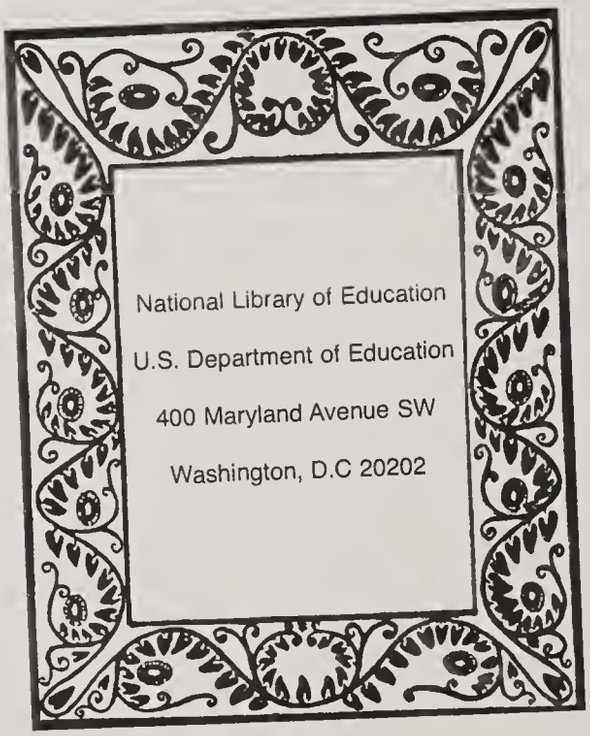

VOLUME XXXV

October 1952 to June 1953
and Supplement, September 1953

# SCHOOL LIFE

## INDEX



U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education

# INDEX, SCHOOL LIFE, VOLUME XXXV

## October 1952—June 1953 and Supplement, September 1953





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**Official Journal of** School Life **the Office of Education**

Published each month of the school year, October through June

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
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OCTOBER 1952

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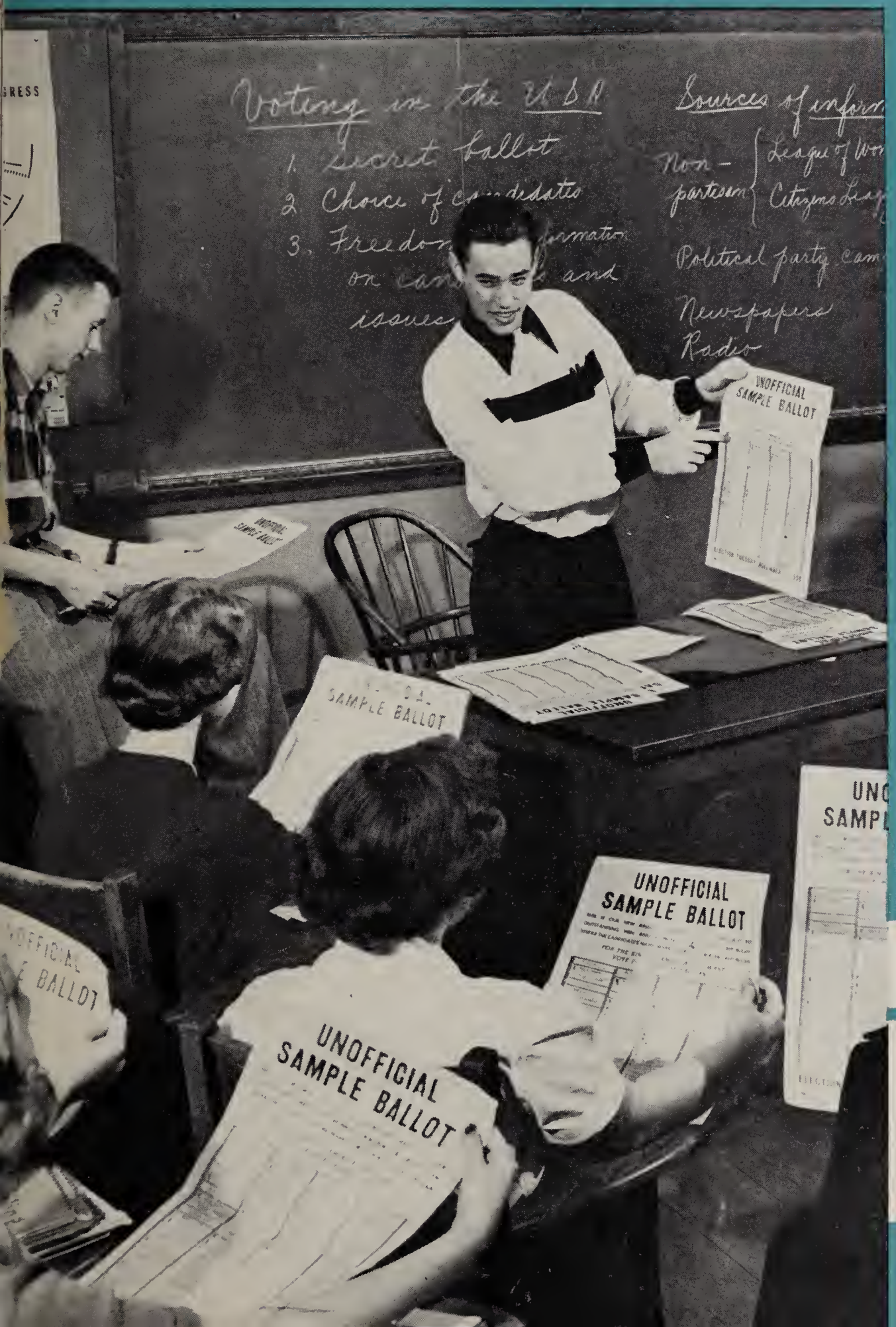
# School Life






◀ Vote—Your Right and Duty
(SEE INSIDE FRONT COVER)



FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# Vote—Your Greatest Right and Duty

"My little vote doesn't mean anything,
so I'm not going to vote."
How often have you made this statement
or heard words to this effect?

TO APPEAL to those who express their feelings about voting in this or similar vein, and to present factual reasons why voting is a right and a responsibility of all citizens who share the benefits and privileges of our American way of life, is the goal of a Nation-wide campaign.

This national effort to get out the vote in every community during the forthcoming elections is spearheaded for the American Heritage Foundation by the Advertising Council. Joining with scores of national organizations in The National Non-Partisan Register and Vote Campaign are such groups as the National Education Association, the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, the Future Farmers of America, and the American Library Association.

Target for this year's total number of voters is set at 63,000,000, which the American Heritage Foundation points out would be 15,000,000 more voters than went to the polls in 1948. The Foundation hastens to add, however, that even this number of voters would be less percentage-wise than the 78 percent of eligible voters who exercised their voting privileges in the year 1880. The United States stands low on the voting ladder in comparison with such countries as Belgium where 90 percent of the eligible voters go to the polls; Italy, 89 percent; England, 83 percent; Canada, 75 percent; Sweden, 80 percent; France, 75 percent; Israel, 72 percent, and Japan, 71 percent. In the 1948 national election only 51 percent of the eligible voters throughout the United States actually voted.

Americans in all walks of life frequently fail to vote in both local or national elections. A survey of nonvoters in Syracuse, New York, for example, revealed that large numbers of automobile dealers, doctors, bankers, teachers, real estate dealers, civic club members, lawyers, and dentists, did not cast their ballots. Twenty-three percent of the city's public school teachers did not vote in 1949 elections.

It is emphasized by the American Heritage Foundation and the Advertising Council that two major objectives to which the Get Out The Vote campaign will contribute importantly are the following:

1. To develop a greater awareness, and a keener appreciation of the advantages we have in this country, emphasizing the relationship of our hard-won civil liberties to our development as the greatest nation of free people in the world's history.
2. To persuade all Americans that only by active personal participation in the affairs of our nation can we safeguard our freedoms, preserve the liberties from which all these advantages flow, and continue to demonstrate to the world and ourselves, that the way of free men is best.

Don't forget. Go to the polls. Vote as you please, but vote, it is your greatest right and duty.


**School ★ Life**

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• • • Federal Security Agency

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EARL JAMES McGRATH..... Commissioner of Education
GEORGE KERRY SMITH..... Director, Reports and Publications Branch
JOHN H. LLOYD..... Managing Editor of SCHOOL LIFE
ARVILLA H. SINGER..... Art Editor

Address all SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the Director, Reports and Publications Branch, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C.


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Volume 35 Number 1


Cover photograph credit: Martin W. Essex, Superintendent of Schools, Lakewood, Ohio, granted permission for SCHOOL LIFE to republish this photograph, appropriate to election time. The photograph appeared originally in the report on Lakewood's schools—"Imperative Needs of Youth."




SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, and in Education Index - - - - - - - (Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents)


THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

President Truman with the British, French, and Canadian teachers at the White House. To the left of the President is Oscar R. Ewing, Federal Security Administrator. To his right is The Right Honorable Sir Oliver Shewell Franks, Ambassador from Great Britain. Children of teachers stand in foreground.

# Humanizing International Relations

BARBARA DAVIS, 24 and attractive, had taught children of 7 and 8 years old at the Intake County School in Sheffield, England, since 1947.

On week ends from 1948 to 1950 she supervised blind children at the Royal School for Blind Children in Sheffield.

Miss Davis prepared for her teaching career at Whitelands Training College in London, and received a teacher certificate from the University of London.

This is the type of information that one British teacher furnished the British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers Between Great Britain and the United States as she added her application to many others asking consideration for a year's exchange with a teacher in the United States during the 1952–53 academic year.

## Many Interests

Dr. Gordon Barry of the English Speaking Union and other representatives of the British Committee learned more about Miss Davis. She was a member of the Sheffield Teachers folk dance group and leader of a Wolf Cub Pack. She likes to organize walking tours, is interested in handicraft, and participates in outdoor sports.

The British Interchange Committee acted favorably upon the application of Miss Davis, and in August, with 99 other teachers from Great Britain, also selected for exchange positions this year, she set out on her first trip abroad. Twenty-three of the teachers sailed on the *Mauretania*. Miss Davis and the others were aboard the *Queen Mary*.

Like all newcomers to the United States by ocean voyage, Barbara and her fellow British teachers eagerly awaited their first views of the Statue of Liberty and the New York skyscrapers. Before the *Queen Mary* docked, the teachers went through immigration clearance, several were interviewed by newspaper reporters, and all were photographed for the Nation's press.

Miss Davis, bound for Drumright, Oklahoma, to exchange with M. Miree James in an elementary school, told a newspaperman she was looking forward to seeing a full-blooded Indian in feathered headdress. Doubtless she would meet some cowboys.

There were men teachers in the teacher exchange group also. One of them gained more than usual attention as the teachers opened their trunks and suitcases on the pier for United States Bureau of Customs officials to make their inspections. This gentleman was John G. Holmes, a teacher from Kirkstall County Secondary School, Argie Road, Leeds, England. Mr. Holmes is exchanging positions with Jack Jay Potter, McKinley Elementary School, Susanville, California. Several officers of the Bureau of Customs inspected the "baggage" of Mr. Holmes, which included one brand new latest-type three-speed British motorcycle. Mr. Holmes plans to continue his 25-year-old hobby of cycling while he is one of our country's teachers.

## First Impressions

Official welcomes were in order for the visiting teachers in New York City. Department of State, U. S. Office of Education, and British Embassy representatives addressed the teachers, helped them learn our ways of doing things, going places, eating, and having a good time. Sightseeing, radio shows, the theater, ball games, Broadway, the United Nations, gave the British teachers, and four French teachers who arrived on the *Liberté*, first impressions of America and our way of life.

After their first United States train ride from New York City to Washington, D. C., the teachers, some with their wives, husbands, and children, were greeted at the Union Station by Earl James McGrath, United States Commissioner of Education.

Speaking for the U. S. Office of Education, which, with the Department of State, and with the cooperation of leading educational organizations in the United States sponsors the British-American teacher interchange program, Commissioner McGrath said, "The efforts of the peoples of the free world to create international understanding, goodwill, and peace will be greatly enhanced by your presence here in the United States during this academic year." He said that since 1946, when the program was initiated, there have been 713 exchanges between teachers of the United States and Great Britain alone. "This means a total of 1,426 teachers who have left their home teaching posts to experience this thing we call international relations at first hand," said Commissioner McGrath.

Television records the welcoming message of U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath to the visiting teachers, and the response made by Gordon Barry, of the English Speaking Union and representative of the British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers Between Great Britain and the United States.

The exchange teachers hear a welcoming address by William C. Johnstone, Department of State, in the Federal Security Auditorium, Washington, D. C. Their children have front-row seats.

## At The White House

From station to hotel, to Federal Government agencies, British and French embassies, teas and banquets, the interchange teachers went. They saw our government in action. They met our Nation's top executives and leaders. They visited our national shrines. They learned to know us better.

Federal Security Administrator Oscar R. Ewing interrupted his vacation in New England to present the British and French teachers and one Canadian teacher to President Truman at the White House on August 21. Mr. Ewing, in presenting the teachers, said, "By their very presence, they prove the cordiality between our nation and the nations they represent. But by their actions, they strengthen that spirit of cordiality."

The President of the United States, in the presence of The Right Honorable Sir Oliver Shewell Franks, Ambassador from Great Britain, and important Government officials, told the interchange teachers, "I think this is the way for us to find out exactly what our people are, and how they think, and how they act; and when you find that out you will find that there isn't a great deal of difference between us . . . . That is a contribution to peace in the world, to the welfare of all the people in the world . . . . an honest peace, not a propaganda peace."

U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath welcomes British and French teachers upon arrival in Washington, D. C. Here he is shaking the hand of a British youngster, son of one of the exchange teachers going to Yuba City, California.

## Television and Travel

Barbara Davis experienced eating her first hamburger sandwich a day later. She told a Washington, D. C., television audience about her school in England and her first observations of our country. An hour later, in company with another exchange teacher, Margaret June Cross, of Gors Secondary Modern School, Gors Road, Swansea, Wales, going to San Francisco, California, to exchange positions with Juner Bellew at the Abraham Lincoln High School, Miss Davis boarded a Greyhound bus en route to Drumright, Oklahoma, to teach, to learn, to live, and to further discover America.

## An Important Contribution

Like the other 99 interchange teachers from Great Britain, 4 from France, 7 from Canada, others from Australia, Austria, Belgium, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, and Norway, and their United States teacher counterparts in these several countries, Miss Davis and many other teachers this year, through human relations, will contribute much to international good will and world understanding.—JOHN H. LLOYD.

# Atomic Energy Education at Kenmore

by Rolland J. Gladieux

Head of the Science Department, Kenmore High School, Kenmore, N. Y.

SCIENCE EDUCATORS are in common agreement that the educational experience of today's boys and girls should include learning in the area of atomic energy.

They believe that the very nature of the age in which we live calls for educational exploration in this relatively unexplored field.

The schools of Kenmore give rightful emphasis to this challenging topic in the regular curriculum as well as in extra-curricular science activities.

Two science clubs are largely responsible for extra-curricular science in the Kenmore Senior High School. These clubs meet Thursday evenings in the school science laboratories. One group of students works with Miss Louise Schwabe, sponsor of the Biology Club, while another group works with the writer who sponsors the Physical Science Club. These two clubs have neither officers nor dues. Membership is based strictly upon interest and aptitude in science. Youngsters involved are capable and science-minded. The club is simply conceived of as a place to work. Hundreds of other students participate in additional club activities in the school's Thursday evening club program.

## Specialists Help

Project activity is usually followed in the science clubs. The environment is conducive to work. Space for working tools, equipment, materials, supplies, and files of many journals are provided. When the students require more detailed information than this environment can give them, arrangements are made for them to confer with specialists in the area. The specialist may be a high vacuum man, an electronics engineer, a high polymer man, the superintendent of a hospital, or the dean of an engineering school.

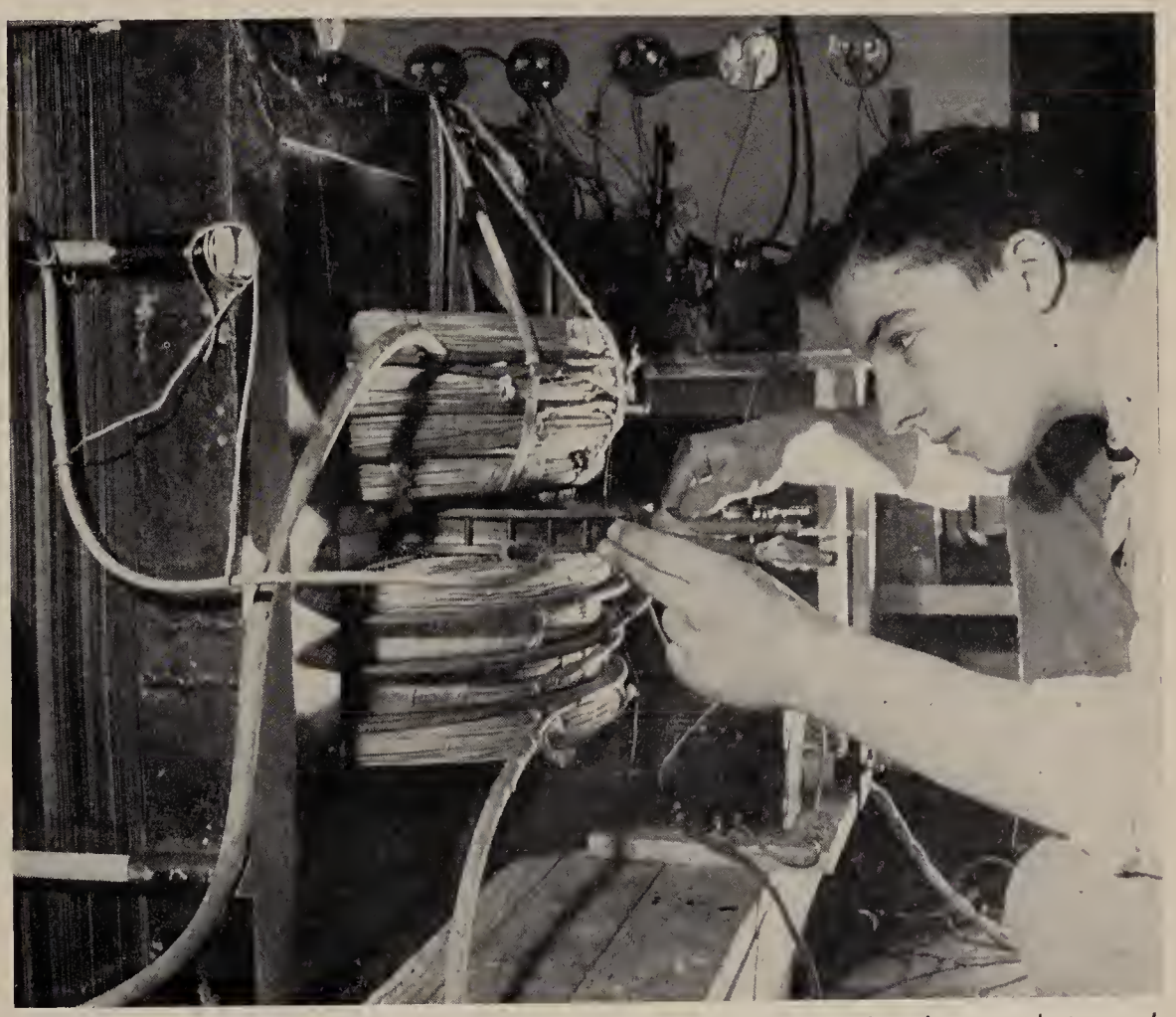
Kenmore Public Schools are located in the heavily industrialized Niagara Frontier. Scientists and engineers who man these industries have not only given technical assistance to the boys and girls in their various club projects, but the industries themselves have also given freely of specialized supplies and equipment. The only obligation on the part of the school for these valuable community resources is simply to make effective use of the material so generously made available.

## Results

A number of student projects concerning atomic energy have been successfully completed in the science club. These have included the construction of a linear proton accelerator, reported in the September, 1947 *Journal of Chemical Education*, the construction of a scintillation counter or alpha particle detector, described in the May, 1951 issue of *Chemistry*.

Other items constructed by Kenmore Senior High School science club members have been an electron accelerator patterned after a Van de Graaff generator, a Geiger counter, a Wilson cloud chamber, a Tesla coil, an Oudin coil, and another Van de Graaff generator.

There seems to be no particular rule as to how the youngsters get started on their projects. Some of the students have sufficient personal initiative to know what they want to do. In other cases a mere suggestion will suffice to get them started reading journals and other references. However, one of the most common questions asked by students of their science teacher or



Robert E. Simpson, of Kenmore High School, getting his half-million electron-volt cyclotron ready to smash atoms and make material radioactive. His engineering project has been termed a "monumental task."

science club sponsor is "What can I do for a project?"

The club project that has received widest publicity is that of the construction of a half mev cyclotron. This was indeed a monumental task, and was engineered by a boy, Robert E. Simpson, who had the necessary attributes for completing the job. These qualities include a high degree of manual dexterity, an immense physical drive, the necessary intellectual vigor, plus confidence that the machine could be built. Although other boys helped Robert in certain details, the venture is properly classified as an individual rather than a group project.

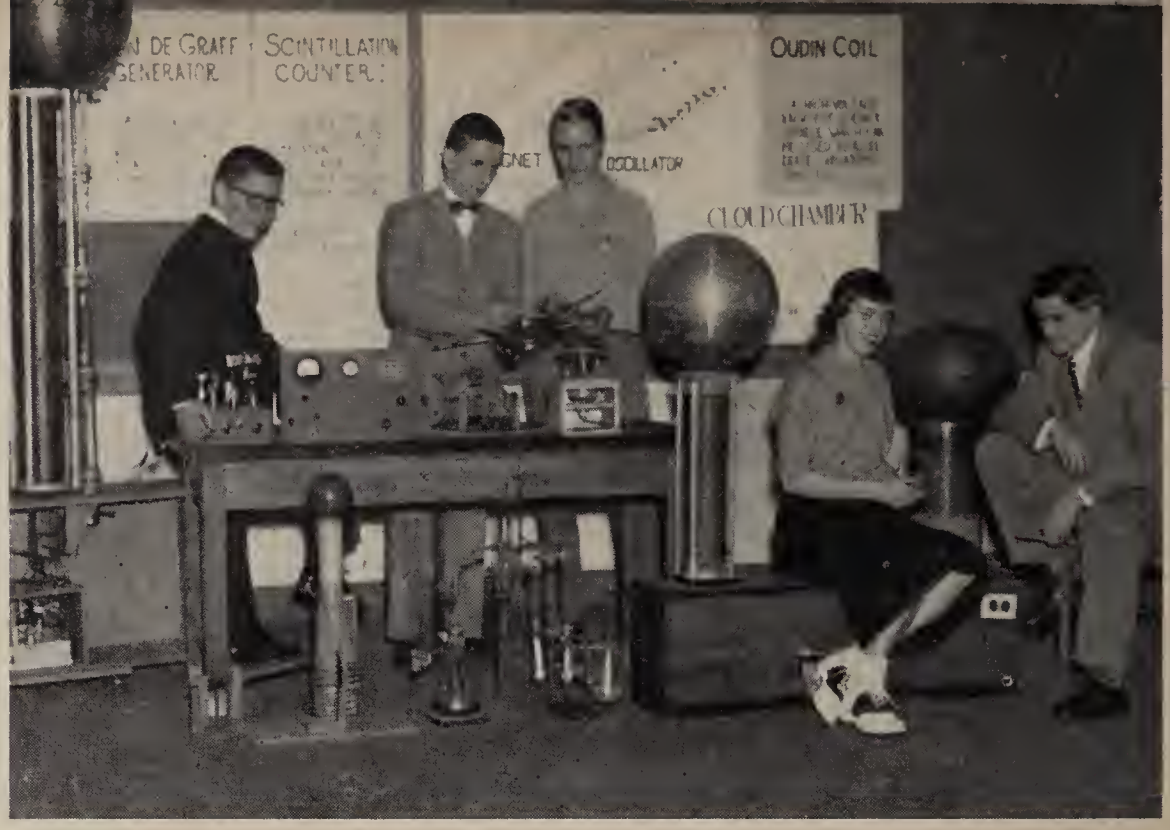
### How It Was Done

Building of the cyclotron grew out of a curricular experience. The general topic of particle accelerators was being discussed in the writer's class in chemistry. The discussion relating to the cyclotron in particular appeared to fire Robert's imagination. He submitted rough sketches and said that he believed that such a machine could be built in the school laboratory. Although I may have been privately skeptical of his optimism, I was careful not to convey my skepticism to him. I directed him to explore the *Physical Review* and other sources of technical information dating back to 1932. This he did with zeal. Power resources of the school were found to be adequate. A list of parts was compiled and obtained from cooperating industries of the area. Finally, Dr. Ernest O. Lawrence checked Robert's plans and approved them.

The most significant science club project in the general field of atomic energy was the construction of a demonstration model nuclear reactor. This venture was conceived of and executed jointly by two gifted boys, Robert Detenbeck and Dennis Malone.

The writer described to the students the demonstration nuclear reactor of Dr. John Dunning that he had viewed in New York city during the December 1949 AAAS-Joint Science Teaching Societies meeting. The two boys said, "We'll build you one." And they did!

Other completed club projects involving the use of manual skills include the construction of a television receiver, the construction of a pH meter, the construction of a stroboscope, a demonstration radar apparatus and the determination of wave length by Lecher wires.




Kenmore science students with several of their laboratory productions.

## New Farmers of America Leaders at FSA

FIRST-HAND reports of their home farm projects were made by Negro vocational agriculture students to Deputy Federal Security Administrator John L. Thurston recently.

The students, national officers of their organization—the New Farmers of America—were welcomed by Mr. Thurston in his office upon occasion of the meeting of national officers and the national advisory council of the NFA in the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

The Office of Education sponsors this active organization of 34,000 Negro farm boys throughout the United States who carry on practical farm projects in connection with their studies in vocational agriculture.

John L. Thurston, Deputy Federal Security Administrator, greets national officers of the New Farmers of America, and members of the NFA national advisory council in his office. U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, to left of Mr. Thurston, presented the visitors to the Deputy Administrator.

# Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education

AT THE CONCLUSION of the Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, Switzerland, in July 1952, Earl James McGrath, United States Commissioner of Education, said, "The greatest task today is to preserve peace, but peace only with freedom. By freedom I mean not only freedom in the negative sense of freedom from the evils of tyranny and oppression, but also freedom in the positive sense of having opportunity to live one's life to the fullest in company with one's fellowmen. Freedom of the positive kind can be guaranteed only by education, and by developing possibilities for education in all countries. It was therefore fitting that the previous year's Conference had considered what steps should be taken to extend compulsory education, and that this year's Conference had continued these discussions with special reference to women's education. Future years should provide a rich harvest in the form of fuller and better living as a result."

## Two Major Topics

Commissioner McGrath attended the conference of world educational leaders as a member of the United States Delegation, and served as chairman of the delegation.

Dr. Margaret Clapp, President of Wellesley College, another member of the United States Delegation, was named President of the Geneva Conference. The third member of the United States Delegation to the conference was Dr. Blanche Bobbitt, Supervisor of Science, Mathematics, Health Coordination and Aviation Education, Division of Secondary Education, Los Angeles City Schools.

This year's conference discussed chiefly two major topics—Access of Women to Education, and Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools. Each of the educational leaders also presented for his country a report of progress in education during 1951–52. Commissioner McGrath presented a report, Educational Developments in the United States—1951–52

Miss Henriette Sourgen, Delegate of France, presented a report on Access of Women to Education based upon returns of questionnaires sent to all countries.

She reported: "The factors affecting women's access to education vary in importance and vary nowadays from one country to another . . . . The various factors . . . come into play mainly beyond the level of compulsory education. The principal impeding factors are economic and social ones, such as the family economic level, the priority given to sons when family resources are not sufficient to cover the education of all the children, the prejudices held in certain circles against the access of women to given fields of activity, and the belief that higher education is pointless in the case of women who get married.

"Difficulties of an educational kind, such as the shortage of schools or teachers, affect girls more than boys only where the sexes are separated and fewer schools are provided for girls than for boys.

"A factor favouring women's access to education is the necessity for women nowadays to earn their own living and thus to have adequate vocational training. This factor is undoubtedly one of the main causes of the evolution that is taking place more or less rapidly in most countries. . . .

"The following conclusion may be offered: that the replies to the questionnaire sent to the Ministries of Education are in agreement on the principle of women having full access to education. This agreement is a source of satisfaction. Principles, especially those which concern the establishment of a juster society, are the moving forces of the history of mankind. Their affirmation gives reality to that which it is desired to bring about. The declaration of the principle of justice for women means that the principle is being realized."

Commenting upon the second major subject discussed by the Conference—Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools—Mr. Albert Picot, of Switzerland, Chief Swiss Delegate to the Conference, spoke highly of the report presented by Miss Rachel Gampert which he said also raises great questions of principle. This report, he said, brings up the question of the importance to be given in schools in 1952, on the one hand, to the natural and exact sciences, and on the other hand, to moral science and literary culture.

"Many educators are seeking their way in these fields," he continued. "We believe that the solution can be found by considering, primarily, the general aim of schooling which should attempt to give a training which is at the same time moral—character formation—and intellectual, cultural education, broad and human enough to prepare the child to face life with a clear mind, a sense of observation, a critical judgment and an understanding of things spiritual and sentimental.

## Spirit of Teaching

"For this, the spirit of teaching is of primary importance, and this spirit can be the same for science and for culture. It is not a question of determining the relationship of natural sciences vis-à-vis other disciplines; it is not a question of memorising a certain number of subjects, but to enable secondary school children to acquire a method of work in all types of disciplines. It is the acquisition of the art of understanding and of feeling which is known as the humanities. Natural sciences belong to the humanities if they are taught not so much for the sake of knowledge alone, but in order to develop qualities of observation, the acquisition of a love of nature and contact with reality."

On education of women throughout the world Mr. Torres Bodet, Director General of UNESCO, told the Conference:

"The diversity of roles which women are called upon to play in modern society, as active members of a human community larger than the family, demands therefore an appropriate education. Women are well aware of this when they ask for free access to education in order to better their condition as human beings, and the very change in that condition in turn calls for still further education. The higher status of women in modern society increases the

(*Continued on page 13*)

# Education's New Frontier —Television

By Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television

APPLICATIONS for licenses for the 242 channels set aside by the Federal Communications Commission for the purpose of noncommercial educational operation are now beginning to be acted upon by the Commission. In July, the Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kansas, one of the pioneers in education by radio, received its CP. (construction permit) as did five stations in New York State, to be operated by the New York Board of Regents at Albany, Rochester, Buffalo, New York City and Binghamton. In August, licenses were granted also to the University of Houston and to the Allan Hancock Foundation at the University of Southern California.

When the application date arrived on July 1, the Commission already had advance applications from 20 institutions, ready to utilize these important channels, or others available for additional use. The locations and institutions listed were: *San Francisco*, the Bay Area Educational Television Association; *Miami* (Fla.), The Lindsay Hopkins Vocational School, Dade County; *Manhattan*, (Kans.), Kansas State College; *Albany*, the New York Board of Regents and the following: *New York City, Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, Binghamton, Ithaca, Malone, Utica, Poughkeepsie* (all New York Board of Regents); *Houston*, the University of Houston and the Houston Public Schools; *Los Angeles*, the Allan Hancock Foundation at the University of Southern California; *Ithaca*, Cornell University; *East Lansing*, Michigan State College; *Columbia* (Mo.), University of Missouri; *Port Arthur* (Tex.), Port Arthur College; *St. Louis*, St. Louis University and associates, and *New Brunswick, N. J.*, State Department of Education of New Jersey, at Rutgers University.

The last five-named institutions applied for permission to operate under commercial rules and not under the special 242 channel assignment, even though for the most part, operations will be nonprofit in character. Liberal rules announced by the FCC, allowing definite means of income for noncommercial stations, however, make noncommercial operation more attractive to most educational institutions. Since 133 educational radio stations now successfully operate on a noncommercial basis, a wealth of tried experiments and experience now exists for noncommercial operation.

### *Preparing Applications*

Nearly 100 other institutions and school systems are now busily preparing their applications or are laying plans, discussing building and operating costs and recruiting staff for their 1953 plunge into television.

Actual television experience is quite old even though this country did not have regular television service until 1946. More than 10 years before that, this writer produced educational television experimentally for a small group of televiewers (some 50 receiving sets) in New York over NBC. From 1936 to 1953 are 17 long years of progress in both the art and the science of visual and aural projection from studio to America's 155 million people. The educational value of the national political conventions this past summer was heralded all over the world as "democracy at work."

How did the educational world wake up to its opportunity? From a meeting of leading educators held in November 1950 at the U. S. Office of Education, came the beginnings of the organization. At that time, the first Joint Committee on Educa-

Loren Powell conducts demonstration in music from television studio at Allan Hancock Foundation, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. The blackboard set has been built into the studio for TV.

Teaching science by television. Dr. Howard conducts demonstration from built-in science set in Studio B, Allan Hancock Foundation, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

tional Television was formed, which now represents the American Council on Education, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges, the National Education Association, the National Association of State Universities, The National Association of Educational Broadcasters and The Association for Education by Radio-TV. Virtually everyone in education is represented through these organizations, both private and public institutions over the Nation and the two professional groups actually engaged in broadcasting. This organization maintains headquarters at 1785 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, D. C., and has, since 1951, operated under a Ford Foundation grant to supply help and assistance to those seeking to utilize this new medium of education. The U. S. Office of Education actively cooperates with this group and its television and radio chief serves on its board.

### Principal Problems

Two principal problems facing educational television are: programming and finance, though staff, physical location of transmitter and studios, integration of purpose with the corporate purpose of the individual institution (or group of organizations) are all of vital importance. A broad plan for educational programming is described by the writer in a current article in the *Educational Record* and available in reprint form both at the JCET and the U. S. Office of Education. It provides for programs of a cultural, development, and direct teaching nature in all the subject matter fields and does not neglect the value of news background programming nor sports programs of either intramural or league dimensions. Literally *everything* of interest to intelligent American citizens is included from university instruction for credit to programs for preschool children in the home. Truly, an opportunity for education.

As for finance, the first educational television station, WOI–TV, at the Iowa State College, Ames, in operation since February 1951, presents an interesting example of construction costs. This powerful station, covering half of Iowa's population, represents today an investment of approximately $250,000. It began, however, with $80,000 for transmitter, transmitter building, motion picture projection and mobile-transmitter on a station-wagon. Since 1951, beautiful studios have been acquired and a large staff has been engaged. It conducted a National TV Workshop for 60 people entering the field from radio, August 17–24 of this year. The construction costs of new stations, planning to operate this coming year, vary in their applications from $100,000 to $250,000 and operating expenses are estimated at from $40,000 to $150,000. No set formula has been found for costs, since availability of tower, type of transmitter, flexible use of studios and cooperation of trained student staffs are all factors in cost of operation. Commercial stations have similar problems and varying costs but, of course, do not use trained student staffs.

### Potential Income

Sources of income for noncommercial educational stations potentially include: Fees from courses for university credit; fees from courses for noncredit; sale of materials and literature to accompany courses; sale of magazines containing notes and lists of program schedules; paid preparation of programs of trade associations; public service groups and individual industrial organizations, containing no verbal advertising; exchange of programs prepared at other institutions and available on kinescope recordings; use of vast film catalogue of "free" films prepared by industry and available as well, through State and county film libraries. Also included are use of Government films prepared by various departments of Federal Government and catalogued by U. S. Office of Education; experimental programs on research projects of industry and government; paid research for foundations and organizations in the field of television; endowed programs of educational nature for both industry and foundations; tax-supported programs for public schools, community colleges, liberal-arts colleges, vocational schools, institutes and universities, and regular appropriations from municipal, county, or State authorities for station operation for the benefit of all the people.

### Looking Ahead

Many of our schools and universities will use several and, perhaps in some cases, all of the income sources now available. State-wide networks are projected in Wisconsin, North Carolina, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, California, and Texas. New York is already in with 10 stations. Educational television will soon cover the nation.

# To Improve Elementary Education

## Representatives of 65 National Organizations Meet

*This* detailed report was prepared by the staff of the Elementary School Section, Division of State and Local School Systems, of the U. S. Office of Education. Since the conference described is the sixth in a series on elementary education called by the Office of Education, it is believed that many teachers and school administrators now look forward to this annual conference and the report of its findings prepared especially for SCHOOL LIFE readers.

THE ANNUAL Conference on Elementary Education called by the Commissioner of Education, Earl James McGrath, convened in Washington, D. C., on April 30, May 1, and May 2 to discuss the theme, "Better Schools Through Cooperative Action." One hundred twenty-two representatives from sixty-five national organizations, both lay and professional, took part in the Conference program.

This Conference was the sixth in a series of Office of Education Conferences on Elementary Education. The first was held in the Office in 1947 on the theme, "Important Current Problems in Elementary Education." Seventeen national professional organizations were represented. Since 1947, lay as well as professional organizations have been invited each year and the number of professional organizations has increased.

The 1952 Conference on "Better Schools Through Cooperative Action" opened with a panel discussion which, through a series of provocative illustrations of cooperative action on both State and local levels, introduced the four major problems of the conference.

During the conference, four working groups discussed the major problems that had been submitted by the organizations represented. One group worked on "Making Greater Use of Our Knowledge of Child Development." Another group discussed the topic, "Helping Children Grow With Regard to the Responsibilities and Rights of Democratic Living." A third discussed "Improving the Curriculum to Meet the Needs of Children in Today's World." A fourth considered problems of "Securing Better Services for Children." Two recorders reported the work of each group and a chairman guided the discussion. Significant statements, recommendations, and agreements were reported to the conference as a whole.

### Suggestions For Action

*How can we make greater use of our knowledge of child development* was the problem the first group discussed. How to help children gain a feeling of security occupied much of the attention of this group throughout the conference. Among the ideas discussed were these suggestions for action: (1) Continue to develop programs that help bring about warm and understanding relationships between parents and teachers, and encourage them in their cooperative efforts to provide better learning opportunities for children, (2) help teachers develop a feeling of security in as many ways as possible, (3) select prospective teachers on the basis of their affection for children and their warmth of personality as well as academic achievement.

*How can a school and its community work together to help children grow with respect to the rights and responsibilities of democratic living* challenged the thinking of one working group. This group first stated what it believed to be the characteristics, understandings and responsibilities of democratic living. Among these are: Respect for the dignity of each individual; recognition that human value is to be placed on each individual even though there are many differences among people; willingness of individuals to grant to others the rights and privileges they want for themselves; continuous improvement of inter-group understanding and cooperative action; use of the scientific method as a basis for arriving at solutions to problems.

