to one group, it will inevitably be futile or even bad for others. What is most needed above the fundamental elementary education is a development of each individual on lines along which he is most promising. If an equal opportunity is guaranteed for youth, it must be a differentiated opportunity. Fortunately the world's work demands men and women competent in all sorts of fields, and with equal fortune man's heritage is rich enough to satisfy

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[1]W. C. Bagley, *Are There Essential Secondary School Subjects?*, School and Society, Vol. 58, p. 419, ff.

[2]Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, Macmillan, 1943, pp. 226, 227.

all sorts of interests. It is only through an education varied so far as possible to suit all sorts of different people that the highest dividends are paid. If differentiated education is not offered in secondary schools, there is no insurance that the great majority of adolescents will get such training as will contribute best to their happiness and their effectiveness."

The Effect of College Attendance

It has sometimes been assumed that students who plan to attend college should pursue certain prescribed courses in high school in order, first, that they will do better college work, and second, that they may be readily accepted by the colleges. In connection with the first assumption, Aikin,[1] basing his comments on the results of the "Eight-year Study" of the Progressive Education Association, concludes as follows: "The evidence indicates that if the secondary school knows its students well, counsels them wisely, gives them experiences which promote their growth and meet their needs, those who go to college will do well. Also, it indicates consistently that there is no discoverable relationship between the pattern of subjects taken in school and student success in college. Beyond question, the fact is established that the high school curriculum need not be bound by conventional patterns of content or organization."

Pressure for high school subject prescription in order to meet college entrance requirements has lessened. College entrance requirements are being liberalized. Present requirements for admission to the State University of Iowa, Iowa State College, and the Iowa State Teachers College imply a greater freedom from prescription and at the same time they place a greater responsibility on high schools for more careful curriculum planning. The following requirements are illustrative of this trend:[2]

1. The basic requirement is graduation from an approved high school.

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[1]Wilford and Marjorie Aikin, *The Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association*, Ed. Method, Vol. 20, (1940-41), p. 307, ff.

[2]Committee on Secondary School and College Relations (a joint committee, representing State University of Iowa, Iowa State College and Iowa State Teachers College), Bulletin No. 10.

2. Experience has demonstrated that no specific pattern of high school subjects is essential to success in college.

3. An occasional student with unusual ability will reach a stage of physical, mental, and social maturity such that his educational needs will be more readily cared for by the college even though he has not formally completed the requirements for high school graduation. Such a student will be admitted to do college work, if he is at least seventeen years of age and is otherwise acceptable.

Where entrance is based on competence to do college work, the student will be required to achieve a minimum level of performance on carefully prepared and standardized examinations. For further information, the applicant should write to the Registrar of the school in which he is interested.

Possible Solution

Authorities seem largely to agree that certain subjects and activities should be required of all students—health training, training in civic responsibility, training in communication, to mention a few. Beyond this, provision should be made for individual interests and capabilities through the offering of electives, and through guidance in connection with an informal reading and activity program.

Briggs concludes,[1] "Specialization along lines of individual interests should be slight in the earlier years of secondary school and increase slowly as the pupil continues to 'not more than three fifths of the curriculum at the end of the usual secondary period'."

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[1]Thomas H. Briggs, *The Special Functions of Secondary Schools*, Seventh Year Book of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (1929), Part 1, pp. 196-207.

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?

1. Might the high school program be greatly improved by centering it more around objectives to be attained and less around outlines of course content?

2. Should high schools assume more responsibility for what happens to their students after leaving school?

3. Should high school faculties attempt to discover the nature of each student's abilities, interests, and needs, and adapt their offerings in the light of this information?

4. Should extra-curricular activities be included in the curriculum?

There is apparent disagreement among educators as to the place and importance of subject matter in the educative process. In the emphasis they place on the mastery of subject matter, some school people give evidence to the belief that this is the end of education, while others who are equally honest and reputable seem to attach little importance to the mastery of subject content. It is probable that the two stated alternative goals—mastery of subject matter, or growth and development of the student's personality—do not indicate accurately the point of disagreement. Both parties to the disagreement seem to want to arrive at the same goal; that is, they are interested in stimulating the growth and development of the student's personality. Their point of disagreement is concerning the best means to be employed in order to attain that goal. Shall we seek personality development largely by having our students become acquainted with our racial achievements through a study of books, or shall we seek to stimulate such development largely through concrete life experiences? The means, not the end, seems to be the point in dispute.

The so-called progressive school tends to emphasize the importance of concrete experience, while men like President

Hutchins of the University of Chicago tend to emphasize the importance of our literary heritage.[1] The truth probably lies somewhere between these two extreme positions.

The Case for Subject Matter Emphasis

Opponents of the move to de-emphasize subject matter claim that knowledge is the basis for understanding, that facts furnish the materials for reasoning, that one cannot think without the substance of thought—information. Concepts come from knowing, and knowing comes from sensation and from familiarity with facts gained from subject matter either through listening, seeing, or reading. Obviously, only a small part of knowing can come from first-hand sense perception; hence, printed materials must furnish a large part of our knowledge—of our concepts. In thinking we combine old concepts to form new ones. These new concepts are combined again to form others; and so we proceed, thinking, reasoning. But there must be a nucleus or core to start the process of accumulation; there must be a body of knowledge to start with. Then, how are we to benefit by the accumulated culture of the past except through study of that culture?

Proper Use of Subject Matter

As has been suggested in the earlier discussion of this issue, the quarrel over subject matter has not been so much concerning the value of subject matter as it has been one concerning proper emphasis and use. The demand for a changed attitude toward subject content has perhaps been a demand for re-emphasis rather than for de-emphasis. Subject matter critics have less fault to find with subject content, per se, than with the use to which it has been put.

Too often, teachers trained in a special field have become so absorbed in the subject they have lost sight of the pupil. Mastery of subject content has become almost an obsession, and pupil reaction has been discounted. Such teachers are like builders without a blue-print. Materials are piled up, getting nowhere in particular. The blue-print should be the potential personality of the student, and it should call for framing, arranging, accommodating of the materials to the

[1] R. M. Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America*, p. 60, ff.

possible and desired end. Briggs observes,[1] "Knowledge, however acquired and organized, is impotent and unimportant until it is in some way applied. By attitudes and ideas it is made dynamic either for good or for ill. Attitudes are always the result of experience; when accompanied by any considerable amount of emotion, as is frequent, they are in several ways highly important. They condition the acquiring and the retention of knowledge; they influence its interpretation; they stimulate to the seeking of more knowledge of the same kind or effectually turn from it; they stimulate to action; and they largely determine what will be done with knowledge, organized or in isolated units, even when it is acquired."

In the same vein, Umstattd writes,[2] "Much of the content carried in the typical secondary school courses is valueless to the pupil and should be deleted from the secondary school offering. The only justification for retaining any given portion of content is that it may serve some need or interest of the pupil. If it cannot pass that test, it should be discarded, and in its place should be substituted content that is worth while."

Assuming Responsibility for Former Students

Perhaps few schools have systematically assumed responsibility for what happens to their former students. Little is known of their success or failure. Educational authorities lament this neglect for at least two reasons:

1. There is an obligation to serve the students after they are out of school. Society, as well as the individual, has a right to continuing service beyond the in-school training period.

2. The school is missing an opportunity to evaluate its own effectiveness as reflected by the success or failure of its former students.

The American Youth Commission,[3] in discussing the services rendered by the high school to its graduates comments as follows: "By and large, however, the school bids its graduates an emphatic farewell. The graduate of a secondary school is rare who ever comes back to secure advice or help of any

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[1]Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, Macmillan, 1943, pp. 245-246.
[2]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn, 1937, p. 62.
[3]American Youth Commission, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, p. 32.

kind. . . . Interviews with hundreds of secondary school graduates who have told their stories to investigators during recent years show that these graduates, and the public in general, do not expect schools to do anything about young people beyond the date when they are honorably dismissed. . . The schools ought to be prepared to describe in perfectly explicit terms what a young person is capable of doing, and ought to stand by him with advice and assistance until he finds a place in the adult world."

Spears makes the following observation:[1] "What is happening to graduates in an occupational way is becoming vital data to the high school that seeks to check the appropriateness of its program for adjustment to life situations. . . . The school that makes an extensive effort to ease the transition of pupil from school to employment, by means of a placement or similar service, finds itself with a keener appreciation of its curriculum problem. . . . A good guidance program provides for continuity of guidance from the lower grades to adult adjustment."

Adapting Instruction to Individuals

Recent emphasis on student guidance stems partly from recognition of the fact that not all students profit equally from the same instruction. Individual abilities, interests, and needs should be taken into account and the school offerings modified to meet individual requirements. A good guidance program will permit school faculties to learn needed facts regarding students, so that instructional procedures may be accommodated to needs. Perhaps to a large degree the ultimate rating of a school should be gauged by the effectiveness with which it adjusts itself to the various needs of its students.

Briggs states,[2] "The secondary school is the most important social agency for ascertaining the peculiar interests, aptitudes, and capacities that each adolescent has so that it can direct, encourage, and help him toward future endeavor that promises most success and happiness to him and most profit to the social unit that provides the education. Without this knowledge of the individual differentiation is meaningless, uneco-

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[1]Harold Spears, *Secondary Education in American Life*, American Book Company, 1941, pp. 236 and 241.

[2]Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, Macmillan, 1943, p. 268.

nomic, and harmful. There has been much waste in providing a variety of viands unsuited to appetite or digestion."

Umstattd has this to say regarding the necessity of knowing the individual needs of students:[1] "The progessive public-school teacher looks upon his work as a continual discovery and development of pupil potentialities. As the pupil makes progress, the alert teacher will see new possibilities ahead and will guide the pupil into the activities which will enable him to attain those possibilities in the most effective manner. The superior teacher views his pupils as growing personalities and, instead of drilling them in facts which may or may not enhance their development, selects the subject matter or the educational exercises which they need individually at their several stages of development.

