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TRENDS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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TRENDS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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GENERAL STATEMENT OF PRESENT THOUGHT AND TRENDS

An overview of secondary education in the United States at the present time gives an impression of chaos. The apparent disorder is noted in organization of schools by years, in functional organization of the professional staff, in teaching procedure, in promotional machinery, in curriculum content and administration, and in financial programs.

Reference of present conditions to causation, however, brings a feeling of satisfaction. Beneath the apparent lack of standards there is a clearly discernible directive purpose, and the confusion is the confusion of variant stages of growth which is bridging the gap between practice and science and between the school and life.

In the present wide acceptance of a philosophy of purpose which is in harmony with the legitimate rôle of education as a function of government in a democratic social state; in the findings of modern educational psychology; in the phenomenal cumulative rate of increase of secondary enrollments; and in the nature and trends of the present social order, an interpretation of the present status, problems, and trends of secondary education in the United States may be found which gives assurance that, although many marginal trial and error responses are discernible, there is a clearly defined central area of growth in the direction of a more efficient institution.

ACCEPTED PHILOSOPHY OF PURPOSE

Public demand for secondary education of kinds suited to the needs of pupils who had other purposes than college entrance in

view in attending the secondary school had by 1890 created a situation which precipitated widespread debate concerning college entrance requirements. Growing out of, and developing from, these debates a series of national committees were set up[1] which culminated in the Kingsley Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The elaboration of a theory of directive purpose in secondary education as justification for advocated curriculum and administrative reforms permeates the reports of this series of committees.

Stated briefly, current theory of purposes recognizes that we have set up in America a social state which seeks to give to each individual a maximum of social cooperation in his efforts to secure for himself the satisfactions of worthy living. Chief of the agencies of this social state, through which its purposes are sought, we have established a system of universal education at public expense. Such an act fixes the ultimate aim which must direct educational policies and procedures. It implies, on the one hand, the utilization of social resources for the improvement of individual conduct and, on the other, the improvement of the social environment. This directive purpose is operative for all units of the public education system. The secondary school seeks this purpose with children of those stages of maturity characteristic of normal children of approximately 12 to 18 years of chronological age. In seeking to achieve this ultimate purpose it is held necessary to determine the life situations to which individuals must respond and the manner in which present social institutions are functioning. Accordingly, we are seeking to particularize the purposes of education through activity analysis and institutional analysis.

This theory of purpose is infinitely broader than that of preparation for college, which at one time essentially characterized the secondary school. It rejects a selective function. It contemplates the education in secondary schools of all children of appropriate stages of maturity for any worthy purpose in life in our exceedingly complex democratic social state.

INFLUENCE OF MODERN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Proceeding independently of developing philosophy of purpose but paralleling it in time, workers in the field of educational psychology, using the methods of inductive science, have built up a science of child nature and of the learning process, which centers in the specific nature of learning, individual differences of ability to learn, the identity of learning with the habituation of adjustive activity, and the importance for efficiency in learning of approxi-

[1] Bulletin, 1916, No. 8, United States Bureau of Education, and Chapter III, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1.

mating in the learning situation the use-in-life situation of the learned response. Educational psychology, therefore, from the point of view of process, brings the specific activities of life also into the focus of attention.

TRENDS IN ENROLLMENT

Secondary enrollments since 1890 have increased at a phenomenal rate and in a cumulative fashion. The rate of increase of total secondary enrollments over the period 1890–1924 was approximately twelve times that for the total population. The rate of increase of public high-school enrollments was approximately twenty times that for the total population. This evidence of growth is evidence of a growing success in working toward our avowed objective of universal secondary education for the age group approximately 12 to 18 years of age. We are reaching in secondary schools higher and higher percentages of those ages, and we are holding them in school to higher and higher grade levels. Secondary education is thus putting to rout the selective factor and becoming more democratic.

These accretions to the secondary pupil population have profoundly changed the character of that population. Although it is still true that a few economic and social groups, which formerly constituted practically the whole of those participating in secondary education, have a favorable representation, it is now true that children from every economic and social group are found in secondary schools in significant percentages. To a large extent enrollment increases in excess of the rate of total population increase represent increased representation of economic and social groups which previously participated in secondary education to a slight degree only. These accretions have added materially to the heterogeneous character of the secondary pupil enrollment. The heterogeneity evidences itself in mentality, in vocational purpose, in social maturity, in physical maturity, and in academic knowledge possessions at entrance.

NATURE AND TRENDS OF THE PRESENT SOCIAL ORDER

Paralleling the growing heterogeneity of the secondary pupil population the social order is taking on complexity at a bewildering rate. Social welfare agencies are multiplying and battling for particular formulæ of social salvation. New industries are appearing and developing. Increased occupational specialization is noted everywhere. Racial heterogeneity is increasing. Individual interrelations are being dwarfed by group interrelations. Vocational groups are organized for cooperation in competition. Government has come to be frequently envisaged as a tool for group advantage.

The adult society setting is one that makes for social disruption rather than social solidarity. The task of living in such a setting, adapting to it and improving it to the purpose of general social betterment, waits upon extended and efficient education with reference to a wide variety of social situations.

We had in the secondary school an institution that served a fairly homogeneous pupil population and worked under the convenient assumption that a common education which gave intellectual power through general discipline, acquired through struggle with logically organized academic subject matter, would, through transfer, enable the individual to apply his "learning" to any life situation; and that the school should select for social leadership those who could come up to a certain minimum learning pace set by the school.

But the newer concept of purpose and science of learning and trends of enrollment and social progress make these assumptions no longer tenable. We see, therefore, numerous stages of growth incident to transition from programs in harmony with the older concepts in the direction of programs in harmony with the more recent.

The process of constructing conduct curricula waits upon slow and involved analyses. Pressure for immediate reform has led to the introduction of new subjects of study, readjustment of time allotments to subjects, changing the sequence of related courses, and the piecemeal adjustment of courses through the introduction, elimination, or adaptation of topics which enter into individual courses. These matters are responsible for the present apparent curriculum confusion.

Waiting upon a demonstrated effective technique of completely individualized instruction, attempts to approximate individualized instruction through differentiation of instruction for homogeneous groups, variously determined, have appeared. These efforts have given us special curricula, ability grouping, flexible promotion plans, and guidance.

In keeping with elaboration of the secondary educational program and abandonment of the selective function of secondary schools, efforts to extend appropriate secondary education to a greater proportion of the population have resulted in the downward extension of secondary education to include the upper two years of the old elementary school and the formation of the junior high school. This reorganization has proceeded to the extent that more than 2,500 high schools have been affected. Complete reorganization so as to make the junior high school idea effective, however, is geared up with general curriculum reorganization, housing facilities, financial resources, and various personnel problems. As a result, at least 39 types of organization of secondary schools by years are found in the United States to-day, and various degrees of incorporation of

the essential junior high school idea are evidenced. Consideration of secondary education as a functional process indicates the possible secondary character of the first two years of collegiate instruction also, and there is a growing tendency to regard the secondary period as an eight-year period with various proposals for time division into junior high school, senior high school, and junior college units.

Waiting upon harmony of teacher-training programs, with professional functions, and demonstration of proper organization of the professional staff, we are creating new offices and distributing functions to teachers, counsellors, supervisors, directors of this and that, deans, departmental heads, vice principals, principals, and superintendents, largely on the basis of expediency. Current studies of the principalship, of the agents exercising supervisory functions, and of teacher assignments to duties bear witness to a functional expansion and disorder.

SECONDARY PUPIL POPULATION

In the preceding pages a very general statement of current thought and responsive trends of practice in secondary education was attempted. In succeeding topics an attempt is made to set out such essential details as will adequately illustrate the present trends and practices characteristic of secondary schools in the United States.

ENROLLMENT

Phenomenal and cumulative growth characterizes secondary education in the United States since 1890.[2] Figure 1 shows the per cent of increase in college, high school, and elementary school enrollments

[2] In considering the comparative growth of population and school enrollment it should be noted that the use of 1890 as a base from which to compute increases introduces for school enrollments possibilities of error that are serious or trivial, according to the reliability of statistical reports to the United States Bureau of Education for 1890. The reports for 1890 have been used as a base here because they represent the date on which the Bureau of Education first attempted to collect and report separately statistics for public high schools. Prior to 1890 data had been collected and reported separately for city high schools, normal schools, preparatory schools, preparatory departments of institutions for superior instruction, and other institutions for secondary instruction. The enrollments reported for 1870 and 1880 in Bulletin, 1925, No. 42, p. 2, United States Bureau of Education, as pupils enrolled in public high schools are enrollments in institutions for secondary instruction exclusive of the other classification groups listed above. They are, therefore, in no sense either public high school or complete secondary school enrollments.

The reports for 1890 were subject to two sources of error. The returns were probably incomplete, and the probability existed that elementary pupils were without warrant classified as secondary pupils by schools making returns. These probabilities are discussed in the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1890–91, Vol. II, pp. 789–790. In the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1893–94, Vol. I, Chapter III, a detailed statistical review of secondary education is given. Pages 33 and 34 describe an attempt for collecting data for that year, upon which the report is based, which warrants the assumption that the enrollment of 289,274 for public and 118,645 for private high schools represent a total which is as reliable as any subsequent report. The tabular presentation of the 1893 report, showing enrollment growth from 1890 to 1894, warrants the assumption that the 1890 report gave a total which is the best possible estimate of secondary enrollments of that date and sufficiently reliable that no