The group furthermore decided that it is important for all organizations and persons who influence the lives of children to have a clear idea of the behavior required of people to function effectively in a democratic society. Many of these meanings in terms of rights and responsibilities need to be worked out by communities and groups working together. Feelings of self-respect, self-confidence and self-worth are essential to wholesome personalities—the necessary foundations of good citizenship. These essentials are, in fact, developed through providing children with opportunities to meet and solve real problems. Not only the school and home but all other institutions and organizations of a community, including professional and nonprofessional groups, have a responsibility in helping children grow into effective, participating members of our democratic society.

*How can the curriculum be improved to meet the needs of children in today's world* drew suggestions and recommendations from another group. Participants concentrated on ways of helping children to gain more nearly adequate social development. Their suggestions included helping children to understand life in their own communities

Closing panel on "Our Part in Securing Better Schools," left to right: Bernard Lonsdale, President, National Council of State Consultants in Elementary Education; Alvin Schindler, American Council on Education; Edith A. Lyons, National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers; Lois M. Clark, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association; Wilhelmina Hill, conference chairman, U. S. Office of Education; Helen K. Mackintosh, panel coordinator, U. S. Office of Education; Agnes Meyer, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools; John Miles, U. S. Chamber of Commerce, and Vivien Weedon, National Safety Council.

# Annual Conference

and to cultivate habits of responsible citizenship. They felt that children should have aid in understanding common needs of people and in learning ways of meeting these needs. The group considered the importance of helping children to discover and appreciate the similarities and differences in many phases of the natural and social environment, thus developing a better understanding of the world in which they live.

"How can we help children learn how to work with others?" asked one participant.

In this problem, the group thought the best techniques of human relations should be discovered and employed by both community and school. Emphasis should be put upon the dignity of the individual and the value of his service to society. Moral support should be given community leaders who attempt to modify undesirable patterns already existing. Bands, orchestras, and workshops have been found useful in helping children learn to respect one another's opinions and get along together.

"How can schools help children deal with the problems they face today?" asked another participant.

## *Means of Expression*

As this group saw it, the need is great for children to develop with stability and with increasing understanding of their environment. The emotions, it was agreed, are reflected in behavior. Expression gives release from tensions created by fear and helps to clarify understandings. The schools, therefore, should provide all children many opportunities for gaining understandings; they should also make it possible for all children to learn to express what they feel and think through legitimate means, such as language, art, music, drama, dance, and in other ways. Science and social studies contribute much to understandings, it was thought, but understandings derive fully as much from ways of living as from the content of the studies undertaken. For this reason, it seems wise to catch or stimulate the interest of children through experiences which help them learn to deal with their world regardless of subject-matter boundaries. The differences among children—in homes, experiences, abilities, and achievement—make this a complex problem, especially in crowded classrooms, but the group felt that the need for our society to develop all of its people could not be minimized.

The work of the elementary schools is now as fully focused upon the development of emotional stability and understanding as it is upon the study skills, but the public and many school people, including teachers, are not aware of this change of focus. If children are to benefit, ways must be found to bring the public and the teachers together so that purposes of both may be realized and the work of the school clarified.

"We have fine teachers in our community," said another participant. "I would like to have the group talk about ways in which our various organizations can help them do even a better job of teaching."

It was apparent from the outset that this discussion group likes and admires our teachers. That modern society expects much of its teachers was the consensus. Most teachers try to do what is expected, but except for some of the more recently trained, the education of present-day teachers has not included techniques required to help children meet many of today's problems.

In addition, certain threats were seen to providing the best teaching for our

(*Continued on page 15*)

One view of the conference in session.

# They Learned English in Six Weeks

Korean officers study simple English words projected on a table-cloth screen.

ACCORDING to a report by Captain Joseph K. Lester to the Department of the Army, 17 people said it couldn't be done.

He referred to a proposed plan to teach Korean Army Signal Corps officers how to speak English in 6 weeks.

With a still-film projector, a 16-mm. motion picture projector, a sheet serving as a screen, a duplicating machine, dictionary, paper and pencils, the course was begun under the direction of the Senior Signal Advisor of the United States Military Advisory Group to the Republic of Korea.

First with words, then simple sentences, and speech, using illustrations wherever possible, the course progressed. Repetition and practice brought results. American phrases were duplicated and given to each Korean officer student. Voices were recorded on a tape recorder and played back for voice study. Corporal John M. Garcia, a speech correctionist in civilian life, held private consultations with each student. Feature length motion pictures were used to teach the light side of the English language. They stimulated thought. There were conducted tours of the villages, during which the instructor pointed to objects, and students created sentences.

On graduation day several students gave short addresses in English. They spoke spontaneously. The addresses evidenced a decided improvement in sound control, accent, sentence construction and speech delivery. The subjects selected were interesting also—The Atom Bomb, A Comparison of the English and Korean Languages, WACS in the Korean Army, and American Motion Pictures in Korea.

Captain Lester concludes his interesting report by pointing out that 6 weeks is not time enough to teach the rudiments of formal English, but a 6-week course of this kind can have much value. The evidence—that 14 Korean officers can now read American military manuals. He says also that this particular course has helped to beat down the language barriers dividing Americans and Koreans.

**The November issue of SCHOOL LIFE reports on South Korean teachers in the United States—a human interest article by Dr. Thomas Cotner, Division of International Education, Office of Education.**

## President Truman—on the United Nations

In spite of all these difficulties and discouragements, the United Nations remains the best means available to our generation for achieving peace for the community of nations.

★ ★ ★

In the United Nations we have pledged our support to the basic principles of sovereign equality, mutual respect among nations, and justice and morality in international affairs. By the Charter all United Nations members are bound to settle their disputes peacefully rather than by the use of force. They pledge themselves to take common action against root causes of unrest and war, and to promote the common interests of the nations in peace, security, and general well-being.

These principles are not new in the world, but they are the only sure foundation for lasting peace. Centuries of history have made it clear that peace cannot be maintained for long unless there is an international organization to embody these principles and put them into effect.

The United Nations provides a world-wide forum in which those principles can be applied to international affairs. In the General Assembly all member nations have to stand up and be counted on issues which directly involve the peace of the world. In the United Nations no country can escape the judgment of mankind. This is the first and greatest weapon against aggression and international immorality. It is the greatest strength of the United Nations.

★ ★ ★

We cannot admit that mankind must suffer forever under the burden of armaments and the tensions of greatly enlarged defense programs. We must try in every way not only to settle differences peaceably but also to lighten the load of defense preparations. In this task the United Nations is the most important if not the only avenue of progress.

*—President Harry S. Truman, in Letter of Transmittal to the Congress, of report of "U. S. Participation in the UN" for the year 1951. Department of State publication 4583, released July 1952. Pages I, IV, VI. (324 pages, in paper, 65¢ from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.)*

# Looking at Problem of Illiteracy

EARLIER this year Lewis B. Hershey, Major General of the United States Army, and Director of the Selective Service System issued a statement on the effects of illiteracy on the full utilization of our Nation's manpower, particularly with reference to the procurement of men for the armed forces.

General Hershey said, "One of the many tough problems we had to wrestle with during World War II in selection of men for the armed forces was the problem revolving around illiteracy, and while statistics on rejections for illiteracy are somewhat confusing, the conclusion is inescapable that the cost of illiteracy in terms of men rejected and in terms of money was enormous.

"If you analyze deep enough, it is quite plain that illiteracy was also costly to the Nation in terms of human lives. Because every factor that tended to slow down total mobilization in those early war years contributed to prolongation of the war. Illiteracy certainly was a factor working against us in our race with time."

### Educational Deficiency

The General went on to say that "Even though large numbers of illiterates were accepted after June 1, 1943, on the basis of passing so-called intelligence tests, and there were several changes in mental standards, our best calculations indicate that 300,000 registrants were rejected solely for educational deficiency during World War II.

"When I point out that those 300,000 men would have made up somewhere between 15 and 20 World War II divisions," the General's statement continued, "and also point to the extra cost and time consumed in giving the illiterates who were accepted enough of the rudiments of education to enable them to understand orders—when these things are considered, I do not believe it is necessary for me to enlarge upon my observation that illiteracy was very expensive to the Nation during World War II any way you care to look at it.

He concluded his statement by emphasizing that "Illiteracy was very expensive then; it is very expensive now—and the less we combat it, the more expensive it will be in the future."

Dr. Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the United States Commissioner of Education, and chairman of an Office of Education Committee on Educational Rejectees, points out in a new publication of the Office of Education, that illiteracy "is not a sectional nor racial problem. . . . It is national and world-wide in scope," he says.

### An Affirmative Attack

"In view, therefore, of the rapidly changing conditions in our country and throughout the world, and of the urgency of the problems that can be solved only by a literate citizenry." Dr. Caliver says, "it would be quite unwise to depend on the 'natural process' to eliminate illiteracy. I believe that unless we develop an affirmative and concerted attack on this problem without delay, we shall place in jeopardy not only our national prosperity, but the success of our foreign aid programs and our national safety as well."

Dr. Caliver's statement appears under the title, "Educational Attainment of the Adult Population—1950" in a SCHOOL LIFE series of reprints on literacy education now available from the Office of Education in limited number.

United States Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, says in the above publication, "A crusade to wipe out the blot of illiteracy from our Nation will have a salutary effect on our entire educational enterprise. It will not only give a tremendous impetus to our efforts to enforce our compulsory school attendance laws, but also help to increase financial support of education. Such a crusade will improve our educational materials and methods generally, as well as provide millions with the tools of communication which are the means of developing more effective and fruitful citizens in all walks of life. . . . Our position of world leadership demands that we attack this problem without delay; and that we put into the task all the intelligence, resources, and scientific 'know-how' at our command. In so doing, we shall not only strengthen our physical and moral defense, but we shall also contribute greatly to the peace and prosperity of the entire free world."

# New Assistant Commissioners Named

Joseph R. Strobel.

THREE OUTSTANDING educators have recently joined the staff of the Office of Education as Assistant Commissioners. They are Joseph R. Strobel, former Ohio Director of Vocational Education, now serving as Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, Oliver J. Caldwell, formerly with the Department of State educational exchange service, who is the Assistant Commissioner for International Education, and Ward Stewart of the Economic Stabilization Agency, the Assistant Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination.

Dr. Strobel succeeds Dr. Raymond W. Gregory who has been named Special Assistant to the U. S. Commissioner of Education.

Commenting on the appointment of Dr. Strobel, Commissioner McGrath said, "The national program of vocational education will gain much from his splendid background of experience in industry, as well as from his successful service in teaching, teacher education, and administration in vocational education."

Oliver J. Caldwell.

THE COMMISSIONER of Education in announcing the appointment of Mr. Caldwell said, "In this new post he has the

opportunity to make full use of his own broad cultural background, proved administrative skill, and his wide experience as a college professor in foreign universities, in educational research, and in extensive educational exchange service with the Department of State. I am confident that he will make important further contributions in the growth of international understanding."

Ward Stewart.

The appointment of Dr. Ward Stewart as Assistant Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination was announced on August 19.

"Dr. Stewart brings to this key position in the U. S. Office of Education an extensive background and an outstanding record of experience in the field of education, law, and public administration," said United States Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath. "I confidently expect he will assist the Office of Education to make an increasingly greater contribution to American education."

Dr. Stewart came to the Office of Education from the Economic Stabilization Agency where he served on the staff of the Administrator. He has held responsible executive positions involving major responsibility for the direction of educational and training programs in several Federal agencies, including the Tennessee Valley Authority, the National Youth Administration, U. S. Treasury, National Housing Agency, and the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission.

# Tribute to Dr. Givens of the N. E. A.

Outgoing and incoming executive secretaries of the National Education Association. Left, Dr. Willard E. Givens, and right, Dr. William G. Carr.

IN ADDRESSING the 90th Representative Assembly of the National Education Association at Detroit, Mich., in July, Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, paid high tribute to Dr. Willard E. Givens, who has served as executive secretary of the National Education Association for many years, and who this month has been succeeded by Dr. William G. Carr.

Commissioner McGrath said of Dr. Givens, "Without attempting any comprehensive recital of his numerous activities during the past 17 years, I would merely like to point to the fact that he has exhibited educational statesmanship in time of war and of peace, in periods of inflation and depression, and in times filled with professional problems. In my judgment Dr. Givens exemplifies in his own personal and professional life the type of integrity and dedication to the highest ideals of American life which this Nation now needs in positions of leadership, both in private and in public offices.

"He has developed in the National Education Association a strong professional unity which indeed is well represented by committees like those reporting this morning.

### *Distinguished Career*

"His administrative career has been distinguished by his remarkable ability to give unflagging attention to matters so diverse as international relations, research, and public relations.

"His ability to draw together the members of the profession in diverse activities related to the entire educational system of the United States is clearly demonstrated in the expansion of the membership of this organization from 161,000 in 1935 to 486,000 in 1952, and the increase of the budget from somewhat under a half million to approximately two and a half million dollars, and the growth of the professional staff from less than a hundred to nearly five hundred.

### *Pledge to Dr. Carr*

"As he leaves his position, I want to wish for him on behalf of the entire staff of the United States Office of Education a continuation of his dynamic professional activities, his health, and his prosperity."

Expressing good wishes to Secretary-Elect Dr. William G. Carr, Commissioner McGrath said, "His accomplishments as a member of the National Education Association family have already demonstrated that his career as the new secretary will be outstanding and productive. I congratulate Dr. Carr upon the distinction which the profession has bestowed upon him in electing him to this new post, and I pledge him the full cooperation and friendly relationships of the staff of the United States Office of Education in advancing the interests of American education."

Dr. Carr was officially inaugurated as N. E. A. Executive Secretary on October 12 and 13.

## CONFERENCE

(*Continued from page 5*)

need for education and widens its scope."

Mr. Bodet had this to say about the teaching of the natural sciences:

"It is upon primary and above all upon secondary education that the onus falls of providing all young people with a grounding in science, not only in order to give them access to a technical or scientific career, but also to supply those destined for nonscientific activities with the minimum information necessary for life in modern society.

"For future specialists, therefore, a judicious preparation at the secondary stage is extremely useful; but for those who do not intend to study science after matriculation, some scientific education before they reach that parting of the ways would seem to be really indispensable. It is thus especially for the benefit of the second group that we should endeavor to give all school children, before matriculation and while there is still time, a general outline of science, so as to awaken their interest in scientific achievements and to thoroughly acquaint their minds with scientific method. At this common stage of general education it is much more important to develop the ability to learn than to accumulate items of knowledge. . . . Science as taught must be a living science. . . . By ceasing to be a mystery, science will not lose any of its prestige. It will gain in human value. . . ."

The Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education was sponsored by the International Bureau of Education and UNESCO.

## 3,000,000 Teachers

Three million teachers are in the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, founded August 1, 1952. It represents a merger of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession, the International Federation of Secondary School Teachers, and the International Federation of Teachers Associations. President is Ronald Gould, Executive Secretary of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales. Secretary General is William G. Carr of the National Education Association of the United States. WCOTP will maintain headquarters at 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

## U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS

(1951–52 fiscal year)

**BULLETINS**

1951

No. 6 State provisions for financing public-school capital outlay programs, 40¢.
No. 12 The UN declaration of human rights in secondary schools, 15¢.

1952

No. 1 Know your school law, 15¢.
No. 2 Statistics of land-grant colleges and universities, year ended June 30, 1951, 20¢
No. 3 Accredited higher institutions 1952, 35¢.
No. 4 State provisions for school lunch programs—Laws and personnel, 20¢.
No. 5 Core curriculum—Development problems and practices, 30¢.
No. 6 Higher education in France (in press).
No. 7 How children learn to read, 15¢.
No. 8 Financing adult education in selected schools and community colleges, 15¢.
No. 9 The teaching of general biology in the public high schools of the United States, 20¢.
No. 10 Education in Turkey (in press).
No. 11 The forward look: The severely retarded child goes to school, 20¢.
No. 12 Federal funds for education 1950–51 and 1951–52, 30¢.
No. 13 Schools at work in 48 States (in press).
No. 14 How children and teacher work together (in press).
No. 15 Studies in industrial education (in press).
No. 16 Television in our schools (in press).
No. 17 Education in Sweden (in press).
No. 18 Radio and television bibliography (in press).
No. 19 Recordings for teaching literature and language in the high school (in press).
No. 20 Health services in city schools (in press).
No. 21 Land-grant colleges and universities—A Federal-State partnership (in press).

**VOCATIONAL DIVISION BULLETINS**

248 Summaries of studies in agricultural education, Supplement No. 5, 20¢.
249 With focus on family living (in press).

**PAMPHLETS**

112 Some problems in the education of handicapped children (in press).

**MISCELLANEOUS BULLETINS**

15 The financing of State departments of education, 45¢.
16 The personnel of State departments of education, 30¢.
17 Science facilities for secondary schools (in press).

**BIENNIAL SURVEYS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES—1948–50.**

Chapter 2, Statistics of State school systems, 1949–50, 30¢.
Chapter 4, Section I, Statistics of higher education: Faculty, students and degrees—1949–50, 25¢.
Chapter 4, Section II, Statistics of higher education: Receipts, expenditures and property 1949–50, 20¢.

**CIRCULARS**

No. 204 Financial accounting for public schools, Rev. 1948, 35¢.
No. 329 Education in rural and city school systems, 15¢.
No. 333 Earned degrees conferred by higher educational institutions 1950–51, 60¢.
No. 335 Life adjustment education in American culture, 30¢.
No. 337 Expenditure per pupil in city school systems, 1950–51, 25¢.

**MISCELLANEOUS**

They Can't Wait, 10¢.
Annual Report of the Office of Education—fiscal year 1951, 20¢.
Scientific Manpower Series No. 2, The composition of the sanitary engineering profession, 15¢.
Administration of public laws 874 and 815, 25¢.
First progress report—School facilities survey, 40¢.
Misc. 3314-6, Supervised practice in counselor preparation, 20¢.
The 6 R's, 10¢.

**NATIONAL SCIENTIFIC REGISTER**

Scientific Manpower Series No. 1, Research and development personnel in industrial laboratories 1950, 15¢.
Scientific Manpower Series No. 2, The composition of the sanitary engineering profession, 15¢.
Scientific Manpower Series No. 3, Manpower resources in physics 1951 (in press).

**Office of Education, FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY**

***Order publications from Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.***

# Defense Information for Schools and Colleges

*Appropriation by the 82nd Congress of a total of 195 million dollars for school construction projects in "Federally affected" defense areas. . . .*

*Five benefits designed to assist veterans who have served in the armed forces since the outbreak of fighting in Korea. . . .*

*More copper and aluminum available under self-authorization provisions of the Defense Production Administration. . . .*

*Effect of the steel situation on construction of schools, colleges and libraries. . . .*

. . . Defense information bulletins on these actions were sent to the Nation's leading educators by the Commissioner of Education during the past several weeks.

Since the appropriation of 195 million dollars by the Congress in July, the Office of Education has made reservation of 125 million dollars for construction of minimum school facilities in local school districts of practically all the States. Funds are allotted on the basis of "relative urgency of need." Priorities in reserving funds are set by the Office of Education by the percentage of children in the school district who are "Federally connected." as defined by Public Law 815, and the percentage of children in the school district for whom no minimum standard school facilities exist.

State departments of education have designated representatives to assist school districts in the preparation of applications for Federal funds under this program, and to work with applicants in developing construction project proposals.

The Community Facilities Service, Housing and Home Finance Agency, reviews project applications as to their fiscal and engineering aspects, and has responsibility for supervision of the construction and engineering features of this program in accordance with the law passed by Congress.

## For Korean Veterans

Under the "Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952," commonly known as the Korean GI Bill of Rights, veterans who have served 90 days or more in the armed forces since June 27, 1950, are allowed certain benefits. Included are education and training, guaranteed or insured loans for homes, farms and businesses, unemployment compensation, mustering-out pay, and job-finding help.

James C. O'Brien.

Education and training benefits of the Act were described by the Veterans' Administration in an official release as follows:

The education and training provisions allow a veteran one and one-half days of training for each day in service after the outbreak of the Korean fighting—regardless of where the service was performed—up to a maximum of 36 months.

However, veterans who have previously trained under earlier veterans' training laws—the World War II GI Bill or Public Laws 16 or 894 for the disabled—may get up to 48 months, minus whatever time they've already spent in training under those earlier programs.

A veteran may train in school or college, on-the-job or on-the-farm, so long as the school or training establishment has been approved by an appropriate State Approving Agency and meets other qualifications of the law. Only one change of course program is allowed, except under certain conditions determined by the Veterans' Administration.

Veterans in GI Bill training will receive an education and training allowance each month from the Government, to meet part of the expenses of their training and living costs. Tuition, fees, books, supplies and equipment will not be paid by the Government; instead, they will have to be paid out of the monthly allowance.

Rates for veterans in full-time training in schools and colleges are $110 a month, if they have no dependents; $135 if they have one dependent, and $160 if they have more than one dependent. Those in training less than full time will receive lower monthly rates.

Top monthly amounts for on-the-job trainees are $70 without dependents; $85 with one dependent, and $105 with more than one dependent. The maximums for institutional on-farm trainees are $95, $110, and $130, respectively. The law requires that on-job and on-farm rates be reduced, at 4-month intervals, as training progresses and veteran's own earnings increase.

The law also specifies that veterans taking institutional on-farm training must devote full time to their program.

The new GI Bill places a $310-a-month ceiling on job training, regardless of dependency status. Should a veteran's training allowance plus his earnings as a trainee exceed this amount, VA will reduce the allowance accordingly. There's no ceiling, however, on what he may earn.

A veteran will get his monthly allowance some time after the end of each month of training completed. Before the VA can pay him, the law requires a certification from both the veteran and his school or training establishment, that he was enrolled in and pursuing his course during that period.

This new method of payment differs from procedures followed under previous veterans' training laws. Under earlier laws, VA paid tuition and other costs directly to schools, and also paid eligible veterans a monthly subsistence allowance.

## New Division

To carry out the functions and responsibilities placed on the Office of Education under the "Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952," Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath established a Division of Veterans Educational Services in the Office. He designated as Director of this Division Mr. James C. O'Brien, who has been serving as Director of the National Scientific Register and as Assistant Commissioner for Defense Activities within the Office of Education.

In naming Mr. O'Brien to this new position, and in announcing the new Division, Commissioner McGrath said, "The Office of Education has been given a vital role in assisting in the provision of vocational readjustment and the restoration of lost educational opportunities to service men or

women whose educational and vocational ambitions have been interrupted by reason of their service in the armed forces during this period of national emergency."

The bulletin on liberalization for self-authorization for copper and aluminum pointed out that the "further liberalization was made effective August 4, 1952, increasing copper from 750 pounds to 1,000 pounds and aluminum from 1,000 pounds to 2,000 pounds. These amounts are for each project per quarter."

Regarding the steel situation and the effect of the recent work stoppage, the Office of Education informed school and college administrators that "under advance allotment authority given the Office of Education for fourth quarter and first quarter, we will have sufficient materials for all construction previously authorized and already underway." The Office warned that "we shall probably have to limit authorization for 'new starts' in fourth and first quarters to construction projects in defense housing areas or other defense related projects, for replacement of facilities destroyed by fire, windstorm, or flood (catastrophe), and to relieve serious overcrowding of present facilities."

## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

(*Continued from page 9*)

children: (1) Teachers are entering the elementary school who have had little or no professional education in child growth and learning, (2) overcrowded classrooms deprive children of individual attention, and (3) the school day is shortened in some places to as little as two and a half or three hours.

For the improvement of teachers who are not equal to the demands of the day or who lack professional education for elementary schools, it was pointed out that schools and communities (1) should make opportunities for such teachers to learn, through workshops, visits, courses, and other ventures; (2) should allow *time* for growth; (3) should provide materials in areas where growth is needed; and (4) should encourage teachers at all times to teach well.

*What can we as a group do to secure better services for children?* was a question on which another group worked.

Better educational services for children come about, the group said, largely through discovering effective ways for school and citizen groups to work together. Analyzing some of the principles for successful citizen participation and action, the group agreed that viewpoints of all groups in a community must he sought and utilized in planning; that there is value in selecting persons for committee membership who can make a contribution to group planning rather than represent an organization; that prejudices of persons must be recognized; that it is important for communities to work slowly going only as rapidly as the people desire and can accept change. To achieve successful action for elementary education, good leadership is essential to help guide groups in studying problems and in planning appropriate action concerning them.

The closing panel on the topic, "Our Part in Securing Better Schools" consisted of two groups of conference participants—a reporting group and an interviewing group—who brought before the conference as a whole items of agreement and beliefs that had been emphasized in the work sessions, clarified points of disagreement, and focused attention on action for securing better schools.

### U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION OFFICIALS

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Asst. Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination—Ward Stewart
Assistant to the Commissioner—Ambrose Caliver
Special Assistant to the Commissioner—R. W. Gregory
Director, Reports and Publications—G. Kerry Smith
Chief, Research and Statistical Standard—Herbert S. Conrad
Executive Officer—Donald W. McKone

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Associate Chief, Secondary Schools—Harry A. Jager
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# Selected Theses on Education

Ruth G. Strawbridge, Bibliographer, Federal Security Agency Library

THESE THESES are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*The Attitude of High School Juniors and Seniors Toward Counseling Procedure With Reference to Certain Personality Factors and Personal Problem Frequency.* By *Rev.* Trafford P. Maher. Doctor's, 1951. Catholic University of America. 126 p. ms.

*A Community Occupational Survey of a Manufacturing and Industrial City, Suburban to Boston, to Discover the Jobs or Occupations Within the Community, Suited to the Limited Abilities of Special Class Graduates.* By Raymond T. Harrington. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 101 p. ms.

*Factors in Intelligence and Achievement. A Study of the Factor Pattern Resulting From Analysis of the Scores of Boys in Junior Year of High School on Intelligence and Achievement Tests.* By *Rev.* Justin A. Driscoll. Doctor's, 1951. Catholic University of America. 56 p.

*A Follow-up Study of the 1947–50 Graduates of the Business Department of the Arlington High School.* By James J. Toner. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 107 p. ms.

*Library Service for Primary Grades.* By Trixie R. Nelson. Master's, 1950. Texas College of Arts and Industries. 96 p. ms.

*The Non-Essential and Duplicating Activities of the Union Superintendent in the Northern New England School Union.* By Donald W. Dunnan. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 182 p. ms.

*Organization and Duties of Examining Boards of Committees for the Selection of Public School Teachers in Cities of 100,000 Population or Over.* By Joseph M. O'Leary. Doctor's 1951. Boston University. 258 p. ms.

*The Present Status of Audio-Visual Education in the Public Schools of Rhode Island.* By Edward L. Lee. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 302 p. ms.

*Pupil Personnel and Adjustment Service as Related to Improving School Attendance in Bruni Elementary School, Laredo, Texas, 1949–50.* By Refugio D. McCalib. Master's, 1950. Texas College of Arts and Industries. 60 p. ms.

*A Reading Ladder of Novels Dealing With Problems of Adolescence.* By George R. Reichler, Jr. Master's 1951. University of Cincinnati. 177 p. ms.

*Study Habits and Skills in the Secondary School: A Summary of the Research and Other Pertinent Literature From 1935 to 1950.* By F. D. Mattioli. Master's. 1951. Boston University. 81 p. ms.

*A Study to Determine the Demands on the Time of Student Deans at Syracuse University 1949–50 and 1950–51.* By Eleanor J. Antes. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 76 p. ms.

*A Survey of Data Accumulated in a Study of 800 Cases Seen at the Conservation of Hearing Center of Syracuse University.* By Estelle S. Joseph. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 64 p. ms.

*Workers' Education in the United States.* By Bert MacLeech. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 497 p. ms.

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

*Dealing With Fear and Tension.* Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1952. 34 p. Illus. (Reprint Service Bulletin No. 24) 50 cents. (Order from: Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 15th St. NW., Washington 5, D. C.)

*Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials.* Nashville, Tenn., Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. 194 p. $1.00.

*A Guide for Child-Study Groups.* By Ethel Kawin. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. 72 p. Illus. 40 cents.

*Illustrative Learning Experiences:* University High School in Action. By University High School Faculty, University of Minnesota. Emma Marie Birkmaier, Editor. Minneapolis, Minn., The University of Minnesota Press. 1952. 108 p. (The Modern School Practices Series, No. 2.)

*A Guide for the Study of Holding Power in Minnesota Secondary Schools.* By George Edberg, Minard W. Stout and Glenn F. Varner. St. Paul, Minnesota State Department of Education, 1952. 48 p. (Bulletin No. 21 of the Minnesota Secondary Schools Improvement Series.)

*The Problem of Drop-Outs in the Secondary School.* With Special Reference to Seven Texas High Schools. By Earl Allen and J. G. Umstattd. Austin, Texas, Texas Study of Secondary Education, 1951. 23 p. (Research Study No. 8, The Texas Study of Secondary Education.)

*Organizing For Teacher Welfare.* A Proposal for Handling Problems Arising in the Area of Teacher Welfare. By Willard B. Spalding, Celia B. Stendler, John W. Hanson and Others. Danville, Ill., Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1952. 54 p. 30 cents. (An American Education Fellowship Pamphlet.)

*The Role of Elementary Education.* By Bernice Baxter, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross. Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. 374 p. Illus. $4.50.

*Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools.* By Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining. Third Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. 350 p. $4.25.

*Tested Public Relations for Schools.* By Stewart Harral. Norman, Okla., University of Oklahoma Press, 1952. 174 p. $3.00.

*Vitalized Assemblies: 200 Programs for All Occasions.* By Nellie Zetta Thompson. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1952. 160 p. $2.00.

*(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)*



U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1952

# EDUCATIONAL AIDS From Your Government

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**Free publications listed on this page are available in limited supply only and should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them. Publications to be purchased should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., unless otherwise indicated.**

## Office of Education

**Edna K. Cave**

**Reports and Publications Branch**

**Arithmetic in Elementary Education.** Selected References, Elementary Education Series No. 13, Revised February 1952. Free.

**Books to Help Build International Understanding together with A Supplement of Radio Recordings and Transcriptions.** A list, revised June 1952. Prepared by Nora E. Beust and Gertrude G. Broderick. Free.

**Counseling College Students During the Defense Period.** By Willard W. Blaesser and Everett H. Hopkins. 1952. 25 cents.

**Counseling High School Students During the Defense Period.** By Leonard M. Miller. 1952. 25 cents.

**Students and the Armed Forces.** (For use with the 2 above publications.) Developed by the units of the Armed Forces with the cooperation of the American Council on Education, National Education Association, U. S. Office of Education, and the U. S. Selective Service Headquarters. 1952. 45 cents.

**Education Directory 1951–52—Part 1, Federal Government and States.** Prepared by Robert F. Will. 1952. 20 cents.

**Education in Costa Rica.** By John H. Furbay. Bulletin 1946, No. 4, reprinted 1952. 20 cents.

**Education in Ecuador.** By Cameron D. Ebaugh. Bulletin 1947, No. 2, reprinted 1952. 30 cents.

**Education in El Salvador.** By Cameron D. Ebaugh. Bulletin 1947, No. 3, reprinted 1952. 25 cents.

**Education in Guatemala.** By Cameron D. Ebaugh. Bulletin 1947, No. 7, reprinted 1952. 25 cents.

**Education in Haiti.** By Mercer Cook. Bulletin 1948, No. 1, reprinted 1952. 25 cents.

**Education in Nicaragua.** By Cameron D. Ebaugh. Bulletin 1947, No. 6, reprinted 1952. 20 cents.

**Home Economics in Degree-Granting Institutions 1951–52.** Prepared by Mary Laxson. Misc. 2557–Revised 1952. Free.

**Know Your School Law.** By Ward W. Keesecker. Bulletin 1952, No. 1. 15 cents.

**Materials and Apparatus for Teaching Elementary Science.** Prepared by Glenn O. Blough. Education Briefs, Elementary Education Series No. 1, revised 1952. Free.

**Nondegree Home Economics Offerings in Higher Institutions 1951–52.** By Mary Laxson. Misc. 3380–Revised 1952. Free.

**A Partial Bibliography of Materials Related to: I—References on Loans, Fellowships, Scholarships, and the Exchange of Persons Programs and II—Materials on Counseling, Guidance, and Program Planning for Persons Working with Students, Teachers, Leaders, and Professors from Other Lands.** Prepared by Thomas E. Cotner and John W. Grissom. 1952. Free.

**The Personnel of State Departments of Education.** By Fred F. Beach and Andrew H. Gibbs. Misc. No. 16. 1952. 30 cents.

**ROTC Units and Engineering Enrollments.** By Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 342, June 1952. Free.

**A Selected Bibliography for Teaching About the United Nations.** Prepared by Helen Dwight Reid. Revised, September 1952. Free.

**Selected Bibliography on The Local Board of Education.** By C. O. Fitzwater. 1952. Free.

**Selected References to Extraclass Activities, 1950–52.** By Ellsworth Tompkins, Walter H. Gaumnitz, and Albert L. Pelley. Circular No. 340, May 1952. Free.

**Selected References on Federal Aid for Education.** By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. March 1952. Free.

**Selected References to Student Councils, 1947–52.** By Ellsworth Tompkins and Albert L. Pelley. Circular No. 341, May 1952. Free.

**State School Systems: Statistical Summary for 1949–50.** By David T. Blose and William A. Jaracz. Circular No. 344, June 1952. Free.

**Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 50,000 to 99,999 for 1950.** By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 339, April 1952. Free.

**Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 100,000 or more for 1951.** By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 349, July 1952. Free.

**Suggestions Relating to Home and Correspondence Study.** By Walter H. Gaumnitz. Circular No. 309, revised April 1952. Free.

**Supervised Practice in Counselor Preparation.** One of a Series of Committee Reports on Counselor Preparation. Misc. 3314–6/April 1952. 20 cents.

**Transfers to Schools or Colleges of Engineering.** By Henry H. Armsby and Robert C. Story. Circular No. 343, June 1952. Free.

## Federal Security Agency

**A Better Chance for Mental Health for Children in Smaller Communities.** Public Health Service Reprint, 1952. 10 cents.

**Better Health for School-Age Children.** Children's Bureau, Office of Education, and Public Health Service. 1952. Free.

**Selected Films on Federal Security Agency Programs,** Office of Publications and Reports. June 1952. Free.

## Other Government Agencies

### *Department of Defense*

**Korea, 1950.** The pictorial history of the first 6 months of the Korean War. Prepared by the Department of the Army. 1952. $1.25.

**United States Army in World War II.** 1952. $3.50.

### *Department of Interior*

**Fort Raleigh National Historic Site.** National Park Service. Revised 1952. 5 cents.

**Hot Springs National Park, Arkansas.** National Park Service. Revised 1951. 5 cents.

### *Department of State*

**East Germany Under Soviet Control.** Department of State Publication 4596. 1952. 35 cents.

**United States Participation in the United Nations.** Report by the President to the Congress for the year 1951. Department of State Publication 4583. 1952. 65 cents.

America's Future Depends on America's Schools

LET'S MAKE OUR SCHOOLS STRONG

| | |
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| *The event* | American Education Week<br>32nd Observance |
| *The date* | November 9–15, 1952 |
| *The theme* | Children in Today's World |
| *Daily Topics* | SUNDAY, NOV. 9.....Their Churches<br>MONDAY, NOV. 10.....Their Homes<br>TUESDAY, NOV. 11.....Their Heritage<br>WEDNESDAY, NOV. 12.....Their Schools<br>THURSDAY, NOV. 13.....Their Country<br>FRIDAY, NOV. 14.....Their Opportunity<br>SATURDAY, NOV. 15.....Their Future |
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Volume 35 Number 2
NOVEMBER 1952

Route to



# School Life

◀ Peace and Plenty



FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# STANDARDS AND WAGES

THE other night I heard a radio commentator say that there had finally been established and placed in effect a minimum wage for teachers of Missouri. The smallest salary, I believe, was $1,600 and raises would be based on college credits so that a teacher with a masters degree could earn the magnificent sum of $2,800 per year.

That little blurb on the radio, a little news item, upset me; it shows how "screwy" our thinking has become and points immediately to the cause of many, many of our problems.

First, there is the salary itself. In this day and age the "flunkie" who dropped out of school after the third grade makes $2,800 a year and yet school board members, legislators, and, unfortunately, taxpayers expect a teacher to get a "higher education" and keep on getting it, using their own time and resources so that they may eventually earn $250 a month. Obviously, anyone with the proper qualifications for a teacher could double or triple that take without trying.

Someone at this stage always says: "But we get teachers at those wages." Why? Because some people would rather teach than eat, for it is obvious they cannot do both at today's prices. Eventually, even they find it difficult to teach on an empty stomach and seek greener pastures.

The second silly thing that is brought out in the aforementioned statement is that increase in salary is based on credit hours earned in a university or college. What nonsense! Do not pay a teacher for teaching, for doing an unusually good job, for showing interest, initiative, and love of children. Do not increase the salary because the teacher comes early, stays late, and has a knack for building citizens, men and women from boys and girls. Oh no! Do not do that, that would be too logical and would take thinking, supervision, and alertness on the part of the teacher's superiors. It is so much easier to give them a "couple of bucks" more for every credit hour they gather from school in the summer when they might more profitably, if they wish, be preparing better things for their pupils in the fall. What has happened to us in America?

You cannot keep good teachers for $200 a month and you cannot pick the most effective, intelligent, understanding, eager teachers by adding up the credits they earn in college during their summer vacations and at night school.

The time for energetic support of the good teachers in our country is now; in fact, as usual, we are late. It is high time that we use our energies to support the effective teacher and to see that such teachers are paid adequately. Given the incentive and the wherewithal the interested teachers will seek advanced training because they want it, and are interested in it, not because it comes as a decree from a school board or administrator and is a necessary evil to be tolerated in order to hold a job.

*R. O. Muether, M. D.*

*Reference: The Journal of the Missouri State Medical Association, Vol. 49, No. 9, September 1952, p. 777. (Excerpts only.)*

**School ★ Life**

Official Journal of the Office of Education
• • • Federal Security Agency

## CONTENTS for November 1952

Volume 35 Number 2

The cover photograph, furnished by the United Nations, is titled "Peace and Plenty Can Be Ours In Our Lifetime." The caption emphasizes that we can have both peace and plenty if the world's nations and their peoples dedicate themselves to achieve them.



Published each month of the school year, October through June.

To order SCHOOL LIFE send your check or money order (no stamps) with your subscription request to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. SCHOOL LIFE service comes to you at a subscription price of $1.25. Yearly fee to countries in which the frank of the U. S. Government is not recognized is $1.75. A discount of 25 percent is allowed on orders for 100 copies or more sent to one address within the United States. Printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget. (September 19, 1952.)

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, and in Education Index - - - - - - - (Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents)

Korean teachers of English at the English Language Institute, University of Michigan. Standing, right, Dr. Charles Fries, Institute Director, and left, Dr. Robert Lado, Assistant Director.

# ". . . in touch with the people of democracy"

by Thomas E. Cotner,

Acting Director, Educational Exchange Branch, Division of International Education

AN ANXIOUS group of South Korean teachers listened intently to a radio in their New York hotel as news came that North Koreans were invading South Korea. Early broadcasts reported the fall of Ton Am Dong, the home of one member of the group. Succeeding news flashes brought word of the capture of other cities where friends and relatives lived. What would be their fate? When could they themselves return to Korea and when could they see loved ones again? What would happen to their homes, their families?