"The traditional regime required the teacher to know a certain amount of subject matter and to possess sufficient force to compel obedience in memorizing facts. Under the new view the teacher must be so thoroughly a master of subject matter that he understands its implications to life situations met by secondary school pupils. In addition he must so well understand the lives of those whom he teaches that he will be able to select content which is needed and to adapt it to satisfy the current needs and interests of each."

Merging the Extra-curricular with the Curriculum

There has been much agitation to broaden the old conception of the curriculum to include what has been called the extra-curricular. In urging this movement Spears comments,[2] "The term extra-curricular activities has been highly expressive of the prevailing attitude toward the student activity program. Although activities came to be accepted as of certain educational value, there still existed on the part of the staff the general feeling that the classroom program was of primary importance, this other, or secondary concern. . . . Such activities as the assembly, the band, the club, the football team, the student council, the school newspaper, and the home room go to make up this broad program. . . . Although the two fields in the school are often distinct as far as faculty thought

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[1]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn, 1937, pp. 53-54.
[2]Harold Spears, *Secondary Education in American Life*, American Book Company, pp. 155, 156-158.

is concerned, the life of the pupil goes from one to the other. The school paper grows out of a class in English, the band that appears in public receives its training in a scheduled music period, the senior play that takes so many extra hours has its origin in a dramatics course, the taxidermy club is the result of additional interest in biology, and the assembly is put on by the travel club, which in turn was formed around an interest originating in a history class.

"Every student activity that is permitted to exist deserves careful faculty sponsorship. No activity should be permitted to run wild. A teacher feeling that she knows her Latin but is weak in her out-of-class connections with her pupils, can find summer school courses devoted to the sponsorship and the administration of these various activities. . . . In this fertile, less formalized field of school life have sprouted the seeds of pupil activity that have so changed the complexion of the whole school in the past twenty years. Tramped down at first as undesirable, the growth has been recognized and guided by the teachers who keep out the weeds in the cultivation. As transplantings are made from the extra-curricular to the curricular field, provision is made for new pupil activities to get a footing. . . . If the curriculum is conceived as comprising all the experiences of the student under the auspices of the school, then the two fields move into each other and lose their original identity."

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1. Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction*, American Book Company, 1940, p. 73, ff.
2. Briggs, Thomas H., *Secondary Education*, Macmillan, 1943.
3. Umstattd, J. G., *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn, 1937.
4. Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life*, American Book Company, 1941.
5. American Youth Commission, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, American Council on Education.

IX. WHAT IS THE RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHERS IN EFFECTING DESIRABLE UNITY IN THE TOTAL CURRICULUM PROGRAM?

1. Should the high school teaching staff develop cooperatively a philosophy concerning the nature and function of the high school?
2. Should the high school teaching staff study materials and methods of instruction and seek to bring them into line with the conception developed concerning the nature and function of the high school?

The Prevailing Situation

Many of our high schools resemble more nearly a loosely formed confederation of colonies rather than a union of states operating under a constitution. This condition stems, partly at least, from the fact that many high school teachers have had only specialized training in a particular field. As specialists, they tend to center their efforts in their own field, and sometimes fail to get an over all view of the high school program. This lack of perspective seems to characterize high school teachers no matter whether they are teachers of music, athletics, science, English, or the social studies. "This lack of a unifying philosophy concerning the function of the high school; this failure on the part of the instructional staff to see the parts of the high school program in proper perspective is frequently confusing to the student and may materially reduce the effectiveness of the school as an influence in the community. What can be done about it?"[1]

What Can Be Done

Corey and Jacobsen[2] report on methods employed by a high school staff in a study of its philosophy: "The procedure was to (1) state a belief about education that the staff had accepted verbally, (2) enumerate some of the specific implications that this belief has for secondary education, and (3) describe in-

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[1]Henry Harap, et al., *The Changing Curriculum*, Appleton-Century, p. 70, ff.

[2]Stephan M. Corey and Paul B. Jacobsen, *A High School Staff Studies Its Philosophy*, School Review, Vol. 51, 1943, p. 269, ff.

stances of teaching practice in our own school which were either consistent or inconsistent with the belief. This insistence upon translating convictions about desirable pedagogical procedures into school practices vitalized the discussions and made concepts that ordinarily would be nebulous and vague quite concrete and specific. The members of the staff reported that they had little difficulty in describing practices of their own which were inconsistent with their expressed beliefs. This experience, in and of itself, is a salutary one and is likely to result in instructional and curricular improvements regardless of any additional formal staff activity. . . . The writers are convinced, however, that there is only one effective way to improve any high school and that one way calls for group action and the sharing of responsibility. A staff must study its own practices first, and an excellent beginning point yields an answer to the questions: 'What do we believe about education? How do our practices appear in the light of these beliefs?' "

Briggs writes,[1] "Whatever the value of special officers and activities, articulation will chiefly be effected through teachers. Unless they are informed of a general comprehensive educational program, with the special functions of their own administrative organization not only informed of it but convinced of its soundness so that they will work consistently for achievement, all other efforts at articulation will be largely set at naught. Because of their training and the very nature of their work, teachers tend to become individualistic. Their powers will be coordinated and directed to common responsibilities only if the principal works not only skilfully but also continually for that end. They are the sole means of securing articulation within a school, both between subjects and in a departmental field. . . . Teachers in high schools by and large need to manifest more comprehension and less condescension. . . . Cooperation in curriculum revision is a potent means of insuring that teachers understand something of the subject matter and the methods of the school on the next higher or lower level. Working together to construct courses of study that articulate for progressive development of the pupils, teachers will learn much of their obligations as

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[1]Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, Macmillan Company, 1943, pp. 304-306.

well as of what they may expect. Teachers in the lower school can easily be convinced of the necessity of giving mastery over the fundamentals that are not only valuable in themselves but also propaedeutic to advanced work, and teachers in the higher schools can similarly be made less academically minded by realizing the effort that has been expended to place the center of gravity in the pupils. In addition to cooperation in curriculum revision, which should be periodically continued, teachers should be articulated through conferences, mostly in small groups homogeneous with respect to subject matter or the pupils that are taught. Such meetings must be arranged for regularly by the administration.

"There are frequently inarticulations where reasonably they might least be looked for—within a single school. For these the traditional subject matter specialization is largely responsible. Teachers tend to present what is in adopted textbooks much as it was presented to them, without knowledge of the subject matter or the methods used by other teachers, even in the same or in closely related departments. When such ignorance exists or when teachers are satisfied to remain independent in spite of knowledge, the principal has a sharp challenge. Physics cannot be economically taught regardless of the mathematics department; physics, chemistry, and biology must be based on the preceding general science; courses in problems of democracy or economics are conditioned by civics and history; English composition and literature should be closely related to all, or nearly all, other subjects; and the several foreign languages have in many details common concern. These are merely illustrations of the many relations that the head of a school should be constantly concerned to make closer."

The Educational Policies Commission cites an instance[1] showing the possibilities of teacher cooperation in curriculum planning: "The group that had studied family life, for example, consisted of twenty-two teachers, two principals, and four laymen. The high-school teachers on the committee were from all three high schools and from practically every department. These teachers, who had studied the figures on divorce and marital discord, who had talked with the "friend of the

[1]Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, National Education Association, 1944.

court," who had reviewed the evidence on family life assembled by social workers and sociologists, who had visited the child guidance clinic and observed some of the casualties of faulty homes, who had attended sessions of the juvenile court and studied the facts about delinquency—these teachers became thoroughly convinced that education in family living was second to nothing in importance. By various means, they sought to provide such education in their own classes. Some used literature as a means for portraying family life and its problems in vivid concreteness; some used home economics as a medium for instruction in the human as well as the material side of home life; some used biology as a point of departure; some developed experimental "core" courses with family living as one of the major areas of study. All agreed on the importance of the area and were certain that a way had to be found to include this phase of education within the program of every student. They were so sure of it that they were willing to give up part of the time of their own subjects, if necessary, to provide a place."

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1. Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, American Book Company, 1940.
2. Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life*, American Book Company, 1941.
3. Harap, Henry, et al., *The Changing Curriculum*, Appleton-Century.
4. Cory, Stephan M. and Jacobsen, Paul B., *A High School Staff Studies Its Philosophy*, School Review, Vol. 51, 1943.
5. Briggs, Thomas H., *Secondary Education*, Macmillan Company, 1943.
6. Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, National Education Association, 1944.

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?

1. What are the reasons for agitation for a change in the organization of the curriculum?
2. How would the organization of the curriculum into broad courses be likely to affect specialized courses?
3. Of the newer plans of curriculum reorganization, which appears to be most promising?
4. What are some of the important advantages of subject divisions as a basis for curriculum organization?

The following are some of the influences which are contributing to a demand for curriculum reorganization:[1]

"1. The developments thus far in the twentieth century have contributed to a feeling of greater social inter-dependence. It appears the old curriculum characterized by an atmosphere of individualism is rapidly becoming outmoded.

"2. The loss of faith in the disciplinary and cultural value of certain subjects as mind-trainers; e. g., foreign languages, mathematics.

"3. A recognition of the value of interest and experience in the educative process.

"4. The phenomenal increase in high school enrollment which has tapped lower levels of pupil ability and achievement."

The Usual Practice in Iowa

Observation of practices in Iowa high schools reveals that in most cases traditional subject matter divisions are in use. American history, civics, economics, sociology, algebra, geometry, etc., are set up as separate courses. At the same time

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[1]Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, American Book Company, 1940, pp. 45-53.

it appears that little effort is made to unify and correlate these various courses through cooperative planning by the teachers of different subjects. Each teacher seems to be a more or less independent instructor of a special, separate and distinct course, with little knowledge of what other equally independent instructors are aiming toward and doing in their classes. This is the traditional practice.

There are several reasons why the organization of subject matter as separate courses prevails:

1. The training of teachers as subject matter specialists.
2. The tradition of past practice.
3. Reluctance to disturb a procedure accepted by laymen as desirable.
4. Honest doubt that any other type of procedure will be more effective.
5. Textbooks.

What Is Wrong With Present Practice?