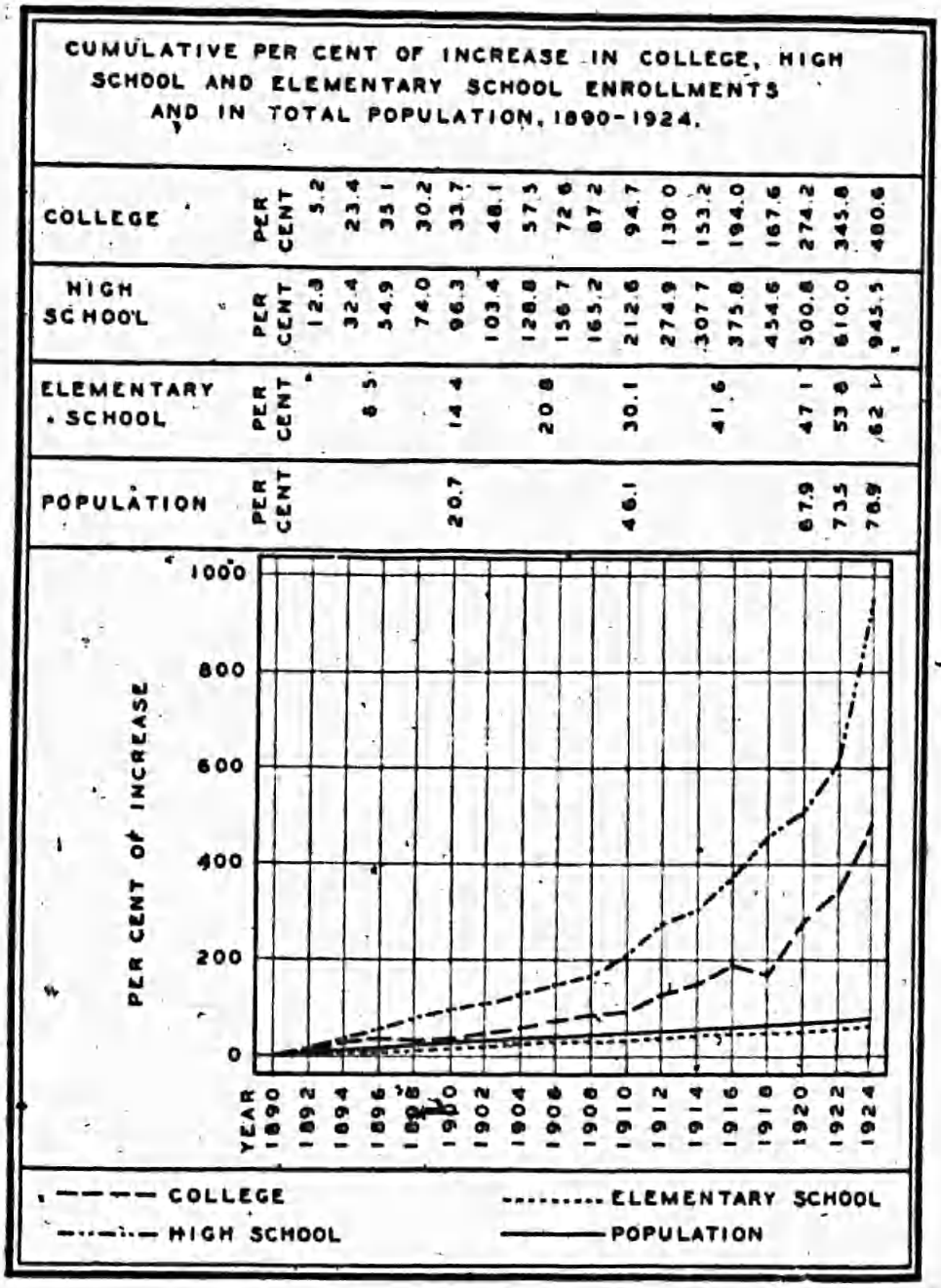

FIGURE 1

error which would seriously affect the comparative trends of growth would result from its use as a base from which to compute increases. It will be noted that use of the 1890 data as a base gives for the period 1890–1896 uniform rates of enrollment increase as shown by Figure 1. Nothing is, therefore, to be gained in accuracy of comparative trends by using a base subsequent to 1890 from which to compute increases. Probably the sources of error in the 1890 data were compensating in effect.

It should be further noted that beginning in 1920 the reports from State school systems for secondary education have been substituted for the reports of individual high schools to the Bureau of Education and published in the series, Statistics of Public High Schools. This change of a source of data was made because the reports from State school systems are admittedly more reliable and the change puts elementary and secondary reports on the same basis. The result of the change to State reports in 1920 intensifies the upturn of the curve for public high schools, giving a total percentage of increase of 1,570 rather than 1,150, which would be obtained through continued use of the returns to the Bureau of Education. Regardless of the figures used, the essential comparative growth holds true. The true percentage increase for public high schools is probably somewhere between 1,150 and 1,570.

for the period 1890–1924. Elementary school enrollments have not kept pace with the rate of increase of the total population. College enrollments have increased at a rate approximately six times that for the total population, and high-school enrollments have increased

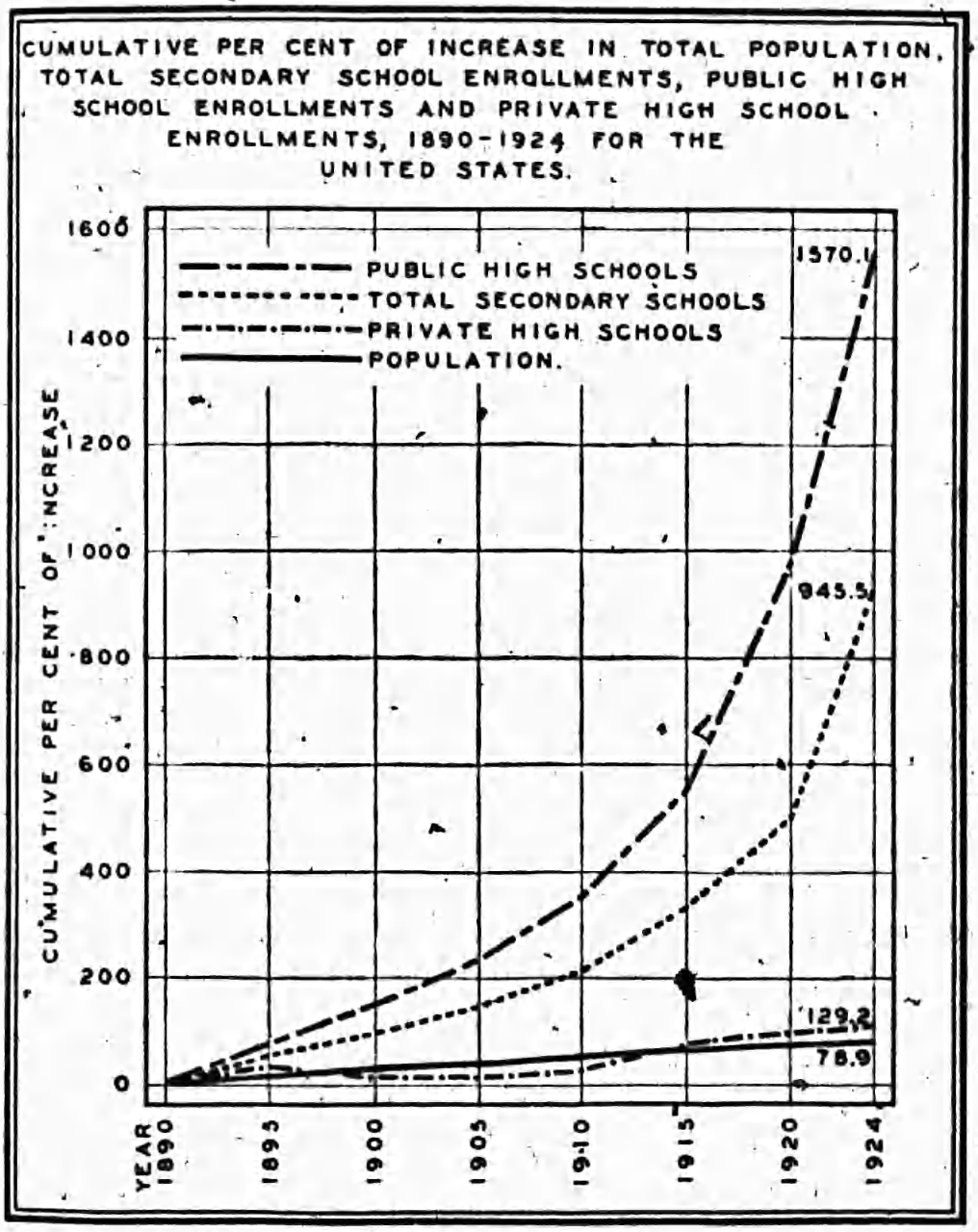

FIGURE 2

at a rate approximately twelve times that for the total population. When we analyze the secondary enrollments, as in Figure 2, into private high-school and public high-school enrollments the rate of increase of the public high-school enrollments is startling, being 20 times that for the total population. From 1895 to 1905 public secondary education obviously grew in part at the expense of private

high schools and academies. Since 1905 private secondary education has recovered, and while not even approximating the growth of public secondary education has nevertheless acquired a rate of increase which is higher than that for the total population.

The fact that elementary school enrollments have not kept pace with population increase does not mean that we are failing to enroll as high percentages of those of elementary school age in school. These percentages have slowly increased at each census period. The failure to keep pace with population is rather due to a falling birth rate and to faster grade progress which sends children into the secondary school at an earlier age.

CHRONOLOGICAL AGE REPRESENTATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The United States Bureau of Education has published age-grade data for 830 cities of the United States having systems of education organized on the 8–4 plan.[3]

The data of these tables have been used as the bases for computing the percentage of each age located in each grade which are shown in Table 2.

The United States Bureau of the Census has published [4] the number and per cent of children of each age 5–20 enrolled in school. These census totals of each age enrolled give a total school enrollment of 21,763,275. The total enrollment in elementary and secondary schools as reported by State departments of education for 1920 was 21,578,316. The difference of 184,959 is less than 1 per cent of the total enrollment reported by State departments of education for elementary and secondary schools and can be accounted for through enrollments of students under 21 years of age in higher institutions of learning. The census reports for each age enrolled in school may, therefore, be accepted as reliable.

TABLE 2.—*Per cent of age in grade in 830 8–4 city school systems*

Age	First grade	Second grade	Third grade	Fourth grade	Fifth grade	Sixth grade	Seventh grade	Eighth grade	Ninth grade	Tenth grade	Eleventh grade	Twelfth grade
4	99.4	0.6										
5	98.2	1.7	0.1									
6	87.8	11.7	.4	0.1								
7	41.7	47.8	9.8	.6	0.1							
8	13.1	34.9	40.9	10.2	.8							
9	4.0	14.1	32.6	37.6	10.6	0.9						
10	1.4	5.2	16.4	31.0	34.2	10.4	1.2					
11	.5	1.9	6.8	17.0	30.0	31.9	10.3	1.2				
12	.3	.8	3.0	8.9	18.1	28.5	28.6	9.8	1.5	0.1		
13	.1	.3	1.3	3.1	10.1	18.4	27.0	28.4	10.4	1.3	0.1	
14	.1	.2	.6	2.0	5.3	10.4	17.6	25.9	27.9	8.4	1.3	
15	.0	.1	.2	1.0	2.5	5.1	9.5	17.2	30.0	24.6	8.0	1.3
16	.0	.0	.1	.3	.7	1.5	3.5	8.0	20.4	28.8	26.8	10.2
17				.1	.2	.3	.8	2.4	9.9	20.2	32.4	33.4

[3] Bulletin, 1924, No. 38, Statistical Survey of Education, 1921–22, p. 17, Table 14. See also Statistical Circular No. 8, May, 1927, An Age-Grade Study in 900 City School Systems.

[4] Fourteenth Census of the United States, 1920, Vol. II, Ch. XI, Table 3.