Within 2 weeks, upon the completion of their training program, these teachers were to begin their journey homeward. Reservations had been made and last minute gifts had been purchased for family and friends. Now, they could not return. Tense weeks of waiting lay ahead before they could fly back to Seoul and other cities in their homeland.

The Office of Education, in cooperation with the Department of State, had brought these 11 teachers of English from Korea to study the latest methods, techniques, and materials used in teaching English as a second language. In this group were nine men and two women. Three of the group taught on the college level and eight in secondary or middle schools.

## *We Will Meet Again*

One of the teachers vividly described his departure from Seoul in these words:

> I finished my early breakfast which my wife had prepared for me so early in the morning . . . I looked into my child's eyes. She was in tears. I kissed her on the cheeks, and patted her shoulders. She was silent. Perhaps, she was afraid of losing me. I said to her, "I will be back in four months. By that time, we'll eat tomatoes and melons from our garden; we will meet again."
>
> The airport was about 16 miles from the city of Seoul, but the bus carried us there in a moment. Many of my fellow teachers, many of my neighbors, and many of my students were already there.
>
> I got into the plane and looked at my daughter through the glass. She waved her hand. The plane moved. I kept on looking at her. She kept on waving her hand.

Eight of the teachers came together, arriving in Ann Arbor on March 9, where they were to attend the University of Michigan's English Language Institute. Two days later, the other three teachers arrived. They were to remain in Ann Arbor for two and one-half months. While there the teachers found snow in March, showers in April, and beautiful flowers in May. Describing Ann Arbor, one of the teachers said it was "a quiet, peaceful town and a beautiful place in the springtime. Surely it was 'an harbour' to those who first came there two hundred years ago; I do not doubt it."

Dr. Charles C. Fries, Director of the English Language Institute, and Dr. Robert Lado, Assistant Director, had arranged a very interesting program for the Korean teachers. Classes were given in grammar, composition, pronunciation and speech correction, linguistics and phonetics, and in the methods of teaching English as a second language.

Time was also taken, in addition to a busy schedule of classes, to visit the River Rouge plant of the Ford Motor Company, the Kellogg Company, Jackson Prison, the Edison Museum, and to make a week-end

trip to Chicago. Friday nights were given to social events, parties, and dancing. Speaking of the warm reception of the group, one of the men said: "Everybody in the street, every student on the campus, and every teacher in the classroom was happy, sincere, and kind to us. I felt I was getting in touch with the people of Democracy."

The period of study at the University of Michigan ended all too soon and it was time to continue with another phase of the fellowship program planned for them. Firm friendships had been made and when the Koreans were taken to the railroad station, there were tears in the eyes of some as they said their good-byes. One group of five went to Lansing, Michigan, to visit schools and community projects in that area. Another group of six journeyed to Philadelphia to follow a similar program there.

### "Seeing Is Believing"

In Lansing, the activities of the group were planned by Dr. Robert G. Koopman of the State Department of Public Instruction and by Professor Troy Stearns of the Michigan State College faculty. The teachers conferred with school administrators; visited elementary and secondary schools and an agricultural college; lived in city and farm homes; visited stockyards and industries; attended PTA and civic club meetings; made speeches on Korean culture and history; and generally became acquainted with the educational, cultural, and social life of the United States. As a result of these visits to schools, homes, industry, farms, and community projects, the teachers observed that the school was an extension of education in the home; that school and society were closely related; that United States education was democracy in action; that coeducation worked easily and was a "national phenomenon" in home and society; that parents and teachers worked well together; that businessmen were interested in schools; and that attention was given to training students for citizenship and a place in society. One teacher commented:

> We saw how democracy works in the field of public education. By now I think I understand the American way of life to some extent . . . "Seeing is believing." I think my visit to the United States is one of the biggest events of my life, and I will never forget the impression of the United States that I have. I will tell what I saw and what I felt here to the Korean people to the best interest of the two nations. Perhaps I may, I hope, be able to make the Korean people know what true democracy is in the real sense of the word.

The group of six teachers going to Philadelphia for visits to public schools and places of historic interest also had a memorable experience. The program there was arranged by Mrs. Dorothy Crawford, Principal of the Philadelphia High School for Girls. One teacher, after visiting nursery-kindergarten schools, three elementary schools, five high schools and two universities in the city, observed that "teachers were not just teachers, but parents and friends to the children." She also noted that pictures, radio, television and advertising served as teachers. Students were always doing something or looking at something—a moth in an incubator, white mice, or birds in a cage. "How I loved the free atmosphere of the classrooms," she concluded.

"The most conspicuous feature we found in the American schools," said another teacher, "is that students are fond of debates and discussions. The teacher does not pretend to be a superior being nor dominate the class; he considers himself one of the group or just a moderator. He doesn't try to cram knowledge into the heads of the students, but encourages the students to learn from their own efforts."

An interested citizen took the teachers to see Atlantic City. They were impressed with the tremendous crowds of people, the long boardwalk, and the pleasure they had. Mrs. Crawford also took them to see Independence Hall and the Liberty Bell. "I paid my respect to those who gallantly fought against their oppressors," said one. Another was quite stirred by his visit and wrote in his report:

> As I looked, I rehearsed some passages of the Declaration of Independence in my bosom and was reminded of the famous speech by Patrick Henry, "Give me liberty or give me death." They say that all the representatives in this Hall signed the Declaration. I thought in my mind, as long as the Liberty Bell is ringing in American minds, they will remain a free Nation. So long as the Declaration of Independence is kept in American hearts, they will be free from despotism and slavery.

All of the teachers had an opportunity to spend a day or two in Boston and a few days in New York. The time in Boston was too short to see everything of interest, but they did see Harvard University, Longfellow's home, and Old North Church, and took a tour of the City. In New York, they visited Columbia University and New York University and went to Lake Success to see the United Nations in session. They were impressed with the seriousness of purpose of the delegates and one teacher expressed the consensus of the group when he said, "It was very clear to me that the U. N. is making a truly great effort to establish permanent world peace and to improve the happiness of humanity." One teacher commented on his visit to the Empire State Building as follows: "We went up to the top of the Empire State Building, the man-made monster. I wondered how a man with only a small head and ten tiny fingers could make such a gigantic edifice."

### Life in the United States

Many of the teachers had interesting comments and observations to make on life in the United States and about our national characteristics. "I found the following merits rather than faults in the national character," wrote one of the men, "kindness, noninterference, countenance without any discontented look, punctuality, and placing value on public health and morality." Another observed that young people, particularly after marriage, "are independent of their parents. They are self-supporting persons. Men and women, even the children, are treated more or less equally in society and in the home." Still another teacher found Americans "fond of machines, active and brisk, sociable, loving adventure and thrill, and their lives based on science."

"The United States of America," bluntly said one of the ladies, "is the only country where women should live. Of course, America is good for men too, but it is the best country for women." She observed that women in the United States were enthusiastic, energetic, ambitious, and full of self-confidence. She noted that in addition to fulfilling their duties in the home that they did church work, worked in business, politics and the professions, and that "they looked no worry." "Women are free in their speech, action, and rights which is quite different from the status of women in the Orient." She hopes to improve the status of women in the social, economic, and political fields upon her return to Korea.

(*Continued on page 30*)

# Do We Teach Them in Our Schools? What Can You Do To Help?

ANOTHER vest-pocket sized leaflet presenting in layman's language information about our schools is now available.

Copies may be ordered, 10 cents each, from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. (25 percent discount on orders of 100 copies to be sent to one address.)

Patterned after the publication "They Can't Wait", which has been so popular during the past year with educators and citizens interested in better schools, the new leaflet is titled "the 6 R's."

"They Can't Wait" was prepared by the U. S. Office of Education and nationally distributed during American Education Week in 1951. "The 6 R's" leaflet was prepared by the Office of Education for initial distribution during the 1952 observance of American Education Week.

In brief text and popular-type illustration, here is an idea of the content of "the 6 R's", looking through the eyes of Johnny's father, a typical American parent.

*Too bad about that misfit—bright fellow, but he will never get anywhere. Doesn't work with others. Where'd he go to school anyhow? Didn't learn anything but the 3 R's!*

*That's funny! Costs in my business have been going up. Wonder how they manage in school . . . ? I see a lot more children around.*

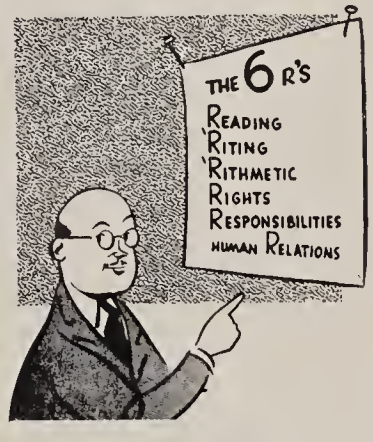
*Guess I ought to look into this . . . Think I'll drop in at school tomorrow and talk with the Superintendent.*

*When costs are high, people look around for places to economize. And the school budget is always handy.*


*Plenty—if more like you know and care! Modern schools would help young citizens get ready for this 20th century world.*

*Yes, our children deserve the best possible education. Let's call a meeting to make sure they get it.*

*. . . And that's how it is, folks. The school board needs our help. We need to work together on this. All our groups—civic, religious, business, labor — our women's clubs—all are represented here. We love our children. What kind of schooling do we want for them? Please tell us what you think. . . .*




*Yes, let boys and girls learn these things. The 3 R's—Reading, 'Riting, and 'Rithmetic; and 3 more R's—Rights, Responsibilities, and Human Relations . . . 6 R's for good citizenship!*

# The Job Ahead for Educational TV

by Paul A. Walker, Chairman, Federal Communications Commission*

THERE are some, I suppose, who marvel at the sense of urgency that impels educators such as yourselves and the institutions you represent in this field of television. They may wonder at the speed and thoroughness with which you mobilized your forces back in 1950 and 1951 to present your case to the Federal Communications Commission for the reservation of 242 noncommercial educational channel assignments.

They may wonder at the alacrity with which you are now preparing to utilize these assignments.

While the general public may not be familiar with the gravity of the educational problems weighing on this nation, you people here are only too well aware of them because you are on the firing line.

It is because of your place in the first line of defense that you are so eager to employ this electronic weapon of television.

You are preparing to use the mighty power of television to help correct weaknesses in our educational system—weaknesses which are among the most glaring in our society.

You are stepping up your attack on these problems through television under the pressure of the world crisis which demands immediate strengthening of our democracy.

The challenges confronting you educators are momentous and numerous.

First, there is the insistent challenge of illiteracy.

Adults—persons of 25 years of age and over—who have completed less than five years of schooling are described by the United States Office of Education as functional illiterates. They may have the bare ability to read and write some but they cannot do so effectively. They cannot think effectively, express themselves effectively, nor participate effectively in the activities of everyday life. They cannot really communicate. They are handicapped in their home life, personal growth, health, citizenship, social activities and, of course, in their occupational opportunities.

In this nation of wealth, progress and world leadership, eleven percent of our adults—almost 10,000,000 men and women—are functional illiterates.

Literacy education efforts have encountered these difficulties, among others: These adult illiterates are often too embarrassed to meet in literacy classes, they may feel they are not properly clothed, they are too tired after a hard day's work to travel to a distant school and attend class.

### *Lifting From Illiteracy*

The audio-visual techniques of television are particularly well-adapted to literacy instruction. But television's power to teach in the privacy and comfort of one's home is obviously of exceptional value in meeting the handicaps I have just listed.

Lifting these people from illiteracy to literacy not only enables them to live a better life but makes them more able citizens, more valuable to industry, more valuable to the Armed Forces, and better consumers. They will be better able to understand and appreciate all the other programs television has to offer—both over educational stations and commercial stations.

Let us figure this from a financial standpoint and conservatively. Let us put the cost of stations as high as $500,000. Then if we raised the annual income of only one-eighth of these illiterates only $100, that would more than pay for the construction of all the 242 educational stations on the assignments reserved by the Commission in one year.

This challenge of illiteracy then is not only a challenge to education but to industry and to all segments of our society.

Then there is the challenge of overcrowding in our elementary schools and high schools: 300,000 classrooms are needed immediately. And, because of the increase in population, another 300,000 will be needed in 1958.

There is the challenge of the shortage of elementary school teachers, now estimated at 53,000.

There is the challenge represented by the millions of eligible young men and women who are unable to go to college mainly because of economic reasons. For every American boy and girl now in college, there is another boy and girl qualified to attend but who is not attending because of lack of funds.

Too many families simply cannot afford to send their sons and daughters on to college. The colleges have been charging more and more for tuition.

But tuition is not the only cost. Many youths who could pay the tuition cannot afford to go to a distant city and pay the transportation and living costs while they attend school. This highlights the scarcity of our institutions of higher learning. We have many of them in America—1,850 of them. But as impressive as that total is, it is not enough. And the colleges are not conveniently enough located. To help overcome this, community colleges are being urged.

It is obvious that television can also be of assistance in overcoming this maldistri-

*Address at the WOI-TV Television Workshop sponsored by Iowa State College at Ames, Iowa, August 18, 1952, in cooperation with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters and the Joint Committee on Educational Television.

bution. Courses can be broadcast over a radius of 50 miles or more and can reach students in their homes. Various degrees of contact and supervision can be developed by colleges in the handling of these courses.

### Teaching the Nation

By the miracle of television, top flight educators can give their courses in Minneapolis and New Orleans the same day. In fact, they can give their courses on the West Coast and the East Coast, or over the whole nation for that matter, simultaneously.

Implicit in all these problems is this challenge: In a democracy we are extremely sensitive to the rights, the privieges, the potentialities, and the aspirations of the child or the adult as an *individual.* As a general principle, we believe in equality of opportunity in education.

In addition, educational leaders point out the value of an educated citizen to his community and to his nation.

Every time we fail to capitalize fully on the minds of our youth by not giving them the fullest educational opportunities that they are capable of employing, we are guilty of a monstrous waste of human resources.

Television will enable us to get more education per teacher.

While I am on the subject of the educational needs of our youth, let me mention 3 recent reports which indicate an urgent need for the kind of constructive, expert, professional type of television programming that you educational broadcasters can offer for the leisure time of our boys and girls.

The first is the Report on Children's Radio and Television Programs in the Los Angeles area issued by the National Association for Better Radio and Television.

During one week in May, the Report states, the seven television stations of Los Angeles carried 58 hours of children's programs. The Association evaluated these programs as follows:

| | *Hours* | *Minutes* |
|---|---|---|
| Excellent | 8 | 30 |
| Good | 10 | 45 |
| Fair | 4 | 30 |
| Poor | 1 | 45 |
| Objectionable | 24 | 55 |
| Most Objectionable | 7 | 40 |

In other words, of the total of 58 hours of children's programs, the Association found 39 hours—or almost 70 percent—in the "fair," "poor," "objectionable," or "most objectionable" category.

In its report, the Association stated that programs in the "objectionable" category are rated thus mainly because the major theme is crime. Crime programs, the Association commented, "provide pretty poor food for young, growing minds."

On the heels of this came a second report revealing what is happening to some of these "young, growing minds" of American children.

This report was made to the National Social Welfare Assembly by Dr. Martha M. Eliot, Chief of the Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency.

According to Dr. Eliot, 1,000,000 children are now getting into trouble with the law each year. By 1960, there will be 50 percent more children between 10 and 17 than there were in 1950. This is the age range within which most juvenile delinquency cases fall.

Dr. Eliot pointed out that even if the *proportion* of juvenile offenses does not increase in that time, we can expect the number of children getting into trouble with the law by 1960 to run around 1,500,000.

### Looking Beyond

In the face of reports like these, how can there be any doubt about the service that our educational institutions can render to the children of America by means of noncommercial educational television stations?

Now let us look beyond the challenge represented by the deficiencies in the elementary, secondary and higher education levels and consider the task confronting us at the fourth level—adult education.

The urgency of the movement to promote this fourth level is underscored by the establishment by the Ford Foundation of the Fund for Adult Education. This Fund has given substantial aid to the movement.

The Ford Foundation, in discussing its objectives in the field of adult education, has made this statement:

> No census can show how many persons in our society labor under the disabling effect of emotional maladjustment. The estimates range widely; some authorities regard emotional maladjustment as the most characteristic and widespread ill of our civilization. In a small percentage of instances this takes the form of crime, delinquency, and insanity. In the great majority of cases it is disclosed in illness, in unstable family life, in erratic and unproductive work habits, and in inability to participate effectively in community life. Maladjustment makes people unable to live happily with their fellows, makes them unwilling to cooperate adequately or unable to compete successfully.
>
> The lack of satisfactory adjustment manifests itself significantly in the use of leisure time. Shortened hours of work, earlier retirement, and the medical advances which have increased life expectancy, have all made great increases in leisure time. Nevertheless, many persons appear unable to find constructive uses for their nonworking hours, and this contributes significantly to personal and social tensions.

The challenge to educators in the field of adult education calls for immediate action for a most obvious reason. At the elementary, the secondary and the higher education levels, we are educating for the future. The children and the college students will in due time take their places as citizens and as leaders in our political, social and economic life. But in the field of adult education, we are seeking to improve grown-ups who for better or worse have already taken their places in our society. That challenge is here today—this very minute.

A few weeks ago, as many of you know, President Truman conferred with the Federal Communications Commission on the progress of educational television and expressed his interest in helping to further the movement.

All these challenges point to the urgency of the need for the kind of service that you future operators of educational television stations can render.

I have heard it argued that modern man is obsolete.

I do not go that far. I think that view is premature.

But I do believe that the uneducated man is obsolete. He cannot do justice to himself and he cannot do justice to his citizenship in our increasingly complex, dynamic modern world.

We are living in a time when jet planes are flying 1,300 miles an hour; when we have already accumulated huge stores of materials for an entirely new form of power—atomic energy—which may change our entire way of life.

We are living at a time when citizenship makes demands on us never made before. The older, slower, half measures will not do. It takes a lot more information to be an effective citizen than it did in older, simpler times. In this democracy of ours, matters are decided by the vote of the citizen. It is vital that the sovereign citizen also be an informed citizen.

And then, as directors of these educa-

(*Continued on page 28*)

# Good Education—
# What Would It Cost?

by Herbert S. Conrad, Chief, Research and Statistical Standards, and
Rose Marie Smith, Educational Statistician

IT is widely recognized that good education for our Nation's children cannot be obtained at a minimum expenditure-level. Teachers' salaries, teaching aids, educational supplies, guidance services, clerical assistance, health services, satisfactory transportation of pupils, proper operation and maintenance of the school plant, and alert school administration—all require money. In education, as commonly elsewhere, one generally gets about what one pays for. Granted that good education cannot be bought by money alone (staff morale and devotion hinge on more than simply cash), nevertheless it is also true that an educational program of good quality cannot be obtained at cut-rate, shoddy prices.

What would *good education* in the various States cost? Would it cost 10 percent more than is ordinarily expended, or 50 percent more, or what?

One way to answer this question is to—

*a.* Determine the level of expenditure in a few school systems widely recognized for the quality of their education: we may call this the *desirable* level of expenditure.

*b.* Determine the *average* level of expenditure in each State.

*c.* Determine the *difference* between the desirable level of expenditure and the State-wide average.

*d.* Multiply the difference between the desirable level and the State-wide average by the number of pupils in average daily attendance in each State. This product is the *additional expenditure* (beyond the present expenditure) required to bring the quality of education up to the desirable level.

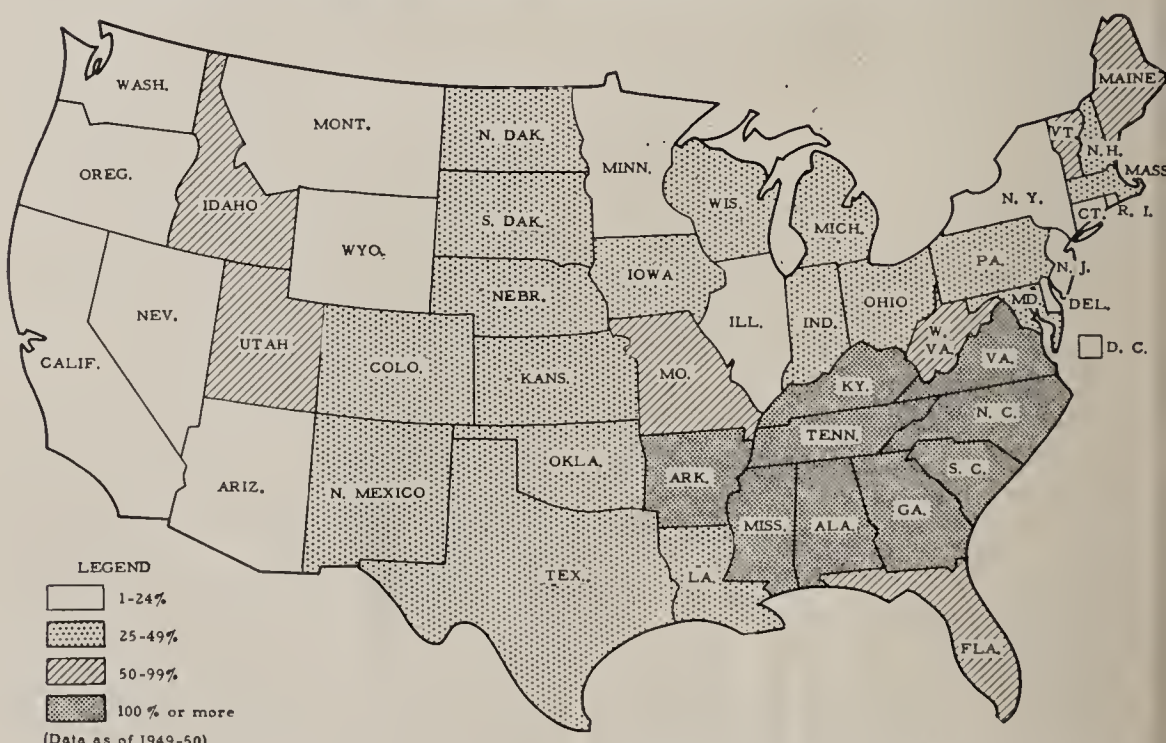
*e.* Divide the additional expenditure by the present expenditure, and multiply the quotient by 100. This is the *percentage increase* needed to achieve the desirable quality-level of education.

Although the Office of Education does not rate or rank State or city school systems, some school systems are widely recognized as being above average. They may pay higher salaries to the instructional staff, maintain a more satisfactory pupil-teacher ratio, offer a more varied curriculum, provide broader and more satisfactory school services, have a higher retention rate, etc. The school systems in four cities were selected as fulfilling such requirements. These cities are located in Connecticut, New York, Ohio, and California, respectively. In size, the cities range from 45,000 to over 300,000 (1950 census); only one of the cities could be regarded as a suburb. The quality-level of education in these four cities is desirable, but *not more desirable than is reasonable or possible in many other places.*

The average current expenditure per pupil in the school year 1949–50 in the four cities was $299. This, of course, is well above the national average for that year, but it is by no means extreme. In brief, the quality-level of public elementary-secondary education in the four cities is good, but certainly subject to further improvement, and not actually as high as can be found in specially well-favored communities.

Application of the procedure outlined in steps *a–e* above yields the data given in Table 1. All the figures in this table refer to "current expenditures"—i. e., to expenditures for current operation of the school, as contrasted with "capital outlay" (expenditures for sites or school construction) or "debt service" (redemption of bonds and payment of interest). The figures refer to expenditures for full-time public elementary and secondary day schools only (evening and summer schools are excluded); and the figures refer exclusively to the school year

**Increase in Current Expenditures Needed For Good Education**




**(Total United States need: $2,006,000,000, or an increase in current expenditures of 43 percent.)**

1949–50, the latest year for which data are available from all the States.*

The map on the adjoining page shows by what percentage the "current expenditure" in each State would have to be raised to bring its educational program up to the desirable level.

While there are some technical qualifications** to the assumptions and procedures underlying the figures in Table 1, the facts brought out by this table are basically valid and appear reasonable. **Education at a desirable quality-level—that is to say, *good education*, though by no means the very best education—would in 1949–50 have required about $2 billion more than was expended (see Table 1, column 5). This is an increase of 43 percent above what was actually expended (viz., $4,651,464,000).**

Wide variation exists among the different States with regard to the percentage-increase required. The required additional expenditure in California, for example, would be relatively small—only 13 percent; in Wisconsin it would be 30 percent; in Texas, 43 percent; in Utah, 67 percent; in Maine, 90 percent; in South Carolina, 145 percent; in Mississippi, 274 percent (this is the highest).

Expenditure-increases of the magnitude just cited are rather obviously beyond the resources of many local communities to finance, and also probably beyond the resources of at least some of the individual States. A solution to this financial problem must be found, if we really believe that a child is entitled to a *good education* regardless of the State or community in which his parents reside. The answer to the financial inability of local communities to provide good education seems obviously to lie in State aid; and the answer to the financial inability of some of the States to supply such aid seems equally obviously to lie in Federal aid. Exactly what form State or Federal aid should take, and how such aid should be administered, are questions outside the scope of this article.

For emphasis let it be repeated that (*a*) the figures in the present article refer only to full-time public elementary and secondary day schools; (*b*) the figures refer to "current expenditures" only; (*c*) the figures apply particularly to the school year 1949–50 (the latest year for which data from all States are available); and finally (*d*) the "desirable" quality-standard referred to in this article exemplifies a practical level of *good education;* it is not a maximum level, nor does it come up to the quality-level of specially well-favored communities in the Nation.

*Technical Note*

The chief qualification to the data in Table 1 relates to inter-State differences in the *scope* of education. In some States, for example, relatively few children attend kindergarten, and a fairly large proportion of older-age children have dropped out of high school. Such inadequacies of the school system, however, would not be reflected in column 3 of Table 1, which reports only the per-pupil expenditure *for the pupils receiving education* (rather than for all those who should be receiving education). To bring the *scope* of education in all the States up to a desirable level would require an amount additional to that indicated in Table 1 as necessary to bring the *quality* of education (for those already receiving education) up to a desirable level.

(*Continued on page 26*)

*While there are some technical qualifications in this connection it may be noted that, in terms of dollars with the same purchasing power as in 1951–52, the average expenditure of $299 in the four cities in 1949–50 would be equivalent to an expenditure of $334 in 1951–52. (Adjustment by the Consumer's Price Index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The price-level was 11.7 percent higher in 1951–52 than in 1949–50.)*

**See technical note at the end of the article.

Table 1.—Increase in current expenditures needed to bring full-time public elementary-secondary education to a desirable level: 1949–50

| State | Average daily attendance, 1949–50 | Current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance, 1949–50 | Difference between current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in each State and in 4 city systems regarded as "desirable"[1] | Additional amount needed to raise current expenditures to a desirable level, 1949–50 (Col. 2 x Col. 4) (Thousands) | Actual current expenditures, 1949–50 (Thousands) | Percentage increase needed in current expenditures to bring education to a desirable level, 1949–50[2] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| **Continental U. S.** | 22,283,845 | $209 | $90 | $2,006,000 | $4,651,464 | 43 |
| ALABAMA | 594,632 | 117 | 182 | 108,000 | 69,627 | 155 |
| ARIZONA | 126,510 | 241 | 58 | 7,300 | 30,451 | 24 |
| ARKANSAS | 355,030 | 112 | 187 | 66,400 | 39,661 | 167 |
| CALIFORNIA | 1,623,890 | 264 | 35 | 57,000 | 427,911 | 13 |
| COLORADO | 201,235 | 220 | 79 | 16,000 | 44,204 | 36 |
| CONNECTICUT | 245,217 | 255 | 44 | 11,000 | 62,438 | 18 |
| DELAWARE | 40,873 | 259 | 40 | 1,600 | 10,577 | 15 |
| FLORIDA | 414,957 | 181 | 118 | 49,000 | 75,219 | 65 |
| GEORGIA | 619,846 | 123 | 176 | 109,000 | 76,468 | 143 |
| IDAHO | 111,038 | 186 | 113 | 12,500 | 20,653 | 61 |
| ILLINOIS | 1,031,800 | 258 | 41 | 42,000 | 266,682 | 16 |
| INDIANA | 588,857 | 235 | 64 | 38,000 | 138,673 | 27 |
| IOWA | 417,333 | 231 | 68 | 28,000 | 96,324 | 29 |
| KANSAS | 300,822 | 219 | 80 | 24,000 | 65,751 | 37 |
| KENTUCKY | 484,062 | 121 | 178 | 86,200 | 58,485 | 147 |
| LOUISIANA | 420,740 | 214 | 85 | 36,000 | 90,070 | 40 |
| MAINE | 144,795 | 157 | 142 | 20,600 | 22,801 | 90 |
| MARYLAND | 298,534 | 213 | 86 | 26,000 | 63,704 | 41 |
| MASSACHUSETTS | 560,331 | 236 | 63 | 35,000 | 132,486 | 26 |
| MICHIGAN | 986,623 | 220 | 79 | 78,000 | 216,618 | 36 |
| MINNESOTA | 434,284 | 242 | 57 | 25,000 | 105,199 | 24 |
| MISSISSIPPI | 472,149 | 80 | 219 | 103,000 | 37,627 | 274 |
| MISSOURI | 558,186 | 174 | 125 | 69,800 | 96,884 | 72 |
| MONTANA | 94,405 | 268 | 31 | 2,900 | 25,259 | 11 |
| NEBRASKA | 203,581 | 217 | 82 | 17,000 | 44,191 | 38 |
| NEVADA | 25,116 | 246 | 53 | 1,300 | 6,184 | 21 |
| NEW HAMPSHIRE | 65,643 | 211 | 88 | 5,800 | 13,818 | 42 |
| NEW JERSEY | 583,063 | 280 | 19 | 11,000 | 163,146 | 7 |
| NEW MEXICO | 120,901 | 222 | 77 | 9,300 | 26,898 | 35 |
| NEW YORK | 1,700,358 | 295 | 4 | 7,000 | 501,648 | 1 |
| NORTH CAROLINA | 797,728 | 141 | 158 | 126,000 | 112,33 | 112 |
| NORTH DAKOTA | 103,244 | 226 | 73 | 7,500 | 23,361 | 32 |
| OHIO | 1,109,815 | 202 | 97 | 108,000 | 224,314 | 48 |
| OKLAHOMA | 394,036 | 207 | 92 | 36,000 | 81,584 | 44 |
| OREGON | 228,574 | 272 | 27 | 6,200 | 62,172 | 10 |
| PENNSYLVANIA | 1,408,425 | 216 | 83 | 117,000 | 303,882 | 39 |
| RHODE ISLAND | 83,763 | 240 | 59 | 4,900 | 20,137 | 24 |
| SOUTH CAROLINA | 413,551 | 122 | 177 | 73,200 | 50,615 | 145 |
| SOUTH DAKOTA | 106,385 | 230 | 69 | 7,300 | 24,504 | 30 |
| TENNESSEE | 583,126 | 132 | 167 | 97,400 | 77,071 | 126 |
| TEXAS | 1,156,659 | 209 | 90 | 104,000 | 241,603 | 43 |
| UTAH | 142,272 | 179 | 120 | 17,100 | 25,404 | 67 |
| VERMONT | 56,282 | 193 | 106 | 5,970 | 10,855 | 55 |
| VIRGINIA | 536,831 | 146 | 153 | 82,100 | 78,143 | 105 |
| WASHINGTON | 356,756 | 248 | 51 | 18,000 | 88,343 | 20 |
| WEST VIRGINIA | 398,913 | 150 | 149 | 59,400 | 59,781 | 99 |
| WISCONSIN | 449,546 | 230 | 69 | 31,000 | 103,400 | 30 |
| WYOMING | 48,922 | 263 | 36 | 1,800 | 12,855 | 14 |
| DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA | 83,706 | 256 | 43 | 3,600 | 21,448 | 17 |

[1] The average current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in these four cities, in 1949–50, was $299.
[2] Obtained by dividing each entry in column 5 by the corresponding entry in column 6, and multiplying by 100.

NOTE: Detail does not necessarily add to totals because of rounding.

# Pupil Activities From the Crow's-Nest

by Ellsworth Tompkins, Specialist for Large High Schools
Division of State and Local School Systems

THE LOOKOUT stands in the crow's-nest and through his glasses scans the ocean ahead through which the ship will sail. He performs one of the essential duties which make it possible for the ship to reach its destination without undue delay or accident. In schools as in ships, it is necessary to know where we are going and how we expect to get there. Voyaging continues, but the particular voyage must be determinate to make sense to passengers and crew and to be profitable to the owners of the vessel.

In scanning the educational scene from the equivalent of a crow's-nest, I have been particularly interested in a lookout's view of extraclass activities in secondary schools. What does the overview reveal? Perhaps you will be interested in the environment described below (status and trends) which one lookout sees.

## Status and Trends in Pupil Activities

1. *Terminology.* The term "extracurricular" is obsolescent. Increasingly pupil activities are considered extraclass or co-curricular and decreasingly regarded as extracurricular. The underlying reason is that activities contribute to learning, both


## Extraclass Programs for Today's Teen-agers

in class and out of class. Curriculum, usually defined as *all* the learning experiences provided youth under the sponsorship of the high school, includes both class and extraclass activities.

2. *Status.* The apparently logical step that will merge activities and curriculum still remains to be taken by a large number of high schools. Despite some progress in incorporating activities into the instructional program or integrating pupil activities with the curriculum, many high schools still regard pupil activities as *apart* from formal classwork of pupils. As a result, it is rather common for teachers to consider a sponsorship role as quite different from a teaching role. Somehow, advising a voluntary activity and teaching a class appear to require substantially dissimilar procedures.

3. *Organization.* Statistics published in 1951 indicate that 2 of 3 public high schools schedule pupil activities in an *activity period* within the school day. The small number of high schools having core programs integrate activities and classwork within the large block of time devoted to the core. Thus it can be assumed that nearly 1 of 3 public high schools organize activities on an after-school or before-school basis.

4. *Objectives.* Increasingly high-school staffs are discussing the role of the school in providing an adequate and effective program of pupil activities to serve the interests of pupils. If this has not been done, a first major step remains to be taken.

5. *Coordination.* High schools above 500 enrollment are increasingly centering responsibility for administration and coordination of pupil activities in a staff member designated as Director or Coordinator of Pupil Activities. Some released time from teaching duties is provided this person to accomplish his duties, which may include:

1—Making an inventory of pupil activity preferences;

2—Time and space scheduling of activities to avoid conflicts;

3—Scheduling pupils into activities they desire;

4—Helping to obtain sponsors from the teaching staff;

5—Maintaining records regarding activities;

6—Developing financial and accounting procedures;

7—Informing pupils, faculty, and community about school activities;

8—Appraising the effectiveness of activities from the viewpoint of the whole program and individual groups;

9—Making recommendations to the principal and staff about improvements needed.

Obviously, the principal in all but very small high schools cannot be expected to sandwich the coordination of pupil activities into other heavy administrative tasks. A director of pupil activities is therefore a needed liaison person to work with principal, faculty, pupils, and community. Pupil activities worth having deserve to be managed and coordinated adequately and intelligently.

6. *Development of specific all-school activities.* Three all-school activities—home room, assembly, and student council—are activities in which all pupils of a high school can participate. These activities are different from club and team activities—the extraclass—which pupils elect to join or for which they try to qualify.

(1) *Home room.* Sometimes considered the weakest link in the chain of high-school organization, the home room can be, and in many places is being, successfully conducted. Pupil participation is essential if the home room is to succeed. Good home rooms elect a president and secretary who preside, and record the sessions of the home room. The teacher acts in the capacity of sponsor. Generally, the home room is the unit for electing representatives to the student council; it advises them on policy and hears their reports. It arranges group discussions of interest to the members. It serves as administrative and attendance headquarters; it is the unit for receiving report cards, for receiving group guidance, and for fulfilling much personal guidance. A home room dominated by a teacher who contrives little pupil participation and devotes "unused" portions of home room time for pupil study is usually doomed to ineffectiveness. A home room teacher cannot act like a traditional classroom teacher and create the environment of a good home room.

(2) *Assembly.* Pupils help plan school assemblies and participate extensively in assembly programs. Fewer outside or paid programs are scheduled, but when scheduled are carefully screened. Usually, a student officer presides at assemblies. The school assembly is regarded as a teaching situation; in reality it is the largest class in the school. It provides a major opportunity for social integration and good public relations.

(3) *Student council.* The opportunity for participation by pupils in school government means that the student council cannot be regarded as just another club. It is the representative organization through which pupils cooperate with principal, faculty, and community, toward a solution of current school problems affecting them. The student council is increasingly regarded as the fountainhead of all student activity.

7. *Development of elective activities.* Three particular activities have grown rapidly in the high schools during the past decade—intramural athletics, service-type activities, and social-skill groups.

(1) *Intramurals.* This type of activity has increased tremendously. Intramurals are the means whereby many pupils develop a real liking for the "concept of school." Boys and girls participate in and manage, under wise direction, a host of intramural programs in the secondary school. They learn the fruitful lesson of cooperation and team spirit, which has such vital carry-over into adulthood. Their sense of belonging is enhanced and they learn to play according to the rules of the game.

(2) *Service-type activities.* Good civic attitudes generally grow out of participation in activities that stress helpfulness to others and service to the school and community. Service-type activities involve cooperation and selflessness; they have increased greatly within recent years. Latest nationwide statistics show that "Student Service" is a curricular offering to 8,805 high school pupils (news circulation, student leadership, student government, audio-visual education).

(3) *Social-skill groups.* Increasingly boys and girls wish to improve the social skills which their peer culture and society value. Since social skills develop through practice rather than study, it is natural that activities have an important role in developing them. Such activities may include social dancing, folk dancing, conversing, listening, appraising a point-of-view, and learning know-how about behavior in specific social situations (introductions, appropriate dress, elements of politeness, etc.). Pupils may practice these social skills in classroom activities, but they learn them effectively in the peer-culture milieu of extraclass activities.

(4) *Other activities.* Trends in *varsity athletics* appear to provide wider participation by youth; as a result team squads are larger than formerly and there are more teams: varsity, junior-varsity, B, and C teams, all of whom compete under regular game conditions. This gives those desiring to play an opportunity to do so. *Hobby and departmental clubs* depend on the interest of pupils to flourish and survive. The criterion of their effectiveness is—do they attract members? If they do not, they die. And other clubs arise to take their places.

8. *Balance.* A major reason for staff discussion of the role of the high school in providing pupil activities is to find answers to two questions: (1) How can the school provide the all-school activities that *all* pupils should experience and share? (2) How can the school provide those extraclass activities that individuals desire? Thoughtful discussion of these questions leads to an analysis of activities now being provided. If the school fails to search for answers to the questions, pupil activities tend to develop by accretion—they are additive. No high school can lay claim to an effective program merely because it has *many* activities. It may *need* many activities, but it is more important that the activities it offers are *valuable* ones. Indeed, worthwhile activities may mean *fewer* activities, not proliferation. It all depends on how the staff answers the questions above.