With each teacher acting independently in the presentation of separate subjects it is probable that the commonly accepted objectives of education are not being as nearly realized as possible. Each instructor travels his own road, aiming at his own private objectives, quite indifferent to what other instructors in other courses are attempting to do.

Many educators have concluded that a different type of organization might better serve to realize desirable aims of instruction. Broader courses, cutting across formerly accepted subject lines, have been suggested. Instead of directing one course toward teaching the facts of American history and another course toward teaching an appreciation of American literature, the two separate courses should be abandoned as distinct subjects and fused with other courses toward the accomplishment of certain broad aims.

Suggested Changes in Organization

Amidst much confusion in terminology the following six types of curricular plans, listed from the most traditional to the most innovative, are emerging:[1] (1) subject curriculum,

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[1]Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, American Book Company, 1940, p. 52, ff.

(2) correlated curriculum, (3) fused curriculum, (4) broad fields curriculum, (5) core curriculum, (6) experience curriculum.

The Subject Curriculum

"Each subject or subject field stands as a more or less vertical sequence of learning materials leading from one year to the next. The concern for articulation was exercised largely within the subject area itself, ninth-year English being set up as more elementary than tenth-year English, and a prerequisite to it. . . .

The Correlated Curriculum

"It is an attempt to secure horizontal as well as vertical articulation in the curriculum. It gives a vote of confidence to the existing subject and departmental organization and proceeds from that point to establish some common bridges to run across from one subject field to another.

The Fused Curriculum

"The second step away from the subject curriculum is fusion, the fused course replacing a number of subjects previously offered in either one or a number of different subject fields and drawing heavily upon the replaced subject matter for content . . . the merging of civics, geography, and history forming one of the popular combinations.

The Broad-fields Curriculum

"It represents a definite reaction to the great multiplicity of separate subjects that were looked upon a few years ago as the answer to individual needs and interests. The broad-fields philosophy, instead, indicates faith in setting out a greater portion of the curriculum as essential for all and then arranging this common material into a few broad courses. The North Central Association suggested four fields of living as trunks around which the secondary program could be organized: health and physical fitness, leisure time, vocational activities and social relationships.

The Core Curriculum

"The provision of a common body of growth experiences, usually spoken of as the 'core curriculum' is gaining popularity as a fundamental step in curriculum organization. . . . It presupposes certain specific types of learning experiences as basic for all pupils going through the school, but this need not mean a common fixed body of content for all. It might be said that the core idea endorses a broad area of experiences rather than the specific experiences within that area. For instance, social living may be a core taking one third of the school day of every pupil, but the work may differ greatly from section to section.

The Experience Curriculum

"The experience curriculum sees education as a continuous life process, as the growth of the whole individual in accordance with his environment, and it aims toward a more intelligent participation of that person in his culture. Since this culture or environment is constantly changing, the experience curriculum cannot be a fixed curriculum. Instead, it is a series of experience situations, each offering possible growth factors and understandings which the learner may carry forward to help him meet future experience situations."

In discussing the issue of traditional subject matter divisions versus a new organization of materials, Norton and Norton[1] comment as follows: "In deciding whether traditional subject groupings are to be retained or discarded, local committees on the course of study will have to consider questions such as these: Will local teachers be better able to handle larger units within subject matter fields and to correlate subjects, than to develop and teach large units of experience which cut across many fields? Should the former be attempted first as a step toward the latter as an ultimate goal? Or, considering local conditions, would it be better to depart immediately from traditional subjects and organize the curriculum around themes such as communication, transportation, housing and clothing? In the beginning, should the fusion of only certain subjects, such as geography, history, and civics be

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[1]John K. and Margaret E. Norton, *Foundations of Curriculum Building*, Ginn and Company, 1936, pp. 37-46.

attempted, or should the fusion be more complete? The trend is definitely toward integration. The question is how far and how fast should we go at this time? . . . Rugg holds that teaching is badly hampered by subject matter compartmentalization. He would cut down the number of departments, expand the scope of each, and provide a new synthesis of knowledge . . .

"The emphasis on the activity program and similar devices for the organization of courses of study around large concepts reflects an increasing desire to make schooling both more significant and more practical. The leaders of this trend decry the mere mastery of logically organized subject matter as a satisfactory outcome of education. They urge that clearer understanding of basic principles and laws, and better social attitudes are the prime ends of education. With these worthy objectives most intelligent teachers will agree. But practical considerations require a gradual transition to the infinitely more difficult instructional procedures involved in integrated curriculums . . .

"What will happen to the skills expected to result from schooling if a school system uses the newer educational procedures which seek to develop right attitudes? This practical question must be met. There are investigations which suggest that the adoption of newer practices does not necessarily involve a lowering of achievement in skills and factual knowledge. . . . The extent of the revision will depend to some degree upon the temper of the community concerned. Traditional procedure seldom arouses opposition. Substantial departures in the curriculum may breed misunderstanding, tread upon the toes of powerful vested interests, and separate the would-be curriculum makers from their jobs."

Advantages of Subject Divisions Organization

While there is much agitation for breaking down the traditional subject divisions and for cutting across subject lines, there are valid arguments for retaining the subject divisions. There are probably certain areas of knowledge, sufficiently important to be taught, which might not be brought into the student's experience through another type of curriculum organization. One would need to supply a vast field of problems in the core curriculum or experience curriculum set-up to

bring to the students all of the worthwhile knowledge offered in the usual physics course.

Then too, present interests cannot always be taken as a reliable guide as to what is worth-while. In the traditional subject division organization content may be studied, which without particular present interest, may serve as a stimulus to new interests. People are not usually interested in things about which they know little or nothing, but acquaintance with new subjects is often capable of arousing unexpected interests. While interest promotes knowledge, knowledge also promotes interest.

There is also a certain advantage in the logical arrangement of content in subject fields and subject courses. Students proceed logically from one subject level to the next. Teachers are trained in subject fields. The public has accepted this type of organization. All of these considerations are important.

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1. French, Will, *Measures of Maturity Versus Units of Credit*, Bulletin of National Association of Secondary Principals, March, 1942, pp. 72-78.
2. Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*, American Book Company, 1940.
3. Norton, John K. and Margaret E., *Foundations of Curriculum Building*, Ginn and Company, 1936.

CHAPTER IV

ISSUES CONCERNING INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Instructional procedure or methodology embodies the ways and means employed by teachers in directing the learning activities of pupils. Procedure is the day-by-day things that teachers do in working with pupils in order to help them learn. It is the question, the assignment, the discussion, the field trip, directed study, the examination, and similar classroom strategies.

Methodology and procedure are concerned with the *how* of teaching. They are the study of a pupil's intellectual capacities, educational background, home environment, emotional makeup, and other characteristics in order to adapt instruction to his needs and talents in methodology. The organization of instructional material and the way it is developed and presented to a class is methodology. It is the use of motion pictures, of radio, of problems, and of projects. It is the nature and the implementation of the teaching process.

Methodology and content are inseparable and supplementary in curriculum development. The curriculum must be concerned both with content and learning activities. Teaching procedure involves the direction of learning activities of pupils and, as such, is an integral part of the curriculum. For example, the development of a genuine understanding of representative government requires not only a presentation of the history and a description of this type of government, but also observing governmental agencies in action in order to see them function and practicing representative procedures in the life of the school.

Umstattd[1] writes that, "Before classroom success can be expected with any plan of instruction the teacher must know the broad purposes of his work, must be equipped to study and understand the pupil as an individual, must be able to prevent or remedy pupil maladjustment, and must appreciate

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[1]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn and Company, 1937, page 129.

the fundamentals of motivation." During the past twenty years we have observed unprecedented developments in secondary school methods. Educators have sought to improve instruction to meet the needs of present-day young folk. However, there is a wide disagreement concerning the merits of various proposals. In thinking through a program for improving the secondary school curriculum, it is essential to consider recent developments in classroom methods.

Perhaps the most discussed development in teaching procedure for more than a generation has been the unit method. The unit idea implies that content should be studied as complete and significant wholes rather than as isolated or unrelated lessons. This method of instruction involves several well defined steps. The *first* step seeks to provide motivation for the learner by presenting a challenge in the form of a problem which he must solve in order to gain some desired end. The *second* step stimulates the individual to make an analysis of the problem and to collect important facts. The learner then is expected to weigh all possible answers to the problem. This process of deliberation constitutes step *three* of the unit method. The *fourth* step involves the process of deciding upon the best way to react to the situation and in the final step, the individual reaches a solution and makes applications to try out his conclusions.

In tracing the development of the unit idea Umstattd[1] says, "The written assignment as the basis of individual instruction or 'self-instruction' received no great impetus until 1912, when Frederick Burk, of the San Francisco Normal School, emphasized it in his training school. One of his students, Carleton Washburns, later became superintendent of schools of Winnetka, Illinois, where he has further developed the idea of the written assignment as the basis of individual instruction."

Helen Parkhurst between 1908 and 1913 developed the so-called "laboratory plan" of instruction, based upon written assignments or "contracts" for individual instruction. Her instruction was confined to pupils between the ages of nine and twelve. It was in the 1920's that the laboratory plan was first attempted in the high school. Since then it has been referred

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[1]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn and Company, 1937, page 141.

to as the Dalton Plan. The features of this plan are: freedom for self-development; major subjects or minimum essentials; minor subjects or group activities; promotion based on major subjects; classrooms replaced with laboratories; regular conferences to budget the student's time; individual pupil progress; and examinations over each contract.

Henry C. Morrison's[1] application of the unit idea has received the greatest attention among educators. Morrison described the learning process as five formal steps—exploration of the problem, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. The past thirty years have witnessed various shifts in the terminology used to characterize the unit idea. Billett[2] discovered such terms as: contract plan, Morrison plan, unit assignment, and the Winnetka plan used to describe the unit plan of instruction. It is significant to note, however, that the main point which all the recent developments have in common is that they are adaptations of the unit idea. Each has made its contribution to the improvement of secondary-school instruction.