Using the age-grade data for 830 8–4 city school systems, the curve showing enrollment of pupils of each age 12–18 in school and above grade 6 has been constructed. This curve is shown in Figure 3 in comparison with the per cent of each age enrolled in school as re-

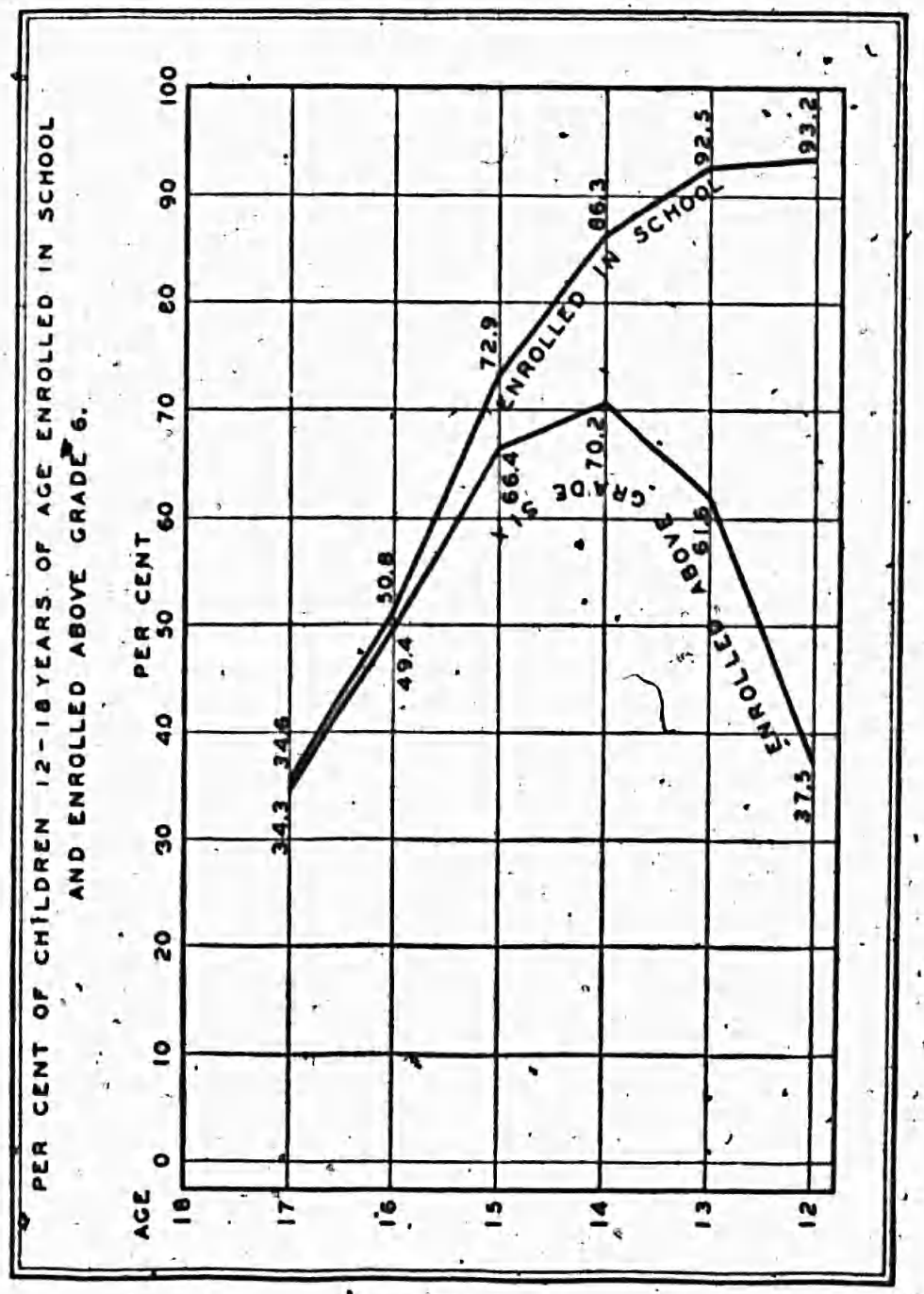

FIGURE 3

ported by the Bureau of the Census. The curves should be read as follows: 93.2 per cent of children 12 years of age are enrolled in school and less than 37.5 per cent are enrolled above grade 6, etc. In interpreting age-grade data it should be kept in mind that an

age of 12 means from 12 years, 0 months, through 12 years, 11 months, etc.

From the curves of Figure 3, showing percentages enrolled in school and percentages of children of secondary school age actually having been brought up to the beginning level of secondary education, the primary problems of further progress toward our goal of universal secondary education for children of accepted secondary school age are made evident. They are in order of importance: (1) Speeding up grade progress and (2) raising the rates of persistence. We actually have in school 93.2 per cent of 12-year-old children but only 34.6 per cent of 17-year-old children. The facts show that the heavy loss begins after the age of 14 has been reached. While this loss is serious, we know that the situation is rapidly being remedied.

Figure 1 shows that elementary school enrollments have not kept pace with total population increase. The fact that secondary enrollments have outstripped population increase is, therefore, a matter of increased persistence through the secondary school grades.

In 1890 the secondary school enrollments were 1.6 per cent of total elementary and secondary enrollments.[5] In 1924 secondary school enrollments were 14 per cent of total elementary and secondary enrollments. In 1911 the survival rate from grade 9 to grade 12 was 36.9 per cent.[6] In 1924 this rate had become 49.3 per cent. Whether or not this increased persistence is due to adjustments by the secondary school or whether it arises from legal compulsion or social urges from without is not a question of interest here.

When we examine the curve showing enrollment above grade 6 and consider that approximately 10 per cent of 17-year-old pupils have completed grade 12 as indicated by Table 1 it becomes obvious that slow progress is a factor now limiting the further extension of secondary education which is more serious than mortality. If we can get 12-year-old children up to the level of beginning secondary education we shall immediately bring 93.2 per cent of them in contact with secondary education rather than less than 37.5 per cent, as in 1920. Similarly, we shall reach 92.5 per cent of 13-year-old children rather than less than 61.6, etc.

PUPIL FAILURE

Slow progress is in part attributable to irregular school attendance. Just what degree of retardation is due to irregular attendance we do not know. Failure and repetition of courses is, however, a

[5] "Statistics of State School Systems, 1923–24." U. S. Bu. of Educ., Bul., 1925, No. 42, p. 2, Table 1.

[6] "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1923–24. U. S. Bu. of Educ., Bul., 1925, No. 40, p. 5, Table 2.

factor which is also involved and data are available which are thought to be fairly representative of the country as a whole so far as grades 9 to 12 are concerned. As an item of a study of the status of senior high school promotion plans made for the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education by J. F. Montague, a candidate for the degree of Ph. D., school of education of the University of Missouri, failure data were collected which have been compiled for 304 high schools. Of these schools 41 were in the territory of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, 74 in the territory of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, 26 in the territory of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 134 in the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 13 in the territory of the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and 16 in the three States (California, Nevada, and Utah) not affiliating at the time of the study with any of the regional accrediting agencies. Table 4 shows the failure situation by grade and for all grades combined for the group of 304 high schools.

TABLE 4.—*Failures, by high-school grades*

Grade	Pupils enrolled	Pupils failing							
		One subject		Two subjects		Three or more subjects		Total pupils failing	
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
9	76,073	11,790	15.50	6,489	8.53	4,473	5.88	22,752	29.91
10	67,014	11,015	16.44	5,172	7.72	3,291	4.91	19,478	29.07
11	51,354	7,448	14.50	3,043	5.93	1,640	3.19	12,131	23.62
12	40,413	2,792	6.91	1,021	2.53	526	1.30	4,339	10.74
Total	234,854	33,045	14.07	15,725	6.70	9,930	4.23	58,700	24.99

On an average one pupil in four gets a record of failure which amounts to 1.6 credits per year per pupil failing. Assuming a normal pupil load of four credits for 936,676 attempted credits, 95,035 are failed, which is a failure rate of 10.2 per cent of work attempted. This is equivalent to reducing progress to 89.8 per cent of normal progress. Remedying the failure situation in the high school is therefore an important consideration in speeding up progress. The fact that failure rates are substantially higher in the early high-school years and that heavy mortality exists through these years shows that as a factor it is even more important than is indicated by the average failure rate for the four years.

EDUCATIONAL AND MENTAL AGE REPRESENTATION

In spite of our efforts to standardize through various prescriptions and through the practice of failing pupils who do not measure up to

certain minimum standards of accomplishment, our present grade groups are even more heterogeneous as to mental and educational age than as to chronological age. A comparison of the chronological age representation for grade 9 in 830 cities, based on the age-grade table of Bulletin, 1924, No. 35, United States Bureau of Education, with the mental age distribution shown by the Terman group test of mental ability and with the distribution of educational ages as shown by the Stanford achievement test norms, 1923 edition, makes the fact of wider mental and educational age as compared with chronological age variability obvious. Striking corroborative evidence for mental and chronological age variability is shown for Chicago by Keener[7] and by numerous recent surveys of State and local school systems. This heterogeneity of present-grade groups in secondary schools is probably a growing tendency paralleling the growing social heterogeneity which is known to be under way.

SOCIAL AND OCCUPATIONAL GROUP REPRESENTATION

Increasing percentages of the total population finding their way into secondary schools is evidence that social and occupational groups, which previously participated in secondary education to a negligible degree, are coming to be represented in significant percentages. Counts, in his study, "The Selective Character of American Secondary Education," has shown that there is yet a decided selective principle in operation. Similar investigations in Wisconsin reported by Uhl[8] and by Gaiser[9] bear out the findings of Counts's investigation in general but indicate that occupational selection is less extreme in rural areas, villages, and the smaller cities. A study by Windes[10] also bears out the fact that occupational selection in rural areas does not always reflect the situation in the larger cities. In general, it is undoubtedly true that a selective principle is yet operative but that significant percentages of all occupational and social groups are finding their way into high schools at the present time. The known facts of correlation between social status as measured by vocation and intelligence as measured by current tests show conclusively that the growing social heterogeneity is resulting in a heterogeneity of ability and interests that markedly complicates the task of secondary education.

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[7] Keener, E. E. Mental Ability of High-School Freshmen in Relation to Problems of Adjustment. Chicago City Schools. Research Bulletin No. 1, February, 1924.

[8] Uhl, Willis L. Principles of Secondary Education, Chapter VI.

[9] Gaiser, Paul F. Occupational Representation in High School. Educational Administration and Supervision, v. 9: 537–546, December, 1923.

[10] Windes, E. E. High-School Education of the Farm Population. U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1925, No. 6.

ORGANIZATION OF NON FOUR-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY YEARS

The reorganization of secondary education by downward extension to include one or two of the upper elementary grades and by breaking the period of secondary education up into a junior and a senior cycle has affected every State in the Union.

The extent of this reorganization movement and the tendencies in organization by years are set forth in Tables 5, 6, and 7 which follow.

The data for these tables were assembled from returns for high schools for 1924 to the United States Bureau of Education, supplemented by data furnished by State departments assembled over the period September to November, 1925.

The tables represent the most complete list of reorganized high schools that has yet been assembled, also schools recognized by State departments of education as conforming to the junior or senior school type.

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of non four-year high schools by type of organization by years and by States*

State	Number of schools by organization by years															
	Total	Segregated junior						Junior-senior						Undivided		Segregated senior
		Grades 6–8	Grades 7–9	Grades 8–10	Grades 7 and 8	Grades 8 and 9	Grades 7–10	Grades 7, 8–9, 10, 11, 12	Grades 7, 8, 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 8, 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 7, 8, 9–10, 11	Grades 7, 8–9, 10, 11	6-year	5-year	
United States	2,549	9	657	10	136	14	53	657	676	3	18	14	15	104	1	181
Alabama	49		6				6		31			4	2			
Arizona	14		3	1	4		1	2	1					1		1
Arkansas	45		4					10	28				1			2
California	108		73					1	20							14
Colorado	61		9		4		1	20	22		2					3
Connecticut	21		9		1			3	6							2
Delaware	3							1					2			
District of Columbia	8		8													
Florida	20		5					3	10							2
Georgia	23		9		1		1	1	2			5	1			3
Idaho	15		2					8	4							1
Illinois	28		7	1	8			7	1				2			2
Indiana	254		20		11	1		73	54		1		1	89		4
Iowa	175		13		7	1		112	31		3					8
Kansas	89		30		12			18	12							17
Kentucky	28		1	1	3			14	8				1			
Louisiana	2		1													
Maine	34		3			2	4	7	5					8	1	1
Maryland	16		14		1			1								4
Massachusetts	109		63		11		1	7	9		1		1			16
Michigan	148		25		4		5	30	70		2					12
Minnesota	64		13		2			14	31							4
Mississippi	39				1		2	29	7							
Missouri	52		13		3			14	11			1	1			
Montana	15		2		1			9	2							1

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of non four-year high schools by type of organization by years and by States*—Continued