9. *Adaptation.* The types of activities provided by the school take into account the activities provided by the community. Therefore, voluntary pupil activities may differ greatly from school to school as community environment differs. In a district which offers many out-of-school activities, the characteristics of school activities will probably be altered. Certainly the school desires to cooperate rather than *compete* with the community for youth activities.

10. *Dues and hidden costs.* Payment of dues and other costs tend to squeeze out some potential members. Barriers of price often have the effect of dividing those who can and those who cannot afford to pay. Pupil activities are for *every* pupil who wishes to participate regardless of economic status. Increasingly, schools are underwriting activity costs by (1) all-school projects to raise funds, or (2) subsidy from the board of education.

11. *Finance.* Efficient accounting procedures grow out of centralized supervision and control of activity moneys. The school treasurer, a member of the staff, is adequately bonded. Statements of financial standing of activity funds are furnished board of education, principal, staff, pupils, and community at frequent intervals. Individual activities prepare their own budgets, which are then resolved into a total school activity budget.

Extraclass activities as such are not a controversial topic in high schools. Yet there seems to be wide variation in the extent to which extraclass activities have been assimilated into the learning experiences of youth. Schools can feel that progress toward this assimilation has taken place *if*:

(1)—Activities are not believed *extracurricular;*

(2)—many activities are scheduled within the school day;

(3)—objectives have been developed;

(4)—a staff member has been given responsibility for coordinating activities;

(5)—a pupil inventory of activities is conducted regularly;

(6)—school and community cooperate in providing good pupil activities;

(7)—appraisal of the effectiveness of activities is attempted;

(8)—some activity costs are under written by the school or board of education.

## GOOD EDUCATION

(*Continued from page 23*)

A second qualification relates to differences in population-density in the various States. In general; a State characterized by sparsity of population will tend to have smaller classes (or a higher teacher-pupil ratio), and will have to transport pupils over comparatively long distances. On both these counts, the current expenditure required to maintain education at a satisfactory quality-level in such a State will be higher than in a more densely populated State.

A third qualification relates to the non-compensating nature of inter-community differences. In New York and New Jersey, for example, there are quite a few communities where the expenditure per pupil and the quality-level of education exceed the standard set by the four cities selected in the present study. Such superiority in the more fortunate communities does not, of course, compensate for inferiority in other communities of the State. In the dollar-figures given in Table 1, however, it was not feasible to take this fact into account. (This inaccuracy, it should be added, affects a few States only, and is not believed to be large in any State.)

# Challenging the Gifted Student

## How One Mathematics Teacher Does It

THE gifted child presents a definite challenge to any teacher who is concerned about the welfare of each individual pupil. In the mathematics classes, as in others, there is a great need to give more attention to the gifted child, to see that his curiosity and his interests are stimulated and directed, and to help him choose the work for which his talents best fit him and which will enable him to render the greatest service to society. Many people say that the gifted child will find himself and his place in the world even though he does not receive the attention his mental powers deserve. This may be partly true, but I feel that the earlier his talents are recognized and directed the more avenues of useful and satisfactory endeavor are opened to him and the greater the opportunity for him to render service commensurate with his abilities.

In reviewing the methods which I have been using in my work as a teacher of mathematics at Garfield High School, I feel that whatever progress has been made in helping the gifted child would have been impossible without the whole-hearted support of the principal and counselors. They have always shown their willingness to work with the mathematics department in the plans made to serve the needs of the superior students.

An important step was taken in this direction some years ago when we began giving an algebra aptitude test to students before they entered the ninth grade and a geometry aptitude test to those who had completed one year of algebra. This testing program served two purposes: first, it reduced the failures and waste of time on the part of those students with little or no ability in mathematics, making it possible for us to direct them into simplified mathematics courses; second, it helped us to recognize early the students with superior mathematical ability and thus aided both teachers and counselors in guiding these superior people into the programs best suited to them.

But just taking care of this mechanical part of the program, that is finding and placing the students in the right classes, is only a small part of the solution to the problem. The next step is so to enrich the classroom teaching that the interest of these gifted students is captured and held. They must see that mathematics is more than just problems in a textbook. They should catch glimpses of the power and beauty of "The Queen of Science" and become increasingly aware of its wide application in many fields of achievement.

With this purpose in mind, I try to bring as much supplementary material as possible to all my classes, but the gifted students are usually the ones who respond to the greatest extent. They show a keen desire to delve into things on their own once their interest is aroused. This gives me the opportunity to refer them to books, pamphlets, magazines, and other sources. I know many mathematics teachers are doing this same thing, and the list of books and pamphlets written for the purpose of helping them to enrich the courses they teach is growing steadily. There are also many suggestions and much information along this line in such professional journals as *The Mathematics Teacher* and *School Science and Mathematics*. At Garfield we are building up a very interesting and varied mathematics library and the students may refer to it during the supervised study period or they may take out material for a reasonable length of time.

Another commonly used method for stimulating interest, one which I find very effective, is the placing of interesting and informative side lights on the bulletin board in my classroom and on the science and mathematics bulletin board in the hall. This material brought in by either teacher or student often leads to discussions and further research on the part of the more capable members of the class.

In my own reading, I am constantly alert for information which can be used in the classroom or by individual students. For example, as I encounter an interesting and instructive article on some phase of astronomy, I remember that John has shown a desire to know more about that science; so I call his attention to the reference and suggest that he read it. The agile minds of these gifted students must be constantly fed and, even though some of the material may be too difficult for them to grasp completely, it creates a desire to work towards understanding it. "Ah! but a man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for?"

**The Office of Education called a conference for November 13 and 14 to consider "Provisions We Can Make for the Rapid Learner in Science and Mathematics." This is a vital problem in American education today as efforts are made to sustain the interest of young people in mathematics, science, and other areas of learning which are fundamental in the training of our Nation's future scientists. SCHOOL LIFE gladly presents to its readers this timely article by Miss Inez Kelly, of Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana.**

Assigning projects of supplementary work, I find, is also a valuable aid in arousing and furthering interest, especially in the case of the gifted child. I use this method to the greatest extent with the students studying plane geometry in the tenth grade. They choose from a list of topics placed on the bulletin board or they may decide to investigate a phase of mathematics which interests them and which is not on the list. These projects include accounts of lives of famous mathematicians and scientists, further research on a mathematical principle studied in class, the solution of more difficult problems than those assigned in class, the construction of mathematical instruments or models, drawings, and work showing results of indirect measurement made on the school campus, and original designs in curve-stitching. The last-named project appeals to those interested in geometric design and the mathematical curves represented. These projects

range from the simple to the more difficult so that all students may participate, for even those who are not especially gifted in mathematics have their interest increased by working on and presenting topics outside the regular class-room work. It seems to give students a sense of accomplishment to be able to bring new information to the rest of the class, and this is especially true when they find it is also new to the teacher. Although a little prodding of the bright but lazy student is often necessary, I feel it is best to keep the projects on a voluntary basis. A few will ask, "Do we get extra credit for this work?" but the better students seem to derive satisfaction from investigating unknown territory.

Some teachers may ask, "How can you find time for all these supplementary projects and still cover the work required to prepare students adequately to progress through the different courses in mathematics?" This is indeed a big problem for we cannot neglect the teaching of the fundamentals or basic principles if we expect students to continue the study of mathematics and perhaps later enter a career requiring mathematics as a basis. Neither can we neglect the average and below average students while helping the more capable members of our classes.

As I struggled with this problem, I became more and more convinced that I needed more time outside the class room in order to further the program for the superior student. Four years ago I consulted our principal, Mr. Conover, and received his permission to start a mathematics club which was to meet once a week during the activities period. Those eligible for membership were juniors and seniors who were enrolled in either solid geometry, advanced algebra, college algebra, or trigonometry classes. By special permission of the sponsor, a few sophomores showing outstanding mathematical ability were permitted to join. Not all the members during the four years have been gifted students, but those of lesser ability were able to make contributions because of their interest in mathematics, and they profited greatly by the leadership and accomplishments of the more capable members.

Although I had started the club feeling somewhat doubtful as to its success, it wasn't long until I saw that I had no cause for worry. The members were more than eager to take part in the programs; and, although I had sponsored other types of clubs in the past, there were none which moved along under their own power as this mathematics club did. Programs were planned by a program chairman aided by suggestions from the club and sponsor. Members volunteered readily to prepare reports on topics which interested them and no phase seemed too deep for them to wish to explore.

Programs have been varied, e. g., reports by club members, talks by student and faculty personnel of nearby colleges and by industrial leaders, practice in using the slide rule, and mathematical puzzles and recreations. Favorite topics for reports and discussions have been The Fourth Dimension, The Theory of Relativity, Topology, Number Systems, and the Theory of Probability. One semester we had a series of reports on the history of surveying instruments; and, as a result, one club member made a plane table to add to the instruments we were already using in field work in the mathematics classes. Many of the recreations and puzzles were made by club members; and these, with brain teasers and paradoxes found in books and periodicals, have provided a lighter type of program as a variation from speeches and reports.

In order to take care of finances so necessary to the successful functioning of any club, members pay annual dues of fifty cents and the club sponsors one money-making project each year—a mixer following one of the basketball games. The money earned is used to purchase books and instruments for the mathematics library and to help defray expenses of the Christmas party, the spring picnic, and the annual visit to the Sci-Math Assembly held at Purdue University for all interested students of Indiana high schools.

Exhibits taken to the Purdue meeting from Garfield are the work of the mathematics classes and club. The students who attend these meetings come back with new ideas and greater enthusiasm for science and mathematics.

Mr. Walter Carnahan, State Consultant in Mathematics and one of the originators of the Sci-Math Assembly, has been most helpful to us at Garfield in our work with the gifted student. He has been generous with his time and his suggestions, and the students respond with a lively interest to his informal "pep-talks" on mathematics.

Teachers in the science department at Garfield work with the mathematics teachers in encouraging the superior students, and each year more boys and girls are becoming interested in preparing a project for the National Science Talent Search.

I know many teachers of high school mathematics are working, as we are at Garfield, to provide a greater challenge for the students of superior mathematical ability; and I am sure that they are convinced, as I am, that the extra work and planning involved are bringing about tangible results. Aware, as we must be in this atomic age, of the need for leaders in science and mathematics, we cannot start too early to fan the spark that smoulders in these eager young minds.

## EDUCATIONAL TV

(*Continued from page 21*)

tional stations, you have your work cut out for you in helping Americans to adjust themselves to their new responsibilities as citizens of a nation commanding world leadership, citizens who must study and solve correctly many knotty international problems. They are eager to know how to work for peace. They know that the cost of failure to work for a peaceful world may be extermination.

And finally, of supreme importance in these tense days of danger, is the need to accelerate our educational and informational processes for national defense. Our educational television stations can contribute immeasurably to our preparedness.

### *Power at Hand*

I hope also that the example and the inspiration of this Workshop will assist many other educational institutions to move forward promptly with their plans to build stations.

Ladies and gentlemen, the beginning of educational television in America is in your hands.

The children of America, the grown-ups of America, hungry for the benefits you have to offer, await the fruit of your efforts.

Nowhere in the world have educators been armed with the power you now have at hand to speed the education of an entire nation.

I know that you approach the fulfillment of your mission with a sense of high resolve, of humility and of dedication.

And knowing this, I know that success will crown your labors.

# Defense Education Information

The Office of Defense Mobilization recently issued a most important statement setting forth national policies with respect to the training and utilization of scientific and engineering manpower.

Labeled Defense Manpower Policy No. 8, this statement was published in full in the Federal Register of September 6, 1952. Because of the implications of the policy for secondary schools and institutions of higher education, U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath circulated the full text of O. D. M., Policy No. 8 as an Office of Education Defense Information Bulletin.

Excerpts of the statement of particular interest to schools and colleges are as follows:

This policy has been recommended by the interagency Manpower Policy Committee, its Committee on Specialized Personnel, and the national Labor-Management' Manpower Policy Committee of the Office of Defense Mobilization. It is issued for information and guidance to employers of scientists and engineers; to educational institutions and to professional associations; and assigns to Government agencies the responsibility for providing assistance and leadership in the fields of action required of them.

* * * * *

Despite the fact that very large numbers of young men and women have been trained in science and engineering since World War II, stringencies of engineers and scientists now exist in some fields and acute shortages are in immediate prospect. This situation has been caused in part by the increased demand resulting from the defense program with no corresponding decrease in nondefense programs and in part by the very small number of persons trained in these fields during World War II.

As the defense program develops, two highly significant facts with respect to specialized personnel stand out:

First, the demand is rising rapidly and will continue at a high level indefinitely.

Second, college enrollments show that the supply completing training is declining and will continue to decline through 1954 after which an upturn will occur in the number of engineering graduates.

These facts indicate that in the next few years it will be very difficult, or impossible, to obtain a supply of specialized personnel equal to the expanded demand. Vigorous and intelligent action in the utilization of specialized manpower in the armed forces and in civilian activities is required. Both military and civilian manpower policies should recognize that within the objectives of attaining maximum military strength and maintaining a vigorous civilian economy the achievement of an improved balance between the supply of and demand for specialized personnel is our most urgent manpower goal.

**The purpose of this policy is:**

♦ To focus attention on the problems created by the shortage of trained scientists and engineers in the attainment of maximum military strength while maintaining a healthy civilian economy and to enlist the support and assistance of the public, industry, educational institutions, and Government agencies in the solution of these problems.

♦ To indicate actions which should be taken to provide scientific and engineering manpower to achieve necessary research and development and production goals for 1952 and for the years immediately ahead.

**It is the policy of the Federal Government to take and to encourage the taking of action which will aid in achieving the following objectives:**

♦ A. To utilize most efficiently existing resources of scientific and technical skills in private industry, in the civil government, in the armed forces, and in educational institutions.

♦ B. To develop increasingly reliable information regarding requirements and resources of scientists and engineers to meet both immediate and long-term national needs.

♦ C. On the basis of needs indicated under B, to attract and train the additional number of able young men and women required for scientific and technical fields.

Industrial employers, educational administrators, scientists, and engineers, as individuals, and professional associations of scientists and engineers, have an important responsibility to assist in achieving these objectives.

**Employers of scientists and engineers are urged:**

♦ To develop, in cooperation with educational institutions, especially the junior colleges and technical institutes, improved programs for selecting and training subprofessional personnel to do work which requires less than the full training of professional scientists and engineers.

♦ To cooperate with educational institutions in the development of on-the-job or off-the-job training for scientists and engineers which will increase and broaden the professional competence of such personnel.

**Profcssional associations of scientists and cngineers are urgcd:**

♦ To undertake informational programs designed to bring to the attention of students, through normal educational channels, and to individuals employed in subprofessional positions but possessing an aptitude for science or engineering, the career opportunities in scientific and technical fields in order to attract into these fields additional students with the required ability and interest.

♦ To cooperate with educational institutions in studying the adequacy of existing curricula in the sciences and in engineering, in developing better teaching methods and in achieving maximum utilization of teaching facilities in scientific and engineering fields.

**Educational institutions are urged:**

♦ To make special provision for students who possess the necessary aptitude for engineering work but who lack the courses in science and mathematics prerequisite for admission to the engineering college either because of the inadequacy of high school offerings or because their interest in an engineering career was developed too late in the high school program. Such special provision should include a program for locating the potential candidates, encouraging them to apply for enrollment in colleges offering scientific and engineering courses, and special counseling to assist the candidate in working up a suitable curriculum. In most instances the candidate's initial shortcomings may be made up either by a lengthening of the normal curriculum or by intensification through additional work during summer vacation periods.

♦ To make further studies of the engineering curriculum, as regards both its content and its length, and to give consideration to all possible measures which may be indicated under present conditions of engineering and scientific manpower shortages, such as acceleration, cooperative work-study arrangements, etc.

♦ To make further studies of teaching methods employed in the sciences and engineering and of the use of teaching and research facilities in these fields in order to achieve the maximum educational return from existing staffs and facilities.

♦ To study the causes of high drop-out rates among qualified students of engineering and science and to take steps toward minimizing the number of such drop-outs.

♦ To strengthen high school curricula in order that more high school graduates will be eligible for entrance into engineering colleges and to establish closer working arrangements between colleges and universities and high schools to the end that both high school students and the faculty will become more aware of the opportunities in the engineering field.

## "... in touch with democracy"

(*Continued from page 18*)

When the teachers arrived in Washington on the day following South Korea's invasion, an atmosphere of gloom and anxiety pervaded the group. Most of the group lived in Seoul or north of Seoul. They stoically accepted the initial bad news from the battle front. It was to be several months before any word could be received from fathers, mothers, husbands, wives, children or friends. Efforts were made to obtain information concerning relatives through the International Red Cross and our Embassy in Korea but to no avail for some time since all normal channels were disrupted.

### Another Six Months

The Office of Education and the Department of State decided to continue their program as scheduled and to extend their fellowships for another 6 months since it was impossible for them to return home under the circumstances.

In Washington, D. C., the teachers visited the Washington Monument, the Lincoln and Jefferson Memorials, the National Art Gallery, Mount Vernon and other places of historic interest. They saw Congress in session, the Supreme Court and the Library of Congress. On visiting Mount Vernon, one of the teachers observed: "I saw the key to the Prison of Bastille on the wall of the residence, and recognized the coincidence that American generals are fighting for the complete independence of Korea just as General Lafayette fought for the independence of the United States." The teachers then attended the Washington Orientation Center to observe the methods used there in providing government-sponsored students and trainees instruction in English and a general orientation to our life, history, manners, and customs.

Meanwhile, efforts were being made to find suitable assignments for the teachers which would help the South Korean cause. All of them asked to do something here or abroad that would assist South Korea in its fight for freedom and to aid the United Nations in its efforts to resist Communist aggression. Within a few weeks, eight of the nine men were given assignments with the Department of the Army as interpreters, translators, and interrogators in Tokyo with SCAP. One of the men could not pass the physical examination and was heartbroken because he could not go with the others.

For those remaining in Washington and for those who were in Tokyo, the news of family was both good and bad. A terse dispatch announced that the wife and cousin of one of the men had been killed by a Communist tank shell near the railroad station in Seoul. The home and other property of one of the women living north of Seoul had been destroyed. It was not until she returned to Seoul in November that she learned her husband had been captured and shot by the retreating Communist forces on October 2. He had successfully evaded capture those many months, but when he heard of the Inchon landing, he returned to his village too soon. Along with sixty-two civilians, doctors, teachers, druggists and other community leaders he was summarily executed. This was confirmed by more than 20 persons from her home town.

### Search for Children

No one knew where her two children were. Refugees had been evacuated from this particular city to five villages. She then set out on foot to visit these villages in turn seeking the children. Finally, foot-sore and weary, she found a policeman in one of the villages who had taken her children into his home. A high school girl had brought them to the village and had persuaded this family to care for the children, aged eight and four. The older child recognized her mother who had been in the United States about nine months, but the four-year-old did not know her. The younger child was ill and the mother carried her to Seoul on her back for treatment, the older child walking along beside them.

### For the Korean People

At this point, the teacher had to leave Seoul hurriedly because of Chinese advances from the north. She and her two children rode on a truck for 7 days until they reached Pusan which was again choked by refugees. Food and lodging were almost impossible to obtain, particularly since she must be with the children most of the day. For a time she had work with one of the Supply Units of the U. N. Army and later took an assignment with the South Korean Broadcasting Company, explaining the purposes and aims of the United Nations to the Korean people.

At the moment, this teacher is working in Pusan with the United States Information Service, doing her part in translating into the Korean language useful educational and cultural materials for the Korean people. These publications will be particularly helpful when peace has been restored.

### Number of Projects

The teachers had a number of projects in mind which they hoped to implement upon returning to Korea. One was a group project to conduct a seminar for other teachers of English who had not had the opportunity to study abroad in an English-speaking country. They hoped to have an exhibit of teaching aids and materials with instruction on how they should be used.

Individual ideas or plans included setting up an "American Room" which would be a reading room containing books, pictures and other materials of interest relating to the United States and the American way of life. Some of the teachers proposed to translate selections from American literature into Korean and to prepare typewritten books for class use. Several planned to try to reduce the size of their English classes in order to do more effective work with smaller groups. Others realized the value of school and community as well as parent and teacher cooperation in the school program and indicated that this would be an objective they hoped to accomplish.

### Need Our Aid

There will be a delay in bringing these plans and ideas into full fruition. The school program has been almost completely dislocated by the war. Some schools are being held in the open air where buildings have been destroyed; others hold no sessions. It is extremely difficult to pay teachers anything at this time. All forms of equipment, even paper and pencils, are lacking. These teachers as well as the Korean people will need our aid and support if they are to reestablish their schools on the basis of a democratic philosophy which is the foundation of any free society. With the opportunity, these teachers will be the spokesmen of a new educational era in Korea.

# Teachers of Exceptional Children

## A nation-wide study of their qualifications

WHAT special knowledge, skills, and understandings are needed by teachers of exceptional children such as the crippled, mentally retarded, and speech defective? What standards are needed in State and local school systems in order to secure qualified personnel? What constitutes adequate professional preparation and how can this best be provided? These and many other questions are being explored by the Office of Education study "Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children."

This project, which was first announced by U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath in January 1952, was made possible by a grant of $25,500 from the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children of New York City. Mr. Leonard Mayo is director of the association.

"School programs for handicapped children have developed rapidly in recent years," said Commissioner McGrath, in announcing the study. "Much more needs to be done. Only about 15 percent of the Nation's children needing unusual adjustments in their school programs are reported receiving special help. . . . A number of factors hold back the extension of educational services. . . . Shortage of professional personnel is most crucial."

The study has promise for more than 4,000,000 American school-age children. Approximately 2,000,000 children have physical handicaps. Classed as slow-learning are about 700,000 children. Other children deserving special attention are the mentally gifted, and the children who are maladjusted socially or emotionally.

The study is directed by Dr. Romaine P. Mackie, Specialist, Schools for the Physically Handicapped, Office of Education. She is counseled by two committees. One is an Office of Education Policy Committee which will assist the Director in management and personnel aspects of the study. The members of this committee are:

Dr. GALEN JONES (Chairman of the Office Policy Committee) Director, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems.

Dr. EARL ARMSTRONG, Acting Head, Division of Higher Education.

Dr. FRED BEACH, Chief, Section on State School Systems, Division of State and Local School Systems.

Dr. BESS GOODYKOONTZ, Acting Director, Foreign Educational Systems Branch, Division of International Education.

Mr. ARTHUR HILL, Chief, Section on Exceptional Children and Youth, Division of State and Local School Systems.

Dr. HERBERT CONRAD, Chief, Research and Statistical Standards, Program Development and Coordination Branch, Office of the Commissioner.

The other is the National Committee of leaders in special education from various parts of the United States. It is the function of this committee to assist in developing the study and to suggest people to participate in it. Members of the committee are:

Miss GWEN RETHERFORD (Chairman, elected by the National Committee) Director, Education of Exceptional Children, Kentucky State Department of Education.

Dr. WILLIAM CRUICKSHANK, Professor of Education, Syracuse University.

Mr. FRANCIS DOYLE, Chief, Bureau of Special Education, California State Department of Education.

Dr. SAMUEL A. KIRK, Professor of Education, University of Illinois.

Mrs. HAZEL C. MCINTIRE, Director, Division of Special Education, Ohio State Department of Education.

Mr. JOHN TENNY, General Adviser, Special Education, Wayne University.

Dr. W. H. LEMMEL, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland.

The Executive Secretary of the International Council for Exceptional Children (a department of the National Education Association), Mr. Harley Wooden, is ex officio member of both committees. Mr. Lloyd Dunn is serving as full-time research assistant on the study.

The study also has the counsel of a number of consultants, who will review written material and make suggestions as to personnel and procedures. Among these consultants are:

Dr. LEO CAIN, Dean, Education Services, San Francisco State College.

Miss ANNA ENGEL, Divisional Director, Department of Special Education, Detroit Public Schools.

Dr. JOHN LEE, Dean, Graduate School, Wayne University.

Miss MARY FRANCES MARTIN, Supervisor of Special Education, Los Angeles City Public Schools.

Dr. FRANK J. O'BRIEN, Associate Superintendent, New York City Public Schools.

Dr. RALPH FIELDS, Director of Instruction, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mr. ROBERT H. MORRISON, Assistant Commissioner for Higher Education, State of New Jersey.

Taking part in the study in different ways are numerous public and private agencies. In all, it is estimated that 2,000 people are contributing.

Two techniques are being used to secure data. One is the setting up of committees to study the competencies needed by special education personnel. The other is the use of a series of inquiry forms which go to State and local school systems, and to colleges and universities.

Ten separate committees will make statements describing the distinctive competencies needed by teachers of blind, crippled, deaf, gifted, hard of hearing, mentally retarded, partially seeing, socially maladjusted, and speech-defective children, and children with special health problems.

Through the inquiry forms, information will be gathered concerning the standards of State and local school systems for teachers of exceptional children. Data will also be gathered on college and university programs for the preparation of teachers of exceptional children.

This information will eventually be presented to a work conference of leaders in special education. It is anticipated that suggestions and recommendations which will come from this body concerning the qualifications and preparation needed by special education personnel will form a basis for future planning in State and local communities and in colleges and universities. Thus, the outcome of the study might well aid in providing educational personnel better prepared and qualified to serve the needs of exceptional children.

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Ageney Library

*A Blind Child, Too, Can Go to Nursery School.* By Pauline M. Moor. New York, American Foundation for the Blind, 1952. 16 p. Illus. (Preschool Series No. 1)

*Elementary Social Studies Instruction.* By Maurice P. Moffatt and Hazel W. Howell. New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1952. 486 p. $4.25.

*The Individual and Liberal Education.* Papers delivered at the dedication of Johnston Hall, April 19–21, 1951. Minneapolis, Published for the Social Science Research Center of the Graduate School, by The University of Minnesota Press, 1952. 102 p.

*Measurement of Teacher Merit.* By William A. McCall. Raleigh, N. C., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1952. 40 p. (Publication No. 284)

*Modern Methods in Secondary Education.* By Jean D. Grambs and William J. Iverson. New York, William Sloane Associates, 1952. 562 p. Illus. $4.75.

*Physical Education Activities, Sports and Games.* By Louis E. Means. Dubuque, Iowa, Wm. C. Brown Co., 1952. 328 p. Illus. $4.00.

*Play Groups for Children of School Age.* By Miriam Cohen Harper. New York, Play Schools Association, Inc., and Bronx House, 1952. 90 p. 75 cents.

*The Preparation and Training of Pupil Personnel Workers.* A Report of The State Committee on Credentials for Pupil Personnel Services. Sacramento, Calif., State Department of Education, 1952. 85 p. (Bulletin, Vol. XXI, No. 5)

*The Shortage of Special Class Teachers in Large Cities.* By Sidney H. Firestone and Jacob S. Orleans. New York, Division of Teacher Education, College of the City of New York, 1952. 39 p. (Research Publication No. 11)

*The Social Sciences at Mid-Century.* Papers delivered at the dedication of Ford Hall, April 19–21, 1951. Minneapolis, Published for the Social Science Research Center of the Graduate School, by The University of Minnesota Press, 1952. 109 p.

*Social Studies in the Secondary School.* By Clarence D. Samford and Eugene Cottle. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. 376 p. $4.25.

*Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children.* By L. S. Tireman. Rev. Ed. Albuquerque, N. M., The University of New Mexico Press, 1951. 252 p.

*Techniques for the First Grade Teacher.* Chicago, Board of Education, 1952. 79 p. Illus.

*Toward Better Schools.* Third Report. Commission on School Buildings of the State of New York. Albany, N. Y., 1952. 40 p. Illus.

(*Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.*)

# Selected Theses in Education

Ruth G. Strawbridge, Bibliographer, Federal Seeurity Agency Library

THESE THESES are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*An Analysis of a Program of Speech Therapy for Children with Cerebral Palsy.* By Harry F. Hollien. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 129 p. ms.

*Bertrand Russell's Philosophy of Education.* By Robert C. Marsh. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 269 p. ms.

*The Core Curriculum in Michigan Classrooms.* By Arden H. Detert. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 62 p. ms.

*Critical Analysis of Current Trends in Student Teaching.* By W. R. Rucker. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 218 p. ms.

*Development of the Support of Public Education by the State of Virginia.* By Elster C. Shortt. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 435 p. ms.

*A Follow-up Study of Drop-outs in Lakeview Senior High School From 1948–1952.* By William S. Grout. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 59 p. ms.

*The Management of Internal School Finance with Reference to Extracurricular Activity Funds.* By Grover L. Angel. Doctor's, 1952. George Washington University. 318 p. ms.

*The Public Health Educator: A Study of a Profession from Sociological, Philosophical, and Analytical Viewpoints with a Discussion of some Current Problems.* By Lillian K. Derderian. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 286 p. ms.

*Pupil Promotion in Selected High Schools of the Southern Association.* By Rual W. Stephens. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 288 p. ms.

*The Retention of Meaningful Material.* By Joseph F. Sharpe. Doctor's, 1951. Catholic University of America. 66 p.

*A Study of Clear Lake Camp's Contributions to the Elementary Curriculum.* By Herman C. Kranzer. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 49 p. ms.

*A Study in Transfer Sex Differences in the Reasoning Process.* By Max M. Kostick. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 73 p. ms.

*A Study of Differences in Intelligence Among Children Within Families.* By Agnes A. Hansen. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 63 p. ms.

*The Treatment of Russia in American History Textbooks.* By William C. Nyerick. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 50 p. ms.



U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1952

# EDUCATIONAL AIDS From Your Government

**HOW TO ORDER**

**Free publications listed on this page are available in limited supply only and should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them. Publications to be purchased should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., unless otherwise indicated.**

Edna K. Cave, Reports and Publications Branch

## Office of Education

**Accredited Higher Institutions 1952.** By Theresa Birch Wilkins. Bulletin 1952, No. 3. 35 cents.

**Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50, Chapter 4, Statistics of Higher Education: Section I, Faculty, Students, and Degrees, 1949–50.** By Henry G. Badger and Margaret J. S. Carr. 1952. 25 cents.

**Books for Program Directors.** Adult Education References No. 7, August 1952. Free.

**Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education, Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1951.** Free.

**FCC Television Decision Opens New Era for Education.** Reprint from **School Life**, June 1952. Free.

**Financing Adult Education in Selected Schools and Community Colleges.** By Homer Kempfer and William R. Wood. Bulletin 1952, No. 8. 15 cents.

**Free and Inexpensive Aids for the Teaching of Mathematics.** By Kenneth E. Brown. Aids for Mathematics Education, Circular No. 348, 1952. Free.

**Literacy Education—A Series of Reprints from School Life.** 1952. Free.

**Research and Development Personnel in Industrial Laboratories, 1950.** Report of the National Research Council, National Academy of Sciences to the National Scientific Register. Scientific Manpower Series No. 1, 1952. 15 cents.

**Research—Education's Gibraltar.** By Herbert S. Conrad. Reprint from **School Life**, April 1952. Free.

**Science Education Research Studies—1950.** Prepared by Philip G. Johnson. Selected Science Services, Circular No. 334–II, 1952. Free.

**Selected Bibliography of Current Articles in Mathematics Education.** Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown. Aids for Mathematics Education, Circular No. 346, 1952. Free.

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### *Office of Defense Mobilization*

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### *President's Materials Policy Commission*

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THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

August 21, 1952

**To the Patrons, Students and Teachers of American Schools:**

No nation has placed greater faith in education than has the United States of America. From the beginning of our history, we have looked to schools and colleges as the continuing source of enlightened minds, trained hands, and a practicing faith in democracy.

Our firm belief in education for all carries obligations: to provide good teachers in sufficient numbers, adequate school buildings for a growing population, and, where necessary, financial aid to able and ambitious students who cannot otherwise continue their education beyond high school. Much must be done, immediately and continuously, in every school district and State and throughout the country, if we are to fulfill our obligations to our boys and girls, to our Nation, and to freedom-loving peoples throughout the world.

I am sure that teachers and parents—indeed, all citizens—share my desire to see every American child grow in intellectual and spiritual stature, learning not only the basic lessons of arithmetic, reading, and writing, but also the skills and attitudes essential to good citizenship in today's world.

Harry Truman

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Volume 35 Number 3
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Route to



# School Life

◀ Dwight D. Eisenhower



FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# Freedom in Our Classrooms*

by Earl James McGrath

U. S. Commissioner of Education

IN OUR DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY . . . recent educational developments which emphasize the value of clear thinking are the surest guarantee of the preservation of our free institutions, our free economy, and our free life. Our continued existence as a free people will be determined in large part by our ability to appreciate the fact that freedom in the classroom is directly related to freedom in the market place, the pulpit, and the public forum.

. . . We all agree that the schools are the instruments of society and should therefore always be open to examination or criticism by the lay public. The profession should be willing and eager to explain the philosophy and the practice of education.

But the public interest does not give citizens the right to make categorical assaults on teachers and administrative officers in total disregard of the irreparable damage they are thus doing to individual educators and in the long run to the children whom they teach. Some recent attacks on the loyalty and the integrity of educators, if continued, will in the end drive from the profession the most alert and sensitive minds. They will make the profession of teaching so unattractive that our most earnest efforts to recruit the thousands of young people needed as teachers in the immediate future will fail.

All thoughtful and conscientious Americans must be undisturbed by the cloud of doubt that has been thrown over the profession by the irresponsible outcries of a few people. They are doing a disservice to their communities and to the Nation at large by their ill-tempered and footless attacks on a group of persons who patriotically are dedicated to our country and the ideals of human freedom and decency for which it stands.

. . . All members of the profession have a responsibility to resist the present attempts to suppress freedom of teaching and of learning. Without these freedoms our schools will become like those of the totalitarian countries, institutions in which the minds and the personalities of children are shaped according to a common pattern. Our very destiny as a free people is at stake in this effort to preserve freedom in the classrooms of the United States.

I believe that the future influence of the teaching profession on American society will be directly proportionate to its ability to continue to increase its own competence and its own unity. We must have ever more teachers who know the nature of American life and who know how to prepare children to live understandingly and thoughtfully in this complex society. We need a strong professional esprit de corps growing out of the confidence that we are serving the Nation well in this day when our free way of life is under attack.

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*Excerpts from address delivered at the Educational Conference Observing the Inauguration of Dr. William G. Carr as Executive Secretary of the National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., October 12, 1952.

**School ★ Life**

Official Journal of the Office of Education
• • • Federal Security Agency

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The cover photograph of Dwight D. Eisenhower, President-elect of the United States, was taken by Fabian Bachrach. See the lead article in this issue, "Views of Dwight D. Eisenhower on American Education."



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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, and in Education Index - - - - - - - (Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents)

# Views of Dwight D. Eisenhower

## —on American Education

PARENTS, teachers, school administrators and others throughout the United States are interested in the views of President-elect Dwight D. Eisenhower on education.

SCHOOL LIFE brings to its readers excerpts from longer statements made in recent months and years by Mr. Eisenhower.

These expressions reveal our new President's sincere faith in American education and a genuine desire as he himself puts it, ". . . to do anything and everything in (his) power to safeguard and improve the opportunity for our children in the America of tomorrow."

### For Children

Eisenhower, the candidate for the Presidency, in October of this year told the readers of Parents' Magazine what he wants for children. This preelection statement is quoted in part, as follows:

". . . I am deeply concerned with the welfare of a free people and the education and care of our children who one day must assume the responsibilities of preserving that freedom.

"We are a resourceful country. We must keep America the kind of country that will encourage and develop the capacity of parents to provide the care, the education, the religious background and the affection that every mother knows is essential if our children are to make the most of their lives."

### To Promote Education

In the same statement in Parents' Magazine, Mr. Eisenhower spoke of the responsibility of the Federal Government in promoting the cause of education. "The Federal Government," he said, "has both a negative and a positive responsibility in such matters. It must leave as much as possible of the material resources of the country in the hands of the people or in the hands of the States and local governments. But it must promote and encourage tested and successful methods of research and education and health care—both public and voluntary—for the benefit of children. . . ."

He said further, "We must encourage the alleviation of the critical shortage of schools; we must provide better trained and better paid teachers; we must endeavor constantly to raise the standard of health among school children; we must aim for the provision of essential services to all of our youth."

### As a Former President

As early as October 1948, on the occasion of his inauguration as president of Columbia University, Dwight D. Eisenhower addressed a selected group of our Nation's educational leaders. Under the title, "As a General Becomes a President," SCHOOL LIFE in December 1948, reported portions of the first public statement made by Mr. Eisenhower on American education after his long career in the Army.

"Today's challenge to freedom and to every free institution is such that none of us dares stand alone," said the new President of Columbia University in October 1948. "For human freedom is today threatened by regimented statism. The threat is infinitely more than that involved in opposing ideologies. Men of widely divergent views in our own country live in peace together because they share certain common aspirations which are more important to them than their differences. But democracy and the police state have no common purposes, methods, or aspirations. In today's struggle, no free man, no free institution, can be neutral. All must be joined in a common profession—that of democratic citizenship; every institution within our national structure must contribute to the advancement of this profession.

". . . Moreover, since we cannot isolate ourselves as a Nation from the world," said the Columbia University President, "citizenship must be concerned, too, with the ceaseless impact of the globe's 2 billion humans upon one another, manifested in all the multitudinous acts and hopes and fears of humanity.

"The educational system, therefore, can scarcely impose any logical limit upon its functions and responsibilities in preparing students for a life of social usefulness and individual satisfaction. The academic range must involve the entire material, intellectual, and spiritual aspects of life."

### On Academic Freedom

In the same address Mr. Eisenhower expressed his views on school and college offerings and discussed academic freedom.

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"At all levels of education," he said, "we must be constantly watchful that our schools do not become so engrossed in techniques, great varieties of fractionalized courses, highly specialized knowledge, and the size of their physical plant as to forget the principal purpose of education itself—to prepare the student for effective personal and social life in a free society . . . I deeply believe that all of us must demand of our schools more emphasis on those fundamentals that make our free society what it is and that assure it boundless increase in the future if we comprehend and live by them."

Referring to academic freedom, he said, "Historical failures in the application of democratic principles must be as earnestly studied as the most brilliant of democracy's triumphs. But underlying all must be the clear conviction that the principles themselves have timeless validity. Dependence by the country upon the schools for this vital service implies no infringement of this academic freedom.

"Indeed, academic freedom is nothing more than a specific application of the freedoms inherent in the American way of life. It follows that to protect academic freedom, the teacher must support the entire free system which, among other things, guarantees freedom for all."

## Most Important Job

Speaking directly to America's students in an open letter published as the lead article in the October 1948 issue of The Reader's Digest, Mr. Eisenhower said,

"Today the business of living is far more complex than it was in my boyhood. No one of us can hope to comprehend all its complexity in a lifetime of study. But each day profitably spent in school will help you understand better your personal relationship to country and world. If your generation fails to understand that the human individual is still the center of the universe and is still the sole reason for the existence of all man-made institutions, then complexity will become chaos."