Since the war much has been said and written about the so-called "G. I." method of teaching. Educational writers are beginning to ask the question, "Can the G. I. method of teaching be used effectively in our schools?" It is important to point out in this connection that this method was adapted from procedures developed by educators and that the army used teachers to set up its educational program. It has succeeded because the army has had the funds needed for visual aids and other equipment and because of the high motivation of trainees to succeed.

In spite of the experiments with different methods of secondary-school teaching, typical classroom practices during the last thirty years have not undergone any widespread change. In the face of demands for improved methods of instruction, traditional methods are still widely employed. In a majority of secondary schools throughout the nation, the

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[1]Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, The University of Chicago Press, 1926.

[2]Roy O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*, National Survey of Secondary Education, United States Office of Education. Bulletin No. 17, 1932, Monograph No. 13, page 9.

textbook-recitation procedure still prevails. Briggs[1] found, in his study of "The Practices of Best High-School Teachers" made in 1935, that out of 104 classes observed, about four in every five were conventional teaching from the textbooks. Nineteen, or 18.3 per cent, were sufficiently different to merit special attention. Eleven of these were in English, one in French, four in music, one in American history, and two in general science. Briggs states that, "All the other teachers were doing—with varying techniques and with varying degrees of success, of course—what thousands of other teachers who follow their textbooks are doing daily throughout the country."

I. WHAT ROLE SHOULD THE TEXTBOOK PLAY IN SECONDARY SCHOOL METHODS?

1. Why has the textbook method developed as the predominant instructional procedure in the American secondary school?
2. What are the advantages of the use of the textbook as the principal medium of instruction?
3. In view of the individual differences that exist among high school pupils, is the textbook method of instruction adequate?
4. How may the textbook method be employed and provisions still be made for the wide range in reading ability among pupils?
5. What are the most serious objections to the textbook-recitation method of instruction?

The textbook has been a dominant characteristic of the schools of the United States for more than one hundred years. A survey of the educational writings throughout this period reveals defenses of the textbook as well as unfavorable criticism and furnishes unmistakable evidence of its wide use.[2] So widespread has been its use that European writers have

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[1]Thomas H. Briggs, *The Practices of Best High-School Teachers*, School Review, Volume 43, The University of Chicago, January-December, 1935, pages 745-752.

[2]William C. Bagley, *The Textbook and Methods of Teaching*, Thirtieth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1931, pp. 8-10.

referred to it as the American method. One writer explains that the importance of the textbook in this country is due to the educational conditions of earlier periods. Teachers were poorly trained and instructional materials were meager or non-existent. In fact, students under these conditions were fortunate to have a textbook.

Various national committees have criticized the textbook and the methods of teaching which usually accompany it, but their reports generally close with the admission that the textbook is essential under present conditions.[1] A large number of investigations of current teaching practice have shown that some form of the question-and-answer recitation, based largely on the textbook, is still a dominant, if not the dominant procedure in classroom teaching in American schools.[2] Teachers who maintain that the textbook must play an important part in instructional procedures, however, admit that there are important limitations in its use. Critics point to a growing movement in the direction of the use of multiple texts and paper covered unit bulletins as evidence that the use of a single textbook has not fully met the educational needs of the schools. The recommended reading lists found in textbooks indicate that even the authors recognize a need for supplementary reading. Hart[3] states that, "If the text is to be the chief source of knowledge, the treatment of the various topics must be expanded to include a greater number of essential details and various types of illustrative aids."

Too often the use of a single text has resulted merely in its memorization with little accompanying understanding. Horn[4] has called attention to the following weaknesses of textbooks: (1) textbooks are inadequately comprehended by the average student in the grades for which they are intended; (2) textbooks are deficient in maps, pictures, and instructional aids; and (3) the typical textbook is limited to generalizations. He

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[1]Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XV. American Historical Association, Charles Scribner's Sons, Chicago, 1937.

[2]Elliot Backlund, *An Analysis of Classroom Activities in the Teaching of American History in Chicago Schools*. Master's Thesis; Northwestern University, Evanston, 1931.

[3]Albert B. Hart, *Studies in American Education*, Longmans, Green and Co., 1895.

[4]Ibid., 1.

points out, however, that there are potential contributions which the text at its best can make. First, the textbook furnishes to both teachers and pupils an outline of the course of study as a whole. Second, it gives an overview of the topic or problem that is being studied and furnishes each member of the class with a certain amount of information about it. Third, it makes possible definite and systematic assignments. Fourth, it is useful for purposes of summary and review.

Hart[1] recommended that after reading "some brief books —to cover the whole ground" other references and activities should be used to broaden insight. He argues that class discussion "is hardly to be expected from those who have only the foundation of the textbook." It is significant that as early as 1894 the Committee of Ten resolved that after the first two years a suitable textbook or textbooks should be used, but only as a basis of fact and sequence of events, to be supplemented by other methods. This committee further resolved that pupils should be required to read one other account besides that of the textbook in studying each lesson. We must recognize that not all schools are in a position to provide adequate source materials. School budgets are a limiting factor in providing needed reference materials. Many administrators assert, however, the fault is not with the school budgets but with classroom teachers. Budgets for reference materials are planned in terms of the recommendations and requisitions of the teachers. Too many teachers are not familiar with instructional materials and aids in their fields.

In a discussion of this issue consideration must be given to the criticism that "textbook teaching has been condemned because of its association with the memoriter method of learning. One practice which has received much condemnation is that in which the pupils recite to the teacher facts memorized from the book."[2] This method is objected to on the grounds that the facts become ends in themselves and not means to understanding. Perhaps the basic question is whether the textbook can be used as a valuable aid to classroom instruction without permitting it to dictate the content of the course of

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[1]Albert B. Hart, *Studies in American Education*, Longmans, Green and Co., 1895.

[2]Arthur C. Binning and David H. Binning, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, McGraw-Hill, 1935, p. 94.

study and to result in verbalistic and "cookbook" learning activities.

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II. IS THE NATURE OF THE ASSIGNMENT A PRIMARY FACTOR IN PLANNING TEACHING PROCEDURE?

1. What are the functions of the assignment?
2. Can the assignment be made to provide effectively for pupils of varying abilities?
3. What are some of the advantages of the different types of assignments now in use?
4. What are the criteria of a good assignment?
5. What are the principal weaknesses of the traditional teacher-prescribed page assignment?

Bossing[1] defines the assignment as follows: "The assignment applies to that part of the instructional activity devoted to the clear recognition and acceptance by the pupil of the next unit

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[1]Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools,* Houghton-Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1935.

of learning to take place, and of the processes by which this learning may be achieved most effectively." This definition emphasizes the importance of four factors in the nature of an assignment, (1) suggesting the problem or topic to consider; (2) recommending a procedure to follow in attacking the problem or topic; (3) giving direction and assuming the pupil's acceptance of the task and procedure; and (4) recognizing that the most effective learning is the product of pupil activity self-imposed. It cannot be presumed, of course, that all assignments will be based on units or problems, but the above factors may be applied also in describing a purely topical assignment.

The competent teacher is well aware of the importance of the assignment in the technique of teaching, but there are many who fail to realize its significance to instructional outcomes. One writer suggests that "teachers generally do not appreciate the importance of the assignment, and the work of the pupil probably suffers as much from hasty or careless assignments as from any other single cause."[1] Wrinkle and Armentrout[2] state that, "the assignment is of primary importance for three reasons: (1) it is the teacher's opportunity to give direction to the learning activity; (2) it provides the stimulus to which the subsequent activity is the response and (3) it is the determining factor in directing the development of effective habits of study."

In making assignments teachers are confronted with the problem of providing for individual pupil differences. If it is the duty of the public school to accept and to work with each pupil who comes to us, then how and to what extent can the nature of the assignment be used to influence the instructional outcomes for these pupils of widely varying abilities? Should the assignment be expected to challenge the superior student and also to make provisions for the slow pupil? How may the nature of the assignment serve to aid each pupil in developing his abilities to the fullest extent? Some theorists maintain that the number of failures in the school is influenced to a great extent by the type of assignment employed. This does not imply, however, that our main goal should be to

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[1]W. N. Drum, *A Preview of Teaching*, Ginn and Co., Boston, 1928.
[2]W. L. Wrinkle and W. D. Armentrout, *Directed Observations and Teaching in Secondary Schools*, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1932.

prevent failures. We have a greater obligation to provide a program designed to stimulate the growth of all pupils.

Types of Assignments

In the great volume of educational literature dealing with the assignment, no two writers have classified the types of assignments in the same manner. Bossing[1] has attempted to provide a practical classification so as to reveal a wealth of possibilities to teachers. His classification follows:

1. *Page or paragraph assignment:* Often thought of as the textbook assignment. Unfortunately, this method is still widely used as recent studies have revealed.
2. *Chapter assignments:* Another form of the textbook assignment though vastly different from the page or paragraph form. Chapters usually are of a unitary nature and involve some elements of completeness within themselves.
3. *Topical assignment:* This type may or may not center about a single chapter in a textbook. It has a wealth of possibilities in the social sciences particularly.
4. *Problem assignment:* Where an arbitrary distinction is set up between a problem and a project this type becomes a very valuable form of assignment.
5. *Project assignment:* Adapted especially to the workshop, natural sciences, and in some measure to the social studies.
6. *Exercises:* Most frequently used in mathematics. It represents the old traditional approach to teaching.
7. *Individual or group report assignment:* Used extensively as a device to supplement other types and to provide for individual differences.
8. *Unit assignment:* Associated with the Morrisonian unit and cycle plan of teaching.
9. *Contract assignment:* As used in common practice this type differs little from the unit assignment.
10. *Experimental assignment:* This is a form of the problem or project types characteristic of the science laboratory.
11. *Drill assignment:* This type represents an assignment of repetitions of activities designed to produce mental or motor skills.

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[1]Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1935.

Criteria of a Good Assignment

There are certain characteristics or criteria which should be considered in making any assignment whether it be long or short, teacher-made or pupil-made. Some of the criteria for a good assignment are as follows:

1. *Clear.* Pupils should understand what they are expected to do.