State	Number of schools by organization by years															
		Segregated junior						Junior-senior						Undivided		
	Total	Grades 6–8	Grades 7–9	Grades 6–10	Grades 7 and 8	Grades 8 and 9	Grades 7–10	Grades 7, 8–9, 10, 11, 12	Grades 7, 8, 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 8, 9–10, 11, 12	Grades 7, 8, 9–10, 11	Grades 7, 8–9, 10, 11	6-year	5-year	Segregated senior
Nebraska	34	....	8	....	3	....	....	4	15	....	....	....	....	....	....	4
Nevada	4	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
New Hampshire	46	....	3	....	6	5	5	25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
New Jersey	37	....	22	....	3	....	....	3	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	4
New Mexico	8	....	2	1	1	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
New York	95	....	34	....	1	1	....	30	26	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
North Carolina	8	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	4	....	....	....	....	....
North Dakota	25	....	1	....	1	....	1	11	11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Ohio	175	....	46	....	10	....	....	34	66	....	1	....	1	....	....	17
Oklahoma	146	....	7	1	3	1	....	71	54	....	1	....	....	....	....	8
Oregon	15	....	6	....	6	....	....	1	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	1
Pennsylvania	203	....	84	....	11	....	13	20	56	....	1	2	3	....	....	13
Rhode Island	2	....	....	....	....	....	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
South Carolina	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
South Dakota	18	....	6	....	....	....	....	3	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
Tennessee	18	....	1	1	4	....	1	7	3	....	....	....	1	....	....	....
Texas	27	9	3	4	1	2	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	6
Utah	24	....	7	....	....	....	1	....	9	3	....	....	....	....	....	4
Vermont	41	....	1	....	2	....	4	16	18	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Virginia	35	....	18	....	1	1	....	1	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
Washington	21	....	....	....	7	....	....	4	10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
West Virginia	78	....	50	....	....	....	1	25	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....
Wisconsin	51	....	20	....	1	....	2	3	11	....	1	....	4	....	....	9
Wyoming	17	....	1	....	1	....	3	10	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

Reorganization as shown by Table 5 has affected all States. The total of 2,549 schools involved indicates that approximately one school in eight is of the non four-year high-school type. The extent to which reorganization has affected individual States varies widely. In general, the Southern States as a group show fewer reorganized schools than other regional groups. The prevalence of seven-year rather than eight-year elementary school systems is a known factor operating against reorganization in the Southern States. However, comparison of certain States, as of Illinois, with Indiana, New York with Pennsylvania, and Michigan with Wisconsin, indicate that State policies are probably responsible for rapid or slow reorganization. The States that show widespread reorganization, as indicated by the number of non four-year schools are, in general, the States that are known to have definitely advocated the junior high school idea through State departments of education. Conspicuous among these States are Alabama, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and West Virginia.

When we turn to a consideration of the plans of organization of high schools by years, as indicated by Table 5, we are struck by three

conspicuous facts: (1) There is lack of agreement as to the proper level at which to begin secondary education; (2) there is lack of agreement as to the proper grouping of grades to form junior or senior schools; (3) the chief differences of opinion exist with reference to the relative desirability of two and three year junior high schools and segregated junior and senior schools versus joint junior-senior schools.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of non four-year high schools by States and population of districts*

State	Number of schools by population of district				Total schools
	Population 100,000 or more	Population 30,000 to 100,000	Population 2,500 to 30,000	Population less than 2,500	
United States	288	262	784	1,215	2,549
Alabama		1	12	36	49
Arizona			8	6	14
Arkansas		5	16	24	45
California	36	23	27	22	108
Colorado	7	2	10	42	61
Connecticut	1	4	11	5	21
Delaware			2	1	3
District of Columbia	8				8
Florida		3	6	11	20
Georgia	5	5	5	8	23
Idaho			6	9	15
Illinois		9	10	9	28
Indiana	1	12	37	204	254
Iowa	4	21	18	132	175
Kansas	5	8	52	24	89
Kentucky		1	17	10	28
Louisiana			2		2
Maine		1	16	17	34
Maryland	14		1	1	16
Massachusetts	25	29	43	12	109
Michigan	11	20	34	83	148
Minnesota	9	5	28	21	64
Mississippi			12	27	39
Missouri	7	5	17	23	52
Montana		1	2	12	15
Nebraska		2	16	16	34
Nevada			2	2	4
New Hampshire			16	30	46
New Jersey	11	5	16	5	37
New Mexico			2	6	8
New York	36	1	30	28	95
North Carolina		2	4	2	8
North Dakota			3	22	25
Ohio	41	15	51	68	175
Oklahoma		9	71	66	146
Oregon			13	2	15
Pennsylvania	29	38	78	58	203
Rhode Island			1	1	2
South Carolina			1		1
South Dakota			8	10	18
Tennessee		3	7	8	18
Texas	17	7	1	2	27
Utah	8	2	4	10	24
Vermont			11	30	41
Virginia	7	2	7	19	35
Washington	2		16	3	21
West Virginia		5	9	64	78
Wisconsin	4	16	22	10	51
Wyoming			3	14	17

Consideration of Table 6 shows that reorganization is not restricted to any one group of school communities classified according to population. It is true, however, that on a percentage basis reorganization becomes progressively less widely extended as one passes from cities of over 100,000 to the smaller school communities. The significant matter is, however, that the movement is prompted by an ideal rather than by an effort to relieve congestion, as shown by the fact that numerous schools of the junior-senior type appear in the smallest population group for which classification is made. Compared with the Nation as a whole, which shows approximately 1 reorganized school in 8, these small and rural school communities show a ratio of approximately 1 to 12 between four-year type and reorganized type secondary schools. The fact that this degree of reorganization has been effected in rural districts is surprising to many.

If we consider the showings for individual States in Table 6 no apparent State policies resulting in restriction of junior high schools to the larger cities is discoverable.

TABLE 7.—*Distribution of non four-year high schools by type of organization by years and population of district*

Population of district	Segregated junior				Junior-senior				Undivided			Segregated senior	Total
	Three-year	Two-year	Four-year	Group total	Five-year	Six-year	Four-year	Group total	Six-year	Five-year	Group total		
100,000 or more	220	6	1	227	1	31	.....	32	1	.....	1	28	288
30,000–100,000	161	23	6	190	.....	30	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	42	262
2,500–30,000	177	106	7	290	13	379	2	394	8	.....	8	92	783
Less than 2,500	129	17	39	185	30	862	1	893	96	.....	96	41	1,215
Total	687	152	53	892	44	1,302	3	1,349	105	.....	105	203	2,548

Reference to Table 7 shows that differences of opinion as to whether two, three, or four year junior high schools are desirable exists in school systems of all sizes classified according to population of district. It is significant, however, that three-year junior high schools are relatively more common in cities of over 100,000 population, and two-year junior high schools relatively more common in smaller cities and in rural communities. Expediency as to years grouped together to form a junior high school is evident here. The smaller cities much more frequently than other localities create a junior high school from the upper two grammar grades.

The most significant factor, however, shown by Table 7 is that there is little agreement as to whether the junior high school should

be segregated or joined with the senior high schools. Even in the larger cities the joint junior-senior school appears with a frequency of one in seven as compared with the segregated school. The frequency is approximately one in six for cities of 30,000 to 100,000 and becomes the prevailing type of organization in cities of less than 30,000 and in rural areas. In rural areas approximately five joint schools occur for each segregated junior high school. Here the controlling factor undoubtedly is economy. Common use of certain building space and equipment and one set of administrative officials are undoubtedly considered more important than any advantages, real or supposed, which accrue to the segregated junior high school.

Table 7 also shows that failure to regard division of the period of secondary education into junior and senior cycles as important exists only in the smaller school communities in any significant degree. Even in rural areas only one reorganized school in 25 is of the undivided type.

FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL STAFF

A number of recent studies have made available data through which some idea of the extent to which new functions resultant from the broadened purposes of secondary education are appearing and the lack of agreement that exists as to the proper allocation of those functions to specific officers. The most significant of these studies deal with the high-school principal, the work of the high-school teacher, the work of the supervisor, and the work of curriculum making.

STUDIES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

C. O. Davis[11] has made a study of the "Duties and privileges of high-school principals" of the North Central Association which approaches a job analysis of the principalship. Significant portions of this study, for present purposes, show the frequency of occurrence of special offices represented on the official staff of high schools of varying size and of provisions through which the principal delegates administrative duties to specified offices or committees of teachers.

Table 8 shows the frequency of occurrence of these provisions.

[11] Proc. N. Cen. Asso. of Col. and Sec. Schs., 1921, part 1, pp. 49–69.

TABLE 8.—*Frequency of occurrence of specified special offices and provisions for delegating administrative authority in North Central Association high schools*

Provision	Percentages of principals reporting			
	Large schools	Medium schools	Small schools	All schools
Assistant principal	51.0	24.8	35.1	36.2
Full-time office secretary and clerk	64.6	24.1	5.9	30.9
Teachers' administrative council	31.3	23.5	24.5	26.4
A student (or student teacher) board in control of student affairs	55.7	49.2	41.2	49.8
Provision for delegating large administrative duties to standing committees of teachers	48.1	27.0	23.9	34.2
Provision for delegating such administrative duties to individual teachers	77.8	55.9	53.5	62.8
Provision for delegating such administrative duties to heads of departments	53.2	58.4	47.5	52.0
Provision for delegating such administrative duties to special supervisors of high-school subjects or activities	53.5	37.0	32.9	41.7
Provisions for a dean of girls	40.9	21.5	11.1	25.5

The study in a similar way lists the distribution of the principal's time in a typical school day to 10 duties; percentage of principals exercising professional powers in 21 professional functions; the percentage discharging managerial policies in 9 specified ways; the percentage discharging 18 specified supervisory functions; the percentage discharging 12 specified duties grouped as appraising, recording, and experimenting duties; and the percentages discharging 20 relational and personal duties.

The variability of practice, indicated by the percentages of Table 8, is charateristic of the entire range of duties. The study indicates the functional complexity of the principal's office and shows a high degree of variability as to the machinery through which functions of the office are discharged. A later detailed study of the status of the high-school principal by Eikenberry (see U. S. Bu. of Educ., Bul., 1925, No. 24) also makes a functional analysis of the high-school principalship. The following selected items bear on the topic of interest here:

1. A study of the frequency of occurrence of 15 special offices show that 50 per cent of all schools have librarians, 46 per cent have deans of girls, 40 per cent deans of boys, 40 per cent office clerks, 36 per cent assistant principals, 33 per cent heads of departments, 16 per cent stenographers, 15 per cent directors of guidance, and 14 per cent directors of extra classroom activities. School registrars, directors of testing, curriculum directors, directors of citizenship, and principals' councils are found in fewer than 10 per cent of all schools.

2. The per cent of schools in which the principal performs each function and per cent in which the principal has final authority is shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Per cent of schools in which the principal performs each function and per cent in which the principal has final authority, with rank of each function according to percentages (all classes of schools combined)*

Function	Performance		Final authority	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
Conducting faculty meetings	70	1	64	6
Making schedule of recitations	63	2	85	5
Handling absences	59	3	73	2
Handling tardiness	57	4	75	1
Supervision of janitors	55	5½	36	23
Supervising instruction	55	5½	43	20½
Keeping school records	52	7½	66	4
Directing experimentation	52	7½	52	14½
Handling discipline	51	9½	60	11½
Inspecting building	51	9½	43	20½
Directing testing	50	11	50	16½
Arranging commencements	47	12	49	18
Curriculum making	44	14	29	24
Directing placement bureau	44	14	52	14½
Providing school publicity	44	14	50	16½
Rating teachers	43	16	27	25½
Educational guidance	42	17	62	9
Control of publications	41	18	63	7½
Arranging assembly programs	40	19	72	3
Vocational guidance	39	20	60	11½
Making courses of study	38	21	27	25½
Interviewing candidates	34	22	22	29
Control of athletics	33	23½	60	11½
Control of school funds	33	23½	40	22
Making athletic schedules	32	25	63	7½
Selecting school equipment	31	26½	24	28
Directing social affairs	31	26½	60	11½
Selecting text books	28	28	26	27
Promoting teachers	26	29	11	30
Selecting library books	22	30	44	20
Selecting teachers	21	31	9	31
Discharging teachers	17	32	4	32

The functional complexity of the office of the principal, the frequency of appearance of a considerable number of special offices which are responsive to the broadened purposes of secondary education, and the variability in frequency in performance of specified functions by principals, together with variability in the location of final authority also characterize the data.