Mr. Eisenhower went on in his letter to our country's students, emphasizing the role education and our young people can play in a stronger America. He said, "In school—from books—from teachers—from fellow students—you can get a view of the whole of America, how it started, how it grew, what it is, what it means. Each day will add breadth to your view and a sharper comprehension of your own role as an American. I feel sure I am right when I tell you: To develop fully your own character you must know your country's character . . . To be a good American is the most important job that will ever confront you. But essentially it is nothing more than being a good member of your community, helping those who need your help, striving for a sympathetic understanding of those who oppose you, doing each new day's job a little better than the previous day's, placing the common good before personal profit. The American Republic was born to assure you the dignity and rights of a human individual. If the dignity and rights of your fellow men guide your daily conduct of life, you will be a good American."

## Toward World Peace

To the President of the Institute of International Education, New York City, on October 16 of this year Dwight D. Eisenhower wrote a letter in which he expressed his views concerning the exchange-of-persons programs in the countries of the free world.

"I firmly believe that educational exchange programs are an important step toward world peace," he said. "Because of failures in human relationships, my generation has suffered through two world wars. The threat of another will not be removed until the peoples of the world come to know each other better, until they understand each other's problems and needs and hopes. Exchange-of-persons programs can contribute immeasurably to such understanding . . . It is my personal hope that this activity, so important in the future of the world, will continue to expand in the coming years."

SCHOOL LIFE in December 1950 reported the statements of four outstanding Americans prepared to encourage citizen participation in public school improvement. These messages, by Warren R. Austin, Bernard M. Baruch, Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Dwight D. Eisenhower, were given nation-wide circulation and publication by The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools and its chairman, Roy E. Larsen, to whom the messages were addressed.

In his statement for this special occasion, Mr. Eisenhower said, "The American public school is the principal training ground for informed American citizenship; what is taught in the classroom today shapes the sort of country we shall have decades hence. To neglect our school system would be a crime against the future. Such neglect could well be more disastrous to all our freedoms than the most formidable armed assault on our physical defenses."

## For the States

Speaking more recently in Los Angeles, Calif., in October 1952, he said, "In the critical problem of adequate education, we must now undertake to help needy States build schools. Such help should be extended only where a State is doing its utmost but, because of inadequate resources or special burdens, is unable to do the job on its own.

"In such a program, the costs of maintenance of administration and of the actual business of teaching should be borne by the localities and the States themselves. That is their responsibility. That is the American answer to Federal compulsion. It is an American defense against Federal control."

Reverting to the statement above, which Mr. Eisenhower in November 1952 prepared for the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, SCHOOL LIFE quotes again in closing this group of expressed views of the gentleman who will be our next President.

## If We Are Vigilant

"When real peace is achieved—as it surely will be, however distant it may now seem—this will be a nation of better citizens, more conscious of their blessings, more resolute in their responsibilities, more dedicated to their freedoms, if even in these crisis-days we are vigilant that our school system continues to improve in physical facilities, in the calibre of its teaching staff, in education for citizenship . . . Where our schools are concerned, no external threat can excuse negligence; no menace can justify a halt to progress."

**Ten important reports of the Educational Policies Commission carry the name of Dwight D. Eisenhower. Mr. Eisenhower has been a member of this commission for 4 years. His term expires December 31, 1952.**

# Selective Service Rejectees—A Challenge To Our Schools

By Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education

TO AUGMENT our fighting forces during several periods of our Nation's history, we have resorted to the democratic method of Selective Service.

This process of selecting the young men who will serve their country in the Armed Forces has provided an opportunity for assessment of the health and educational status of our youth.

It has always been our national experience that the results of Selective Service examinations have left many citizens deeply disturbed. Today we are faced with the same situation. Far too many of our young men coming up for Selective Service examinations are being rejected. Why? Because they do not come up to Selective Service standards physically or mentally.

What are the facts? What can we do about the situation?

Selective Service examinations during the current Korean emergency indicate that as a Nation we are not coming close to meeting the health and educational needs of many thousands of young people. The schools and colleges must accept some responsibility for this situation. The facts show that (1) many men have been declared unfit for military service because of physical conditions that might have been corrected or prevented; (2) many men physically fit have been rejected because they lacked elementary education and basic literacy; (3) others have been disqualified for military service because of mental or emotional disturbances some of which could have been prevented.

Because of these examinations the spotlight is now focused upon a large segment of our Nation's manhood labeled as rejectees because they did not attain certain Selective Service standards in physical or mental health or education.

Let us turn the same spotlight upon programs of education, health, and physical fitness to see where our deficiencies are and what can be done positively about this serious national problem.

The map showing rejection rates State by State included in this article shows that all States must be concerned with this problem, because at least some young men are rejected in all States. The challenge is therefore Nation-wide, not local. Though educators cannot alone solve it, much can be done by our schools and colleges.

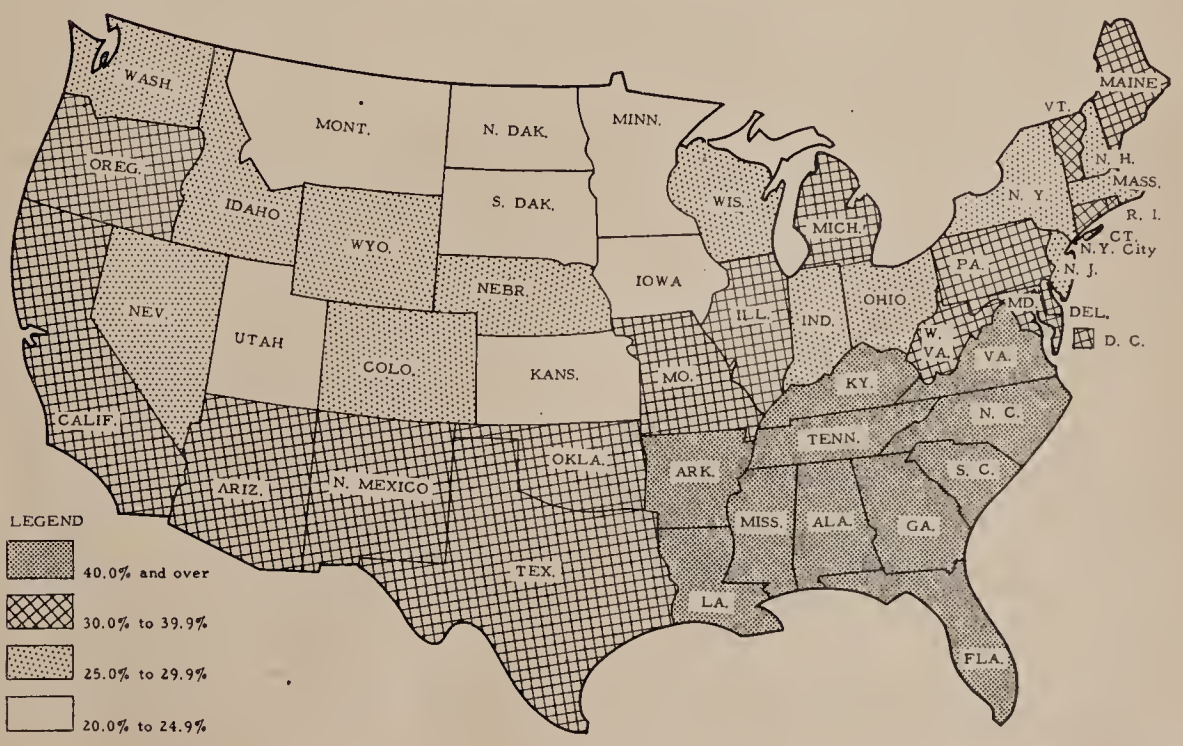
The map shows the arresting fact that even the State with the best record in Selective Service examinations turned down two of every ten young men examined, because they were unable to meet minimum physical qualifications for military service, or because they could not pass a simple test of literacy and intellectual development. In the State with the highest number of rejections six of every ten young men examined failed. By and large, the rejection rates are highest in those States where educational and socio-economic opportunities are most limited.

What is the real significance of the Selective Service findings? Of great current importance is the need to increase the supply of manpower for the Armed Forces. During a long-continuing emergency like the one we are now experiencing any severe limitation on the supply of serviceable manpower is serious, for at best we are greatly outnumbered in men by the totalitarian powers.

There are other implications. The strength of our form of government and of our society rests upon a healthy, intelligent, and well-informed citizenry. Men and women, healthy in body, mind, and spirit, are the indispensable elements in our wholesome home life, and in the well-being and future progress of our technological society. Added to these responsibilities are those recently placed upon us as a people—carrying on of the responsibilities of world leadership. And the welfare and happiness of the individual citizen cannot be overlooked, because the ailing, disabled, and weak cannot live the full life. A person who does not achieve his full potential because of edu-

## Selective Service Rejectees—State by State

(July 1950 to April 1952)



cational limitations or physical handicaps for which he is not responsible is certainly denied the personal satisfactions that our society and way of life should provide.

What can our schools do to improve this situation? Obviously, as suggested earlier, these are problems the solution of which requires the concerted efforts of home, church, government, and all the institutions of our civic, economic, and social life. The schools cannot carry the full responsibility. But efforts can be made by school administrators and teachers to work with other individuals and groups in giving new consideration to the problem for action immediately and to make long-range plans to raise the physical, intellectual, and social standards of all our people, young and old.

In a reexamination of this crucial situation two matters ought to be considered—how to gain better health for children and adults, and how to achieve basic education and literacy for our people.

There are many valuable Government and non-Government publications and other source references that can be used as guides in this program. These can be supplemented by consultation and guidance provided by the Office of Education, Public Health Service, Children's Bureau, and other Government branches.

State departments of education and city school systems can plan more effective ways of cooperating with other State and local agencies and organizations in studying health problems, organizing and developing health resources, and determining priorities for health improvement. Consideration can be given to the extension and improvement of physical education and school-community recreation programs. Particular attention should be given to the physical fitness of high-school-age youth and those nearing the age when many drop out of school.

Every effort should be made to provide realistic education for slow learning pupils. We should be concerned also with older youth and adults who have not completed a full elementary education, but who could do so if encouraged and provided with an adequate program of education suited to their needs. Concrete and detailed suggestions for literacy education have been made in a recent series of SCHOOL LIFE articles now being reprinted and made available by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office.

## Rejectees Since Korea

*Rank Order of States Based Upon Percent of Men Rejected at Preinduction Examination Since Korea (July 1950–April 1952)**

| | State or Territory | Preinduction rejection rate |
|---|---|---|
| | United States and Territories. | 37.4 |
| | United States (Continental) | 36.3 |
| 1 | Puerto Rico | 68.0 |
| 2 | South Carolina | 63.3 |
| 3 | Arkansas | 56.8 |
| 4 | Virgin Islands | 56.2 |
| 5 | Louisiana | 55.9 |
| 6 | Mississippi | 55.2 |
| 7 | Alabama | 54.6 |
| 8 | Georgia | 51.4 |
| 9 | Tennessee | 49.1 |
| 10 | Virginia | 48.7 |
| 11 | North Carolina | 45.1 |
| 12 | Kentucky | 44.3 |
| 13 | Florida | 41.5 |
| 14 | Hawaii | 41.5 |
| 15 | New Mexico | 39.3 |
| 16 | Guam | 38.8 |
| 17 | District of Columbia | 38.0 |
| 18 | Maine | 38.0 |
| 19 | West Virginia | 37.7 |
| 20 | New York City | 37.5 |
| 21 | Arizona | 35.9 |
| 22 | Oklahoma | 35.6 |
| 23 | Delaware | 35.4 |
| 24 | Texas | 34.9 |
| 25 | Michigan | 34.8 |
| 26 | Maryland | 34.1 |
| 27 | Alaska | 32.9 |
| 28 | Pennsylvania | 32.1 |
| 29 | Missouri | 31.9 |
| 30 | Oregon | 31.9 |
| 31 | Rhode Island | 31.6 |
| 32 | Illinois | 31.1 |
| 33 | California | 31.0 |
| 34 | Vermont | 30.8 |
| 35 | Connecticut | 30.2 |
| 36 | Ohio | 29.9 |
| 37 | New York (exclusive of New York City). | 29.8 |
| 38 | Colorado | 28.8 |
| 39 | Washington | 28.7 |
| 40 | Massachusetts | 28.4 |
| 41 | New Jersey | 28.3 |
| 42 | Wisconsin | 28.1 |
| 43 | Indiana | 27.7 |
| 44 | Nevada | 27.0 |
| 45 | Wyoming | 26.8 |
| 46 | Idaho | 26.7 |
| 47 | New Hampshire | 26.6 |
| 48 | Nebraska | 25.2 |
| 49 | Montana | 23.3 |
| 50 | South Dakota | 23.2 |
| 51 | Utah | 22.6 |
| 52 | Iowa | 22.2 |
| 53 | Kansas | 20.7 |
| 54 | North Dakota | 20.7 |
| 55 | Minnesota | 20.3 |
| 56 | Canal Zone | 10.1 |

*Data from Table 3, "Armed Forces Preinduction Examination and Induction Inspection Rates for Selective Service Registrants, by States." Statement by Major General Lewis B. Hershey before the Interstate and Foreign Commerce Committee of the House of Representatives on H. Con. Res. 19, June 9, 1952.

Many of the top officers of Government have been and are concerned about this matter of improving the mental, physical, and intellectual level of that portion of our young people who are now disqualified for military service and for the many responsibilities of life generally. President Truman, Secretary of the Army Pace, Major General Hershey of Selective Service, to name only three, have expressed themselves on this problem of such critical significance to our Nation. The President has said, "The primary aim of our manpower mobilization is to safeguard our national security through the maximum development and use of our human resources." Secretary Pace pointed out that "we are actually in a race with the Communists to improve the quality of manpower." Major General Hershey said, ". . . One of the most challenging problems of our times is a problem involving the physical, mental, and moral fitness of the youth of the Nation, upon whose shoulders must rest the future of the country and its chances of survival . . ."

All educators who know about this problem will, I am convinced, exert their best efforts to correct these deficiencies in the knowledge that good health and basic education are necessary for the full realization of the potential of individuals and the highest possible standard of living in our society in peace and in war.

# Team Approach in Pupil Counseling*

by Leonard M. Miller

Specialist, Counseling and Pupil Personnel Programs, Division of State and Local School Systems

DURING the early history of the guidance movement the emphasis in pupil counseling was centered mainly on choosing a career. There has been a noticeable expansion in the number and variety of counseling services to help pupils adjust their individual problems ever since public schools have accepted the concept that the basic objective of education is to give each child the best opportunity possible to reach his fullest potentialities for growth.

During and since World War II there has been a growing recognition of the counseling role that every staff member, both certified and classified, assumes through his work with individual students. The term pupil personnel services is commonly used now to connote the range of workers. These include the coordinated efforts of all persons within the school and community whose primary functions are to assist pupils in becoming self-directive individuals. Some of these services are the responsibility of teaching and administrative personnel; some are handled by specialists; some are carried on jointly with other educational workers; and some are the primary concern of the personnel worker.

The areas of services into which these are generally classified must be understood before the team approach can be consummated. Some of the counseling duties performed by different school staff members are presented below:

### The School Administrator

The success of a counseling program in a school system is directly correlated with the vision and understanding of the school administrative officers. Under the leadership of the school administrator, the objectives of the program and the duties of each participant in its development must be well defined and clearly understood. All persons who counsel with pupils should have familiarity with classroom procedures and appreciation of classroom problems. The school administrator must provide for a continuing program of in-service education in varying aspects of the counseling program.

### The Teacher

The teacher has a distinctive role to perform in counseling pupils and in utilizing other counseling services. Teachers have a responsibility to maintain and interpret records and to interpret certain individual appraisal materials. They must understand the factors that influence the lives of children, know how to improve the mental health of children, and how to treat discipline as a learning experience.

### The Home-School Counselor

There is need in every school system for a specialist who is competent to counsel on problems concerned with the parent-child-teacher relationship. These persons are known by several titles such as visiting teacher, home-school visitor, school social worker, or home school counselor. This counselor must know how to study and evaluate home-school-community situations, how to promote good home-school relationships, how to develop effective channels of home-school communication, and how to utilize the counseling services of appropriate community agencies.

### The School Counselor

Counseling duties are generally assigned to qualified counselors, teacher-counselors, or deans who have acquired competencies in counseling techniques beyond those which a subject teacher receives in her undergraduate preparation. Types of counseling relate to educational, vocational, avocational, and personal adjustment situations, each composed of specific problems requiring many and varied procedures for solution.

Other categories of counseling are discussed in the following paragraphs:

### Clinical Counseling

This type of counseling service is that performed by such persons as psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, rehabilitation counselors, social workers, working in cooperation with related educational specialists. Counseling procedures generally apply to the identification, study, and prescription for treatment of persons referred for special attention.

### Health Counseling

The major counseling duties in this area are performed by the school physician, school nurse, and dental hygienist. Counseling emphasis is centered on screening for such conditions as hearing impairment; vision, speech, dental defects; and other significant physical defects. Counseling also involves the interpretation of the pupil's physical and health limitations, for use by teachers, counselors, athletic directors, and other personnel workers.

### Placement Counseling

Those who counsel in this area are generally placement counselors, school counselors, supervisors of school-work programs, vocational and commercial teachers who assume a major responsibility for placement in a specialized trade or business field of work. Counseling duties involve assisting pupils in finding job openings, supplying informative on-job application procedures, and checking progress on the job.

### Services Closely Related to Pupil Personnel Services

Some services of the school are closely affiliated functionally to pupil personnel services but are not of the same order. For instance, services related to the adjustment of disciplinary problems and provid-

*Presented at the Western Pennsylvania Education Conference at Pittsburgh, Pa., October 8-10, 1952.

ing financial aid are considered as part of the counseling aspect of pupil personnel services.

Group activities and group methods are frequently utilized to supplement individual counseling when the purpose to be accomplished can best be achieved by the group approach.

### Counseling and Special Education Classes

There is a tendency to place special education under the administration of pupil personnel services. This creates misunderstanding because special education is a program of educational experience involving instruction, classroom organization, and school administration, designed to serve children and youth who deviate physically, mentally, or emotionally to such an extent that they cannot be in or profit from the regular classroom program.

Counseling services contribute to this program by helping to identify children in need of them and to secure adequate diagnosis which constitutes a basis for referral to the appropriate special education authority and for assignment to special classes or some other form of special educational service.

### Keys to Good Teamwork

Since all of these counseling services are those which are generally recognized as necessary for meeting the individual needs of pupils, the following principles are basic for developing a team approach.

These services will operate best when the specialist in one area has enough understanding and appreciates the work of counseling specialists in other areas to be able to recognize the appropriateness of referrals and relationships.

Organization of the school program should be so structured that at least a few teachers may know the pupil as a whole.

Effective coordination of these services may be secured either by placing such services within a single administrative unit and/or by establishing adequate coordination among various individuals responsible for segments of the program as long as policies and relationships are clearly defined.

It is basic that responsibility for various aspects of counseling duties should be assigned to the best qualified member or members of the school staff, and that all should work as a team under a sound administrative policy.

Many basic functions are common to all pupil personnel workers, therefore all should develop competencies which will help them understand pupils and know how to use some basic tools in studying pupils.

Organizational patterns at the State, city, and county levels will help foster teamwork.

Conferences and workshops in which representatives from all disciplines participate provide excellent means for promoting the team approach in pupil counseling.

# The 1952 National Conference On Life Adjustment Education For Youth*

ARE SCHOOL EFFORTS in the evaluation of student achievement and progress keeping pace with the curriculum changes which have been made to adapt high school instruction to life-centered objectives? This was the concern of the fifth national conference sponsored by the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth in cooperation with the United States Office of Education on October 6–8 in Washington, D. C.

The conference was attended by approximately 200 educators and laymen nominated by State Departments of Education. Conferees included school administrators, directors of instruction, teachers, and teacher educators in all phases of general and vocational education.

Activities of the two commissions on Life Adjustment Education have taken the form of a campaign to implement accepted educational theory through State Committees and Commissions. This campaign, which is now in its sixth year, has encouraged schools to study the basic causes and extent of early school leaving, to conduct follow-up studies of graduates and nongraduates, to utilize citizen groups in developing improved practices and techniques, and as a result of these efforts and studies to develop more functional and life-centered curricula related to the needs of youth and communities.

### Cluster of Problems

Persons who have worked closely with the life adjustment education campaign, after a studied appraisal of the movement, have come to the conclusion that for full realization of the potentialities achieved through curriculum improvement a cluster of problems closely related to these major issues must be solved. School policies related to the appraisal and reporting of pupil progress must be considered. These, in turn, immediately involve the measuring instruments and observational procedures used, the promotional and failure policies, the reports and records filed and sent to parents, and the roles these all play in the instructional program, in graduation, in securing employment, and in entering and achieving success in college.

In all too many instances schools have continued to teach in terms of tests without concern for the significance of this practice upon the education of boys and girls. Under these conditions the basic factors which finally determine what takes place in the classroom are: (1) the content or values reflected in the tests or measurements against which a student's progress is assessed, (2) the grading or marking system whereby success or failure is determined. (3) the content and emphasis involved in the requirements and credits which are ultimately translated into diplomas.

*By John R. Ludington, Secondary Schools Section, Division of State and Local School Systems.

## More Attention Needed

For too long, little attention has been given to the evaluation, marking, reporting, accreditation, and graduation practices in secondary schools. Their role in determining what happens to students as they pass through the high schools is not as fully understood as it should be.

The conference was planned to help orient leaders in general and vocational education at the secondary level to current developments, problems, and to plan next steps in appraising, recording, and reporting student adjustment and achievement. To accomplish this purpose the program included general addresses, panel discussions, and five small discussion groups.

Major addresses in the first general session were made by Dr. L. Thomas Hopkins, Profcssor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, Dean, Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago, on "How Well Are the Secondary Schools Doing Their Job?" and "Next Steps in Improving Secondary Education."

The second general session provided an address by Dr. Ruth Strang, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, on the topic, "Observational and Other Non-Structured Procedures for Discovering Developmental Needs of Youth." Dr. Arthur Traxler, Executive Director, Educational Records Bureau, then presented a paper on "Tools and Procedures for Identifying Student Capacities and Needs." These presentations were followed by a panel discussion. Dr. C. Leslie Cushman, Associate Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, served as moderator, and panel members were: Dr. John Flanagan, University of Pittsburgh; Dr. Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State College; Dr. J. Wayne Wrightstone, New York City Public Schools; and Miss Ethel Wooden, Harriet-Whitney Vocational High School, Toledo.

Dr. Paul Diederich of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, discussed "Next Steps in the Development of a Total School Program of Student Appraisal" as the principal speaker on the third general session. Mr. Wilbur Phillips, a member of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education, acted as moderator of a panel consisting of Dr. Warren Seyfert, Principal of the University of Chicago High School Dr. George Ebey, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Houston; Sister Mary Janet, a member of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education; and Dr. Morris Krugman, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

Upper photograph shows members of the Second National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, left to right: J. Dan Hull, Office of Education, Secretary to the Commission; Harry C. Schmid, National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education; James E. Blue, National Association of Secondary-School Principals; James H. Pearson, Office of Education Steering Committee; Mrs. Edward N. Howell, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Paul D. Collier, National Association of State Supervisors and Directors of Secondary Education, Chairman of the Commission; Sister Mary Janet, National Catholic Welfare Conference; W. A. Shannon, National School Boards Association; Charles W. Sylvester, American Vocational Association, Vice Chairman of the Commission; Galen Jones, Office of Education Steering Committee; Wendell W. Wright, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; Rosco C. Ingalls, American Association of Junior Colleges; Wilbur Phillips, National Education Association.

Lower photograph shows a group of conferees at the opening session of the conference.

## Report Available

All persons attending the conference then participated in one of five discussion groups in which pupil appraisal for life adjustment education was discussed with reference to (a) High School Administration, Organization, and Staff; (b) State Testing Programs; (c) High School-College Relationships; (d) Pupil Accounting Procedures; and (e) Instruction and Teacher Education.

Summary reports of the agreements and recommendations of these discussion groups were made in the fourth general session, and the conference was concluded with an address by Dr. Henry Chauncey, President, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, on "Ways of Increasing Our Effectiveness in Appraising Pupils."

A complete report of this conference will be available to persons interested in the evaluation of student progress and achievement. Copies may be secured by writing to the Secondary Schools Section, Division of State and Local School Systems, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

# "Not Like the Old Days"

THE SUPERINTENDENT was subjected to criticism by the business and commercial interests of the City because the spelling, arithmetic, and composition of the graduates of the elementary schools did not meet the standards they assumed had prevailed in the past.

A copy of an old examination given in one of the schools of Springfield, Massachusetts, more than fifty years before was found, together with a record of the grades the children had received. This test was given to children in a representative group of New York City Schools. When the results were tabulated, they showed that the pupils had scored higher than those for whom the text had been prepared, despite the large number of foreign-born pupils who took it.

The criticism subsided when the results of the test were announced.

*—THE FIRST FIFTY YEARS, 1898–1948. Golden Jubilee Report of the Superintendent of Schools and Board of Education of the City of New York. Page 38.*

Teacher from Ceylon writes home.

Group of foreign educators admire mantilla worn by Mexican teacher.

Americans view exhibit from India shown by native teacher.

Burmese teacher shows jewelry.

# Within Our Borde

Teacher trainees from 47 different countries at Federal Security building.

German educators attending an orientation meeting planned by the Office of Education.

DURING the months of August and September staff members of the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, welcomed to the United States nearly 500 educators from 50 different countries. After orientation meetings in Washington, D. C., the visitors left to take teaching posts on exchange during the 1952–53 academic year with American teachers, or set out to participate in professional training programs at selected universities, or to study and observe American educational theory and practice during the next 6 months.

What happened to the British exchange teachers from the time they arrived in New York City until they left Washington, D. C., 2 weeks later was reported in the October issue of SCHOOL LIFE.

Much of the same kind of interesting detail could be written about the groups of teachers and educational leaders from the many other countries who arrived in the Nation's Capital by plane, or after a trip by ship across the seas—many of them in

British teachers who are exchanging positions with American teachers this year.

# For International Understanding

ars from Far East with Office of Education official.

tion of international education and friendliness.

The following week this group of teachers and educational leaders from many points throughout the world left to attend special institutes and seminars at Indiana University, Colorado State College of Education at Greeley, Iowa State Teachers College, Pennsylvania State College, Ohio State University, Teachers College, Columbia University, University of Michigan, University of Connecticut, Syracuse University, and Stanford University.

parent-school and school-community cooperation, and knowing the individual pupil. The German educators will be enrolled at Oregon State College, Temple University, University of North Carolina, University of Illinois, University of Cincinnati, State College of Washington, and George Peabody College for Teachers. Wherever possible they will live in American homes and experience typical college life in the United States.

Iranian teacher displays her handicraft

These programs of education for teachers and leaders in schools and colleges and school systems from other countries are under the direction of the Department of State, and administered by the Office of Education as authorized by the Smith-Mundt and Fulbright Acts.

—John H. Lloyd

# From Many Lands

picturesque native costumes which caught the American eye and fancy.

For a half hour by television a Washington, D. C., audience enjoyed the first TV interview ever arranged to describe the costumes and handicraft, and to have broadcast the native language and song of so many educators from other lands. Traffic was halted momentarily on busy Independence Avenue outside the Federal Security Building, as the visitors met to have a group photograph taken.

High light of the stay in Washington for the 271 teachers, supervisors and school administrators from 47 different countries was probably the display of their native clothing, jewelry, money, and handicraft of many kinds. An hour of dancing and singing open to the public, followed the half-hour presentation for televiewers. Officials of the Federal Security Agency, the Office of Education, and the Department of State, took part in this unique demonstra-

Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, told the group before leaving, "As you go into communities throughout our Nation, you will be free to talk with any person, to ask any questions that occur to you, and you will receive honest answers from the citizens of the United States. No curtain will be hung before you in any community. No officer in Government will be observing you. You can see us as we are."

The group of 104 German teachers who later went to seven institutions of higher education, visited schools and classes in Arlington, Va., as part of their initial orientation in the United States. They rode to and from the schools by school bus, and partook of an American school lunch. Office of Education specialists discussed with them during their week's stay in Washington such topics as planning and improving the curriculum, the teaching process, the role of supervision in educational leadership, pupil-personnel services and guidance,

# Educational Enactments of the Eighty-second Congress, Second Session

by Ward W. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation

EDUCATIONAL enactments of the Congress of the United States are always of wide interest and concern. The Eighty-second Congress, second session, had an unusual number of educational bills before it for consideration; however, comparatively few of them were enacted into law.

The most significant educational enactment of the Eighty-second Congress, second session, was Public Law 550 providing educational benefits for veterans of the Korean War. Below is a résumé of the principal provisions enacted by the Eighty-second Congress, second session, relating to education.

## Veterans' Education

Congress enacted a new GI law, known as "Veterans' Readjustment Act of 1952" designed, among other things, "to restore lost educational opportunities to certain persons who served in the Armed Forces on or after June 27, 1950, and prior to such date as shall be fixed by the President or the Congress." Under the new law an eligible veteran is entitled to 1½ days of education for each day of active service with a maximum of 36 months. A veteran's education must be initiated within 2 years after his discharge, and no education or training shall be provided beyond 7 years after his discharge.

Under the new GI Education Law, payments are made directly to the students and are stipulated as follows for veterans pursuing full-time programs of education: With no dependents, $110; with 1 dependent, $135; with more than 1 dependent, $160. Provision is made for proportionate amounts for education programs on a three-quarter or one-half time basis. There are also slightly less amounts allowable for students pursuing programs of education and training which consist of institutional courses, and institutional on-the-farm training courses.

The new law stipulates that "The Administrator [of Veterans' Affairs] shall utilize the resources of the Office of Education in developing cooperative agreements between the Administrator and State and local agencies relating to the approval of courses of education or training, . . . in reviewing the plan of operation of State approving agencies under such agreements, and in rendering technical assistance to such State and local agencies in developing and improving policies, standards, and legislation in connection with their duties under this title. . . . Funds necessary to enable the Office of Education to carry out its functions under this title are authorized to be appropriated directly to such Office."

Under this act, section 253 (a), the United States Commissioner of Education "shall publish a list of nationally recognized accrediting agencies and associations which he determines to be reliable authority as to the quality of training offered by an educational institution and the State approving agencies may, upon concurrence, utilize the accreditation of such accrediting associations or agencies for approval of the courses specifically accredited and approved by such accrediting association or agency." (Public Law 550, approved July 16, 1952.)

## International Education — Point 4 Program

The Mutual Security Appropriation Act provided considerable increases to carry on the Point 4 Program of health, education and economic development, including technical assistance, to friendly countries "to strengthen the mutual security and individual and collective defenses of the free world." (Public Law 400, approved June 20, 1952.)

*Note.*—Point 4 funds appropriated in the Mutual Security Appropriation Act are allocated by the Director of Mutual Security to the Secretary of State for use by the Technical Cooperation Administrator; and funds are finally allotted to participating agencies of the Government to enable them to contribute assistance in their respective technical fields, including education.

*Bataan Day.* Congress declared that "whereas the people of the Philippines have demonstrated to all other nations in the Asian sphere the fact that mutual friendship and mutual security are common goals and the role of the United States in Asia is that of a friend of peoples, regardless of race," and resolved that "April 9, 1952 (the tenth anniversary of the fall of Bataan), be observed as Bataan Day and that the Congress recommends that on that day the flags of the United States and the Republic of the Philippines be flown, and that encouragement be given to the holding of appropriate services in schools and churches and in other gatherings." (Public Law 310, approved April 9, 1952.)

*International Trade Fair.*—The Congress expressly endorsed the establishment of an International Trade Fair and Inter-American Cultural and Trade Center in New Orleans, La., 1953, in the observance of the Louisiana Purchase anniversary and as a nonprofit enterprise in the development of improved relations and increased trade with other nations, and authorized and directed the President of the United States to grant recognition by proclamation or otherwise, to the aforementioned trade center and calling upon officials and agencies of the Federal Government to assist and cooperate with such trade fair "and inviting the participation of foreign nations therein." (Public Law 290, approved April 3, 1952.)

## Education in Outlying Possessions

*Puerto Rico.*—Congress approved the constitution which was submitted by the Constitutional Convention of Puerto Rico, with certain exceptions and amendments. The exceptions which Congress made and the amendments which it stipulated to be added to the constitution are as follows: (1) Congress did not accept Section 20 of Article II of the Puerto Rican constitution, relating to human rights. (2) Congress stipulated that the following declaration be added to Section 5 of Article II, relating to

educational rights of children and compulsory school attendance: "Compulsory attendance at elementary public schools to the extent permitted by the facilities of the State as herein provided shall not be construed as applicable to those who receive elementary education in schools established under nongovernmental auspices." (3) Congress stipulated that Section 3 of Article VII, which reads as follows: "No amendment to this constitution shall alter the republican form of government established by it or abolish its bill of rights," be amended by adding at the end of the section the following new sentence: "Any amendment or revision to this constitution shall be consistent with the resolution enacted by the Congress of the United States approving this constitution, with the applicable provisions of the Constitution of the United States, with the Puerto Rican Federal Relations Act, and with Public Law 600, Eighty-first Congress, adopted in the nature of a compact." Congress provided that the said constitution shall become effective when the Constitutional Convention of Puerto Rico shall have declared in a formal resolution in the name of the people of Puerto Rico that the "conditions of approval herein contained" have been accepted.

The constitution of Puerto Rico includes provision for the creation of a Department of Education to be headed by a "Secretary" who shall be appointed by the Governor "with the advice and consent of the Senate." (Public Law 447, approved July 3, 1952.)

*Alaska.*—Congress amended the Act of June 29, 1935, relating to the endowment and support of colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts so as to extend the benefit of that Act to certain colleges in the Territory of Alaska. (Public Law 390, approved June 12, 1952.)

*Guam.*—Congress amended the National School Lunch Act by including Guam among the States and Outlying Possessions to receive Federal funds apportioned for the purpose of carrying out the National School Lunch Program. (Public Law 518, approved July 12, 1952.)

*Hawaii.*—Congress enabled the Legislature of Hawaii to authorize the City and County of Honolulu, a municipal corporation of the Territory of Hawaii, to issue bonds ($5,000,000) for the acquisition of real property for public-school purposes and for the construction and replacement of buildings for public-school purposes. (Public Law 382, approved June 9, 1952.)

Congress also enabled the Legislature of Hawaii to authorize the County of Maui, Territory of Hawaii, to issue "public improvement bonds" ($1,000,000) for the construction of new public-school buildings. (Public Law 384, approved June 9, 1952.)

*Note.*—The following Outlying Possessions are now included in the National School Lunch Act: Alaska, Hawaii, Guam, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands.

## Higher Education

Veterans' Education. See Public Law 550 summarized above under Veterans' Education.

*Educational Imports.* — The Congress amended the Tariff Act by permitting any educational, religious or charitable institution to import free of duty "any textile machine or machinery, or part thereof, for its use in the instruction of students and not for sale or for any commercial use, under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe," provided that affidavit is given that the substantial equivalent of the article imported is not manufactured in the United States. (Public Law 286, approved March 29, 1952.)

## Education in the District of Columbia

*Child Labor.*—The District of Columbia child labor law was amended with respect to minors engaged for stage appearances by providing that a minor shall be at least 7 years of age, shall not appear on the stage for more than two performances per day, nor more than eight performances per week, nor more than 12 hours per week, nor more than 6 days per week, and shall not appear on the stage after 11:30 p. m. (Previously the law required that such a minor had to be 14 years of age, had completed eight grades of elementary instruction or a course deemed equivalent by the Board of Education, and that such a minor could not appear on the stage for more than two performances per day, nor more than 3 hours per day, nor more than 6 days per week, nor more than 12 hours per week, nor after 11: 00 p. m.) The provision which previously required a parent to apply to the Board of Education for a permit at least 14 days in advance of the date for a minor to be so engaged was amended to provide that such permit may be applied for "at such time as the Board may require." (Public Law 449, approved July 3, 1952.)

*Military Science.*—Congress authorized the Board of Education of the District of Columbia, upon recommendation of the Superintendent of Schools, to employ not more than 15 retired members of the Armed Services of the United States as teachers of military science in the public high schools of the District of Columbia, said teachers to be paid in accordance with the existing salary schedule in addition to their retired pay and allowances. (Public Law 265, approved March 3, 1952.)

*Annual Leave.*—Congress vested in the Board of Education of the District of Columbia the authority to regulate the vacation periods and annual leave of absence of all individuals employed by the Board of Education of the District of Columbia whose positions are included in salary classes 13–23, inclusive; such annual leave of absence so granted to be in lieu of annual leave of absence granted under any other Act. (Public Law 271, approved March 5, 1952.)

*Private Schools.*—Congress amended the Act incorporating Trinity College of Washington, D. C., by transferring the control of the College from the Archbishop of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Baltimore to the Archbishop of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Washington. (Public Law 263, approved February 29, 1952.)

## Special Days

*Citizenship Day.*—Congress designated September 17 of each year as "Citizenship Day" in commemoration of the formation and signing of the Constitution of the United States on September 17, 1787, and authorized the President of the United States to issue annually a proclamation inviting the people of the United States to observe the day in schools and churches, or other suitable places, with appropriate ceremonies. This Act urges the civil and educational authorities of States, counties, cities, and towns to make plans for the proper observance of this day and for the full instruction of citizens in their responsibilities and opportunities as citizens of the United States and of the States and localities in which they reside. (Public Law 261, approved February 29, 1952.)

*National Day of Prayer.*—Congress provided that the President of the United States shall set aside and proclaim a suitable day

each year, other than Sunday, as a National Day of Prayer, on which the people of the United States may turn to God in prayer and meditation at churches, in groups, and as individuals. (Public Law 324, approved April 17, 1952.)

### Federal Assistance

In order to assist in the maintenance and operation and construction of schools in areas affected by Federal activities the 82d Congress, 2d Session, made the following appropriations for fiscal year ending June 30, 1953:

(1) *Payments to School Districts* for the maintenance and operation of schools as authorized by Public Law 874, approved September 30, 1950, $40,000,000.

(2) *School Construction* for providing school facilities as authorized by Title II of Public Law 815, approved September 23, 1950, $135,000,000. (Public Law 452, approved July 5, 1952.)

In a supplemental appropriation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1953, Congress appropriated for payment to school districts for school maintenance $11,570,000, and for school construction $60,000,000, as authorized in Public Laws 874 and 815 relative to Federal assistance to areas affected by Federal activities. (Public Law 547, approved July 15, 1952.)