2. *Definite.* The references, learning activities, and other phases of the assignment should be definite and to the point.

3. *Stimulate thinking.* The assignment should be presented in such fashion as to arouse curiosity and stimulate pupils to think.

4. *Motivation.* The assignment should be made so that the purposes of the assignment will be understood and become the purposes of the pupil. It should be presented in a stimulating manner so that it will arouse interest and intellectual curiosity.

5. *Significant.* The value of the assignment should be understood by the pupil. If the assignment is made as a prescription and not in such a manner that its significance to previous and subsequent experience is understood, it will have little meaning.

6. *Adapted to pupil differences.* A good assignment must recognize differences in the abilities and interests of pupils and make provisions for these differences within the practical limits of an actual school and classroom setting.

7. *Appropriate time provisions.* The assignment must be adapted to the time available to the students. An assignment that is too long or too short will not be effective.

8. *Recognize pupil interests.* The assignment must be made so as to recognize the interests of pupils and to build from these interests. This does not mean that present interests of pupils should dictate the assignment, but it does imply that pupil interests may be used effectively in securing desirable learning outcomes.

9. *Related to previous work.* The assignment should grow out of the previous work of a class or course unless it is an introductory assignment. Through it the teacher should seek to develop continuity in the learning experiences of pupils.

10. *Effective time placement.* A good assignment will be made when it fits into the continuity of the class activities most

effectively. A long unit type of assignment may require two or three periods. Short daily assignments may be made at various times. Usually the last few minutes in the class period is not a good time because it may be hurried.

Weaknesses of Traditional Assignments

Studies show that the most frequent type of assignment is sketchy, hastily made, limited to certain pages in the textbooks, and prescribed by the teacher. This type of assignment has many weak spots as a means for directing the learning activities of pupils.

Frequently it is not clearly understood by the pupil, and he feels that it is unfair. Pupils are required to spend too much time floundering about in an effort to determine just what the teacher might have had in mind. If the assignment is merely prescribed by the teacher, the pupil loses the value of the thinking, if any, which led to the assignment and, consequently, it is difficult for him to develop a real purpose in his study.

The assignment based on a few pages in the textbook lacks continuity and leads to "cookbook" and verbalistic achievement upon the part of students. It also deprives the student of the value of becoming acquainted with good source materials as well as with the viewpoints of different writers and authorities. Although this objection is not as applicable to such fields as literature and mathematics as it is to sciences, social studies, and related subjects, it is an important teaching problem in all subject fields.

The usual brief page by page assignment is particularly ineffective in stimulating interest and real thinking on the part of pupils. Pupils who are adept at memorizing may be given a false impression of their own abilities through this type of assignment. Since these pupils are usually able to give back to the teacher in the words of the textbook the things called for in recitation, they frequently obtain a high teacher rating without developing real understanding. Thorough learning and careful scholarship are actually impeded by this type of procedure.

Pupil Participation in the Assignment

A growing number of teachers are experimenting with an assignment technique which calls for a high degree of pupil

participation in raising problems to be studied, in defining study outlines, and in finding and evaluating study materials. Pupils also suggest types of activities such as experiments, field trips, demonstrations, and reports which they believe will help them to understand the materials being studied.

This type of assignment takes more time than a teacher prescribed assignment, but its supporters insist that it is economical of time in the long run because there is less waste motion in study and pupils are more intensely interested. It places a premium on getting pupils to think through and to define in their own language the purposes of the assignment. Its chief value is in the pupil abilities which it develops—learning how to think, how to attack a problem, and where to go for information.

This type of procedure does not lend itself readily to the teaching of skill subjects such as typewriting, languages, and certain courses in mathematics, but it has been and is being used effectively in other fields. It requires good library facilities and a teacher with some capacity for hard work and imagination.

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III. WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE UNIT METHOD OF INSTRUCTION?

1. What is a good working definition of the unit method of instruction?
2. What are the essential characteristics of a "unit" of instructional material?
3. Is the unit method the best answer for adapting instruction to individual differences among pupils?
4. What are the advantages of the unit method?
5. What are the limitations of this method of instruction?

Before attempting a discussion of the unit in classroom teaching, it is important to agree on some sort of definition of the so-called unit method. Binning and Binning[1] state, "While there is no exact agreement as to a definition of the term, unit, there is a general agreement in so far as the idea that the unit emphasizes the organization of material in related groups, each large enough to be significant, but small enough to be seen as a whole by the pupil." Morrison[2] defines the unit as, "some significant and comprehensive part or aspect of the environment or of the science which is being studied—the pedagogical test of a unit is that it must be a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, or of an organized science, capable of being understood rather than capable of being remembered." The following quotation from Harap[3] emphasizes the existing disagreement as to the meaning of the term "unit":

> "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

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[1]Arthur C. Binning and David H. Binning, *Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1935.

[2]Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1931.

[3]Henry Harap, *Next Steps in Curriculum Making*, The Elementary School Journal, volume 31, pp. 16-24 (September, 1930).

breakfast. A second conception is that a unit is a large sub-division 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 sub-divided. Essentially this view does not differ from the two preceding conceptions except that the problem takes the place of the objectives 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 sub-division of a branch of knowledge in which manipulations and sensory experiences are included only for expediency."

Those who support the unit method of instruction are careful to make a clear distinction between a unit and a chapter heading and between a unit and a topic. Binning and Binning[1] call attention that, "A mere division of subject matter which cannot be understood except in its relation to other topics or other chapters is not a unit." And Umstattd[2] writes that, "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." Considerable confusion has resulted in terminology in the development of the unit as a method of instruction. Therefore, any group undertaking a discussion of this issue must establish a mutual understanding concerning the nature of the unit idea.

Advantages

Educators who consider the unit method of instruction to be the most effective procedure in teaching claim its greatest advantage is in the development of understanding of significant aspects of our environment. They say it is a step in the

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[1]Arthur C. Binning and David H. Binning, *Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools*, McGraw-Hill Co., New York, 1935.
[2]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn and Co.

right direction because the human mind is incapable of grasping large volumes of factual material, especially if unrelated. Again Umstattd[1] writes, "The tendency today in teaching the social studies, for example, is not to teach isolated events, but wherever possible to show the relationship of events." Others argue that the unit approach is superior because it incorporates important principles of learning established through educational and psychological research.

One of the important advantages claimed for the unit method is that it combines method and content as inseparable parts of a given division of a course. Whether students are supposed to be participating in experiences in a "core" area or simply studying an unembellished course in world history, subject matter and the activities involved in learning subject matter actually constitute a major part of what goes on. Some sort of systematic organization, therefore, is necessary if students are to develop any real understanding of the subject or area of experience under consideration.

It is the belief of many teachers and theorists that the unit method is superior to a topical or brief assignment approach because it consciously seeks to coordinate content and learning activities. The unit provides an instructional approach which incorporates recognized principles of learning in the development of the major subject concepts and other defined objectives of the unit. For example, a unit from general biology such as, "Obtaining and Using Food" is a division of a biology course which is significant and comprehensive. Along with an outline of the major concepts of this unit the instructor should plan pupil activities designed to facilitate an understanding of the content of the unit. One major topic selected from an outline of this unit is, "How animals are equipped to secure food." A suggested activity is for each pupil to observe a pet animal each day, recording observations on how he eats and examining his physical structure for eating. This is a simple illustration but serves to show how learning activities may be directly related to content.

Herbart (1776-1841), the German philosopher, suggested a basis for the unit idea through his observations of how human learning is accomplished. Herbart divided the learning proc-

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[1]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching,* Ginn and Co.

ess into four steps: (1) apprehension by the pupil of each fact, (2) association or comparison of the facts, (3) systematizing and classification of the facts, and (4) the application of the knowledge learned. The followers of Herbart defined five formal steps in the learning process: (1) preparation, (2) presentation, (3) association or comparison, (4) generalization, and (5) practical application. Morrison's application of the unit idea is essentially the Herbart concept of human learning. Some educators claim that the real advantage of the method is that it lends itself readily to provisions for individual differences, remedial procedures, scientific system of testing which allows for follow-up work, the use of sound methods of supervised study, and socialized procedure. Space will not permit a complete summarization of the claims made for the unit method of instruction. A review of the literature on the subject will reveal many additional advantages claimed for this method of teaching.

Limitations

Educators who are enthusiastic in their support of the unit method of instruction usually point out that it also has limitations. Any careful consideration of the unit method makes it evident that its use in teaching requires a superior type of teacher. It must be emphasized also that to use units developed by someone else would not be much better than to adopt a textbook and teach from it alone. The limitations seem to be largely in the teacher's ability to handle this method of instruction. It is difficult to construct good units, to select assimilative material, to eliminate irrelevant material, and to plan presentation so as to bring about the most fruitful results. There is a danger that some teachers may regard the unit plan as a panacea for all instructional ills to the neglect of other proved teaching procedures. Another weakness is that this method of instruction is not well adapted to certain logical or skill subjects such as Latin, algebra, music, and typewriting. For example, algebra is an organized system of knowledge which must be developed pretty much in a logical division of a beginning course in algebra, but it would be difficult to fit it to any accepted definition of a unit. It certainly is not a significant aspect of our social environment.

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IV. TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES AND MATERIALS BE PLANNED IN ADVANCE OF CLASSROOM USE?

1. Should courses be planned before classes actually meet even though the instructor has not had an opportunity to become well acquainted with his pupils?
2. What are the advantages of presenting subject matter in a logically planned sequence?
3. May instruction be developed around the interests and experiences of pupils and still be planned in advance of classroom use?
4. What is the fundamental difference between the psychological and logical type of course organization?
5. If learning involves the interaction of the individual with his environment, how may we plan instruction which includes both a systematic and a psychological sequence?