A study of the high-school principals by Koos,[12] of similar scope to the study by Eikenberry, exhibits similar complexity of function and goes a step further in the study of location of initiative, showing for 421 high schools the location of initiative for 19 functions in principal, superintendent, board, principal, and superintendent, and other office. The data show little agreement in practice in allocating primary responsibility in any of the 19 functions to any particular office. Only three functions, i. e., organizing the class schedule, ordinary disciplinary control, and keeping records and accounts, are allocated to the principal in as many as 80 per cent of the cases. Other functions are widely allocated to the other offices enumerated.

These studies of the high-school principalship indicate, in a general way, the variability in practice of the allocation of administra-

[12] Koos, Leonard V. The High-School Principal. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co.

tive and supervisory duties to administrative, supervisory, and teaching offices. It is evident that in different situations each special officer is discharging duties characteristic of administrative, supervisory, and teaching offices. This does not necessarily mean confusion in a single system or institution, but it is frequently true that in an individual institution various offices attempt to perform identical functions. It is particularly true that superintendents, principals, special supervisors, and department heads undertake supervision of teaching and each office works directly with the classroom teacher, seeking to perform identical functions.

The study by Davis indicated also widespread but variable practice in allocating administrative duties to individual teachers or committees of teachers. Studies of the subject combinations in high-school teachers' programs of Ohio by Kirby,[13] of the high-school teaching load and preparation of high-school teachers by F. P. O'Brien;[14] of the distribution of the time of teachers in California;[15] and of agents responsible for curriculum construction[16] indicate a practice of distributing a wide variety of special teaching and non-teaching functions to teachers with little reference to special training. The practice of making provision for teacher participation in school administration is doubtless democratic and, where properly organized, desirable. It is, however, in many cases a means of increasing the working load of teachers to the point of impairment of the special teaching function for which the individual was trained. In certain situations it is a wholly fictitious means of keeping down the "overhead" of general administration. In other situations, largely in small school systems, there is no other means of providing for the performance of the wide variety of special functions that have grown up.

PROMOTION PLANS

With the growing heterogeneity of pupils in capacity to do work and in educational needs with reference to suitable purposes in life, the need for varying both the quantity and kind of work required of the pupil as a condition of promotion is increasing. Both junior and senior high schools have generally made some provision looking to flexibility of promotion plans in recognition of this need. Montague[17] has investigated the status of senior promotion plans in 838 high schools distributed over the 48 States. In his report the

[13] School Review, September, 1926, pp. 494–505.
[14] Kansas Studies in Education, Vol. I, May 15, 1926, No. 5.
[15] Report of the Committee of Fifteen, California High School Teachers Association, 1923, pp. 50–62.
[16] Table 10, p. 152, Part I, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.
[17] Montague, J. F. Status of Senior High-School Promotion Plans. University of Missouri, school of education, doctor's dissertation, 1926.

provisions for promotion in these schools are presented under the following heads: (1) Bases for classification, (2) special provisions for individual differences in instruction, (3) bases of promotion, and (4) general method of promotion.

The bases of classification of pupils in the schools are reported to be in order of frequency: School marks, no classification plan, a composite of various factors, I. Q. as important factor, curriculum selected, and ability groups. Of these bases, school marks, no classification plan, I. Q. as important factor, and curriculum selected are self-explanatory. The base "ability groups" includes those schools basing their classification on intelligence, achievement, and teachers' judgments. "A composite of various factors" includes those schools using some combination of such factors as school marks, intelligence, achievement, chronological age, social age, etc.

Approximately three schools in four use some definite plan of pupil classification, and there appears to be no definite tendency to use any of the bases specified to the exclusion of others. There is agreement, therefore, that pupils should be systematically classified into homogeneous groups, but little or no agreement as to the criterion of such classification.

The special provisions for individual differences reported are in order of frequency: No plan, coaching classes, conference periods, Batavia plan, supervised study, extra subjects, North-Denver plan, and minimum and maximum courses. The majority of schools do make some systematic provision for meeting individual differences. Most frequently this provision concerns itself with special aid for slow pupils. Following in frequency efforts of this type are those provisions looking to more intimate supervision of study for all pupils. The schools seeking to set up special aids for bright pupils and specifically to provide for varying subject-matter requirements, are in a decided minority. It therefore seems that common practice in the administration of instruction seeks to raise the average achievement of the school through concentration upon the inferior pupil in an effort to get him over a common hurdle which the entire group must take. Provisions dependent upon subject-matter reorganization are in the minority.

The bases of promotion used are, in order of frequency: A composite of several factors, such as achievement and mental ability objectively determined through standard tests; school marks, teachers' judgments, and chronological age; daily class records and examinations; school marks; and final examination. A substantial majority of schools are using a composite factor involving objective and subjective measures. The individual factors entering into the composite base are so variably weighted by different schools that no

statement concerning the weight given to individual factors is warranted.

With reference to time of promotion practice is about equally divided between one year and half-year promotion intervals. There is a minority practice, which is growing, of waiving fixed periods of promotion and promoting the pupil when promotion seems justified regardless of fixed periods. A practice of skipping or double promotion is also growing. Where this is found it is usually dependent upon some system of special tutoring and special examination or upon extra-session schools and examination.

Paralleling the practice of double promotion, which is a provision for superior pupils, there is a growing practice of allowing pupils who are given a mark of condition or failure a conditional promotion. In case a satisfactory quality, variously determined, of work is done in the advanced course the condition or failure is removed. In this way the old practice of placing an additional burden upon slow or failing pupils by requiring them to make up back work during the next semester is passing. The experience of the schools is that about 60 per cent of pupils allowed conditional promotions are successful in maintaining their advanced position.

The committee on rural and small high schools, a special committee of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, has assembled data on promotion practices in 135 junior high schools located in rural and small school communities.

Table 10 shows the bases of pupils grouping in current use in these schools.

TABLE 10.—*Bases of pupil grouping in 135 rural junior high schools*

Bases of grouping	Number of schools	Per cent
No attempt to group homogeneously	65	48.1
Attempting to group homogeneously	66	48.9
Through teachers' estimates or marks	24	17.7
Through intelligence test score	4	3.0
Through achievement test score	1	.7
Through composite of several factors	37	27.4
Not specified	4	3.0
Total schools	135	100.0

The practices of grouping or not grouping homogeneously occur with approximately the same frequency. Where pupils are grouped homogeneously the prevailing practice is to use a composite of several factors as a base. The factors usually involved are teachers' marks or estimates of ability, intelligence test score, and achievement test score. Since more than 60 per cent of these schools enroll fewer than 100 pupils and provide for only one recitation section for each

grade group the practice of grouping homogeneously is about as widespread as division of grades into recitation sections.

Table 11 shows the criteria of promotion in use in these schools.

TABLE 11.—*Criteria of promotion in 135 rural junior high schools*

Criterion	Number of schools	Per cent
Attendance	2	1.5
Subject completion (based on teachers' marks)	45	33.2
Grade completion (based on average of subject marks)	25	18.5
Teachers' estimates of ability to do work	3	2.2
Standard achievement test scores	3	2.2
Intelligence test scores	2	1.5
Composite of several factors	45	33.3
Not specified	10	7.4
Total schools	135	100.0

Approximately one school in five still holds to grade completion based on an average of subject marks as a basis of promotion. One school in three promotes on a subject completion basis as measured by teachers' marks and a slightly higher proportion of schools have either adopted an objective measure as a basis of promotion or have combined one or more objective measures with a subjective measure usually teachers' estimates of ability or teachers' marks.

Commonly the schools report some provision for curriculum enrichment for bright and capable pupils and a minority report the use of minimum assignments and the outlining of minimum essentials for slow pupils. Approximately two schools in three report that they do not permit junior high school completion in less than the normal time required. There is, therefore, a decided tendency to vary subject matter requirements and enforce uniformity of time requirements in the junior high school. Prevailing practice in these schools concerns itself with curriculum enrichment for bright pupils. Commonly, enrichment is sought through extensive use of the project as a teaching device, permitting bright pupils to carry extra work, correlating extra-class activities with curriculum work, granting school credit for outside work, and limiting drill to pupils who need it.

Clearly the promotional machinery now in use and being developed in secondary schools is complex. The complexity is due to efforts to provide for individual differences through administrative devices. While the purpose to provide flexibility is common the means of securing it are highly variable. The relative desirability of the various practices has not yet been determined.

CURRICULUM

The facts of growth that have been presented make present widespread efforts at curriculum reconstruction a natural phenomenon

and not a fashion of the moment. A learning science that emphasizes the importance of acquiring habits of adjustment to specific situations rather than an intellectual discipline which is serviceable alike for all, requires for pupils who have varied aptitudes and varied purposes in life, subject matter which is varied in accord with the specific needs of individual pupils. We had no organization of subject matter on a specifically functional basis. We are, therefore, busy at the task of making such organizations.

The present curriculum situation in secondary schools is set forth in studies by Glass,[18] Ferriss,[19] Counts,[20] the curriculum committee of the National Society for the Study of Education,[21] and the curriculum commission of the department of superintendence, National Education Association.[22]

The study by Glass involves curriculum practices in 14 centers selected as representative of the better practices in junior high-school curriculum administration in the United States. The report deals specifically with the curriculum of the junior high school in general, the core curriculum, elective courses, subject divisions of the constants, and units of teaching. Extreme variability in practices concerned with required and elective courses, time allotments to subjects and to units of teaching is shown. Glass characterizes the situation as one of vigorous experimentation, with a tendency to shift emphasis from cultural and disciplinary training to training which has practical social value. This is argued from the tendency to introduce home economics, industrial arts, art, music, and science into the curriculum of grades 7 and 8. There is noted also the tendency to introduce general survey and short unit try-out courses for purposes of exploration. The criticism is offered that the junior high-school curriculum evidences disregard of the principle of continuity in passing from grade 8 to grade 9. The criticism is based on the fact of failure of the schools generally to continue the constants, art, home economics, industrial arts, music, and science, from grade 8 into grade 9.

The study by Ferriss analyzes the subject offerings of 283 rural high schools,[23] 121 semirural high schools, 609 small high schools of

[18] Glass, James M. Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades 5 and 6. University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 25, 1924.

[19] Ferriss, Emery N. The Rural High School, its Organization and Curriculum. U. S. Bu. of Educ., Bul., 1925, No. 10.

[20] Counts, George S. The Senior High School Curriculum. University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 29, 1926.

[21] The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chapter 7. Also Part II.

[22] Department of Superintendence. Fifth Yearbook. The Junior High School Curriculum.

[23] Rural high schools are those in which more than 50 per cent of the pupils enrolled are from farm homes. Semirural schools have a considerable enrollment from farm homes, but less than 50 per cent.