### Miscellaneous

*Revenue from Oil, Gas, and Mineral Leasing for North Dakota, South Dakota, and Washington.*—Congress amended the Act relating to the admission into the Union of the three States mentioned, approved February 22, 1889, by authorizing the said States to pool their moneys derived from oil, gas, and mineral leasing from lands granted to them for public schools and the various State institutions, the moneys so pooled to be apportioned to public schools and the various institutions of the said States in ratio to the total number of acres granted to them for such educational purposes. (Public Law 417, approved June 28, 1952.)

*Indian Education.*—Congress authorized the Secretary of the Interior, in his discretion, to convey to the Hoopa Unified School District, California, not to exceed 45 acres of land located in the agency and school reserve on the Hoopa Valley Indian Reservation for use as a site for the construction of a school for the education of both Indian and non-Indian pupils. (Public Law 389, approved June 12, 1952.)

# Teaching With Tape

## An Instructional Tool of Many Uses—Sound Recording

By Ronald R. Lowdermilk

Senior Specialist in Radio-Television
Division of State and Local School Systems

HAVING TROUBLE getting that timid kindergarten boy to take part in class-group discussions? Why not use your tape recorder to show him that he sounds no different from any of the other children?

Or, perhaps one of your students in Beginning French is having trouble getting those vowels to sound right. Record the correct pronunciation on a tape, and let him take the recorder to another room where he won't have an audience to worry about, and keep recording his own pronunciation and comparing it with the "standard" until he gets the two to sound alike.

Or, maybe that educational broadcast series you would like to use with your Social Studies class comes at the very time you're assigned to study hall. Connect your tape recorder to a radio (or radio tuner) tuned to the station that will carry the program, and either use a radio-control clock to turn the two on for the length of time the program is on the air, or have one of your students turn the radio and recorder on for you at the proper time.

When your study-hall session is over, simply rewind the tape to the beginning of the reel, and there's your radio program ready to be played whenever you want your class to hear it, whether it's next period, or next semester. Moreover, you can play this program, in whole or in part, as often as you like—one time or, according to the research engineers, 340,000 times—and, when you're through with it, the tape can be erased and reused for other programs.

> How a number of schools throughout the United States make use of sound recording in their educational programs is reported in an Office of Education publication. You can request a copy. Ask for "Uses Schools Are Making of Sound Recording." In writing to the Radio-TV Section, Office of Education, you may wish also to let us know of your experiences in "teaching with tape."

### Fires the Imagination

In providing a convenient and inexpensive means of preserving potentially useful instructional content, the magnetic tape recorder is serving to expand the quantity and variety of teaching materials available at the local-school level. Already widely used for recording samples of pupil performance for purposes of self-criticism and analysis, it is ushering in new instructional techniques and practices that show great promise for the improvement of teaching. Its use in the field of Dramatics is now well established, and it is encouraging the use of radio-dramatization techniques at all academic levels from the primary grades through the senior college.

In short, it is doubtful that any other item of communications equipment has ever fired the imagination or challenged the ingenuity of teachers to the extent that the tape recorder has, or has achieved general acceptance as a bona fide instructional tool in so short a time.

As a matter of fact, however, school use of sound recording is not exactly new or revolutionary. Teachers have long been aware that it offers a wide variety of potential instructional and performance-evaluation applications afforded in no other way with the same economy of teaching time and effort. Scarcely had the wax-cylinder dic-

tation recorder made its appearance on the business-machine market when pioneer teachers, here and there, undertook to use it for performance-evaluation recording in the field of public speaking.

With the advent of the electric phonograph, pregrooved recording discs designed for home recording appeared on the market, and these, likewise, were tried out in many schools. With the introduction of the instantaneous recorder using lacquer-coated discs, professional quality sound recording was brought, for the first time, within reach of the schools. Those schools able to afford the cost of the equipment, and fortunate enough to have a faculty member with the technical facility required to operate and maintain it, were quick to acquire this type of recording facilities.

### Certain Disadvantages

Unfortunately, none of these earlier efforts to use sound recording in the schools proved altogether successful. The dictation recorder, though admirably suited for its intended purpose, did not provide a sufficiently wide frequency range for remedial-speech work, and it proved somewhat awkward to use for performance-evaluation recording. The "home recorder" type of sound recorder, likewise, suffered the disadvantage of a limited frequency range, and the discs were found to have a fairly high "surface noise" and a rather short playing life.

The "professional" type disc recorder, expertly handled, did provide a frequency range adequate for most school sound-recording needs, with a negligible amount of surface noise, but an experienced technician was necessary for its operation and maintenance. This consideration, coupled with relatively high initial cost, discouraged a great many schools from getting such equipment.

Moreover, even the so-called "portable" recorders of this type were usually too heavy and too bulky to be moved freely from classroom to classroom. Recording discs were so costly that even those schools able to buy the equipment customarily found themselves sharply limited in the amount of recording they could do.

Obviously, then, if sound recording were ever to become practicable for all the various uses schools were attempting to make of it, a wholly new kind of sound recorder would be required.

In the first place, it would need to be low enough in cost to permit schools to buy it in quantities.

Second, it would need to be so simple to operate that teachers with no previous technical knowledge or experience could use it, and it would need to be reasonably foolproof in operation.

Third, it would have to be capable of producing consistently professional-quality recordings, regardless of the level of operator skill.

Fourth, it would need to be compact enough and light enough in weight to insure ready portability, and, at the same time, rugged enough to withstand the kind of handling that items of portable equipment usually get in the schools.

Finally, it would need to use a type of recording medium that would bring the *per-hour cost of recording* down to a figure so low that teachers would not hesitate to use recording as widely as they might like.

An impossible list of requirements? It certainly seemed so! But that was before the advent of the magnetic tape recorder.

Pupils at McKinley School, Arlington, Va., about to listen to a report one of them just recorded which will be played back to the class for criticism. About a quarter million tape recorders are now used in U. S. schools.

### An Estimated Quarter Million

Small wonder, then, that the magnetic tape recorder should have been hailed as the answer to the quest for an ideal sound recorder for school use. It fulfilled all five requirements. Also with each recording tape re-usable thousands of times, per-hour cost of recording is reduced to the vanishing point, except where a school may wish to build up its own local library of tape-recorded teaching materials. Even there, the per-hour cost is substantially less than that of comparable content materials.

Barely a half-dozen years old, the portable tape recorder has already become a familiar item of classroom equipment in most parts of the United States. Exact figures as to the number of machines in use in the schools today are not available, but estimates by equipment manufacturers and by recording-tape manufacturers place the total at upward of a quarter-million recorders, counting both those owned by schools and those owned by individual teachers.

These machines are being used for the types of applications already suggested. They are also being used widely for playing the ever-increasing "Tapes-for-Teaching" content materials that are being recorded for class-group listening—a type of teaching material now available from twenty tapes-for-teaching library centers operated by State departments of education and by city and county school administrative units.

In short, it looks as if magnetic sound recording as an instructional tool is here to stay—at least until technologic progress gives us a superior sound-recording medium. So let's plug in the tape recorder and turn it on. The dramatic skit those two girls are starting to give demonstrating the proper way to make introductions might be something you will want to use with your fifth-hour class.

# PLANNING FOUNDATION PROGRAMS

by Clayton D. Hutchins, Specialist in School Finance, and Albert R. Munse, Research Assistant,
Division of State and Local School Systems

LOCAL SCHOOL authorities have realized the significance of State constitutional provisions which typically require that the legislatures shall make provision, by taxation and otherwise, for the establishment and maintenance of a satisfactory system of schools. At the same time, State officials have understood the dependence of the State upon local communities in the operation of educational services for the advancement and unification of the people of the State. This recognition of joint responsibility and mutual dependence has inspired both local and State authorities to favor a financial partnership for supporting schools.

In all States, funds for education are derived from both State and local sources. The proportion supplied by the State varies widely, but it is usually substantial and has an important bearing upon the kind of educational program that can be supported. Proportions derived from State revenues range from averages of less than 15 percent for some States to more than 85 percent for others.

Wider variations are noted for individual school districts within States. Districts having high financial abilities may receive less than 5 percent of the funds expended locally for education, from the State, while others derive more than 95 percent from State appropriations. Variations from State to State are determined largely by the State school finance plan and differences among districts are produced chiefly by State efforts at equalization. In recent years, most of the State systems for financing elementary and secondary education have been called *foundation programs.*

While this designation has served to identify the total system of school support, it more accurately applies to the level of support which the legislature has determined as basic and essential for every child in the State. This State-defined level of basic educational support must be considered as a foundation only, and not as the total program that would be acceptable to any large number of school districts. This means that the foundation program must be financed in such a way as to enable local school authorities with the inclination and the ability to erect upon this foundation a superstructure of education which is locally expressive of their particular character, interest, and preferences.

Discussions of foundation programs in some areas have been confused through the use of the word *minimum,* and through references to *minimum foundation programs.* This should be avoided. Obviously, there is no minimum unless it is zero, and a zero level would not be acceptable to anyone as a basic level of educational support. Use of the word *minimum* here apparently is intended to emphasize that the program is the lowest that is acceptable to the legislature. But this is a part of the definition of the foundation program and consequently need not be included in the title. It appears preferable to designate the program as a foundation program and to define it for any State as the level of education which the legislature regards as basic and essential for every child that can participate. The expression "minimum foundation program" embodies an intent to make it extremely low, and that is certainly not the purpose of the legislatures.

In enacting a complete and comprehensive foundation program the legislature defines the level of support, provides for a standard or required contribution toward the support of the defined program that must be made by every local school district as a condition for participation. It then appropriates sufficient funds from State revenues to pay the portions of the local foundation programs which are not met by these required local contributions. This means that all districts of the State will then have sufficient funds, either from local or State revenues, to pay the full cost of the foundation level of educational service defined by the legislature.

Definitions of levels of educational support enacted by the legislatures have usually established a definite figure as the amount that must be available for elementary and secondary educational services. The foundation is fixed at a definite amount per pupil or per classroom. For instance, the State legislature may require that $250 per pupil or $6,000 per classroom be expended annually for public education. To this basic amount the legislature may authorize the addition of some well-defined allowances for other items not generally associated with classrooms, such as tuition payments to neighboring districts and approved expenditures for pupil transportation services. The total is then regarded as the State approved foundation program for the local school district. It is an amount that will permit the local board of education to provide all defined services at the level of support established by the legislature.

From this total for the local school district is then subtracted the amount of funds that should become available through local taxation at the rate prescribed by the legislature. Any State funds which have been allocated to the district as flat grant funds and which are applicable to the support of the foundation program are also deducted. The remainder represents the amount that will be required from the State as additional or equalization aid to enable the local board to support the local educational services at the level prescribed by the legislature.

In defining a foundation level, legislatures understand that it is basic only, and does not represent a recommended, nor even an adequate educational program. It is understood that the contributions required locally as a condition for participa-

tion will not exhaust local financial ability and that the local boards of education will have leeway to secure additional revenues locally for the purpose of exceeding the foundation level stated in the law. The extent to which local school services will exceed the foundation program level is a matter for local determination.

This kind of plan, with modifications, is now in use in most of the States. Typically, it can be illustrated by a few lines such as those shown in the accompanying chart which indicates the sources of revenues for supporting the schools. In the chart, school districts are considered as a scries of bar graphs of varying heights. One is shown at the left side. It represents the district having the lowest financial ability and another to the extreme right represents the district having the highest financial ability. All of the districts of any State may be assumed to range between these two extremes on the chart. Figures at various levels indicate the amounts of revenue per classroom. A similar chart might be presented indicating the amounts of revenue per pupil.

According to the State finance plan represented by this typical chart, all districts receive flat grant funds from the State, allocated in proportion to classroom units, pupils, or some other measure of educational load. Revenues designated by the space just above the $1,400 line are obtained from local taxes at the rate specified by the legislature as required for participation in the State finance plan. Since the taxable valuation is low in the less wealthy districts, the yield is small for districts to the left of the chart and is much more substantial for the financially strong districts to the right.

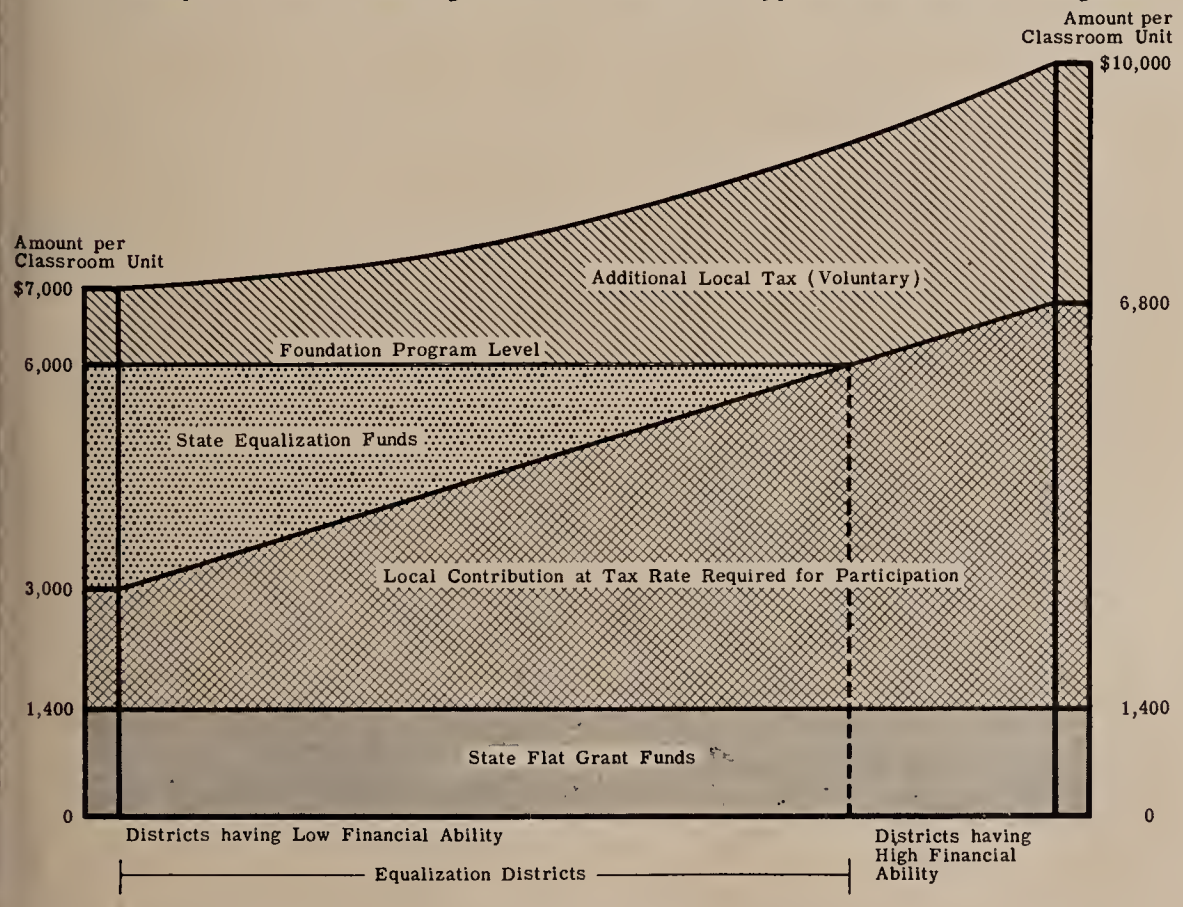
Above the sloping line stretching from $3,000 to $6,800 and representing total funds available from State flat grants and from local taxes at the standard rate, is an area which indicates a need for allocations from State equalization funds to enable districts to provide local programs of education at the $6,000 level defined as the foundation program in the chart. The less wealthy districts to the left receive relatively large proportions of their total revenues for schools from this allocation of equalization aid. The financially stronger districts receive less, and there may be some which receive no equalization funds at all, as indicated on the chart for those districts to the right of the intersection between the line representing the foundation program level and the line stretching from $3,000 to $6,800. Many believe that 70 to 80 percent of the districts of the State should receive this equalization aid, or that somewhat more than one-half the children of the State should benefit by the equalization allocations.

One essential feature of a satisfactory foundation program law is the assurance that local school districts have the possibility of levying taxes in excess of the standard requirement for participation. This possibility of levying additional local taxes for schools gives opportunity for local interest and initiative to determine the kind of educational program that is to be provided for children in the local school district. It is represented in the chart by the area above the foundation program level and is supported by revenues from any portion of the permissible local tax levy that is not absorbed by the standard requirement for participation. This area also represents the proceeds of local tax levies for current operation that may be voted by the electors, in excess of any limited amount available to the boards without a popular vote.

Another essential feature is that the foundation program for any State should be defined in such a way that it establishes a level program and one that does not discriminate against any school districts in the State. A nonlevel foundation would imply favoritism. Definitions which proportion the program to some base such as teachers' salaries will obviously be slanted toward the higher levels for the districts having greater financial ability, since these districts are able to employ the higher qualified and the higher salaried teachers. This is not a true foundation program since it proposes to establish various levels for the different school districts. If it is advisable in any State to allocate more funds to the districts having higher financial abilities, such can be accomplished under foundation program plans by increasing the flat grant funds allocated to all districts, rich and poor alike. This more direct method is preferable to the one which pretends to have a foundation level of education but actually defines a foundation that is higher for the wealthy districts.

All of the States are operating State school finance systems which embody and emphasize the partnership status between the State legislature and the local boards of education. These systems can be improved in most of the States through the adoption of more of the essential features of a modern foundation program plan and through a careful comparison between the chart presented here and similar charts representing the school revenue situations in the various States.

**Partnership Plan of Financing Education for the Typical Foundation Program**



# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

*Children and the City.* By Olga Adams. Sponsoring Organizations: South Side Planning Board; Michael Reese Hospital Planning Staff; Metropolitan Housing and Planning Council; Laboratory School: University of Chicago; Illinois Institute of Technology; American Society of Planning Officials. Chicago, Ill., 1952. 29 p. Illus. $1.00. (Published for the sponsors by Reginald R. Isaacs, Michael Reese Hospital, Printing Department, 29th and Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Ill.)

*The Children's Book Field.* (Writing, Illustrating, Producing, Editing Children's Books.) By Jean Poindexter Colby. New York, Pellegrini and Cudahy, 1952. 246 p. $3.50.

*Civil Defense Manual, Oregon Schools.* Prepared by the Oregon State Civil Defense Agency in Cooperation with the State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon, 1952. 48 p.

*A Curriculum for Citizenship.* A Total School Approach to Citizenship Education, by Arnold R. Meier, Florence Damon Cleary and Alice M. Davis. A Report of the Citizenship Education Study, Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University. Detroit, Wayne University Press, 1952. 413 p.

*Display for Learning; Making and Using Visual Materials.* Prepared by Majorie East, Edited by Edgar Dale. New York, The Dryden Press, 1952. 306 p. Illus. $3.00.

*Guiding Youth in Home Living in the Chicago Public Schools.* Prepared in the Department of Instruction and Guidance by Mary Mark Sturm and M. Ruth Krause. Chicago, Board of Education, 1952. 39 p. Illus. (Curriculum Brochure No. 3.)

*Health Education Materials.* Literature, Radio Scripts, Newspaper Articles, Posters, Periodicals, Exhibits, Films. Minneapolis, Minnesota Department of Health, University Campus, 1952. 31 p. Free.

*Looking Ahead to Teaching.* Prepared for the Division of Higher Education by the Bureau of Guidance. Albany, New York State Education Department, 1952. 32 p. Illus.

*The State Department of Education.* A Statement of Some Principles for its Legal Status, its Functions, and the Organization of its Service Areas, by The National Council of Chief State School Officers. Washington, D. C., 1952. 55 p. 30 cents single copy. (Order from National Council of Chief State School Officers, 1201 16th St. NW., Washington 6, D. C.)

(*Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.*)

# Selected Theses on Education

THESE THESES are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*An Analysis of Likes and Dislikes for History and Geography of 3,360 Sixth Grade Children.* By Grace R. Stacey, Edmund R. Corbett, and Others. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 68 p. ms.

*An Analysis of the Changes in the Social Adjustment of Mentally Retarded Children in Special Classes.* By Dorothy Sall. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 61 p. ms.

*Attitudes of Teachers Toward the New York State Regents Examinations in Science.* By David John Miller. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 65 p. ms.

*Causes for Absenteeism Among Children Enrolled in Austin Elementary School, 1949–50, Corpus Christi, Texas.* By Charles Blasingame. Master's, 1950. Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville, Texas. 65 p. ms.

*A Comparison of Personal Problems of Freshmen Women Majoring in Physical Education and Those Majoring in Music.* By Marie Jeanette Salvucci. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 39 p. ms.

*A Factor Analysis of Verbal and Non-Verbal Tests of Intelligence.* By Rev. James T. Curtin. Doctor's, 1951. Catholic University, Washington, D. C., Catholic University of America Press, 1952. 63 p. (Educational research monographs, no. 4.)

*A Job-Analysis and Follow-up Study of 1947, 1948, and 1949 Graduates of the Business Department of Gardner High School, Gardner, Massachusetts.* By Carolyn Ainsworth Thatcher. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 77 p. ms.

*London Education 1890–1910 with Special Reference to the Work of Sidney and Beatrice Webb.* By Ernest Stabler. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 311 p. ms.

*A Manual of Explanations, Helps, and Suggestions for Teachers of Grade Seven Arithmetic.* By Sister Mary Helen Lively. Master's, 1951. University of Cincinnati. 74 p. ms.

*Participation of Colleges and Universities in Programs of Internship Teaching.* By Clifford Leon Bishop. Master's, 1947. University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. 367 p. ms.

*Perception of Symbol Orientation and Early Reading Success.* By Muriel Catherine Potter. Doctor's, 1949. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. 69 p. (Contributions to education, no. 939)

*Relationships of Success in Beginning General Clerical Occupations to Achievement in the Informational and Skill Aspects of the General Office Clerical Division of the National Business Entrance Test Series.* By Herbert Alfred Hamilton. Doctor's, 1950. New York University. 276 p. ms.

*The Sociometric Technique with a Seventh Grade Class in Social Studies and English.* By Cleo Chapekis. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 55 p. ms.

*A Study of Gifted Freshmen at Syracuse University.* By Betty L. Breth. Doctor's, 1949. Syracuse University. 356 p. ms.



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**About Children in Grades Seven and Eight.** Prepared by Gertrude Lewis. Selected Rcferences No. 21, Revised July 1952. Free.

**Adult Education in Rural and Village Schools.** Adult Education References No. 8, September 1952. Free.

**Characteristics of Seventh and Eighth Grade Children and School Programs for Them.** Prepared by Gertrude M. Lewis. Education Briefs No. 18, December 1950. Free.

**Core Curriculum Development—Problems and Practices.** By Grace S. Wright. Bulletin 1952, No. 5. 30 cents.

**Education for Librarianship: The Current Pattern.** By Willard O. Mischoff. Reprint from **Higher Education,** September 15, 1952. Free.

**Evaluating Public School Adult Education.** Compiled by Homer Kempfer. Adult Education References No. 9, September 1952. Free.

**Federal Funds for Education 1950–51 and 1951–52.** By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. Bulletin 1952, No. 12. 30 cents.

**The Forward Look—The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School.** By Arthur S. Hill. Bulletin 1952, No. 11. 20 cents.

**How Children Learn To Read.** By Helen K. Mackintosh. Bulletin 1952, No. 7. 15 cents.

**How Children and Teacher Work Together.** By Elsa Schneider. Bulletin 1952, No. 14. 15 cents.

**List of Instructional Materials for the Supplementary Training of Apprentices and Other "On-the-Job" Trainees.** Misc. 3243, Revised September 1952. Free.

**Proposed Minimum Standards for State Approval of Teacher Preparing Institutions.** Circular No. 351, 1952. 20 cents.

**A Selected List of Literature on School Plants.** November 1, 1952. Free.

**A Selected List of References on Life Adjustment Education.** Revised October 1952. Free.

**Selected References on Pupil Transportation.** By E. Glenn Featherston. September 1952. Free.

**Statistics of Higher Education: Receipts, Expenditures, and Properly, 1949–50.** By Henry G. Badger and Maude Farr. Section II, Chapter 4 of Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50. 1952. 20 cents.

**Statistics of State School Systems, 1949–50.** By David T. Blose and William Jaracz. Chapter 2 of Biennial Survey of Education in the United States. 1948–50. 1952. 30 cents.

**Statistics of State School Systems, 1950–51: Preliminary Data for 24 States.** By William A. Jaracz. Statistical Circular No. 352, August 1952. Free.

**The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States.** By W. Edgar Martin. Bulletin 1952, No. 9. 20 cents.

**Trends in Adult Education.** Adult Education Ideas No. 16, October 1952. Free.

**A Tentative Course of Study for the Teaching of Spanish in Grades 3 to 8, Inclusive,** published by the State of Texas Department of Education in 1943, is available free upon request from the Division of International Education, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

## Federal Security Agency

**Importance of Nutrition to Good Health.** Public Health Service Publication 162, Health Information Series 31. 1952. 5 cents.

**Mental Health Motion Pictures—A Selective Guide.** Public Health Service Publication 218. 1952. 30 cents.

## Other Government Agencies

### *Department of Commerce*

**United States Department of Commerce Publications—A Catalog and Index.** Covers the years 1790 through 1950. $2.75.

### *Department of Defense*

**United States Army in World War II.** Pictorial record of the war against Japan. 1952. 471 p. Maps on front and back cover. Cloth, $3.50.

**Pocket Guide to French Morocco.** 1952. 25 cents.

### *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*

**World Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics.** 1951. $9.00 from the Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

### *Department of State*

**NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), Its Development and Significance.** Department of State Publication 4630, General Foreign Policy Series 75. 1952. 20 cents.

**Field Reporter.** This new bimonthly publication of the Department of State tells in words and pictures of United States foreign policy at the operating level. Annual subscription prices are $1.50 domestic, $2.00 foreign.

### *U. S. House of Representatives*

**Inaugural Addresses of the Presidents of the United States from George Washington 1789 to Harry S. Truman 1949.** Compiled by the Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress. House Document No. 540, 82d Congress, 2d Session. 1952. 75 cents.

**The Shameful Years—Thirty Years of Soviet Espionage in the United States.** Prepared by the Committee on Un-American Activities, U. S. House of Representatives. House Report No. 1229, 82d Congress, 2d Session. December 30, 1951. 20 cents.

### *Commission on the Renovation of the Executive Mansion*

**The White House.** The story of the White House and its famous decorated rooms. A report of the Commission on the Renovation of the Executive Mansion. Many illustrations, ten in full color. 1952. Cloth, $2.50.

# RESOLUTION

## DEFEND OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS AGAINST SUBVERSIVE ATTACKS

***Whereas,*** the strength of our Nation depends on an enlightened citizenry; and

***Whereas,*** the public schools developed by the initiative, sacrifice, energy, vision, and constant vigilance of local communities in every State of the Nation have succeeded in developing a level of education unequaled by any other Nation; and

***Whereas,*** thousands of teachers have dedicated themselves to the cause of the education of the youth of all people and have served our Nation in developing the American way of life which has safeguarded the liberties provided in our Constitution; and

***Whereas,*** in recent years insidious forces, both communist and reactionary, have sought to create in the minds of parents, taxpayers, and citizens general doubt and confusion concerning the integrity and effectiveness of our public schools by raising false issues and by sinister criticism and attacks upon teachers, administrators, and local Board of Education; and

***Whereas,*** the ultimate objective of these attacks is the deterioration of our schools and the subversion of our American way of life;

***Therefore be it resolved,*** by The American Legion in convention assembled in New York, August 25, 26, 27, 28, 1952, as follows:

1. That the American Legion take pride in the achievement of our public schools and recognize their importance and effective work in building and safeguarding the ideals of American citizens.

2. That we condemn the authors of subversive attacks upon the public schools, whether they be diffident individuals or groups in the local communities, or inspired by evil forces, financed, directed, and operated by agents of subversion against our Nation and against the American way of life.

3. That we call upon every member of the American Legion to be on the alert in his community to know the schools and to recognize these attacks when they occur, and to stand ready to support and defend against all enemies.

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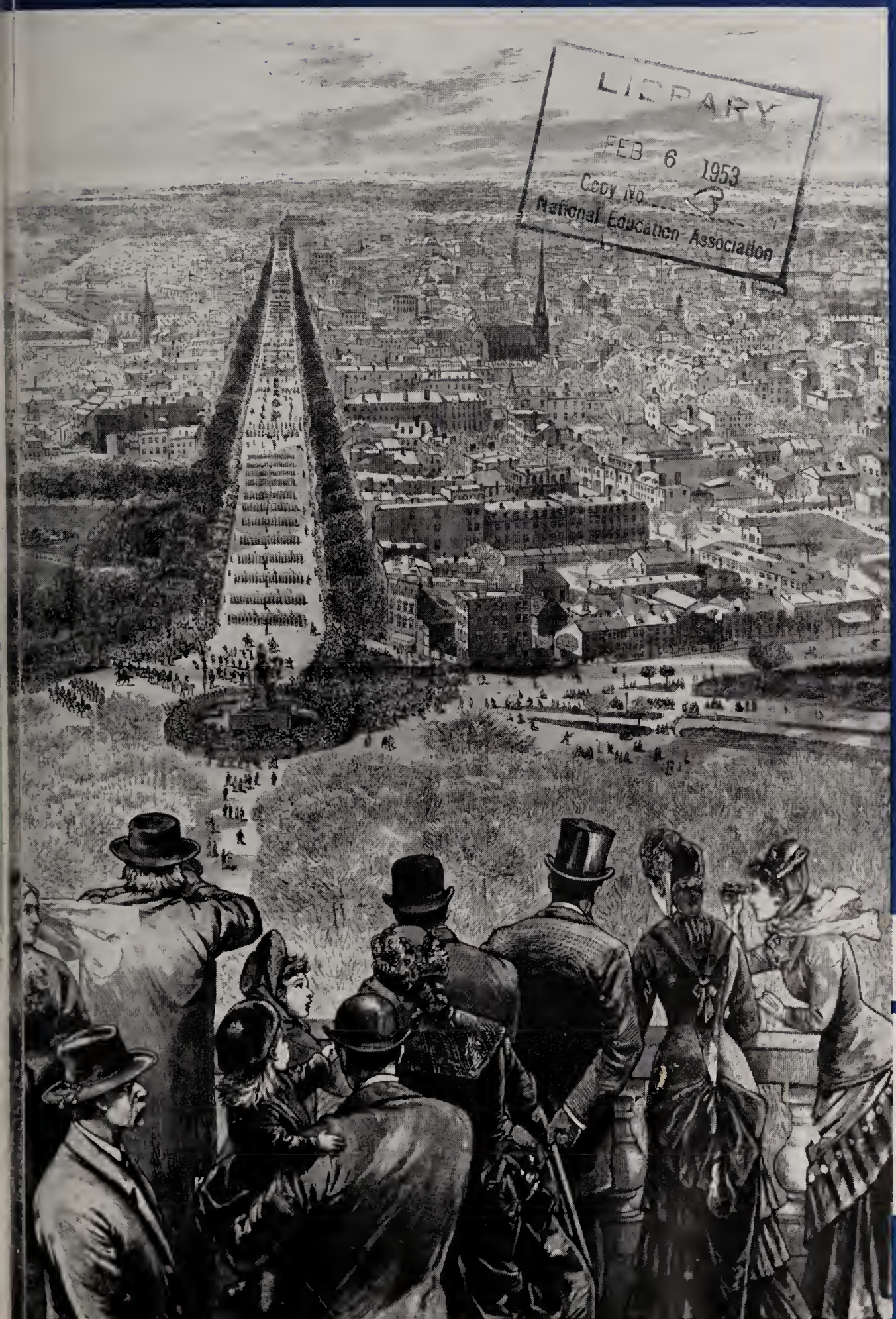
# School Life





◄ Early Inaugural Parade



FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# ENERGIZING PEOPLE

by Howard G. Spalding*

RECENTLY I HAD an interesting conversation with the national sales manager of a large corporation. In it he made one remark which has significance for those of us who administer high schools. "My job," he said, "is that of energizing people."

So it is with us. Our job is that of energizing those with whom we work and directing their efforts so that they will render the best service to young people of which they are capable. The larger the group with which we work the more important and difficult this aspect of our work becomes.

Everything that we do has some degree of priority on our schedule of activities. Often the priority is determined by the urgency of the demand made upon us rather than by its true importance. We need to realize more clearly than we do that "energizing people" is entitled to a very high priority in our plans.

From what sources do professional people get the driving force which causes them to do their best work? Primarily from belief in the value of the work they are doing and from pride in doing it well.

We must, therefore, continually seek to strengthen the belief of those with whom we work in the importance of secondary education by showing them the differences that their work makes in the lives of young people.

We must try to broaden their social vision and show them how our young people, using the abilities that we have helped them to develop, are providing service and leadership in our nation and throughout the world.

In a time when success is too often measured by material standards we must help them to strengthen their conviction that the success of a professional person should be judged by what he gives, not by what he receives.

Jean Paul Richter has written of the "regal exaltation with which men devote themselves to a cause when they believe in it." Our job, at a time when the morale of school people is under attack on many fronts, is to provide the inspiration which will generate a devotion to the tasks of education in all of those with whom we work. This is the most important part of our important job, for if that is accomplished, all other results we seek will inevitably follow.

*Mr. Spalding wrote this statement originally for those who are responsible for organization and supervision in large high schools. The information should be of interest to those in other fields of educational endeavor. Mr. Spalding is Principal of the A. B. Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y. His column, "Across the Principal's Desk" in SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINE is widely read.

School ★ Life

Official Journal of the Office of Education
• • • Federal Security Agency

## CONTENTS for January 1953

Volume 35 Number 4

Cover photograph: Appropriate to this Presidential inauguration month is this cover photograph of an earlier Presidential inauguration parade. The view is from the Capitol as the line of march proceeds east down Pennsylvania Avenue and around Peace Monument. The President inaugurated on that occasion was James Abram Garfield—the year, 1881.—Library of Congress photograph.



Published each month of the school year, October through June.

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Address all SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the Director, Reports and Publications Branch, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C.



THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, and in Education Index - - - - - - - (Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents)

# SCHOOL BUILDING NEEDS in the United States

"ADDITIONAL floor space equal to a one-story building, 52 feet wide, extending from New York City to San Francisco. Calif., is needed adequately to house the Nation's public elementary and secondary school population," Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education of the Federal Security Agency, recently said.

Commissioner McGrath made this statement as he revealed results of a Nation-wide survey of school building needs and the States' abilities to provide them. At the request of the U. S. Congress this survey was conducted by the U. S. Office of Education.

"Every parent and citizen should get a graphic picture of the school building shortage," the Commissioner of Education said. For example, this study by the Federal Government and the States indicates a need now for about 708 million additional square feet of school building space for more than 9¼ million pupils in public elementary and secondary schools.

"This additional schoolhousing need, which does not provide for increased enrollment next year and succeeding years, and does not take into account future classroom replacements, approximates the total residential housing space in a city the size of Philadelphia, Pa.

"According to this survey," the Commissioner of Education pointed out, "more than 325,000 instruction rooms and related facilities are currently needed this year to relieve overcrowding and to replace obsolete facilities. The estimated cost is 10,7 billion dollars. Since only 5.8 billion dollars could be provided by the States and local school districts under current laws and methods for voting bond issues or raising funds through assessments on property, a deficit of 4.9 billion dollars stands in the way of providing adequate and safe school facilities for every boy and girl in our public schools.

"We know that public elementary and secondary school enrollment will reach new high peaks in the years immediately ahead. The schoolhousing shortage will become more critical year by year. This Nation-wide survey definitely alerts us all to the fact that financing practices will have to be improved and new and substantial resources for public school construction will have to be tapped if deficit dollars are to be raised to cancel out the 'deficit education' created by educationally unsatisfactory and unsafe structures.

"To relieve present overcrowding alone," Commissioner McGrath said, "155,000 additional classrooms are required today. To replace obsolete facilities another 170,000 should be provided. There is a question mark as to fire safety conditions in school buildings housing approximately one-third of the Nations public elementary and secondary school children. About 18 percent of the pupils are attending classes in schoolhouses *not* meeting fire safety conditions. Fifteen percent are going to schools which may or may not possibly be acceptable as to fire safety.

"The relative ability of States to finance needed school construction varies greatly according to the survey," the Commissioner of Education said. "Three States have total income payments of less than $4,000 per pupil enrolled. Three other States showed total income payments of more than $13,000 for each enrolled child. To provide schoolhousing currently needed, one State would have to invest 11.3 percent of its total income payments for 1 year in additional school construction. Another State on the other hand would have to divert only 2.7 percent of its total income payments for one year into school construction to provide adequate facilities."

The School Facilities Survey reporting these and other findings released by the Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency, was authorized by the 81st Congress under Public Law 815. Coordinator of survey findings at the Federal level is Ray L. Hamon, Chief, School Housing Section.

Forty-six States and territories are now participating in this

national survey which is bringing together for the first time on a Nation-wide basis information which can be used for current and long-range school building planning and construction programs. Detailed data from 37 States and territories are reported in the Second Progress Report of the School Facilities Survey.

In addition to State-by-State tables showing the cost of remodeling present schoolhouses and constructing new ones, the survey report released by the U. S. Office of Education presents other facts and figures on the Nation's school plant problem.

The Second Progress Report is illustrated with bar graphs.

Current school building design stresses functional use, comfort, safety, and adaptability. The combined skills of educational planning specialists, architects, and building engineers are required to plan, design, and maintain school plants that will provide for the child maximum protection of life and health and give the most effective educational service in return for the taxpayer's money.

# Other Points Developed in the Survey

Although school construction costs have risen substantially during recent years, the increase in the cost per classroom has not equalled the increases in other costs that make up the total cost of education.

Not until 1950, when capital outlay was 17 percent of total expenditures, did the proportion spent for school construction approach the percentages of the 1920's.

★ ★ ★

A major factor in creating school plant needs is an increase in enrollments . . . These data presage a public-school enrollment of more than 31 million in 1956 and 32 million in 1958.

★ ★ ★

In recent years increasing numbers of pupils have remained in school through the secondary grades, making it necessary to provide additional facilities and to enrich existing courses and add new ones to care for their needs . . . In addition . . . several States formerly having an eleven-grade public-school system have added the twelfth year . . . Both upward and downward extensions of the public school program have created, and will continue to create, new school plant requirements.

★ ★ ★

It was not until 1950 that the annual rate of expenditures for school construction reached the average for the 1920's. By 1950 it was estimated that the national backlog of need was more than 250,000 classrooms.

The differences between high and low valuations per pupil in the local districts of a State are often in the ratio of several hundred to one. This means that some districts will be able to provide several hundred times as much money per pupil as other districts.

★ ★ ★

The total land needed for school sites in 37 States reporting was 109,643 acres, of which 70,477 acres were for new sites and 39,166 acres were for the enlargement of existing sites.

★ ★ ★

In districts enrolling fewer than 1,000 pupils, the average capital outlay need per pupil enrolled was $434 and the deficit was $220, or 51 percent of the need for each pupil enrolled.