The issue stated above is indeed a controversial one among educators. The argument centers around the problem of meeting the needs of a particular group of pupils. "One of the first things that each teacher must do if she is really to help children plan worth-while experiences is to get acquainted with the group which she finds in her charge, learn as much as she can about each boy and girl—about their past experiences, their interests, their prejudices, and their viewpoints."[1]

Present Practice

Classroom instruction in the American high school is rather generally characterized by some type of advanced planning—good, bad, or indifferent. In some schools individual teachers or local faculties have developed their own courses of study. In other schools a state course of study or a course outline borrowed from another school serves as a guide. More frequently, however, planning is done by adopting a single basic textbook and outlining daily classroom activities to fit successive small segments of the textbook.

Some form of lesson planning has characterized secondary teaching since the early Latin-grammar schools. As educational methodology developed and as more supervision was provided in high schools, lesson planning became the object of considerable attention. It probably reached its peak during the 1920's when it was not uncommon for supervisors to require teachers to make up detailed daily lesson plans for several weeks in advance of classroom use.

The absurdity of this detailed planning, however, soon became evident even to supervisors. Since that time there has been a trend toward over-all course planning with a greater degree of flexibility in day-by-day plans so as to permit the adaptation of instruction to group and individual pupil characteristics.

Contributions of Planning

Values claimed for definite instructional planning are supported by logical arguments growing out of classroom experiences. In the first place careful planning provides a logical

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[1]Los Angeles County, *Teachers' Guide, Intermediate Unit*, Courses of Study, Los Angeles County Board of Education, 1931, pp. 34-37.

course outline or framework which strengthens retention of materials. Educational research shows that pupil achievement, if measured in terms of subject matter mastery, is greater if a course is organized in some logical sequence. Students who have suffered through a course which was presented in a haphazard manner and without any apparent organization will testify readily in support of this argument. Kotona[1] writes on this subject, "We conclude that organization is a requirement for successful memorization. It must be present in some form in all kinds of learning."

It is argued that teacher planning also results in better pupil understanding of the purposes of a course. It is extremely difficult for a student to develop aims for a course unless the instructor has thought them through himself. If the development of purposes upon the part of pupils is essential to motivation and understanding, it would seem that teacher planning should be an important means of achieving those ends.

Planning instructional activities in advance of actual classroom procedure also insures some degree of teacher preparation which is a problem of no little concern in too many schools. Whether the means justifies the end is debatable, but too often overworked or indolent teachers attempt to "muddle" through a class session with little or no preparation. The usual result is that neither the teacher nor the pupils know where they are trying to go, and any desirable learning which takes place is largely accidental.

Limitations of Advance Planning

The inability of teachers to anticipate in advance of an actual classroom situation the direction that learning activities should take so as to meet the problems and interests of pupils is one of the serious objections raised to detailed teacher planning. Granting that the teacher should have major objectives in mind for each course, the critics of pre-fabricated teaching insist that the detailed content and activities used to achieve these objectives must develop more or less extemporaneously through an interchange of ideas between pupils and teachers in the classroom.

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[1]George Kotona, *Organizing and Memorizing*, Columbia University Press, 1940, pp. 6-17.

These critics charge that pre-planning of classroom procedures makes the mastery of subject content, rather than the development of individual pupils, the end of education. It is their contention that classes and individual pupils vary widely in their previous learning experiences and in their capacity to learn. It is further argued that a high degree of flexibility must be maintained in course content and procedures if instruction is to be effectively adapted to pupil needs.

It is maintained also that teaching which emphasizes the mastery of pre-planned content is frequently dull and uninspiring to pupils. The case of the college professor lecturing from yellowed notes year after year so that each group of students knows just what day the joke about the "Billy Goat" is coming, is a classic example. Such procedure even dulls the initiative and imagination of the instructor which makes boredom unanimous.

Values of Flexibility in Planning

The most severe critics of pre-digested subject-centered instruction do not claim that there should be no planning on the part of teachers. It is their belief that the teacher should have definite objectives in mind and be so familiar with his subject field that continuous adaptations can be made during the give and take of the classroom.

Flexibility and freedom from detailed course outlines permit the teacher to center his instruction on pupil growth. He is not concerned with getting through the Index of Refraction by February 10, but with Bill Jones' improvement in reading scientific materials and his rapidly growing interest in radio.

Freedom from detailed lesson plans permits the instructor to work with pupils in setting up purposes for the course and for major areas within the course. This procedure encourages the development of study skills, attitudes, and a sense of values along with course content.

Eclectic Viewpoint

The eclectic point of view holds, "The instructional organization, known as the pedagogical, considers both the natural—sequence or logical—development type of learning, as well

as psychological organization. The nature of the material and the purpose of the course must determine in part the extent to which the logical or psychological should be stressed."[1] Certain courses, such as algebra, may be presented by logical organization, while a study of literature may be planned according to a psychological basis. The principal argument is that the most satisfactory organization will always involve both.

Instruction organized on logical or mechanistic principles tends to have its focus outside the learner.[2] As Bode suggests, the implication is that "the pupil is just so much raw material awaiting the manipulation of the teacher." Instruction would be planned so as to provide stimuli which cause the learner to act in certain desired ways. "The ideal organization of instruction from the mechanistic point of view seems to be achieved when the teacher knows in advance precisely what activities the pupils are to engage in, what stimuli will produce the desired activities, and the order in which it is desired that the activities be carried on."[3]

The so-called organismic point of view as applied to the curriculum does not accept the premise that stimuli are relatively external to the learner. Learner and environment are considered one. The focal point of emphasis is the learner and his experiences are the means of education. The educational possibilities are in the wants or goals present in the individual. The purpose of the individual becomes the determining factor in the organization of instruction. It follows then that instructional organization cannot be set up in rigid form in advance of a learning situation.

It may be argued, however, that if the method of planning instruction described above is used the teacher would go to class with only a vague idea of the subject matter that she wishes the pupils to learn, and then would rely upon spur-of-the-moment inspiration to create the necessary situations and to develop the correct methods and procedures. "Much poor teaching has been done under the name of progressive teaching

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[1]Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools,* Houghton-Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1935.

[2]Hollis L. Caswell, *Practical Application of Mechanistic and Organistic Psychologies to Curriculum Making,* Journal of Educational Research, 28:21-23, September, 1934.

[3]Ibid.

by taking too literally the theory that the procedure should grow out of class activities."[1] "Good teaching is accomplished when the teacher creates in the pupils the desire to follow the trail that he has previously mapped out for them."[2]

In view of the various arguments for proper methods of organizing instruction is it possible to reconcile more than one point of view in planning the classroom instruction?

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V. TO WHAT EXTENT IS IT DESIRABLE AND POSSIBLE TO ADAPT INSTRUCTION TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG STUDENTS?

1. How has the growing acceptance of the principle that free public education should be provided for all normal children and youth increased the problem of providing for individual differences in the school?
2. What must teachers know about pupils in order to adapt instruction to individual needs?
3. Is it possible to provide individualized instruction in the class of average size?

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[1]Arthur C. Binning and David H. Binning, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1935.
[2]Ibid.

4. Are administrative changes necessary to provide opportunities for such instructional adaptations?
5. What are the limiting factors in planning instruction so as to meet the problem of individual differences?

One of the significant trends in secondary education in America since the inception of the public high school has been the growing acceptance of the responsibility for providing educational opportunities for all youth of high school age. In the attempt to make secondary education universal in the United States, it has been difficult to give proper regard to pupils as individuals.[1] We have been concerned primarily with the general needs of pupils. Educators for many years have called attention to the importance of individual differences, but they have neglected to do much in a tangible way toward developing an instructional program to meet them.

In accepting the responsibility for providing educational opportunities for all of the children of all of the people, educators must face the problem of making instructional provisions for individual pupil differences. In every school, in every class and in every grade, may be found wide differences in the capacities and interests of pupils. For example, Cole[2] in her study of one ninth grade reported that pupils varied in academic intelligence from little better than the average seventh-grader, nearly up to the capacity of the average freshman in college. Pupils in this same class varied in scores on reading comprehension tests from little better than that of the average sixth-grader to that of the average college sophomore. "Moreover, these differences are merely suggestive of a host of differences in aptitudes and abilities of all sorts significant in the education of the pupils forming any class in any grade; and to these differences in aptitudes and abilities must be added differences in interests and aims."[3]

Teachers who wish to do something about the problem of

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[1]M. L. Goetting, *Teaching in the Secondary School*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942, Chapter IV.

[2]Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1936, p. 230.

[3]Roy O. Billett, *Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching*, Chicago, Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1940, Chapter I, p. 13.

providing for individual differences realize that they must know more about an individual pupil than his name, telephone number, and home address. They need to know his aptitude for academic work, for mechanical pursuits, for physical activities, and for social adjustment. Teachers need to know about his health, family, and home background, how he spends his leisure time, whom he associates with, his previous success or failure in school, and about his future plans.

The following quotation from Billett[1] gives an estimate of the problems that face the classroom teacher:

> "But the problem is not solely one of providing for individual differences. From a sociological point of view all pupils have many needs in common. Moreover, from a psychological point of view pupils are more alike than unlike. In the reorganization of any secondary-school course, therefore, the teachers problem is two-fold—first, to select and to organize for classroom presentation certain core materials (activities and experiences) likely to provide for the pupils' common social needs and psychological similarities, and from which suitable deviations may be allowed as provisions for individual differences."

Various techniques have ben developed to make provisions for differences among pupils. While it is generally agreed that the instruction should be adapted to the individual differences existing within the class, there is considerable disagreement concerning the goals to be set up for the various levels of ability. For instance, schools differ in their educational purposes. Gertrude Hildreth, in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, states, "The practice in many schools, especially those commonly designated as conventional, imply goals which differ mainly in degree or quality of achievement; i. e., the goals include the same items for all pupils, but differences in degree of achievement are expected."[2] Another technique of planning instruction to provide for individual differences is the preparation of assignments providing minimum essentials to meet the common needs of all pupils in the class. These

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[1]Roy O. Billett, *Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching*, Chicago, Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1940, Chapter I, p. 13.

[2]Gertrude Hildreth in the Encyclopedia of Educational Research, The Macmillan Company, 1941, pp. 598-600.

minimum essentials are then supplemented with additional study activities for pupils of superior ability.