New York, 143 high schools of North Dakota, and 100 township and community high schools of Illinois. The analyses show the year in which subjects are offered and the per cent of schools offering each subject. The results exhibit wide variability as to the placement of specific subjects in the curriculum. Many subjects occur in each of the grades 9 to 12, inclusive. A total of 54 different subjects appear in the offerings, and 23 different subjects are offered in more than 50 per cent of the schools. The greatest uniformity of offerings lies in the fields of English, special mathematics courses, special history courses, and Latin.

Ferriss characterizes the tendencies in the program of studies in rural and small high schools as follows:

> The data on the programs of the schools studied indicate some interesting tendencies in the curriculum offerings of the two groups of schools. In the natural sciences 70 per cent of the rural high schools and 43 per cent of the semirural high schools have adopted general science as the first-year science, and biology as predominantly the second-year offering. Hygiene and sanitation has found a place throughout the four years of a small percentage of the schools of both groups. In the social science group of subjects, courses in economics have been introduced into the two upper years of 44 per cent of the rural high schools and in 57 per cent of the semirural high schools, while community civics is found in the programs of 38 per cent of the rural and 55 per cent of the semirural high schools. Sociology, under such titles as sociology, rural sociology, problems of democracy, and social problems, is offered in 30 per cent of the rural and in 28 per cent of the semirural high schools. This indication of the growth of the last two subjects, comparatively new in high school programs, is further substantiated by the findings of a study as to the status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association. This investigation included 475 high schools, 122 of which had enrollments under 150 pupils each. This latter group of schools is fairly comparable with the schools represented in this study. Of the 122 schools, 54 per cent offered economics, 31 per cent community civics, and 61 per cent sociology. Other subjects which occupy prominent positions in the programs of the rural and semirural high schools are home economics, offered in 62 per cent of the former and 55 per cent of the latter, and agriculture, offered by 44 per cent of the rural and by 26 per cent of the semirural high schools. General mathematics has also gained a foothold as a subject in both groups of schools, being given by 10 per cent of the rural and by 16 per cent of the semirural high schools. Certain commercial subjects such as typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand are found in varying but significant percentages of both groups of schools.
>
> While the subjects in the majority of rural and semirural high-school programs of studies are in a large degree and more or less traditional subjects required for entrance by the higher institutions of learning, there is a refreshing tendency, particularly noticeable in the larger schools, to depart from the notion that the same training is best for all pupils, and to meet in their program the needs of the large proportion of high-school pupils whose formal education closes with the high school. This attempt to adjust the work of the rural and semirural high schools to the needs of the pupil, the commodity, and the demands of modern life is indicated by the entrance into their curriculum

of agriculture, home economics, sociology, hygiene, and sanitation, and the commercial subjects.

The study by Counts analyzes the curriculum offerings for grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 by 15 progressive city school systems. The report deals with the general plan of curriculum organization, the subjects of study, the trends of philosophy, and evaluation of the present program. Counts characterizes the situation in general as follows:

> The program of studies itself is in a state of flux. In relatively rapid succession new curriculums are appearing and old curriculums are disappearing With great frequency subjects are being added, and occasionally they are being abandoned. The wide variety of practice found in the different schools suggests that the several cities are either progressing at different rates along the same path of change or following divergent lines in experimentation. Some new form of secondary education is obviously in the making. * * * At present, changes in the curriculum suggest the wasteful process of trial and error rather than the adaptation of means to ends through the process of reflection.

The curriculum committee of the National Society for the Study of Education has presented in the Twenty-sixth Yearbook a survey of practices in curriculum construction and a body of principles which should guide in the selection and organization of subject matter. Chapter 7, Part I, of this report, contributed by George S. Counts, deals with current practices in curriculum making in public high schools. Portions of this chapter dealing with changes in the curriculum, the technique of curriculum revision, present courses of study, and practices in appraising courses of study are of special significance for the purpose of this survey of trends and are here given in summary form.

Efforts to improve the materials of instruction through curriculum revision are widespread. In 72 of 111 cities reporting for the senior high school there has been at least one general revision of the curriculum since 1913. In addition, 39 partial but systematic revisions have been made in the past five years. In 73 cities reporting for the junior high school 58 general revisions since 1913 and 19 partial revisions during the past five years have been made. Twenty-four cities reporting for the senior high school and 23 cities for the junior high school have adopted a policy of gradual and continuous curriculum revision. Commonly, changes are made in the curriculum through adding or dropping subjects. Data from 90 cities show a tendency to add subjects approximately three times as often as subjects are dropped. This is a rough measure of the rate of expansion of the high-school curriculum. The comparative frequency of addition of the various subjects shows a strong trend in emphasis toward the social science and vocational subjects. The foreign languages are losing their position of relative emphasis, as shown by 48 cases of subtraction from the curriculum and only 23 cases of

addition to the curriculum. They alone show a net loss due to curriculum changes. The natural sciences show 37 additions and 29 subtractions from the curriculum. This uncertainty is due primarily to the substitution of general science, biology, chemistry, and physics for physiography, botany, zoology, geology, and physiology.

These changes collectively indicate a break with tradition in secondary education and an active trend toward curriculum expansion and emphasis upon social and vocational values in the programs that are emerging.

In reconstructing the curriculum the initiative for reform emanates most frequently from the superintendent. The initiative comes frequently from the principal, however, and in a few cases from high-school teachers and supervisors. In organizing the personnel for the actual work of curriculum revision there is usually set up a committee representing the general administrator, supervisors, principals, and teachers. Rarely experts or specialists from without the system are retained. Progressive practice elsewhere and committee agreement are the most common guides to the selection of new materials. A considerable practice of using the results of previous research is growing up, however, and in a few cases revision is being based upon research undertaken for the purpose.

Present courses of study are most commonly organized about separate subjects, such as algebra, history, etc. In a minority of cases the courses are being organized about large topics based on social activities of the day, socialized group work and individualized study and drill in the tool or skill subjects, or as an activity curriculum with no division into subjects and no provision for other than incidental learning. Only two senior and three junior high schools report the latter plan of curriculum organization.

The courses of study usually specify the general ground to be covered, but allow a considerable freedom to the teacher in selecting subject-matter details. Quite frequently specific requirements for bright, average, and dull pupils are set up in outline, and minimal essentials are stated in detail. In a minority of cases the courses provide only standards and rich suggestions of materials, leaving selection to the teacher or go to the opposite extreme and specify in detail the precise ground to be covered, leaving no option to the teacher. In a very few cases courses provide general directions only, leaving to the teacher the task of determining standards and selecting materials.

In the past curriculum changes by adding and dropping courses have been made without the support of precise and trustworthy knowledge. The common method of appraising courses at the present time is informal appraisal by administrative and supervisory

officers. The practice of appraisal through study of the results of testing by the research department or through use of questionnaires and specially designed measurement programs is, however, becoming rather common. This growing practice promises to direct curriculum changes more surely to the ends accepted as desirable.

The fifth yearbook of the department of superintendence, National Education Association, is devoted to the junior high-school curriculum. It presents an adequate description of the present trends of English, science, mathematics, social studies, foreign languages, music, art, home economics, industrial arts, and commercial education; enumerates the principles which the subject committees advance as usable guides to curriculum revision; and introduces abstracts of the important researches which bear upon the several subject fields at the junior high-school level.

The material of this yearbook prompts the generalization that the several subject fields are being generalized for purposes of instruction at the junior high school level. Much formal drill and disciplinary material is being excluded. The content of individual subject fields, such as English, social studies, and science, is being markedly enriched over characteristic courses of the old-type elementary and high-school grades involved and variable content for different homogeneous pupil groups is slowly taking shape. The effort to base revision on the results of research is general. Attention to curriculum revision is widespread. At the junior high school level revision is resulting in generalizing the subject fields and enriching the content of individual courses. In the senior high school field the tendency is to broaden programs primarily through adding special courses and organizing numerous special curricula. At both levels material of greater social use and more directly related to vocation is being emphasized and greater provision for the utilization of pupil activities as a basis of learning is being made. As yet curriculum revision centers in working over the content of specific subjects and reorganization programs seeking to abandon subject departments of knowledge have made little progress.

Out of the welter of efforts at curriculum construction a more or less standardized technique is emerging which centers in committee procedure involving the cooperation of administrative, supervisory, research, and teaching offices.

FINANCIAL PROGRAMS

Incident to the growing functional complexity of the secondary school and responsive curricula and administrative adaptations there is such variability of financial programs that essentially no standards exist. The situation has been made apparent through a

number of financial studies made since 1920. Conspicuous among these are the studies of the finance inquiry commission working under the auspices of the American Council of Education. These studies show extremely wide variations in tax rates levied for the support of schools; in departmental costs for schools of comparable size and located in comparable situations; in the portion of the budget in different systems devoted to elementary, secondary, and other special school enterprises; and in the unit and pupil hour costs of specific subjects of instruction. This extreme variability in costs and in the relative financial emphasis upon special educational enterprises would not be so significant if it were attributable to the variable exigencies of different situations, but where the variability exists in schools of comparable pupil groups in comparable political units it reflects a condition of serious wastage of public funds due to variant local administrative policies. Two illustrations from available data will serve to characterize the situation.

The committee of fifteen of the California High School Teachers' Association reports teaching costs per credit unit for California high schools shown in the following table:

TABLE 12.—*Teaching costs per credit unit for specified subjects and groups of California high schools classified according to enrollment*[1]

Subject	Credit unit costs for schools of specified enrollment					
	Enrollment less than 100		Enrollment 200–500		Enrollment more than 1,000	
	Median	Range	Median	Range	Median	Range
English and oral English	$24	$10–$47	$17	$9–$22	$16	$11–$27
Mathematics	28	14– 64	18	11– 28	18	12– 25
History and social studies	29	17– 55	15	10– 23	16	11– 23
Modern languages	34	18– 50	20	14– 31	17	14– 34
Latin	62	18–130	26	2–197	20	13– 31
General science and physiography	30	16–133	18	10– 68	20	13– 34
Physics, chemistry, and biology	48	20–140	32	15– 66	24	18– 36
Commercial arithmetic	43	14–147	15	8– 29	16	10– 24
Stenography	50	30– 98	25	14– 45	18	14– 29
Typing	56	14–134	32	16– 52	26	16– 42
Bookkeeping	60	16–200	30	10– 76	28	14– 40
Miscellaneous commercial subjects	41	10–190	24	6–144	18	12– 41
Agriculture	51	22–216	52	36– 84	60	26–240
Home economics	62	18–130	36	18–110	42	17– 60
Art	68	22–304	40	18– 80	30	15– 52
Mechanical drawing	80	28–300	40	18– 80	26	18– 66
Mechanical arts	87	45–262	45	22– 72	46	34– 60
Music	28	10–106	304	14– 78	22	11– 60
Physical training	20	9–150	20	10– 42	16	7– 22

[1] Data selected from Report of Committee of Fifteen, California High School Principals Association.

It is apparent that the small high schools are the most expensive and show the widest range of costs. The range of costs even for the constant subjects is extremely wide and a uniform tendency for the elective and laboratory subjects to be more expensive than the constant and academic subjects is shown.