★ ★ ★

The growing interest in the upward extension of the public school indicates that the space needs for post-high-school community education will be a factor of growing importance in any consideration of schoolhousing during the present decade.

★ ★ ★

As teaching methods changed to provide greater pupil participation—more learning by doing—there came a definite need for schoolroom and plant facilities to house the improved programs. Local requirements for floor areas per pupil in classrooms have about doubled during the past 20 years.

★ ★ ★

The reorganization of school districts has led to the abandonment of many uneconomical elementary and secondary schools . . . A decrease of nearly 130,000 one-teacher schools from 1919 to 1950 and an increase in the number of pupils transported have, in part, been the result of the reorganization movement. Reorganization of school districts and the tendency to reduce the number of small-school centers have made, and will continue to make, a definite impact on the total school plant needs of the Nation . . . The most drastic reductions in the number of school districts were: Illinois from 11,955 to 3,658 in 6 years; and Missouri from 8,327 to 4,838 in 3 years. In 1951 the number of school districts per State varied from 17 in Delaware and 24 in Maryland to 6,769 in Nebraska and 6,479 in Minnesota.

★ ★ ★

In districts enrolling 25,000 or more pupils, the average capital outlay need per pupil enrolled was $408 and the deficit was $115, or 28 percent of the need for each pupil enrolled.

★ ★ ★

35 of the 37 States reporting did not have sufficient local resources under existing laws to meet their current capital outlay needs . . . Thousands of local school districts will be unable to finance urgently needed school construction without outside assistance.

# 2 BIG JOBS— Better Health and Basic Education

By Simon A. McNeely and Howard H. Cummings*

REJECTION rates of Selective Service preinduction examinations since Korea reveal persistent inadequacies in health and education among America's young men. In the United States and Territories almost four of every 10 men examined have been declared unfit for military service. In the State having the highest percentage of rejections 6 of every 10 men examined were rejected because of physical, psychological, mental, or educational reasons. Even in the State with the best showing, 2 of every 10 men examined were not considered to be sufficiently healthy or literate to serve in the Armed Forces.

The challenge of these findings to our schools was pointed up to by U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath in the December 1952 issue of School Life. In his article, Commissioner McGrath presented data on Selective Service examinations State by State and called upon educators to work with other agencies and citizens in improving the health and education of our people. "All educators . . . will, I am convinced, exert their best efforts to correct these deficiencies in the knowledge that good health and basic education are necessary for the full realization of the potential of individuals and the highest possible standard of living in our society in peace and war," said Commissioner McGrath.

How do educators go about meeting this challenge? First, by recognizing that procedures for upgrading health and education require cooperation of many individuals and groups within the community. Secondly, by realizing that Selective Service statistics reflect general conditions of health and education. Efforts to utilize and expand present resources and to do now what is known to be right and important will help raise the level of general health and literacy—of which draft rejection rates are but a symptom.

Here are some suggestions. Many communities are working hard at some of these tasks. Almost every community will want to continue to improve.

## Work for Better Health

***Cooperate with other local and State agencies and organizations in studying community health problems, organizing and developing health resources, and determining priorities for health improvement.*** ***(See Reference No. 11 listed below.)*** ***Suggested priorities for local consideration include:***

*Provision* of significant experiences for *learning* to live healthfully in home, school, and community.

*Development* of better screening techniques for detecting children needing medical attention.

*Development* of local resources for diagnosis and treatment.

*Orientation* of parents and of school and health personnel in modern concepts of mental health.

*Reduction* of incidence of dental caries.

*Detection*, diagnosis, and treatment of children with impaired hearing.

*Detection*, diagnosis, and treatment of children with defective vision.

*Detection*, diagnosis, and treatment of children with epilepsy.

*Recognition* of the special health problems of the community.

*Provision* and maintenance of adequate facilities to assure safe drinking water in schools.

*Extension* of nutritionally adequate and palatable school lunches which meet recommended sanitary standards.

*Provision* and maintenance of sufficient sanitary and convenient toilet facilities in schools.

*Elimination* of environmental hazards and observance of safety precautions to prevent accidents.

*Specialist for Health Iostructioo, Physical Education and Athletics, and Specialist for Social Sciences and Geography, respectively, of the Division of State and Local School Systems.

***"The Army's position in regard to the utilizatiou of tests for physical fitness as published by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, is that it welcomes with enthusiasm the cooperation of this organization in helping to prepare students for military service. . . ."***

***C. D. Eddleman, Major General, GSC, Deputy ACofS, G–3.***

***"The Department of the Navy will acquaint Commanding Officers of activities in the United States which conduct Physical Fitness Training, with the achievement standards. The Commanding Officer of those activities in the United States which conduct physical fitness traiuing will continue to cooperate with interested local school officials, who may desire and request their assistance, to the exteut local conditious, facilities, and continuing military duties permit."***

***W. G. Chapple, CAPT. USN.***

***"The physical fitness achievement standards established for the AAHPER by the Department of Defeuse members of the Association's Defeuse Mobilizatiou Committee will be circularized to all United States Air Force bases through major field commanders. Commanders will be urged to respond to the iuitiative of local school authorities in any mauner commensurate with their respective missious."***

***Thomas W. Harris, Colonel, USAFR,***
***Chief, Techuical Trainiug Div., Directorate of Training.***

*Provision* for suitable education of children with physical handicaps.

***Extend and improve programs of physical education and school-community recreation. (Reference No. 12.)***

*Provide* facilities, personnel, and time for instruction of all children and youth in a varied developmental program of games, stunts, rhythms, and other activities.

Help young people:

To develop physical efficiency—good functional health and vitality, strength, stamina, agility, coordination, a sense of balance, ability to react quickly.

To acquire useful skills—for safety, efficiency, and enjoyment.

To act in socially useful ways—through sportsmanship, good group membership, and self-responsibility.

To seek and enjoy wholesome recreation.

*Cooperate* with parents, physicians, and other community agencies in providing facilities and services for correction of postural and orthopedic defects, development of good body mechanics, and adaptation of physical education programs for children and youth who are handicapped, devitalized, or temporarily below par.

*Provide* opportunity, on appropriate levels of maturity and physical condition, for additional participation in voluntary recreation, clubs, intramural sports, play days, sports days, and interschool athletics.

*Work* with others in the community to provide or improvise facilities so that as many children as possible can learn to swim well.

*Extend* opportunities for children and youth to have the valuable experiences provided through outdoor education and school camping.

***Give particular attention to the physical fitness of youth of high school graduation age and those nearing 16 years of age who are likely to "drop out" of school. (Reference No. 13.)***

Help boys nearing the age of induction into the Armed Forces to prepare themselves for the rigors of military life.

Keep these youth particularly in mind in expanding services and opportunities referred to in previous recommendations.

Use all teaching opportunities to motivate youth to become physically fit. Wherever appropriate, use the *Physical Fitness Achievement Standards for Boys of High School Graduation Age.* These standards are offered to assist in the encouragement of physical fitness among youth of high school age by serving as a guide to American youth, teachers, school officials and leaders of physical education and recreation.

The standards were developed cooperatively by educational leaders and members of the Armed Forces and were endorsed at the National Conference for Mobilization of Health Education, Physical Education and Recreation held in Washington, D. C., March 1951. Reference No. 13 describes the purposes, use and administration of the achievement standards.

These Physical Fitness Achievement Standards should be distinguished from the physical (medical) standards of the Armed Forces. The former (achievement standards) are solely for the purpose mentioned above; they have no bearing upon a person's acceptance or nonacceptance for enlistment or induction into the Armed Forces.

The Army, Navy and Air Force encourage the efforts of school personnel to help young persons achieve the strength, stamina, agility and physical well-being demanded in such high degree of the men who defend our national interests. Excerpts of letters on this subject addressed to the Director, Military Personnel Policy Division, Office of Secretary of Defense, by responsible officers of the service branches are quoted in this article.

*(Continued on page 63)*

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11. **Better Health for School Age Children.** Washington, D. C., Office of Education, Children's Bureau, Public Health Service. Free.

### AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION
*(1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.)*

12. **Physical Education—An Interpretation for Superintendents, Supervisors, Directors of Physical Education, Teachers, Parents, and Others.** Washington, D. C. 50 cents. Discount on quantity orders.
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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education
Washington 25, D. C.

December 1, 1952.

To All Applicants Under P. L. 874 and Title II, P. L. 815:

A large number of applicant school districts, local and State school officials, and others have requested information as to the exact status of P. L. 874 and P. L. 815 and of the appropriations available during the current fiscal year for these programs. In order to administer their school programs in the most efficient manner many school officials have asked to be informed at the earliest possible time within the budget year as to the amount of their entitlements under P. L. 874 that can be met from available appropriations, and when they may anticipate receiving payments under the act. Likewise, applicant districts are much interested in knowing at the earliest possible time whether or not they will receive allotments for construction of facilities under P. L. 815. Accordingly this statement sets forth the status of these two laws and of the appropriations available to carry them out.

Public Law 874:

A total of $51,070,000 was appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1952. It is expected that this amount will permit payment of 100 percent of the estimated entitlements of all eligible applicants for that year. Payments of 100 percent of the entitlements are now being processed as rapidly as possible and it is expected that all payments for the 1952 fiscal year will be completed by January 1, 1953.

A total of $40,000,000 has been appropriated and is available for P. L. 874 for the year ending June 30, 1953. The estimated entitlements for the year are now about $63,000,000. Subsection 5 (c) of the act requires that when the funds available are insufficient to pay in full the entitlements for any given year the available funds shall be prorated among the eligible applicants. Therefore, it is necessary to prorate payments for the current fiscal year to approximately 60 percent of the amount to which each eligible district is entitled.

Subsection 5 (b) of the act requires that the Commissioner shall certify to the Secretary of the Treasury for payment the amounts due each applicant for each quarter of the fiscal year. The first payment for the 1953 fiscal year will be the amount due each applicant covering the first three quarters of the year prorated on the basis of 60 percent of the estimated entitlements. Payments will be made on this basis as rapidly as applications can be processed after receipt in the Washington office. Payments for the final quarter of the remaining amount prorated as necessary will be made for all districts as soon after the end of the year as the exact amount of entitlements can be determined.

The 1952-53 school year is the third year P. L. 874 has been in operation. This law ends June 30, 1954, and allotments cannot be made for any school year subsequent to that date under the present provisions of the act.

Public Law 815:

This act was intended to pick up the backlog of school construction created from 1939 to July 1, 1950, by Federal activities. The law set two years from the date of passage in which school districts could make application for assistance, three years in which appropriations could be obtained, and four years in which to complete construction. June 30, 1952, was the last date for submitting applications. Therefore all computations of entitlements are made as of the school year of application, such year ending June 30, 1951, or June 30, 1952.

A total of $146,500,000 was appropriated for this program for the 1951 and 1952 fiscal years. For the 1953 fiscal year $195,000,000 was appropriated, making a total appropriated to date of $341,500,000. Although this total amount is approximately $100,000,000 less than the amount required to cover the entitlements for construction and reimbursement projects of all eligible applicants under the law, it is believed to be sufficient to permit approval of construction projects needed to provide minimum facilities for 91 percent of the unhoused children in each eligible district, considering enrollments in September 1952 in determining the number of unhoused children for priority purposes based on urgency of need. It is not possible under the provisions of the act to revise or adjust entitlements on the basis of increased enrollments occurring since June 30, 1952.

Construction projects are being processed as rapidly as necessary field reports and engineering reports are received. It is expected that all funds presently appropriated will be reserved by January 1, 1953.

It is hoped that this explanation will answer many of the questions that have arisen regarding these programs and that school officials will understand what is possible of accomplishment under the existing laws and appropriations.

Sincerely yours,

Earl J. McGrath

U. S. Commissioner of Education

# Office of Education Films and Film Services, 1953

by Seerley Reid, Chief, Visual Education Service, Division of State and Local School Systems

To you, as school administrators, and to your directors of audio-visual education, are the following services worth while: The systematic cataloging of U. S. Government films—motion pictures and filmstrips? Release of such films for your use? Publication of a State-by-State and city-by-city list of film libraries?

These are some of the services of the U. S. Office of Education Visual Education Service. Are *you* using them?

### Cataloging U. S. Government Films

Probably the most important development in audio-visual education during 1952 was the decision of the Library of Congress to publish 3″ x 5″ catalog cards for motion pictures and filmstrips. Just as such cards have for years been indispensable for books, so they are becoming indispensable for films—as an authentic source of information, a source continuously kept up-to-date with the information about films indexed and cross-indexed for all your needs, and a source available to everyone!

On the next page is a sample card for a motion picture. Note the information it gives: Title of the film, producer, date of production, releasing agent, date of public release, running time, series title, order number, content summary, and *most important* that this card should be filed not only under its title but also under "optics," "lenses," and "optical instruments."

The USOE Visual Education Service worked closely with the Library of Congress in formulating rules for cataloging films and, through a cooperative agreement with the Library and in accordance with Bureau of the Budget Circular A–21, prepares catalog copy for the motion pictures, filmstrips, and sets of slides of all agencies of the Federal Government. To date, such copy has been prepared for 3,000 such films—2,165 motion pictures and 835 filmstrips of 22 different agencies.

Are you subscribing for the film catalog cards of the Library of Congress? If not, write for information to the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

### Release and Sale of U. S. Government Films

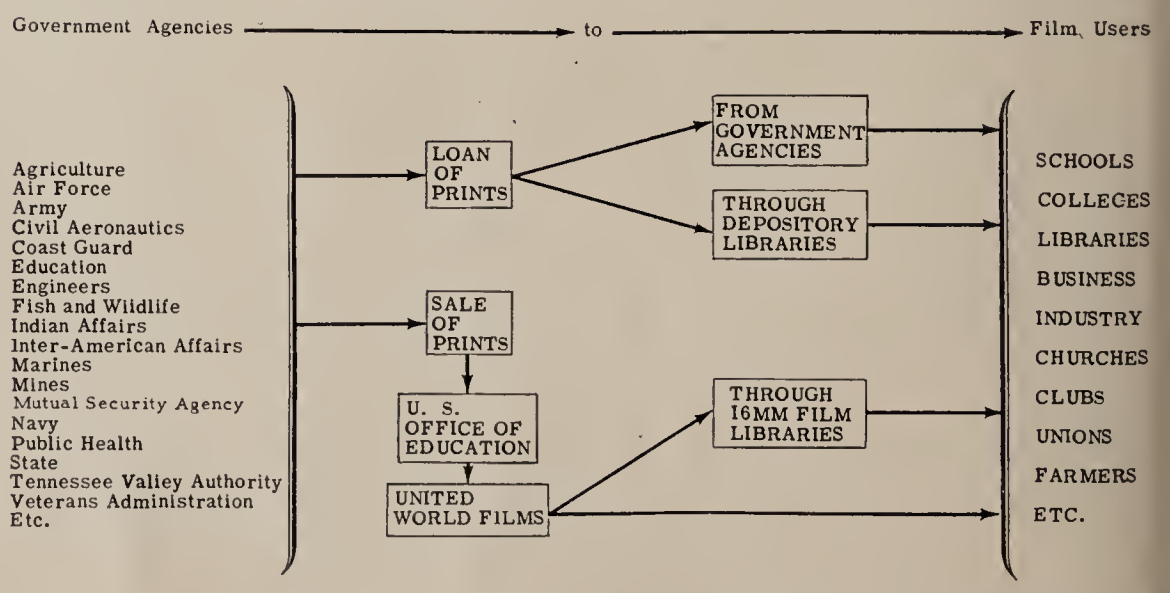
Many, perhaps most, U. S. Government films are not produced for public educational use in this country. They are made for specialized use incident to programs of various agencies which have been authorized by Congress and for which funds have been appropriated by Congress. For example, Army and Navy training films are produced for use by military personnel, films of the Department of Agriculture for use by county agents, films of the Department of State for use overseas in the "Voice of America" programs. Yet many of these films—such as "Basic Typing Methods" or "Principles of Frequency Modulation" or "Hoover Dam" can be used in U. S. schools and colleges. Agencies producing such films cannot distribute them for public educational use in this country; they do not have such authority or responsibility. The Office of Education does.

Therefore, as a service to the agencies with such films, *and* as a service to schools and other educational film users, the Office of Education acts as an intermediary—as a releasing agent—and places the films on sale through a Government contract, currently held by United World Films, Inc., New York. Up to the present time, more than 1,000 films not otherwise available for public educational use in the United States have been released through the USOE Visual Education Service.

The USOE Visual Education Service also administers the contract with United World Films. This contract is awarded annually, upon a competitive bid basis, by the General Services Administration, and covers the sale of all Government films. The GSA has for several years delegated the authority to administer this contract to the Federal Security Agency, thence to the Office of Education, which, through the Visual Education Service, enforces all provisions of this contract and serves as the contact point between the Government and United World Films. Some 2,600 films of 21 different agencies are now being handled under this contract.

The diagram below explains visually the methods used by Government agencies in the distribution of their films and the place of the Office of Education in this process. Some Government agencies distribute their films directly to film users; others deposit prints in film libraries. These libraries handle their distribution to users. Some agencies release their films to the Office of Education which places them on sale through United World Films. The latter sells prints directly to film users or to film libraries. These, in turn, lend or rent prints to film users. This is, of course,

**The Distribution of U. S. Government Films**



an overly simplified explanation—some Government agencies use all methods—but it may help explain the distribution of Government films.

Are you receiving information about the release of U. S. Government films? If not, write to the Visual Education Service, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C., or to United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Introduction to optics (*Motion picture*) U. S. Dept. of the Navy with the cooperation of U. S. Office of Education, 1945. Produced by Bray Studios. Released for public educational use through U. S. Office of Education, 1946. 17 min., sd., b&w, 16 mm. (Optical craftsmanship series) Order no. MN 2449–a.

*Summary:* Uses animation and practical examples to illustrate the principles of light waves and rays; to show how light is refracted and reflected, and to explain image formation in relation to concave and convex lenses. Studies these principles as applied to optical instruments.

——— Another issue. 35 mm.

1. Optics. 2. Lenses. 3. Optical instruments. I. U. S. Navy Dept. II. U. S. Office of Education. (Series)

681.4 Fi E 52–1122

U. S. Office of Education. for Library of Congress Visual Education Service (10)

## Directory of Film Libraries

In 1948, as a service to schools and colleges and other users of educational films, the Office of Education Visual Education Service compiled and published *A Partial List of 16 mm Film Libraries*. There were 576 film libraries listed in this directory. A year later, in 1949, the Visual Education Service revised the list and published *A Directory of 897 16 mm Film Libraries*. Then in 1951 a third edition was published entitled definitively *A Directory of 2002 16 mm Film Libraries*. This guide not only listed such libraries but also described briefly the resources and services of each individual film library. The value of this directory was described by the *Saturday Review* as "the most complete and useful listing of 16 mm film libraries ever published."

A revision, for 1953 publication, is now being prepared in order to correct inevitable changes in names and addresses and also to locate and include those film libraries which, for one reason or another, were not included in the "2002" directory. In this process, the Visual Education Service of the Office of Education is cooperating with the American Library Association, Association of Chief State School Audio-Visual Officers, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (NEA), Educational Film Library Association, and the National Audio-Visual Association.

Publication of the 1953 directory of 16 mm film libraries is scheduled for April 1953 and, as formerly, copies will be available by purchase from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office.

If you wish your film library included in this directory, write immediatcly to the Visual Education Service, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C

## Other Services

These are a few of the activities and services of the Office of Education Visual Education Service—probably the most important at the present time. Other services are indicated, to some extent, by the publications listed below.

In choosing its activities and services, the USOE Visual Education Service, as part of the Federal Government, concentrates its attention upon performing services (1) which it is uniquely qualified to render, such as the cataloging of Government films; (2) which are national in character, such as the compilation of directories of film libraries; and (3) which are not being performed by other educational institutions or professional organizations.

It should be pointed out also that the Visual Education Service limits the scope of its activities, not only because of personnel limitations, but also because it is believed that most questions about educational films and other visual materials can best be answered and should be answered by local agencies—the audio-visual directors in State, county, and city school systems, in colleges and universities, in public libraries, in professional organizations. Last month for example, this inquiry came in: "What films should I use in my high school science class? Please send me a bibliography." Needless to say, no films were recommended. Instead, the teacher was referred to his own State department of education which has an excellent audio-visual service, to his State university which maintains a film library, and in this case to the audio-visual director in his own school system.

## Current Publications of the Office of Education Visual Education Service

Directory of 2002 16mm Film Libraries

*State and city list of institutions and organizations that lend or rent 16mm films. Annotated. (1951) GPO; 30 cents*

General Catalogs of Educational Films

*Descriptive bibliography of 9 general catalogs of educational motion pictures and filmstrips. (1952) OE; free*

How to Obtain U. S. Government Films, 1952

*Summary table of how to borrow, rent and purchase the motion pictures and filmstrips of 21 different agencies. (1952) OE; free*

Motion Pictures on the Other American Republics

*Catalog of 104 films of the United States Government and the Pan American Union. (1950) GPO; 15 cents*

Movie Projectors in Public High Schools

*Results of a 1949 survey of 16mm sound projectors in public high schools. Illustrated. (1950) GPO; 15 cents*

3434 U. S. Government Films

*Descriptive catalog of all U. S. Government motion pictures, filmstrips, and sets of slides available for public use in the United States. Contains specific instructions for borrowing, renting, and purchasing each film. (1951) GPO; 70 cents*

U. S. Government Films for Television

*Catalog of 528 U. S. Government motion pictures which have been cleared for television. (1952) OE; free*

# Pablo Is a Migrant


JANUARY 7, 1953.

DEAR READER: *Letters sometimes get ideas over better than long drawn-out articles. We hope you will be interested in the exchange of letters between Pablo Luis Sender and the Office of Education Committee* on Migrants.*

*Sincerely yours,*

THE COMMITTEE.

## Here's Pablo's first letter:

JULY 6, 1952.

DEAR SIRS: *I'm a migrant. I'm about seventeen and we move in three or four states each year to pick cotton, fruit, and vegetables. I went to school some and learned to read and write. It's hard here finding a good place to sit down to write this letter, but I've done a lot of thinking and since some of the other fellows probably weren't lucky like me to learn to write I decided to do it. What brought this up was I heard from one of the school supervisors here that you had been holding some meetings about how to help educate migrant children. Well, maybe I'm a little old to go to elementary school but I have two kid brothers and two sisters and they should be in school more. Trouble is when we move from place to place either the school isn't open or else sometimes we don't feel very welcome.*

*Another thing to tell the truth some of the others have parents who don't bother much to get them into school. Mine did.*

*Well there are a lot of troubles I could write more about. What I wanted to mention this time, like I said to the school supervisor, is why don't you tell more people about what you decided at the meetings. There is sure a lot of need to help us. Let me know what you decide to do about my letter.*

*Sincerely,*

PABLO LUIS SENDER.

* * * * *

JULY 14, 1952.

*Dear Pablo: Thank you for your letter. We agree with you that it is important to work on the problems connected with helping all children of migrant workers get a good education. And we did hold four conferences across the Nation this spring. We talked over the problems with State Departments of Education and others. We intend to write a summary of the highlights of those conferences to send to all the persons who were there. And if you are interested we will be glad to send you a report, too.*

*In the meantime, we wonder if you would be willing to write to us again. Tell us about the other problems your brothers and sisters have in trying to get good schooling. We certainly appreciate your help.*

*Sincerely yours,*

THE COMMITTEE.

* * * * *

AUGUST 1, 1952.

DEAR SIRS: *Well your letter was a surprise. It's just about the first time I've been asked to help out on something really important. So I've talked around with some of the others all the way from the mothers and fathers and children to our crew leader. And they gave me some good ideas to put with my own. I've made a list of them—*

1. *We move too soon to get settled in a school.*
2. *As I said before, some parents would rather have their children work than go to school.*
3. *Sometimes school isn't very interesting to stay in all day long.*
4. *If you feel sick or hungry it's not fun to go to school—or do anything.*
5. *In school the rooms are crowded and everyone gets in everyone's way.*
6. *It's not easy to talk to teachers if you don't know English very well.*
7. *To go to school you need better clothes and other things that cost money.*
8. *The teachers have trouble finding out what we know and where we have been to school. (My sister, Maria, had a card from one school but she lost it already.)*
9. *It's hard to catch on to what they are talking about in school when you are new.*

*In the Elementary Schools Section of the Division of State and Local School Systems there are several persons who devote considerable time to the problem of improving educational opportunities for migrant children. "The Committee" refers to this group. Don S. Patterson is chairman of the Committee.

*10. Along that line we don't ever have any books or anything from school to take along with us.*

*11. Usually Maria (that's my sister again) has to stay home lots of days to take care of Sam. He's only two. Other kids do the same thing while their parents work.*

*12. There's a law about going to school instead of working during school hours if you're under 16. We get mixed up on that.*

*13. The places we have to live in make you want to move in a hurry sometimes.*

*14. Not much to do that's fun during evenings.*

*15. Maybe you're not interested in big people but my own dad said he wished people his age had a chance to learn things.*

*Well, that's quite a list. Since you have been talking about migrants at your meetings I guess you have thought of most of them.*

*Maybe I could have helped more by telling some of the things some of the kids liked about school once in a while. It isn't all bad. But this is enough for now.*

*And yes I do want a copy of your report if it isn't too much trouble.*

*Your friend,*

PABLO.

* * * * * *

DEAR PABLO: *Thank you for your very interesting letter. Your list of problems really hits just about the same ones we discussed at our Regional Conferences. There were just a few additional ones and they are mentioned in the Report* which we have now completed. Since the Report is over 50 pages long it's more than you probably want to read. So we are sending you a summary of the main points about who attended the conference and what they said about solving the problems which you listed in your letter.*

*By the way, writing to us about good things the schools are doing is a fine idea. As a matter of fact some of the people who attended the conferences have already sent in descriptions of some good things they know about in their States. For example one community is using the public school buildings for summer school activities for migrant children. And there is a group that is planning some record forms which children might carry with them. We are expecting that the representatives will continue to write us about good practices. We want to pass the news along. That's one way we hope to be of help. Well, Pablo, if you want to read any more about our conferences take a look at the summary which we are including.*

*Best wishes,*

THE COMMITTEE.

## Summary of Regional Conferences

This is the summary of the four Regional Conferences referred to in the letter to Pablo:

*Purpose of the Conferences:* To analyze the problems connected with providing education for migrant children and to work out suggestions for giving sustained attention to the problems by local. State and Federal groups.

*Where and When the Conferences Were Held:* Washington, D. C., St. Louis, Denver, and Sacramento, in May and June 1952. These were convenient points along each of the four major migratory routes.

*Who attended:* Representatives from 33 State Departments of Education. Federal agencies with representatives at one or more conferences were: the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture; Bureau of Labor Standards, Employment Security Division, and Wages and Hours Division of the Department of Labor; Bureau of Public Assistance, Children's Bureau, Federal-State Relations, Office of Education, Public Health Service, and the Social Security Administration from the Federal Security Agency; Housing and Home Finance Agency; Indian Service; and Public Housing Administration.

In addition there were representatives from several counties, State agencies and national nongovernmental organizations.

## What We Talked About:

During the conferences there were many descriptions of ways the problems are being handled in various communities. Much of the discussion related to two basic questions:

1. What can be done to get migrant children into school?
2. How can educational experiences be made more profitable for migrant children?

A few of the ideas related to each question are mentioned here:

1. *What can be done to get migrant children into school?*

   *a.* Attempt in every way possible to *reduce the incidence of* migrancy. The availability of *better housing* would encourage families to remain in one community. Along with this there is need for *year-round employment.*

   *b.* Develop acceptance of migrants as members of the community. *Involvement* of migrants in community activities is necessary in helping them feel they are a part of the community. *Publicity* about some of the good things is important. Individuals and agencies in the community, including employers, should have the opportunity to cooperate in helping the community understand the mi-

*This refers to the *Report on Regional Conferences on Education of Migrant Children* issued by the Office of Education in September 1952.

grants, their contributions, their need for community life, and the need to educate their children.

*c.* Study carefully the practice of *crop vacations.* There was general opposition to the discrimination implicit in closing schools in a community to permit migrant children to work in the fields. The conferences proposed a regional study of crop vacations by schools in cooperation with growers to see to what extent such practices deprive migrant children of education and how this deprivation can be avoided.

*d.* Build up a greater *supply of good elementary teachers.* The present shortage acts to handicap the attendance of migrant children, for frequently their attendance would require extra teachers when such are not available.

*e. Study ways for providing adequate school facilities and funds.* The lack of building space and the lack of funds to educate transients often contribute directly to the attitude of rejection or indifference in communities. These problems need continued study in every community where there are migrants.

*f. Anticipate the Arrival of School-Age Children.* Here it was pointed out that Farm Employment Agency representatives usually know when and approximately how many workers are expected to arrive. With information available from them, school people can make seasonal plans with some degree of certainty.

*g. Prompt reporting* of the arrival and presence of school-age children in the community is important. Numerous ways were suggested to accomplish this.

*h. Enforcement of School Attendance Laws.* Differences in these laws from State to State seem to make evasion of school attendance an easy matter in some cases. Discussion resulted in a strong recommendation that a study be made of the compulsory school attendance laws with a view to securing legislation to eliminate the "loop holes."

*i.* Taking care of preschool-age children whose mothers work in the fields.

*j.* Day-care centers sponsored by communities, employers and private agencies were cited as ways of providing for very young children. When centers are organized within the camps, they need the help of community-service agencies to secure the health, welfare and educational helps required to make such centers satisfactory places for children. When day-care centers are available to take care of preschool children during school hours, it is not necessary for older children to stay home from school to do it.

2. How can educational experiences be made profitable for migrant children?

Three great areas of need appeared in the discussions of school programs for migrant children.

*a.* The need to develop in the children a sense of belonging and self-confidence.

*b.* The need to make education contribute to their competency in meeting situations in their daily lives.

*c.* The need for development of abilities and characteristics which enable them increasingly to assume the responsibilities of citizenship.

Many suggestions were made on how teachers, administrators, resident children, home-base schools and schools along the migrant routes could help meet these needs. These suggestions emphasized ways of developing skills of talking, reading and writing; skills in relating oneself to other children; skills in cooperation, respect for property, friendship, etc.

Since all of the school experiences should contribute toward helping children develop the abilities and characteristics of good citizenship, much attention was given to meeting this need. For example, stress was placed on helping children adjust to community life, learn to work and play with others, learn to make oneself an asset in one's social group, grow steadily in the skills necessary to take part in civic life. These needs are not distinctive to migrant children; they are common needs of all children. It is true, however, that situations in the lives of migrants make necessary certain experiences in school often considered unnecessary for resident children.

* * * * *

January 7, 1953.

DEAR READER: Pablo hasn't answered our last letter so we don't know whether he read the summary or not. We don't know whether you have either. In any event we would like to tell you that the Conferences made a good many recommendations not mentioned in the summary we sent Pablo. These recommendations were specifically for action by *Local School Districts, State Departments of Education, The National Council of Chief State School Officers, Professional Education Organizations, the Office of Education* and other Government agencies. Quite a few of the recommendations have already been acted on. For example, it was suggested that the NCCSSO (National Council of Chief State School Officers) develop a policy of responsibility between States for the education of migrant children. It was suggested further that the Office of Education cooperate with the NCCSSO to carry out that recommendation. The NCCSSO has already appointed a committee* to study the responsibilities of the Chief State School Officers and the State Departments of Education and to make recommendations on this problem.

Also the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth called a meeting of several Government agencies recently in Washington to discuss how agencies of government can cooperate in helping solve the problems of migrants.

Just one more thing, in subsequent issues of SCHOOL LIFE there are going to be articles on the many specific recommendations made by the four regional conferences. Also there will be descriptions of good practices in local communities and States to improve educational opportunities for migrant children.

Sincerely yours,

THE COMMITTEE.

P. S. Don't forget that all of this is really about helping Pablo's brothers and sisters and all of their companions wherever they are. That's what counts.

*The committee of the NCCSSO consists of M. M. Cruft, Illinois, chairman; C. R. Anderson, Montana; George W. Hopkins, South Carolina; and William C. Kahl, Wisconsin.

# Language Teaching in the Elementary Schools

## —Favorable Response to Proposal of U. S. Commissioner of Education, Earl James McGrath

PROBABLY no proposal made by Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, has elicited such a Nation-wide favorable response from educators, government officials, businessmen and others as that which he made in May 1952.

At that time, addressing the 35th annual meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in general session at St. Louis, Mo., Commissioner McGrath called for "a complete reconsideration of the place of foreign language study in American elementary education."

The Commissioner said, "The United States is, whether we like it or not, in a position of world leadership. If it is to discharge its obligations wisely and well our citizens must understand other peoples and other cultures. To gain such understanding many Americans must command a knowledge of one or more foreign languages.

"If they are to acquire these language skills, our school system must provide opportunity beginning in the early grades for many children to study other tongues," he continued. "It is in the national interest for members of the profession and laymen to unite their energies in an effort to increase the study of foreign language among our people. In doing this I firmly believe they will be making a vital contribution to the well-being of our people, to our national prosperity, and to international understanding and peace."

In news and editorial columns of the daily press, in professional journals, and in a deluge of letters from both this country and overseas, the proposal by Commissioner McGrath has been commented upon in a favorable vein.

SCHOOL LIFE in June, 1952 presented the full statement of the Commissioner on this subject. It now offers a sampling of the many writings which indicate a deep interest in the proposal nationally and internationally as a step toward good will among peoples of all nations of the world.

### Selected Comments

*"I have just read your article on 'Language Study and World Affairs' in the Association of American Colleges Bulletin and want to tell you how wholeheartedly I agree with the point of view expressed there. It seems to me that hardly anything is more important in American education than this issue of foreign language study. I have felt a hundred times that American illiteracy in regard to foreign languages is harming us in ways only a very few people understand. So it was a real pleasure to read your piece and see how you put your finger on the right reasons for language study today.*

—J. Glenn Gray, *Colorado College, Department of Philosophy, Colorado Springs, Colorado,* Oct. 2, 1952.

*To give further consideration to the teaching of foreign languages in the Nation's elementary schools, Commissioner McGrath called leaders in education and other areas into national conference in the Office of Education January 15 and 16. A future issue of SCHOOL LIFE will report the findings of this important meeting.*

*"I want to tell you how much I agree with you that it would be an excellent idea to have language courses available to children of fourth grade level, and I would say, even earlier ideally. I have discovered that once a person gets really interested in learning a language, the others come relatively easily; and that he often develops a certain passion for learning languages: a language disease! . . . I do hope something develops from your idea."*

—Rosemary Bishop, *Quaker International Seminar, Cumberland, England.*

* * * * *

*"It has been gratifying to all of us who are in the modern language field to observe the lead which you are taking to promote the study of modern languages. Under your leadership school administrators and the general public are becoming more conscious of the international role which foreign languages must play in the world as it is composed today. One of the primary functions of education is to develop leaders in the world community, and such leadership cannot be accomplished without increased study of foreign languages."*

—Vincenzo Cioffari, *D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, Mass.*

* * * * *

*"Congratulations on that splendid subject which was reprinted in the June issue of SCHOOL LIFE. 'Language Study and World Affairs' is a subject which has long needed just the kind of treatment you gave it. I have been trying to campaign along this line myself using the Air Age as a spring board. If reprints of your article should be available, we could use several hundred for our language packets."*

—John H. Furbay, *Director, Air World Education, Trans World Airlines, Inc.*

* * * * *

*"Congratulations to you on the great insight into the problems that face us in education that prompted your address to the Modern Languages Association on the teaching of modern languages in the elementary school . . . Acquaintance with a second modern language at an early age may well serve to increase children's understanding and acceptance of other peoples and cultures."*

—Robert R. Leeper, *Associate Editor, ASCD Publications, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, Washington, D. C.*

—Frances Hamilton, *Associate Secretary, Assn. for Childhood Education International, Washington, D. C.*

*"With every good wish for good fortune in your splendid ground work for better international understanding."*

—WALTER W. DUBREUIL, *Principal, Demonstration School, Western Reserve University, Director Foreign Languages, Cleveland Public Schools.*

* * * * *

*"Those of us who are concerned with or about the education of the youth of our country, be they in the profession of teaching or in any other walk of life, owe a deep debt of gratitude to Dr. Earl J. McGrath, our Commissioner of Education, for his admirable manifesto delivered at the thirty-fifth annual meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association on May 3 at St. Louis, Mo. . . . I venture to say that under his (Dr. McGrath's) leadership and continuous interest in the matter and with the collaboration of the Modern Language Association of America and the National Federation of Modern Foreign Language Associations as well as that of the leading educators in our country, the consummation of the proposed reorganization of modern foreign language teaching and learning can be achieved within not too many years. Qui vivra verra."*

—C. M. PURIN, *General Chairman of the Federation's Committee on Recruitment, Training, and Placement of Modern Foreign Language Teachers, National Federation of Modern Foreign Language Teachers Association, Milwaukee 11, Wis.*

* * * * *

*". . . you deserve great credit for the leadership which you are taking in the matter of correcting the very bad language situation in this country. I honestly believe that we are on the threshold of a new era . . ."*

—THEODORE ANDERSSON, *Master of Arts in Teaching, Yale University Graduate School, New Haven, Conn.*

*"Naturally I have read Language Study and World Affairs with very considerable enthusiasm. There is a good argument for pushing foreign languages instruction further down in the schedule, and you make it . . ."*

—MORTIMER GRAVES, *Administrative Secretary, American Council of Learned Societies, Member of the International Union of Academies, Washington, D. C.*

# Engineering As A Career

by Henry H. Armsby, Chief for Engineering Education

Division of Higher Education

THE BOY OR GIRL who hopes to make a success in engineering should have certain qualities which are not difficult to identify. Because of the current shortage of college-trained engineers, which is expected to continue for many years (see box), it is important that young people with the native ability to succeed in this vitally important profession be identified early enough in secondary school so that if they are interested in engineering they may have opportunity to secure an adequate preparation for the work of an engineering college.

## The Work of the Engineer

Engineers translate scientific discoveries into practical and economical structures, machines, and processes. In a number of specialized fields they apply the mathematical and physical sciences and the principles and methods of engineering analysis and design to such functions as research, design, manufacture, construction, operation, quality control, management, sales, and teaching.[1] Their work has resulted in more new industrial developments during the last century than in all prior recorded history, and has been the major factor in the great industrial and technological development which has given the United States its present high standard of living.

## Qualifications for Engineering

First, and most important, the prospective engineer must have good mental habits, the ability to concentrate, a desire for knowledge, the habit of doing well whatever he undertakes. The engineer must have the habit of thoroughness and accuracy in his work. He must finish his job, finish it right, must *know* it is right, and he must get it right the first time. Engineers cannot blame their mistakes on others, they cannot bury their mistakes, they cannot cover them up, they don't get second chances.