The so-called progressives advocate an activity or project 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 of study by encouraging students to pursue projects or activities which are within the range of their abilities and interests.

Others have attempted to meet the problem by means of laboratory methods, supervised study, differentiated assignments, workbooks, and supplementary assignments. "On the basis of pupil ability, assignments may be differentiated according to difficulty, or assignments equal in difficulty may be differentiated according to some such basis as pupil interest or pupil needs."[1] The laboratory method or adapting instruction to differences of ability involves variations in the rate of progress. In Winnetka, Illinois, where this method is used, the instruction is outlined in terms of common essentials and provides creative activities for the pupils of greater ability.

Two approaches to the problem of adapting instruction to the varying needs of pupils are homogeneous grouping and ability grouping. Homogeneous grouping is a plan to bring together a group of students with similar abilities, educational backgrounds, interests, degrees of maturity, and other qualities which affect learning. The purpose of the plan is to reduce the wide range in pupil interests and capacities frequently present in an unselected group of students so that the teacher may adapt instruction more effectively to the needs of pupils. Theoretically a teacher can work more efficiently with students if the range in abilities and interests within a particular group is reduced.

Ability grouping is a refinement of homogeneous grouping. The separation of pupils from a given grade into groups is done largely in terms of such factors as intelligence, reading ability, and previous scholastic achievement. At the secondary school level pupils sometimes are grouped according to abilities in certain subjects such as mathematics or English. This procedure reduces the range of abilities within a single

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[1]M. L. Goetting, *Teaching in the Secondary School*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942, p. 78.

section and permits the instructor to adapt course content and procedures to the level of ability represented in a given group of students.

Evidence concerning the effectiveness of these attempts to adapt instruction to individual differences is inconclusive. In terms of subject achievement, the evidence shows that ability grouping is most effective for dull students, next most effective for average students, and least effective for superior students. Results comparing achievement of students in ability groups with those in unselected groups show a slight but inconclusive advantage for ability groups.

It is impossible to make any generalizations concerning the merits of various plans for adapting instruction to individual differences. The effectiveness of any plan of instruction to meet the needs of pupils of varying ability and interest depends upon the resourcefulness of the teacher.

Problems and Limitations

Although educators are aware that wide differences exist among pupils in their capacities to learn, interests, health, emotional makeup, and other traits, and although they have come to accept in theory the need to adapt instruction to individual differences, little actual change in practice has been made in the classroom. Probably the explanation of the lag between theory and practice is not so much apathy as it is practical difficulties.

Teachers and administrators point out that under present school conditions it is physically impossible to give a great deal of individual attention to each pupil in any one class. Most teachers will agree that they can do more than they are doing now, but insist that as long as they are teaching five or six classes per day and have from twenty to thirty-five or more students in each class, they cannot work very closely with any one pupil.

Another important problem in attempting to adapt instruction to individual differences is the lack of suitable materials. Most of the textbook and reference materials at the high school level are written for the student of average or slightly above average ability. There is a pressing need for materials for low ability students. There also is a need for more adequate visual aids and other classroom materials of this type.

The lack of teachers trained in adapting instruction to differences among pupils and the loss of some of the important social values in group instruction, are further problems which come up in connection with the adjustment of instruction to meet individual pupil needs.

Values of Programs Providing for Pupil Differences

Despite problems and differences, more schools are attempting to make provision for pupil differences, and there is growing evidence of its value.

During the past few years a considerable number of high schools have been working with individual pupils to improve their reading. Experiments by Lawson, McCullough, Salisbury, Slemons, and other research workers to measure the effectiveness of instruction providing for differences in reading in the classroom show according to Rothney[1] that, "In all experiments the results indicate that students make gains and, where parallel groups are used, the experimental groups show greater gains than the control groups."

Several experiments show that the Winnetka plan and similar plans save time for pupils. Washburne reports a saving of time of 75 per cent in San Francisco and 50 per cent in Winnetka. In Los Angeles the child who worked in the adjustment rooms proceeded on an average of 3.36 times as fast as the child in regular classrooms.

Mayer-Oakes reports a gain of 25 per cent in the number of students who passed statewide examinations when the Dalton plan was used in a small high school. These results are not conclusive, and there is much experimentation to be done before making more positive statements is justified. Nevertheless, these experiments support theory to some extent and indicate that something can be done.

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VI. HOW EFFECTIVE ARE INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS IN ACHIEVING EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES?

1. What are the various instructional aids which may be used to supplement instruction?
2. Is it possible through the use of instructional aids to overcome the limitations of verbal presentation of subject matter?
3. What are the essential advantages to the use of audio-visual aids in instruction?
4. Discuss the difficulties in making provisions for the use of auditory and visual aids.
5. How may instructional aids be used to secure more effective educational outcomes?

The issue stated above is intended to stimulate a careful evaluation of auditory and visual materials and devices as instructional aids. We have observed a marked increase in the amount of commercially prepared auditory and visual materials and devices which are available as instructional aids. The problem of being familiar with all possible aids to instruction, of selecting, collecting, evaluating, and organizing these materials for the most effective implementation of the curriculum is one of the major responsibilities of the high school teacher today.[1]

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[1]M. L. Goetting, *Teaching in the Secondary School*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., p. 239.

Auditory and visual instruction means the use of instructional aids in securing meanings, appreciations, and developing interest in learning. The use of such instructional aids is a recognition that learning is based on sensory experiences, and "that the visual sense is one of the most frequently used and, in many instances, the most effective in providing sensory experiences for learning."[1] We must recognize the limitations of language or verbal expression in presenting the realities of our social world. The understanding of word pictures must, of a necessity, depend upon the realm of the pupil's experience. The more narrow the boundaries of the pupil's experience, "the more necessary it is to supplement these resources by every possible means."[2]

Most high school subjects are organized on the assumption that pupils have already acquired the ability to read and understand the printed page. Yet we have discovered through the use of standardized reading tests that there is a wide range of ability among high school pupils to read and understand printed material. Among the most effective means of correcting this condition is the use of instructional aids.

Visual aids usually include the use of (a) motion pictures, (b) field trips or excursions, (c) strip films, lantern slides, and glass slides, (d) models and exhibits, (e) graphs, charts and maps. The question implied in the statement of this issue is whether or not instructional aids are effective. The following quotation from the Encyclopedia of Educational Research[3] reveals the claims made for the use of visual materials.

> "The following claims for values of visual materials used adequately in the teaching situation are supported by research evidence:
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> 1. They supply a concrete basis for conceptional thinking and hence reduce verbalistic response of students.
> 2. They have a high degree of interest for students.
> 3. They supply the necessity basis for developmental learning and hence make learning more permanent.

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[1]M. L. Goetting, *Teaching in the Secondary School*, New York, Prentice-Hall, p. 239.

[2]Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Part XV, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Am. Hist. Assoc., Charles Scribner Sons, 1937, Chapter IX.

[3]*Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, The Macmillan Company, 1941, p. 1323, Edgar Dale and Charles F. Hoban, Jr.

4. They offer a reality of experience which stimulates self-activity on the part of pupils.

5. They develop a continuity of thought; this is especially true of motion pictures.

6. They contribute to growth of meaning and hence to vocabulary development.

7. They provide experiences not easily secured in other materials, and hence they contribute to the depth and variety of learning.

The same reference quoted from above lists the following criticisms of visual materials: "(a) they provide learning 'crutches' which abstract thinking." There is a great need for more supporting experimental evidence on the effectiveness of visual materials. The effectiveness of any instructional aid depends upon the manner in which it is used. This is the definite responsibility of the classroom teacher.

Audio Aids to Instruction

The development of the radio has presented unlimited possibilities for education. The radio provides opportunities to share experiences greater in variety and in number than the individual could expect to have in his local community. The radio is a means of disseminating information on many phases of our culture. Developing the radio for educational purposes brings to teachers and administrators a resource that requires the most careful consideration.

In most schools the radio is the best example of the use of auditory aids. The increased use of the radio is evidence that many consider it a useful supplement to classroom work. Alert teachers recognize in the radio opportunities to vitalize their instruction and to provide worthwhile experiences to pupils. The importance of the radio as an instructional device, as with the use of visual aids, is in its increase of perceptual images. Umstattd[1] emphasizes that "learning is dependent in large measure upon the creation of audio and visual images in the mind of the learner."

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[1]J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, Ginn and Company, Chicago, 1937, p. 320.

The value of the radio as an instructional aid may be summarized as follows:

1. Enables the teacher to keep his subject alive and meaningful by bringing firsthand information of every significant event.
2. Opportunity to bring every pupil in touch with the realities of every conceivable aspect of modern life.
3. Provides means for the teacher to enrich the instructional offering.
4. Gives variety to the classroom procedure.
5. Useful means of stimulating interest and developing new interests.
6. Opportunity to teach intelligent listening which has become just as important as intelligent reading.
7. Provides experiences to pupils in the most remote communities which otherwise would be impossible.
8. Brings the affairs of the nation and the world to within the listening experience of the pupil.

There are certain important techniques which must be employed if the values stated above are to be realized. Any well conceived plan for utilizing the radio as part of the instructional procedure will include: (a) preparation, (b) reception, and (c) the follow-up.

Preparation for using the radio will include the selection of programs which will be well adapted to the subject matter and to the pupils for whom the program is intended. The selection of the program content should be based upon the general ability of the pupils. A second matter which will require careful consideration is that of articulating the radio programs with that of the class work. It is difficult to plan class work to correspond with educational programs of local, state, or national radio companies. If radio stations plan their programs far enough in advance and supply the teachers with complete programs this difficulty will be greatly reduced. A third important aspect in the preparation for the use of the radio is the administrative provisions necessary to derive maximum value. Classrooms must be free from distracting noises, and materials should be furnished which will aid in the understanding or appreciation of the program.

During the program it is important that pupils consider the activity as a pleasant and enjoyable experience but not merely

entertainment. The proper reception of the program will depend upon how carefully the preparatory activities have been directed. Pupils should be familiar with the use of maps, pictures, or graphs that may be referred to in the broadcast. The taking of notes is an essential phase of the reception period, and previous training in taking notes will be necessary to accomplish the best results.