A second study by Henry [24] has exhibited the variability in instructional costs in individual high schools under the relatively uniform conditions of a large city system. His studies indicate for 22 Chicago high schools the student-hour instructional costs comparatively for 1914–15 and 1922–23, and the principal factors responsible for the variability shown. His data for 1914–15 present an extreme range of total student-hour costs of instruction expressed in round numbers of from 6 to 11 cents. The corresponding figures for 1922–23 are 10 and 16 cents. In the matter of subject costs an extreme range in 1914–15 of from 4.02 cents for music to 56 cents for Greek was shown, and the comparative figures for 1923–24 were for penmanship, 6.939 cents, and Greek, 70.371 cents. Omitting the Greek as an extreme departure, the high cost was 16.987 cents for astronomy in 1914–15 and 25.334 cents for radio instruction in 1923–24.

Comparison of individual schools for the two years exhibits little agreement between the rank of individual schools when ranked in order of student-hour costs for the two years under consideration. His data, on being analyzed further, show that the size of class is the most important determinant responsible for variability of costs. Since size of class is a matter directly controlled by local administrative practice and depends primarily upon the administration of electives, the curriculum vagaries of high-school principals are directly responsible for a considerable proportion of the total costs of secondary education. The recent studies of Stevenson indicating little, if any, advantage accruing to small recitation groups shown the importance of standardization of practice with reference to class size.

STANDARDIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The present situation in secondary education which has been sketched makes an examination of the work of standardizing agencies pertinent. Such standards as obtain in secondary education have been developed primarily through voluntary accrediting agencies which have been an outgrowth of accrediting by colleges for purposes of college entrance. State accrediting, which is general at the present time has looked to the voluntary association as a source of standards. Usually State standards for accrediting are less rigorous than those of the voluntary agencies and are imposed primarily as a basis for participation in State subventions to high schools.

The territory of the United States is now covered by five regional associations, namely the New England College Entrance Examination Board, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of

[24] School Review, May and June, 1926.

the Middle States and Maryland, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. The reports of the North Central and Southern Associations afford material through which the growth and trends of accrediting by voluntary associations may be shown. Reports by the secretaries of the secondary commissions of these associations follow. These reports make it obvious that there is a decided tendency to base standards for accrediting on research. This is in decided contrast to the arbitrary standards of earlier days.

Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

By J. B. Edmonson

University of Michigan. Secretary of the Association

Historical background.—The North Cenetral Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was founded in 1895 and has completed 31 years of work. The purpose of the association has been "to establish closer relations between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education within the North Central States and such territory as the association may recognize." Since its establishment it has been an influential standardizing agency in the field of higher and of secondary education. It is true that the first list of accredited schools was not issued by the association until 1904, but even before that date the association was exercising a directive influence in the affairs of secondary schools.

The past two years, 1924–1926, have brought several notable changes in the standards and policies of the association. There have also been several valuable studies reported by committees of the association. These will be referred to under the various subheadings in this report.

I. *Growth of the accredited list of secondary schools.*—The statistical summary of State lists shows that there were 1,372 schools accredited in March, 1921; 1,799 in 1925; and 1,966 in 1926. The percentage of increase during the five-year period was 43. This increase in the number of approved secondary schools is an indication of a general increase in the standards observed by the secondary schools of the North Central territory. The enrollments in North Central schools have increased 61 per cent during the past five years, there being in the same time a 43 per cent increase in the

number of schools. The present enrollment is 804,074, while five years ago it was 498,661. It is evident that the association will soon be influencing the training of more than one million secondary school pupils.

II. *Changes in standards.*—The meeting of the association in 1925 will doubtless stand out in its history as the time when the most far-reaching changes in standards were made. Among these were the following: (1) The association increased the number of hours of professional training from 11 to 15 and provided that the new requirement should become effective in September, 1925. This change was made after a referendum vote participated in by the secondary schools and colleges of the association.

(2) The standard dealing with the teaching load was redefined and greater freedom granted schools in the matter of the size of class sections. The standard was also modified so as to take account of all persons assisting classroom teachers, such as vocational advisors, study hall teachers, clerks, and others.

(3) The association also went on record as favoring the requirement for graduation of three units of English, two units of social science, one unit of biological or general science, and one unit of physical education or health.

(4) The pupil load of work was brought to the association's attention, and it was recommended that only such students as ranked in ability of the upper 25 per cent of the student body should be allowed to take more than four units for credit.

III. *Junior high schools and standardization.*—For the past eight years the association has taken a very active interest in the junior high school and has through different committees made numerous studies. In 1925 the association received a report on standards for the junior high school. The standards proposed were as follows:

I. STANDARD JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. A standard junior high school is a unit of our public-school system consisting of grades 7, 8, and 9, organized and administered as a separate unit of the school system, having its own administrative head and corps of teachers and characterized by flexible promotion, provisions for exploration and review of subject-matter in the early semesters of the course, and limited choice of elective subjects during the later semesters of the course.

(*a*) Explanation: This standard in no wise means that grades 7 and 8 should not be organized on a junior high basis and meet the standards to follow; nor, that the six-year school should not be organized where administrative convenience or necessity demands it. But such schools would not be regarded as standard.

II. ORGANIZATION

2. A six-year school shall be organized into two units so that the work of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades shall meet all of the standards of the

standard junior high school relative to curriculum, training of teachers, and articulation with the senior high school—grades 10, 11, and 12.

(a) Neither the six-year school nor the two-year (seventh and eighth grades) junior high school is favored except as an administrative necessity.

(b) In school systems enrolling fewer than 500 pupils in grades 7 to 12, the comittee feels the organization should be of the six-year type, with the distinction clearly drawn between the junior and senior division at the end of the ninth year.

III. BUILDINGS

3. Facilities should be provided adequately for instruction in academic subjects, in the practical arts, in health education, recreation, and in such subjects as may require the labratory method. Adequate provision shall be provided for assembly programs, social activities, and for the supervision or direction of study.

IV. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

4. The minimum academic training of two-thirds of the junior high school teachers of academic subjects shall be equivalent to graduation from a college or university accredited by the North Central Association which requires for graduation 120 hours in advance of a four-year high-school course. The remaining one-third should be teachers of good training, experience, and maturity. These provisions shall not be retroactive.

5. The minimum professional training of new junior high-school teachers after 1926 should be as extensive as that required of senior high school teachers. This provision shall not be retroactive.

V. THE TEACHING LOAD

6. The total number of 40-minute periods of classroom instruction given by any teacher of academic subjects shall not exceed 30 per week; nor shall the number of periods taught by any teacher of nonacademic subjects exceed 36 per week.

VI. PROGRAM OF STUDIES

10. The appropriate subjects to be offered by the junior high school are: English, mathematics, foreign language, history and civics, geography and elementary science, music, art, health education, vocational information, and practical arts for both boys and girls, including commercial subjects.

11. The program of studies shall be organized into a single curriculum with limited electives.

(a) Electives prior to the second semester of the eighth year are considered ill-advised. Prior to this semester, exploration and review of subject matter should be provided by the content of courses and the administration of the curriculum, and not by electives.

12. Instruction shall be departmentalized.

13. The school shall practice flexible promotion rather than promotion by subject.

(a) Flexible promotion means that pupils shall be promoted when the occasion arises and without restriction of subject promotion. It means pupil placement. It implies the use of opportunity classes and coaching teachers.

14. The school shall provide within the school day for pupil club and social activities under the direction of the faculty.

15. The school shall provide adequately for keeping in contact with the homes and home life of the pupils and introduce only gradually the freedom in discipline characteristic of the senior high school.

16. The school shall place at least as much emphasis upon the supervision of study as it does on recitation.

VII. ARTICULATION WITH THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

17. The completion of the course in a standard junior high school shall admit the pupil to full standing in a standard three-year senior high school.

18. Upon completion of the junior high-school course the pupil shall be placed in any grade of any given subject in the three-year senior high school for which he is prepared.

19. The standard three-year senior high school shall offer such ninth-year courses as may be necessary to provide adequately for pupils who may need such courses after they have been promoted to the senior high school, but such courses shall not constitute a part of the senior high-school curriculum.

20. In special cases pupils may be promoted to the senior high school prior to the completion of the junior high-school course when it is evident that the best interests of the pupils are thus served.

VIII. RECOGNITION

21. Recognition by the association should not be confused with "accrediting" since "recognition" is for the sole purpose of giving official assurance that a certain junior high school satisfies the standards as defined by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The final recommendation of the 1925 committee contained the following very significant statement of policy:

We recommend further that the standards for junior high schools be maintained as adopted last year; that these standards be not imposed upon any schools, but that they be considered as goals to be attained. The committee is of the opinion that if these standards can be presented to the North Central constituency in the manner indicated they will be helpful in guiding the junior high-school movement without in any way imposing restrictions or preventing any variations which may seem wise in special situations.

IV. *Proposed standardization of commercial schools.*—The association has in recent years been approached by leaders in the field of commercial education with the request that a list of commercial schools be prepared. The association, through a committee, made a study of the advisability of undertaking this extension of its work as a standardizing agency. The committee reported favorably and proposed a set of standards. It was finally agreed, however, that only those commercial schools should be accredited that met the usual standards of the secondary school. It was further decided to postpone indefinitely the question of seeking to standardize commercial schools in general. The fact that this question came before the association indicates that it will be urged in the future to give standardization to all schools offering work on a secondary school level.

V. *Professional training of teachers.*—A problem that has aroused much interest in the association is that of the professional training of secondary school-teachers. In 1925 and again in 1926 a special committee of the association presented a report on the undergraduate curriculum for prospective teachers in secondary schools. Among the recommendations in the 1926 report were the following:

(*a*) That an effort should be made to secure uniformity in nomenclature of the titles in the undergraduate courses in education.

(*b*) That "three basic elementary courses are: (1) Educational psychology, study of the child with particular reference to the learning process; (2) methods of teaching, study of the stimulation and direction of learning by teachers; and (3) principles of secondary education, study of the purpose of secondary education, and the organization of the high school with particular reference to the problems of the teacher."

The report of this committee aroused a vigorous debate on the floor of the association. Some feared that if the report were adopted it would tend to bring about a premature standardization of courses in education. The report was adopted, however, "in spirit." Colleges were merely advised to give careful attention to it before making curriculum changes in the field of education.

The association also has a committee at work on the question of professional courses to be required in preparation for secondary school teachers. The work of this committee has been particularly valuable in calling attention to the undefined character of the field of education and the tendency to count as education a number of courses that are clearly general rather than professional. The work of the committee has been under the direction of Dean C. E. Chadsey, of the University of Illinois.[25]

VI. *The association and college entrance requirements.*—The spread of the 6–3–3 plan of school organization in the North Central States has forced the association to face the problem of the defining of college-entrance requirements to take better account of the work of the junior high school. In 1926 a committee recommended that "the commission on secondary schools request the association to repeat its urgent invitation to the colleges included within the North Central territory to revise their terms of admission in such manner as to permit students to qualify for entrance on the basis of units of work—11 or 12 in number—accomplished in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of the secondary school." The association, at its meeting in March, 1926, authorized the secretary to bring to the attention of the higher institutions a recommendation that they restate their entrance requirements in terms of the senior high

[25] N. Cen. Assoc. Quarterly, Sept., 1926, pp. 149–173.

school. A special committee was authorized to bring before the association at its next meeting a workable plan for the restatement of the entrance requirements, for different types of liberal arts, technical, and professional schools.

VII. *Special studies.*—The North Central Association has, during the years 1924–1926, contributed numerous special studies of secondary school problems. Among these studies are the following:

1. The association sponsored a quinquennial study of the public and nonpublic schools accredited by the association. This was submitted at the 1925 meeting by Prof. C. O. Davis, of the University of Michigan.[36] This study was a statistical one and related to such items as: The preparation, experience, and salaries of teachers, pupil-teacher enrollment, teaching load, courses offered, value of equipment, and numerous related items. This report was published as a special bulletin of the association and may be secured through the secretary of the association.