The follow-up period is important. If the maximum value is to be secured from radio programs, the alert teacher will be prepared to capitalize on the activities which will be stimulated by the program.

Some progress has been made in recent years to increase the effectiveness of the radio as an instrument of classroom instruction. There will remain several rather serious difficulties, however, which must be overcome before the use of the radio will be an effective aid to instruction. These difficulties may be summarized briefly:[1]

1. Teachers are inexperienced in the use of the radio.
2. The majority of the public schools are inadequately equipped.
3. Radio program directors have not had adequate training in education.
4. It is difficult to synchronize radio broadcasts with the school schedule.
5. There is the problem of adjusting the radio programs to the mental development and the subject matter achievement of the pupil.
6. The development of the radio for private profit has made it impossible to secure radio time for educational broadcasts.

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VII. WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF FORMAL AND INFORMAL METHODS OF EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES OF THE CURRICULUM PROGRAM?

1. What are the various formal and informal methods of evaluating instructional outcomes?
2. Are there important aspects of learning which cannot be measured by formal methods of evaluation?
3. Why must any standardized test be selected with extreme care before using it to evaluate the curriculum program?
4. What seem to be the most serious limitations to informal methods of evaluation?

One of the most persistent problems facing most teachers and administrators is how to evaluate the outcome of the curriculum program. Since the turn of the century there has been an insistent demand for some evidence of the success of the school program. Society has demanded that all agencies of social progress justify the increasing financial burden which their programs have placed upon the public. Educators have experimented with various forms of evaluation devices in an effort to measure the effectiveness of instruction and in an effort to discover means of improving the curriculum.

It is difficult to determine the advantages and limitations of any method of evaluation to a particular school without first knowing the purposes and objectives which that school is trying to realize. Since education is a means of bringing about desirable changes in young people, the purposes and objectives represent the kind of changes which the individual school hopes to bring about. Any adequate program of evaluation will attempt to find evidence of the desirable changes taking place in pupils. This evidence cannot be obtained by paper-and-pencil examinations alone because a statement of purposes will include understandings to be developed, attitudes to be acquired, and certain skills and habits to be realized. There are various educational outcomes which are too difficult and too intangible to measure. In general, this is perhaps the greatest limitation of all methods of evaluating educational outcomes.

However, as Reynolds and Flemming[1] indicate, "Never more than today have American schools been challenged to think honestly and clearly of their purposes and objectives; never more stimulated to improve steadily their curriculum and procedures; never more obligated to consider the results attained and to evaluate the total program as it involves teacher, children, and society." We must constantly seek methods of determining the extent to which our educational objectives are being realized.

What are the formal and informal methods of evaluating outcomes? What are the advantages and limitations of these methods of evaluation? There are at least six evaluation devices which deserve careful consideration: (1) the oral quiz, (2) the essay examination, (3) themes, reports, notebooks, (4) standardized tests, (5) the teacher-created objective examination, and (6) teacher observation.

The Oral Quiz

This is an old and the most commonly used method of measuring results. The teacher devotes a period or two of class time to asking questions of various pupils about the material, chapter, or unit studied. The advantage often given for this procedure is that it enables the teacher to correct at once any false ideas or misconceptions that pupils may have gained from their study. Students giving incorrect answers to questions will be firmly impressed with the correct response given by other members of the class. The advantage here is in the remedial instruction that results when the question is passed on until a satisfactory answer is given. It also provides an opportunity for the teacher to offer a comment or two to clarify the answer. If the question-answer technique is properly used, each pupil will formulate a tentative answer before someone is called upon. This stimulates the student to be critical of the answer and makes it possible for him to correct his own thinking from the correction of his classmates.

There are serious limitations to this type of evaluative procedure. *First*, the teacher must evaluate the responses on the spur of the moment. There is no time for a careful analysis

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[1]Rollo G. Reynolds and Cecile White Flemming, *The Evaluation of the Horace Mann Program*, Teachers College Record, 36:699-701, May, 1935.

of the answer given by pupils. *Second*, pupils have limited opportunity to demonstrate their ability since they may be asked but one or two questions. In large classes some pupils will have no opportunity to answer questions. *Third*, the questions asked of an individual pupil may be of such difficulty as to lead the teacher to conclude quite incorrectly that he possesses little knowledge of the material. A very different conclusion concerning the pupil may have been made had he been asked two or three questions which were given to his classmates. *Fourth*, questions requiring careful consideration and more extended discussion are not convenient in procedures of this type. *Fifth*, the oral quiz does not provide adequate time for the student to formulate reasoned answers. The result is for these examinations to become too factual in nature.

Essay Examinations

Since the middle of the last century the essay examination has been the most widely used method of evaluating the teaching in the schools of this country. Previously the effectiveness of the school program was measured almost entirely by oral testing. During the last twenty years the essay examination has been the target of much adverse criticism. The most severe critics have placed little value upon the essay examination for evaluation purposes. Tregs[1] concludes, "Whatever value we may finally attach to this technique of evaluation, it apparently has little value for measurement purposes." Ruch[2] indicates, "There will doubtless be a place for the traditional examination in the future, but it seems likely that it will tend to become a last resort, to be employed when other methods are not at hand. It may be possible to perfect the ordinary examination so as to control its vagaries, but progress to date leaves small reason to hope for marked success."

Much has been written about the weaknesses and limitations of the essay examination and other non-objective tests.

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[1]E. W. Tregs, *Tests and Measurements for Teachers*, p. 18, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, 1931.

[2]G. M. Ruch, *The Objective or New Type Examination*, p. 25, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1929.

The oft-quoted study of Starch and Elliott[1] with final examination papers in high school English, geometry, and American history confirms the unreliableness of subjective evaluation. This study is rather extensive and involves the grades of high school teachers in high schools which were considered the best in the middle-west. These teachers assigned grades to each paper using a scale of 100. The results indicate the serious weakness in essay examinations. The assigned grades on the English paper varied from 64 to 98. The grades on the geometry paper ranged from 28 to 92, and the marks on the history paper varied from 43 to 90.

In contrast to the adverse criticisms of the essay examination, mention should be made of the conclusions of investigators who have given considerable attention to both the objective and non-objective type of examinations. Weidemann[2] has concluded that objective tests are more useful in the lower grades, and very simple essay examinations may be used with value also. He points out that the essay examinations may be used with value in the "upper and graduate years of college." There are forms of the essay examination which will measure functions not measured by the new-type tests. The implication here seems to be that both have an important place in any complete evaluation program. If we may claim an important place for the written examination at the college level, it would appear logical to give some values for it in the secondary school. Bossing[3] says, "It seems safe to conclude, therefore, that in spite of the evident weakness of the essay examination it possesses distinct value as an instrument of evaluation." Studies reveal that essay forms can be improved, and that the development of better techniques for the construction of essay examinations may be expected as a result of the development of objective tests.

Themes, Reports, Notebooks

Frequently the school provides opportunities for its patrons to review the work of the school. Not infrequently the products

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[1]D. Starch and E. C. Elliott, *The Reliability of Grading High School Work in English*, School Review, Vol. 20, 1912.

[2]C. C. Weidemann, *Written Examination Procedures*, in The Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 16, pp. 78-83 (October, 1933).

[3]Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Chicago, 1942, p. 750.

of the school are an array of reports, themes, and notebooks ingeniously displayed on the desks and walls of the classroom and on charts hung in the corridors during education week. It is natural that the admiring public has come to accept these evaluatien devices as an integral part of our teaching procedures. A great deal can be said for these devices as valuable means of evaluating certain phases of the educative process. However, their value should be justified upon the educative function rather than upon their value as reliable means of measuring educational outcomes. Themes and reports *should be* written in order to provide the pupil an opportunity to develop his ability of expression and organization. These have educational value and justify the use of these devices, but as a method of evaluation of general educational outcomes they are subject to the same disadvantages and limitations as oral and written essay examinations.

Standardized Tests

A test used to determine the effectiveness of the instructional program is not considered standard unless reliable norms have been established for that test. To establish reliable norms a test must be given to a large number of pupils of a given age or grade. Thus a basis for determining what may be expected of other pupils of the same age or group is provided. The important advantage to such tests is in the care with which they have been made reliable, objective, and valid. The standardization of educational tests has enabled educators to meet the problem of the evaluation of the results of instruction.

During recent years a great variety of standardized tests have been constructed. Among them are (1) intelligence tests, (2) special-aptitude tests, (3) interest tests, (4) prognosis school-subject tests, (5) achievement tests, (6) teacher-rating scales. The selection of standardized tests to measure instructional outcomes should be made with extreme care. The selection of these tests for use in a school should be made after carefully considering their (1) validity, (2) reliability, (3) ease of administration, (4) ease of scoring, and (5) ease of interpretation.

There are advantages in the use of standardized tests as an evaluation procedure for the purposes of comparing the relative achievement of one class or school with other schools,

diagnosing various aspects of learning, and graduation and guidance. Standardized tests are prepared by those expertly trained, and therefore, assure a relatively high degree of objectivity and reliability.

Bossing[1] points out, "The most serious limitations upon the general use of standardized tests have been their lack of adaptability to the curriculum as taught in the schools. This difficulty has led to unfortunate results where teachers or administrators have accepted, without question, the validity of the tests for the purposes for which they were used." There is some danger that the standardized tests will become a means by which the curriculum content may eventually be made uniform. Another limitation is in the cost of the tests. The expense for an adequate testing program might be a limiting factor in schools with meager budgets.

Teacher Observations

There are many worthwhile educational outcomes which are difficult to measure. Barr[2] insists, "The characteristics of the pupil's study habits can readily be described by observing him while he is at work on an assigned task. The correctness of his oral English can be more satisfactorily studied by recording his errors while speaking in natural life situations." Teachers should not be reluctant to use subjective observations as a means of evaluating the educative growth of the pupil providing they have a clear conception of what they expect that growth to be.

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