2. A committee of the association, headed by Dean C. R. Maxwell, of the University of Wyoming, reported a study in 1925.[37] It was decided to investigate this topic owing to the fact that the standard on the pupil load had been modified by the association. The committee on special studies felt that this study would give authentic information relative to the practice in the different States and might give a more scientific basis for any future revision of this standard. Among the findings reported in this study were the following:

1. Most schools in the association require 16 units for graduation.

2. Students carrying more than 4 units make passing grades in all subjects more frequently than the other students in the school. Students carrying less than 4 units make, on the whole, a less satisfactory record than the other students in the school.

3. Forty-six per cent of the schools use intelligence tests for the classification of students. In the past two or three years the use of tests has increased rapidly.

4. Approximately 75 per cent of the schools give credit for extracurricular activities. Such credit is independent of other courses. Eighty per cent of the principals of schools are in favor of such a plan.

5. Credit for outside work in Bible, music, etc., is given in a considerable number of schools. The median amount of credit allowed for such work is 2 units.

3. In 1926 a committee of the association submitted a report on the success of high-school graduates who go to college. This study was similar in scope to the studies that have been sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools since 1919. The study was based on the work of the students graduating from the

[36] Proc. Thirtieth Annual Meeting N. Cen. Assoc. Col. and Sec. Schs., March, 1925, Part I.

[37] N. Cen. Assoc. Quarterly, September, 1926, pp. 190–220.

North Central high schools in June, 1925, who entered colleges in September, 1925. The total number of cases included in this study was 28,957. The number of colleges returning information concerning the grades made by these students was 659. Among the conclusions of the study are the following:

1. The percentages of failures of freshmen students in their first term or semester of college work vary greatly with institutions.
2. Teacher training schools have a much lower percentage of failures than do the other types of higher institutions.
3. Institutions accredited to the North Central Association have a much higher percentage of failures than do the nonaccredited institutions within the territory, with the exception of the State colleges.
4. Great differences are found in the percentages of failures between institutions of the same type without any apparent cause.
5. The success of a graduate of a high school in college or university depends largely upon what institution he attends. He may be successful if he attends one college, but unsuccessful if he attends another.

4. The commission on unit courses and curricula of the association has been making some significant studies. Among these is one reported in 1926 on quantitative work in English. This study was made under the direction of Prof. C. O. Davis.[28] The significant findings in this study are the following:

The typical junior high school, therefore, appears to be requiring three years of work in English, covering 36 weeks each year, with five class meetings of something over 40 minutes each week. Further, this typical school segregates its pupils into sections based on differences of mental ability and seeks to adapt the English work to the special needs of the several groups, both by means of supervised study periods and by other pedagogical devices. The typical secondary school, other than the junior high school, prescribes three or more units in English, offers this work for 36 to 40 weeks in the year (with class meeting on each of the five days of the week), and with class periods ranging from 40 minutes to 60 minutes each.

5. A committee reported at the 1926 meeting on the status of foreign language in the junior high schools.[29] The most significant findings of this committee were as follows:

Foreign languages in the schools which reported are offered as follows: Latin in 289 schools, 89.1 per cent; French in 106 schools, 32.7 per cent; Spanish in 74 schools, 22.7 per cent; German in 10 schools, 3.1 per cent; Italian in 2 schools, 0.2 per cent.

Thirty schools (9.2 per cent) offer no foreign language in their curriculum.

The powerful influence of college entrance requirements is shown in the fact that 97 schools gave preparation for those requirements as one local reason for including foreign-language study in their curricula.

VIII. *Establishment of an official organ.*—The association has for many years published numerous bulletins and yearbooks. It was not,

[28] N. Cen. Assoc. Quarterly, September, 1926, pp. 221–242.
[29] Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools. By Thomas W. Gosling. N. Cen. Assoc. Quarterly, June, 1926, pp. 106–138.

however, until the 1926 meeting that the association established an official publication. This publication is called the North Central Association Quarterly and is being sent free to all members. It gives reports of committees, brief notes, and editorials pertinent to North Central matters. It is believed that the quarterly will make it easier for all members to be kept informed concerning association matters. The office of the quarterly is Room 407, University High School Building, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States

By Joseph Roemer
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The southern high school is a rather new institution. Recuperation from the effects of the war between the States plus the mental set of the old South toward tutorial and private education retarded for several decades the growth and development of the modern high school in the southern region.

In fact the southern high school dates from about the beginning of the second decade of this century. It was about this time that the movement in favor of the county high school law swept over the South. For example, Alabama, Florida, and South Carolina passed their county high school law in 1907, Kentucky in 1908, Tennessee 1909, and Mississippi in 1912. This movement, though not expressing itself every time in law, nevertheless was pretty general throughout the southern region.

A second important factor in this rapid growth was the great services rendered the Southern States by the General Education Board. Through the assistance of this board each State secured one person to act as State high school inspector for the State department of education and professor of secondary education at the State university. The stimulating effect of this person was very helpful. In 1920 the board gave each State for a period of five years a second person who took over one-half of the dual task which had been carried for several years by one man. By 1925 the General Education Board withdrew both persons, feeling the work was well enough established to warrant no further assistance.

The following tables taken from the proceedings of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States show the growth of secondary schools in the association and also the number of schools accredited by the association from each State for the scholastic year 1925–26.

TABLE 13.—*Growth of secondary schools since the organization of the association*

Session	Year	Public	Private	Total	Session	Year	Public	Private	Total
2	1896	2	11	13	17	1911	5	32	37
3	1897	3	20	23	18	1912	5	33	38
4	1898	3	23	26	19 [1]	1913	125	36	161
5	1899	3	33	36	20 [1]	1914	208	70	278
6	1900	2	38	40	21	1915	245	63	308
7	1901	2	36	38	22	1916	269	78	347
8	1902	4	41	45	23	1917	292	75	367
9	1903	3	34	37	24	1918	336	73	409
10	1904	3	34	37	25	1919	365	78	443
11	1905	4	31	35	26	1920	329	85	414
12	1906	4	31	35	27	1921	455	100	555
13	1907	4	26	30	28	1922	524	104	628
14	1908 [2]	6	26	32	29	1923	589	116	705
15	1909	5	33	38	30	1924	625	129	754
16	1910	6	34	40	31	1925	627	129	756

[1] No list for Florida or Arkansas.
[2] Full report for all 13 Southern States.

TABLE 14.—*Showing summary of secondary schools accredited by the commission, 1925–26*

State	Old schools retained on list	New schools added to the list	Total schools accredited for 1925–26
Alabama	48	5	53
Florida	67	9	76
Georgia	80	0	80
Kentucky	54	21	75
Louisiana	53	21	74
Mississippi	43	1	44
North Carolina	58	17	75
South Carolina	33	12	45
Tennessee	52	15	67
Texas	112	6	118
Virginia	46	3	49
Total	646	110	756

One of the distinct tendencies in the development of the southern high school is away from the large school of several thousand enrollment. In many of our southern cities, like Jacksonville, Tampa, Miami, San Antonio, Birmingham, Richmond, Houston, and Atlanta, the junior high school is in full operation and tends to prevent the large enrollments found in many northern and western cities. In other cities where the junior high school movement is not developed the same principle regarding large schools holds true. For example, Dallas has 5 four-year high schools, Fort Worth 3, New Orleans 2, Louisville 4, Macon 2, and Atlanta 5. All of these but the ones in Atlanta are the traditional four-year high school. There seems to be a strong feeling among the southern high-school men that a school can be too large for efficient work. There seems to be a feeling, also, that somewhere between 1,000 and 1,500 pupils is the best unit for the most efficient work. Table 15, taken from the 1925–26 proceedings of the southern association, shows this situation admirably.

Table 16 gives several more items on the general nature of the secondary schools of the southern association.

TABLE 15.—*Size of the secondary schools accredited by the commission on secondary schools*

State	Size of schools						
	Under 100	100–199	200–499	500–999	1,000–1,999	2,000 or over	Total
Alabama	6	20	20	2	4	1	53
Florida	21	25	22	4	4		76
Georgia	7	36	26	11			80
Kentucky	12	34	21	5	3		75
Louisiana	16	35	17	4	2		74
Mississippi	12	17	11	4			44
North Carolina	9	24	32	7	3		75
South Carolina	2	18	21	3	1		45
Tennessee	18	23	18	4	4		67
Texas	10	31	43	22	10	2	118
Virginia	6	25	7	6	4	1	49
Total	119	288	238	72	35	4	756
Per cent of total	15.8	38.1	31.5	9.5	4.6	0.5	

From a study of Table 15 it is evident the South does not believe in the big high school. Over half, 53.9 per cent, of all the schools enroll under 200 pupils and 85.4 per cent enroll under 500 pupils. Only four schools enroll over 2,000 pupils in all the South. When schools enroll over 2,000 the tendency seems to be to divide them into two schools. This has happened recently in Birmingham, Fort Worth, Macon, Nashville, and other southern cities. As further evidence of this fact, observe from Table 15 that only 39 schools, 5.1 per cent of the total, enroll over 1,000 pupils.

TABLE 16.—*Number and size of schools accredited by the commission on secondary schools, 1925–26*

State	Number of schools	Size of school,		Number of teachers		Enrollment	
		Smallest school	Largest school	Total number	Average per school	Total enrollment	Average per school
Alabama	53	54	2,741	882	16.6	19,906	375.6
Florida	76	53	1,349	893	11.8	18,783	247.1
Georgia	80	46	950	878	11	21,452	268.1
Kentucky	75	34	1,463	812	10.8	19,110	254.8
Louisiana	74	46	1,248	728	9.8	16,532	223
Mississippi	44	41	777	440	10	8,900	202.2
North Carolina	75	26	1,391	1,120	15	22,577	301
South Carolina	45	88	1,122	567	12.6	12,254	272.3
Tennessee	67	41	1,673	913	13.6	18,274	272.7
Texas	118	45	2,712	2,437	20.7	54,098	458.5
Virginia	49	67	2,626	904	17.7	18,469	362.1
Total	756			10,574	14	230,346	304.7

The foregoing table shows the following interesting comparisons: The typical southern association high school employs 14 teachers and enrolls 305 pupils. Alabama has the largest secondary school, with an enrollment of 2,741, and North Carolina has the smallest, with an enrollment of 26. Texas shows the largest number of teachers per secondary school, 21; and Louisiana the smallest, 10. The largest average enrollment per school shows Texas with 458 and Mississippi, with 202, the smallest.

CHANGE IN STANDARDS

1. The association now requires 16 units for graduation of all secondary schools.

2. Beginning with the fall term 1927–28, all entering teachers must have had 12 semester hours in education.

3. Schools definitely organized on the 6–3–3 plan are allowed to report only the last three years of their organization—that is their senior high school. This is a temporary provision to aid the development of the junior high schools in the southern association territory.

SPECIAL STUDIES

1. At the December meeting in 1925 the first of a series of studies on the junior high school was presented.

2. The association has had compiled eight deans' reports. These consist in following the graduates of the southern association secondary schools through their freshman year and getting reports on their college failures. The reports stimulate better work in high school. This report is compiled annually.

3. There is a committee in the association studying the possibilities of requiring secondary school teachers to teach only those subjects in which they specialized on in college.

4. There is also a committee studying athletics in secondary schools looking toward improvements in that realm of school affairs.

5. Much interest at the present time is centered on the forthcoming report of a special committee appointed to make a study of the advisability of having a separate set of standards for the private secondary schools of the association.