Second, the engineer is a builder, a creator, not merely a mechanical builder, but a mental builder as well. He must not be content with the kind of curiosity most people feel as to *how* things work. He must have the sort of mind that constantly wants to know *why*, that seeks underlying principles instead of being satisfied with mere mechanical details. The boy who is satisfied with *how* might make a good mechanic or artisan, but only the *why* type can make a good engineer.

Third, the engineer needs initiative. He must be able to go ahead and *do* things without being told. He must be able to figure out new methods, new machines, new processes. Without initiative, no one can rise very high in the engineering profession.

Fourth, the engineer needs a good imagination. He must be able to visualize his structures and machines in action before they are built. He must be able to deal with unseen forces. A good imagination is a very important quality.

Fifth, while he need not be a mathematical wizard, the engineer should have a liking for mathematics, physics, and chemistry, and a reasonable degree of proficiency in them. These subjects form the foundation of the profession of engineering. Engineers use them in everything they do.

Sixth, the engineer must work in cooperation with others, as subordinate or superior, or both, and must therefore have those personal qualities which make it easy for him to work and play harmoniously with others.

[1] For more information consult "Engineering as a Career," published by Engineers' Council for Professional Development, 29 West 39th Street, New York, N. Y.

## Preparation for an Engineering College

Engineering is based upon mathematics and the physical sciences, and an interest in, and an aptitude for, these fields is an important indicator of success in the profession. However, several studies have indicated that the general quality of high school work is a better indicator of success in college than is any particular pattern of subjects. The boy who wishes to enter an engineering school should attempt in high school to build a balanced background of general knowledge, and to make a very careful study of his individual interests and aptitudes.

## Admission Requirements

Almost without exception students may enter engineering colleges directly from high school. Typical requirements for admission to engineering colleges are:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| English | 3 | units. |
| History or Social Studies | 1 | unit. |
| Algebra | 1½ | units. |
| Plane Geometry | 1 | unit. |
| Solid Geometry | ½ | unit. |
| Science (with laboratory work) | 1 | unit. |
| Additional work in any of above listed subjects | 3 | units. |
| Other high school subjects | 4 | units. |

## Types of Engineering Colleges

Undergraduate degrees in engineering are conferred by 192 institutions,[2] of which 149 are accredited in at least one field of engineering by the Engineers' Council for Professional Development,[2] the official accrediting agency for engineering schools. They include institutions under both public and private control, some operating as parts of universities, and others as separate schools.

Thirty-five institutions utilize the "cooperative plan" of engineering education for some or all of their students. In this plan students alternate periods in school with periods of industrial experience, in jobs which are coordinated with their educational program. This type of program in nearly all cases requires five years for completion of an undergraduate course. A few other engineering colleges require five years for the completion of an undergraduate degree, but most institutions require four years.

At least 12 engineering colleges have set up arrangements with numbers of liberal arts colleges under which a student may attend a liberal arts college for 3 years, taking programs agreed upon between the institutions, and then attend the engineering school for 2 years. If his work is satisfactorily completed the student receives the bachelor of arts degree from the liberal arts school at the end of his fourth college year, and at the end of the fifth year the bachelor of science degree in engineering from the engineering school.

[2] List can be secured from U. S. Office of Education.

## The Engineering Curriculum

Engineering colleges offer curriculums leading to degrees in more than 20 specialized fields. However, in nearly all institutions the freshman year is the same for all fields of engineering. A typical freshman year consists of English, mathematics (algebra, trigonometry, and analytical geometry), engineering drawing, chemistry or physics, surveying, shop work, and physical education or military training. Most institutions also include a special orientation course for freshmen, in which they are given information about the various fields of engineering, to help them choose the curriculum they wish to follow. Ordinarily there are only small differences between the curriculums in the sophomore year, so that a student who changes his mind at the end of the second year can still, in most instances, complete the work for his degree in the regular four-year period. Real specialization in engineering begins in the junior year and continues through the senior year.

Engineering curriculums are designed to give the prospective engineer a solid foundation in the basic sciences of mathematics, physics, and chemistry, which underly all fields of engineering, and in such fundamental engineering tool subjects as drawing, surveying, and mechanics. Sufficient humanistic social studies are included to enable the graduate to take his place as a citizen and to understand the social, moral, and political implications of his technical activities. Some study of fields of engineering related to his own specialty helps him to understand the interrelations of the different fields. And finally he studies enough of the specialized applications of basic science and general engineering to his own special field of engineering to enable him to understand the general method of attack on problems in his field, and to adapt himself to a variety of situations.

## Trends in Engineering Education

There is a growing tendency in engineering schools toward less specialization, and toward more emphasis upon basic science and mathematics, and on humanistic-social studies. While it is impossible to foresee exactly what techniques will be in use by engineers 25 years from now, it is certain that these techniques will be based upon principles now available in the basic sciences. It is also safe to conclude that the problems facing engineers will continue to increase in difficulty, and will require a more and more fundamental approach.

There is a corresponding tendency in industry to be less concerned than in the past with which particular engineering curriculum a student has followed in college, so long as he has had a sound foundation in basic science and in engineering fundamentals.

## The Reward

The boy who attends an engineering college will have to work, and work hard, if he is to graduate. But if he does graduate, he will have done a real piece of work, and he will receive a real reward—a trained mind, the ability to take his place among the builders of the world, to do a man's work, to contribute something constructive to the progress of civilization. Most important of all, most engineering students gain what this writer likes to call the "engineering mind,"—a mental attitude toward life which is not confined to engineers, but which has enabled engineers to succeed in practically all walks of life. By the "engineering mind," is meant the type of mind that is professional instead of commercial, that is dedicated to building instead of to profits, a mind that thinks straight and hard, that hates waste and confusion, dirt and despair, that never stoops to the adulterated, that always seeks the truth and has the courage to act in accordance with it, whether it be in designing a bridge or a peace treaty, building a motor car or a nation.

| | *1900* | *1950* |
|---|---|---|
| Total United States Engineers | 40,000 | 400,000 |
| Industrial workers per engineer | 255 | 65 |

Present shortage of engineers—40,000.
Average annual need for engineers—30,000.

*Prospective engineering graduates, for 1953—24,000; for 1954—19,000; for 1955—23,000; for 1956—29,000.

*Under present Selective Service policies.

# Toward Comparable Educational Information Throughout the Nation

By Fred F. Beach, Chief, State School Systems

DURING thc past year, the Office of Education and the State and territorial departments of education have initiated a project on educational records and reports which promises to have far-reaching implications. The project seeks to establish Nation-wide comparability for basic items of educational information, the absence of which is now a serious block to educational progress.

It is hard to realize that terms such as enrollment, average daily attendance, average daily membership, current expenditure, and hundreds of others that make up the everyday language of education mean different things in different parts of the Nation. For example, a local superintendent of schools in California does not mean the same thing when he talks about average daily attendance as does a superintendent of schools in Texas; nor does the Kansas superintendent of schools who is talking about enrollment have the same thing in mind as does the superintendent in Indiana. The wide variation over the Nation in the definitions of items of educational information makes it impossible to (1) compile accurate reports on the progress and condition of education in the country as a whole, and (2) make accurate comparison between local school systems located in different States or of the several State school systems themselves.

Educators and others have long recognized the need for establishing Nation-wide agreement on the meaning of terms and items of educational information which should be available, but the problems they faced in realizing this objectivc have never been overcome. At the outset it is important to note that no central governmental agency has the authority to establish an educational record and reporting systcm for the entire Nation. On the contrary, each State has the authority to establish whatever systcm it may wish, and local systems can make such additions as thcy wish. As a consequence a wide variety of educational recording and reporting systems have grown up. Desirable uniformity may be achieved only by means of united and cooperative action of all States.

There have been three major attempts on a Nation-wide scale to achieve some degree of uniformity in reporting educational information. The first major attempt in 1909 focused attention on the growing need for comparable educational information and made progress in selecting common items. The second, which culminated in 1928, made further progress in directing attention to the types of information that should be collected. The third attempt which took place in the thirties sought to develop an over-all uniform system which would make provision for the record and reporting forms on local, State and Federal levels. Each of these major attempts focused attention on the importance of the problems and each achieved some degree of success. However, our situation today remains as before. Not one of these attempts attained the goal of common acceptance of basic items of information about our elementary and secondary education programs.

## Conditions Now Favorable

The current project was begun under more favorable circumstances than any of those which preceded it. This is because we have reached the stage in the development of our State systems of education where it is both indispensable and possible to establish common definitions for items of educational information. In the first place, the National Council of Chief State School Officers has recognized the necessity for united cooperative action in establishing uniform records and reports and urged the Office of Education to undertake this project as one of its major activities. It is becoming indispensable for States to have information which thcy may compare. Chief State school officers and their staffs in every State are cooperating fully in the devélopment of the project and have given it high priority among their activities. The recent progress that State departments of education have made in professional staffing places them in a much stronger position to establish, maintain, and improve their reporting systems. The departments are also better equipped to implement the findings of the Nation-wide project.

Local school officials are also eager for the objectives of this project to be reached. They are beginning to demand uniform educational statistics which will permit them to compare their own school system with school systems in other States. The Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada have been particularly concerned about establishing uniformity in records and reports on a Nation-wide scale and have supported this movement from the beginning.

The Office of Education has also recognized the importance of this new project and is giving it special attention. Staff members in Research and Statistics and School Administration are devoting major portions of their time to the project. In addition, a new regular staff position, specialist in educational records and reports, has been created. Paul Reason, who has been engaged in this position, will be primarily concerned with assisting the States in improving their record and reporting systems.

## Plans for the Project

Plans for the project take into account the accumulated experience which was gained from the three former National record and report projects. With this background information in mind, the current project was planned in two phases. The first phase calls for the development of a series of four handbooks which will occupy the same position with respect to educational

information as the dictionary occupies with respect to the English language. The second phase secks to obtain common acceptance of the handbooks and their general usage by the entire profession.

Handbook number one will contain the common core of educational information, that is, the items of educational information with their definitions, that every State department of education should reasonably be expected to have available. Handbook number two will serve as the guide to sound financial accounting and reporting practices for State and local school systems. The third and fourth handbooks will be similarly concerned with personnel and property accounting and reporting respectively.

Once a handbook has been completed, the equally important second phase of the project plan calls for its incorporation into the official record and reporting system of each State and its use by all of those individuals within the State who are concerned with preparation of educational records and reports.

### Progress Already Made and the Next Steps

Considerable progress has already been made since the project was started. The first handbook, which is to contain the items that will constitute the common core of educational information that all State departments should have available, is well on its way to completion. Several of the major steps have already been taken. The first step was the preparation of a tentative manuscript. This manuscript included information obtained as a result of the analysis of the State reporting forms, an analysis of the Federal reporting forms and conferences and discussions with specialists in the many fields of education involved. After a preliminary manuscript was prepared, a National conference, composed of representatives of State departments of education, colleges and universities and National organizations concerned with recording and reporting educational information, was held. These representatives met for five days and discussed the terms and definitions, item by item. The manuscript was then revised upon the basis of the recommendations obtained from this conference. The revised manuscript was called a Progress Report. Copies of the Progress Report were sent to all chief State school officers so that it could be the topic of careful study and analysis by members of all State department of education staffs. Three months later, during the month of October 1952, a series of regional conferences of representatives of these State departments of education was held. Again the material in the progress report was subjected to careful analysis, and recommendations for improvement from each of the regional conferences were obtained. In February 1953, a second National conference, broadly representative of State departments of education, college and university professors and National organizations concerned with educational records and reports will meet to resolve the differences that have been noted at the several regional conferences, and to make final recommendations for the material to be included in the handbook. The revised document will then be presented to the National Council of Chief State School Officers for their consideration relative to its adoption, prior to its being published as the first of the four handbooks.

Former projects on records and reports lost some of their effectiveness because the results were not put into practice. Efforts to implement these former projects were sporadic as States requested assistance in revising their own systems. In this regard the current project has benefited from past experience and it includes plans for having the contents of the handbooks made a part of the official record and reporting system in each State. Plans call for familiarizing all State and local school officials who are concerned with records and reports with the material in the handbooks. State departments of education will need to design procedures especially for their own States to acquaint local superintendents of schools and others with the handbook information. The suggestions which were obtained from the chief State school officers at their National conference in Washington in December 1952 will guide the activities of the staff of the Office of Education in the assistance which they render the several States.

The experience in the project thus far is heartening. An unmistakable spirit of optimism pervades the entire activity. There is a feeling that this project will be highly successful in moving American education a long stride forward in its efforts to obtain comparable educational statistical information.

## 2 Big Jobs— Better Health and Basic Education

(*Continued from page 52*)

### Work for Basic Education of All Children and Adults

***Enforce the present attendance laws to see that all boys and girls of school age who should be in school are in school. Make sure that the pupil really goes to school and does not maintain a token attendance by frequent absences. Give particular attention to the needs of pupils who are potential "drop outs."***

***Study all slow learners to discover possible causes of retardation including deficient physical or mental health. Provide adaptive instruction and guidance to these pupils. Work to eliminate those correctable conditions that cause slow learning.***

***Establish classes in adult education for adults and older youth. Be particularly concerned to meet the needs of those who have not completed eight years of school.***

A Nation-wide campaign for literacy education has had the cooperation of the Office of Education for several years. Recent issues of *School Life* (Reference No. 5) have called attention to the problem of illiteracy and its relationship to manpower and the national welfare. Concrete and detailed suggestions for literacy education have been made in those articles. They will serve to amplify the suggestions immediately preceding.

These two jobs of better health and basic education warrant immediate action. Every school and community will undoubtedly appraise these suggestions in light of their present programs. This is not to suggest a high-powered campaign that will soon fade out. It is rather asking that a well-planned and long-range program be developed to deal with these fundamental problems with all the force and vigor that can be mustered, and with full use of all resources available. Good health and basic education are necessary for realization of all the other hopes that we hold for American democracy.

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

*(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)*

*The Boy Scout Encyclopedia.* Text and Illustrations Prepared Under the Direction of the Boy Scouts of America. By Bruce Grant. New York, Rand McNally & Co., 1952. 160 p. Illus. $2.75.

*Educational Planning by Neighborhoods in Centralized Districts;* A Report of The Origins, Evolution and Possibilities of an Experiment of the People of New York State in Creating a New Form of Rural Government Through Public Education. By Paul L. Essert and Robert West Howard. Sponsored by The New York State Central School Boards Committee for Educational Research and the Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 132 p. $2.25.

*Elements of Organized Debate and Discussion.* By George Eric Peabody and Edward H. Sargent, Jr. New York, State College of Agriculture, State University of New York at Cornell University, 1952. 34 p. (Cornell Extension Bulletin 854)

*Forcign Children's Books Available in the United States.* New York, Printed by The New York Public Library for the Children's Library Association, American Library Association, 1952. 30 p.

*Fun With Mathematics* (Collection of Mathematical Puzzles, Games, Tricks, and Curiosities). By Jerome S. Meyer. New York, The World Publishing Co., 1952. 175 p. Illus. $2.75.

*Geography and Conservation Education.* Bloomington, Ind., National Council of Geography Teachers. 1952. 34 p. (Professional Paper No. 13) 50¢. (Address: Ina C. Roberts, Secretary, National Council of Geography Teachers, State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dak.)

*Guidance in a Rural Community.* Green Sea—A South Carolina School District Plans With and For Its Boys and Girls. By Amber Arthun Warburton. Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth with the Cooperation of The Department of Rural Education. Washington, D. C., National Education Association of the United States, 1952. 156 p. Illus. $2.00.

*Problems and Issues in Public School Financc;* An Analysis and Summary of Significant Research and Experience. By a Committee of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. Edited by R. L. Johns and E. L. Morphet. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 492 p. $4.50.

# Selected Theses on Education

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

THESE THESES are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*A Survey of Requirements in Foreign Language for Matriculation at Colleges and Universities Throughout the United States.* By Anne Holden Braden. Master's, 1950. University of Michigan. 119 p. ms.

*An Historical Development of Present-Day Problems of Muskingum College.* By John Harold Bright. Doctor's, 1950. University of Cincinnati. 236 p. ms.

*A Study of Candidates for the Doctor's Degree in Education at the George Washington University, 1927–1946.* By Raymond Brown. Master's, 1948. George Washington University. 52 p. ms.

*The History of the Palmer Elementary Schools From 1851 to 1951.* By Dorothy Marie Burns. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 85 p. ms.

*Motivation Factors in the Selection of Special Education as a Profession.* By Elton S. Carter. Master's, 1947. Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind. 105 p. ms.

*The Function of the Academic Dean in American Catholic Higher Education.* By Rev. Darrell F. X. Finnegan. Doctor's, 1950. Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., Catholic University of America Press, 1951. 120 p. (Educational Research Monographs, vol. 16, no. 1)

*A Survey of Vocational Guidance Services for Business Students in Private and State Colleges for Negroes.* By Wilhelmina Jaudon Gilbert. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 106 p. ms.

*Religious Beliefs and Social Values of Syracuse University Freshmen and Seniors, 1950.* By Roy M. Hall. Doctor's, 1951. Syracuse University. 191 p. ms.

*An Analysis of the Utley Lipreading Test.* By Raymond E. Kataja. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 63 p. ms.

*Student Participation in Student Councils in the Secondary Schools of Massachusetts.* By John I. McLaughlin. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 60 p. ms.

*A Study of the Cooperative-Training Programs in Retail Selling in the High Schools of the Middle Atlantic States and Washington, D. C.* By Gertrude E. O'Donnell. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 97 p. ms.

*A Study of Teacher In-Service Education in South Texas.* By Lois B. Rhea. Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville, Texas. 38 p. ms.

*Study of the Undergraduate preparation of Potential Teachers of Secondary School English in Selected New England Colleges.* By Evelyn Rose Robinson. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 151 p. ms.

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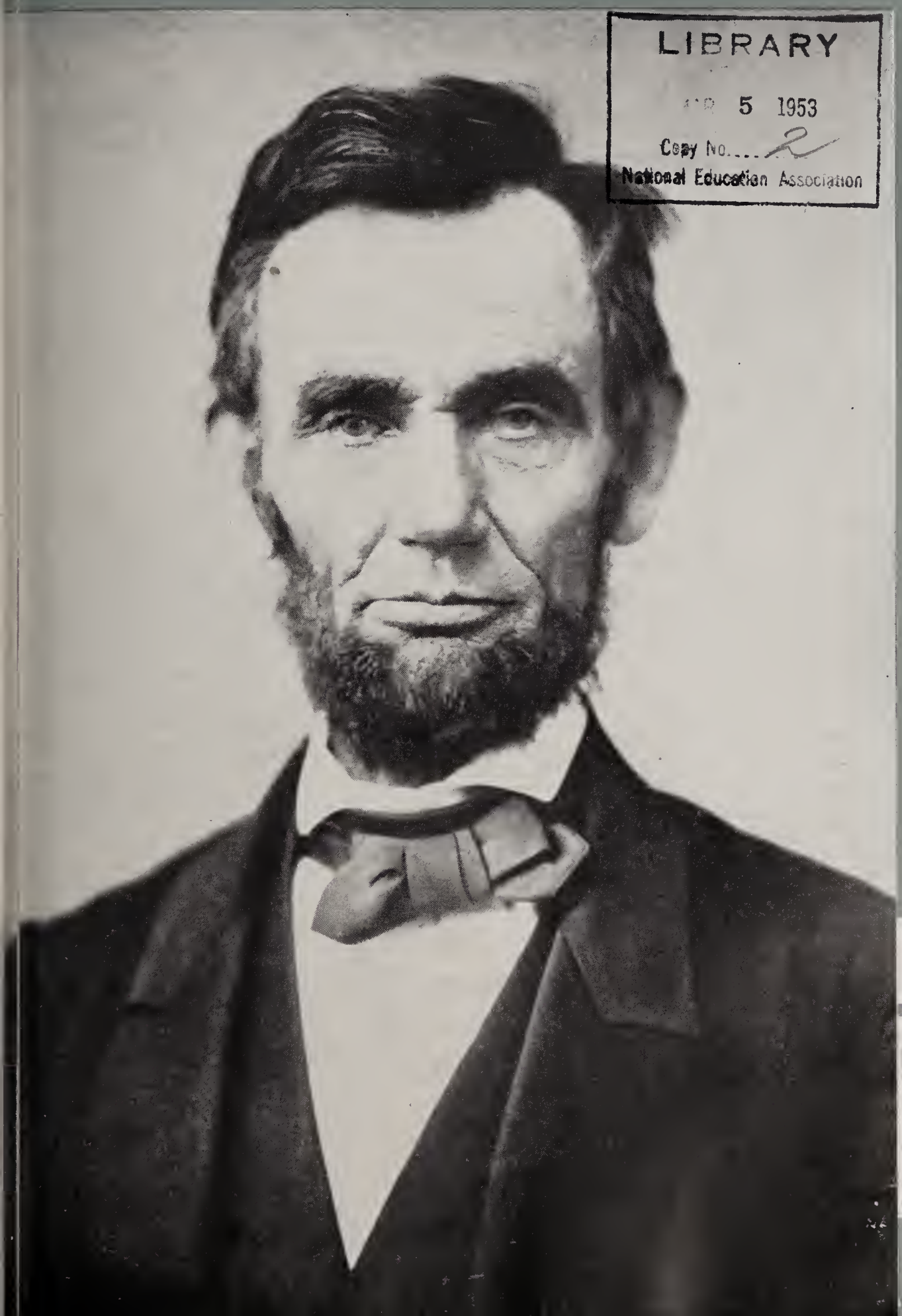
FEBRUARY 1953

Route to



# School Life



◀ Abraham Lincoln



FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# Abraham Lincoln

SIX YEARS before the Congress authorized establishment of the Office of Education in 1867, Abraham Lincoln delivered his first inaugural address as President of the United States.

To a not too large assemblage at the east front of the unfinished Capitol, Lincoln, on March 4, 1861, said in part, "It is 72 years since the first inauguration of a President under our national Constitution. During that period 15 different and greatly distinguished citizens have, in succession, administered the executive branch of the government. They have conducted it through many perils, and generally with success. Yet, with all this scope of precedent, I now enter upon the same task for the brief constitutional term of four years, under great and peculiar difficulty."

On the 22d day of September 1862, President Lincoln declared "that on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, . . . shall be then, thenceforward, and forever, free." This declaration, signed by President Lincoln on January 1, 1863, is the well known Emancipation Proclamation.

Lincoln's message to the Congress on December 1, 1862, according to Carl Sandburg,* "pointed to 'that portion of the earth's surface owned and inhabited by the people of the United States' as adapted to be the home of 'one national family' and not for two or more. . . ." On this occasion he repeated what he had said in his inaugural address, "We cannot remove our respective sections from each other, nor build an impassable wall between them."

Criticized by most newspapers and hailed by only a few was President Lincoln's historic address at Gettysburg, Pa., on November 19, 1863. This 2-minute address, marking the dedication of a national cemetery on the site of the Battle of Gettysburg, has probably been memorized and recited by our Nation's children more than any other Presidential statement. Lincoln's concluding words in this immortal message were: ". . . we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth."

In his second inaugural address on March 4, 1865, 1 month and 11 days before he was to die from an assassin's bullet, President Lincoln uttered these simple words, now carved in our country's history, "With malice toward none; with charity for all; with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace, among ourselves, and with all nations."

*Sandburg, Carl, "Abraham Lincoln—The War Years," volume I of four volumes, page 618. Published by Harcourt, Brace & Co.


**School ★ Life**

Official Journal of the Office of Education
• • • Federal Security Agency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The cover photograph of Abraham Lincoln, appropriate to February, the month of his birth, was obtained from the files of the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.




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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."


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# Delinquency and the School

By Leo F. Cain, Dean, Education Services, and Director, Special Education
San Francisco State College

THE WORD DELINQUENCY is a familiar one. The escapades of delinquent youth make sensational newspaper copy. They are given generous space on the front page and in the headlines. To many this makes interesting reading but to the majority of parents it gives satisfaction and security that their children are apart from any such way of life. Likewise, many of our schools assume the attitude that their pupil populations do not include delinquent children and that any education of such children should be the function of special schools or institutions.

The meaning of delinquency is highly generalized and implies many things to many people. To some it means breaking the law, to others an antisocial human being. Such terms as lying, stealing, immorality, disobedience, and murder are frequently used in describing the delinquents of the community. Too few times are these youngsters considered as human beings who need constructive help and realistic and thoughtful guidance. The fact is too often disregarded that delinquent children have adapted themselves to a way of life which may be highly motivated in terms of satisfying their needs and drives. This way of life, although in conflict with the mores of society, may have given them many opportunities for leadership, companionship and achievement. Because they have broken the rules of society, they become individuals who must be reformed and who must undergo a period of correction. To carry out this program our society has set up institutions and has tagged them with such titles as reform schools, corrective institutions, juvenile homes or training schools. In most instances the functions of these institutions have been to isolate the delinquent child from society in a sociological island. They have attempted to transform so-called bad boys and girls into good citizens and to return them to their respective communities with changed attitudes and capable of making adjustments to a society which has previously rejected them. The case histories of the products of these institutions are somewhat disillusioning and their subsequent rejection by the school and community has been all too frequent.

Even a casual study of the problem of delinquency reveals that its causes are multiple and complex. These causes are inherent in the behavior of the individual and are inseparable from the environment in which he lives. Thus it follows that the treatment of delinquent behavior is essentially a community problem and not one which can be totally solved by any one agency or institution either within or without the community itself.

## A Place of Understanding and Security

The school, as the one social institution which has contact with all children and youth, is obligated to assume a leadership role both in programs directed at the prevention of delinquency as well as those designed for assisting those youth who have been declared delinquents by the courts or by the community. The brief comment which follows is directed toward the local school and the teacher training institutions.

Delinquent behavior is bred in an atmosphere of rejection and insecurity. Any child has the potential of becoming delinquent, for this minority group is composed of all races and creeds and is drawn from all socio-economic levels. One of the most effective ways in which the local school can combat delinquent behavior is to make sure that it wholeheartedly accepts all children who enter its doors and particularly that it provides a secure environment for those children who may have been rejected by their parents, their friends, or their communities.

## Special Services

This acceptance and understanding must be first and foremost a part of the philosophy of the classroom teacher and the school administrator. The teacher who genuinely accepts the child for what he is and who can objectively evaluate the effect on child behavior of such factors as a sordid home background, an overprotective parent or lack of emotional security can establish an environment which will provide the security essential to the development of positive attitudes. This teacher will be interested in carefully observing her children, not only in the schoolroom, but on the playground, at home and in the community. She will not be threatened by outbursts of aggression and will be concerned when a child fails to participate or is isolated or rejected by his classmates. She will be flexible in her curriculum planning and will make an honest attempt to include some experiences in which every child can participate successfully and will not base the evaluations of her charges totally on academic achievement.

The teacher and the school administrative officials will also encourage the inclusion of a number of special services. They will consider these services a part of and not apart from the basic school program. They will make every effort to understand fully

the functions of these services and to participate in them whenever the need arises. The work of attendance officers must mean more than just dealing with truants. Here is a resource that can represent a direct link between the home and school and through which many home-school problems can be resolved. The visiting teacher and social worker can provide valuable information about youngsters and if they are made an integral part of the educational team can help in making the school program meet children's needs. Many schools have special classes. These classes are functional only if their objectives are clearly understood by all school personnel and if they meet the needs for which they are designed. Too often these classes are islands within the school and their programs considered second-rate by both the teachers and the students. For example, classes for retarded students sometimes have been stigmatized and students who do poor work have been threatened with the possibility of being transferred to them. Acceptance of retarded children in regular classes has been resisted, and the special classes have been considered as the best placement for the "undesirables." Only when special classes are given equal status with the total school program are they of real service.

More and more, schools are providing more nearly adequate guidance and health services. These again are services which can help the teacher in the understanding of her pupils and in aiding her to provide a wholesome and developmental school program. It is not enough to refer a youngster to the health service, guidance clinic or counselor. These services cannot solve problems; they can only assist in their solution. The child as a member of any teacher's classroom group spends most of his school hours with the teacher; therefore, the teacher must make classroom adaptations in the light of the known health problems of any particular child and must work closely with the psychologist and guidance worker on the treatment of specific behavior difficulties.

Thus the teacher is placed in a position of key responsibility. Unless she assumes that responsibility, no amount of special service the school may provide will be as effective as it should be. It is the understanding teacher in cooperation with the school administrator who must provide the key service for the child who needs help. This service should be provided before society has the opportunity to label a child a delinquent. It should be provided for the youngster who has already been labeled.

## A Community Team

If the school is to assume its proper role in the prevention of delinquent behavior, it must also become an active part of a community team. As has been pointed out, the problem of delinquency cannot be solved by the school alone as it is essentially a community problem. Many agencies in the community are continuously working with the problem directly. These include welfare and family agencies, church groups, health departments, youth agencies, both public and private, the courts and law enforcement officials, and the press. In addition, many other groups and individuals are actively interested and in many ways have direct contact with delinquent behavior and are anxious to help. Among these are parents and parent-teacher groups, service clubs, labor groups, professional groups such as physicians and lawyers and clergymen and a large number of businessmen. Youth groups particularly should be enlisted because those with interesting and worth-while programs developed by youth themselves under sympathetic and competent direction can be of particular help in providing an atmosphere of acceptance and security which the delinquent child needs. One form in which delinquency often manifests itself is through gangs and other highly organized forms of group activity. If community youth groups can find ways to utilize in a constructive manner the talent of boys and girls who have shown leadership in antisocial situations, they may well be one of the most effective agents of rehabilitation.

## A Note on Teacher Training

In some communities the school tends to isolate itself from the programs which other community groups and individuals sponsor and guide. Many communities have set up councils to assist in the coordination of youth programs. In some instances these councils include the school, in some they do not. If the school is omitted, part of the program is lost and the services it has to offer tend to become isolated. School officials should see that they are included and that the appropriate personnel within the school system assume an active role. Reports of many community-wide projects for youth are available, and information can be obtained about many of them from the Federal Security Agency through the Children's Bureau and the U. S. Office of Education.

If the local school is to be staffed by teachers and administrators prepared to deal with problems of delinquency it becomes the obligation of the teacher education institutions to give some emphasis to the problem in their curricula. Basic to this problem and to all teacher education is the selection of teacher candidates. Careful selection of prospective teachers proves difficult today when the Nation faces a large teacher shortage. Nevertheless, the fact that teachers with poor personal adjustment find it difficult to work with children and at times actually encourage delinquent behavior cannot be ignored. If colleges think it necessary to recommend doubtful candidates, particularly those with severe adjustment problems, they should make every effort to help these students resolve their difficulties before recommending them for teaching positions.

Study of the problem of delinquent behavior should be more than a text-book orientation. It should be an integral part of functional courses in child development, mental hygiene, group methods and sociology. Extensive opportunity should be given to observe and work with children both in and out of the school setting. This should include some contact with delinquent children. Social agencies and the courts can provide ample resources. One college requires that all students spend at least 15 hours during their first semester of teacher training in working with children in a community agency. This field work is correlated with courses in education and psychology and helps to develop understanding of the problems children face outside of the school itself. Many teacher-training institutions are also increasing their emphasis on the study of children. If future teachers enter the classroom with an awareness of the wide range of behavior patterns they are going to meet and some understanding of how to attack specific problems, the school will more and more be able to cope realistically with the problems of latent and overt delinquency.

Some colleges and universities have in-

(*Continued on page 75*)

# Planning the Elementary Classroom

Casis Elementary School, Austin, Tex.

By J. L. Taylor, Specialist, School Plant Management, School Housing Section,
Division of State and Local School Systems

SCHOOL PLANNING is becoming an important part in community development. It is encouraging that lay citizens have accepted the invitation to participate in planning the school program and the physical facilities. The Office of Education and the State departments of education are receiving many inquiries on planning school facilities. Much of the noticeable increased interest in school facilities is due to the Nation-wide School Facilities Survey which is administered by the Office of Education. Other factors contributing to the stepped-up planning movement are (1) increased birth rates, (2) the backlog of school building needs, (3) reorganization of local districts, (4) the shifting of population, and (5) the changing curriculum.

The School Housing Section of the Office of Education plans to produce and publish a series of brochures and bulletins on planning various elements of school plants. The first of the series, *Let's Give the Kids a Break, An Approach to the Design of Elementary Classrooms to Fit the Child and the Program*, will be published in 1953. The elementary classrom was chosen for the first brochure because inquiries indicate assistance is most urgent in that element at this time. The Elementary Schools Section of this Office and teachers, superintendents, and supervisors in the field are collaborating with school plant specialists of the School Housing Section in the study. A similar policy will be followed in the production of other Office bulletins on school plant planning.

Planning the elementary classroom is among the most important committee functions in the preparation of educational specifications. The personnel of the committee should represent a cross section of the people of the community. Teachers who will use the facilities certainly should play an important part in the planning. It is important that the committee work closely with the superintendent and the educational consultant, who, of course, will be guided by policies adopted by school authorities, usually the school board.

The classroom must be planned studiously and carefully. The planning committee for the elementary classroom, must therefore follow sound methods of procedure. Some methods which have been used successfully by planning groups are (1) visiting good school plants of comparable size and characteristics in similar situations, (2) searching literature in the school plant field, (3) compiling and reporting findings, (4) evaluating the findings in light of their relationship to the local situation, and (5) preparing educational specifications or space requirements.

The planning committee will need to secure information on the general characteristics of the local plant, the school's philosophy, the characteristics (physical, social, and mental) of the children and the program of activities which will be carried on in the room. Such data and information will be invaluable as the committee makes important decisions on requirements for the room.

Just what should be included in final educational specifications for the elementary classroom? The educational specifications might well be called educational requirements which, if wisely prepared, will give the architect data and information which will help him to design the room to

fit the child and the program. The content of the specifications, to be more specific, should include: A brief description of the school and the plant, room arca and shape, sound control, audio-visual aids, storage, electrical outlets, heating and ventilation, lighting, colors, toilet facilities, washing and drinking provision, furniture, and equipment. The committee will not need to be tcchnical in such items as lighting, heating and sound control; they may express needs in terms of general statements.

Elementary classroom characteristics should be determined by the activities to be used in the school program and the number and age level of the children. The trend in recent years has been toward a more practical lifelike curriculum which involves a greater variety of activities than did the traditional school program. In view of the fact that the school program is continuously changing, it is not feasible to be specific in setting up standards. However, there are a few fundamental features which planners and designers must keep in mind.

The good elementary classroom is planned and designed so that it protects the life, limb, and health of its occupants. The room is planned to fit the children and the program of activities. Since the program is changing continuously, the facilities and space must be capable of change without undue time and expense. The good elementary school classroom should be attractive and comfortable. Children and young people, the greatest asset in the country, are influenced in their attitude toward school and life itself by their environment. They spend about one-half of their waking hours during the school year in the school plant and most of that time in the classroom.

# Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education

**Between sessions the group attending the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education is photographed at the University of Maryland. U. S. Government representatives and educational leaders are included.**

THOSE WHO ATTENDED the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education at the University of Maryland last fall urged the organization of vocational education associations in each of the countries represented at the conference. They expressed the hope that in the near future the representatives of newly organized associations, possibly affiliated in an international federation of vocational education associations, could come together again in conference to consider problems of mutual interest.

The 1952 seminar was sponsored by the Pan American Union, The International Labour Organization, The Department of State, U. S. Office of Education, Institute of Inter-American Affairs, and the University of Maryland. Official delegates for the United States to the seminar were: R. W. Gregory, Office of Education, Chief of Delegation, B. Frank Kyker, and A. T. Hamilton, Office of Education; Druzilla Kent, Professor of Home Economics Education, University of Tennessee, and Nicolas Mendez, Supervisor of Agricultural Education, Puerto Rico.

## *Three Other Conferences*

U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, in welcoming the representatives of the American Republics to the seminar on behalf of the United States Government, reviewed the results of three previous conferences of this type. He said further, "Vocational education has, of course, intrinsic values which you will discuss fully in the days ahead. I would like to point out now, however, that it has a collateral value to our entire educational program, because a well-rounded program of education for the responsibilities of citizenship is expensive and dependent upon a comparatively large national income. The latter is dependent upon the productive capacity of each worker. We know that productive capacity is also dependent in large part upon the skills and the knowledge of the worker. Vocational education improves the worker's skills and the knowledge of the worker. Therefore, in a very real sense, a comprehensive program of vocational education is essential if a broad basic education for citizenship is to be provided for all, for only as the income of the nation is increased can the opportunities for education be continuously expanded."

# High School Retention: How Does Your State Rate?

By Walter H. Gaumnitz, Specialist, Secondary Education,
Division of State and Local School Systems

THERE is a well-known adage which says that "Figures don't lie." In recent years the cynic has added, "Yes, but liars do figure." To a degree this can be said about all statistical presentations of educational facts. Nevertheless it is very important that educators from time to time bend themselves to the task of both compiling the available statistics relating to pending issues, and that they consider these data soberly in the light of their theoretical ideals, their educational objectives, and their policies and practices of school administration and operation.

The United States Bureau of the Census is now engaged in completing the stupendous task of the decennial count. More and more in recent years this count has contained significant data reflecting the practices and achievements of the people of the United States as concerns the education of their children and youth. Increasingly the Bureau has reported how many children of various ages are in school attendance, and how much education the American people are achieving before they reach adulthood. These data are more and more becoming available not only for the United States and the individual States as wholes, but for municipalities, counties, and other civic units; also on urban, suburban, rural nonfarm, and rural-farm bases.

The Bureau of the Census cooperates closely with the United States Office of Education which regularly gathers data to show enrollments in the various grades ranging from the kindergarten through high school. The Office publishes its reports biennially and by States in a document known as "Statistics of State School Systems."

It is now possible to see at an early date how many children are attending school through various levels of education. Unfortunately the data gathered by the Office of Education do not yet show the ages of the children enrolled in each grade at a given time or their ages when they are graduated or drop out of school.

## The Drop-Out Problem

In recent years there has been growing interest in the extent to which the high schools are achieving their vaunted objective of keeping all youth in school until they are 18 years of age. Generally speaking the statistical findings available for the Nation as a whole show clearly that we are still far from the goal of providing educational services to every youth of high school age. To be sure progress toward this goal has been substantial during the first half of the century, but a good many boys and girls still do not even enter the high schools and the number of drop-outs continues to be very high, especially from the ninth and tenth grades, during which time compulsory education laws gradually relax their hold. Indeed many an educator expresses surprise to find statistical proof that today only about 80 percent of American children entering school reach the ninth grade and that only about a half are present on graduation day.

Consideration of these national statistics has in recent years stimulated the individual State and local school authorities to look into the drop-out problem. They have been startled to find a much higher drop-out than they expected or thought possible. Such revelations have led to thoroughgoing studies concerned not only with how many drop out at various age and grade levels, but why they drop out, what becomes of them after they drop out, and what are the judgments of youth concerning the adequacies and inadequacies of the educational service provided for them by the high schools they have attended. A great many school systems, however, continue largely to ignore this problem. Too often they seem to assume that all is well within their borders as concerns both the quality and the availability of education services provided by their high schools. If youth leaves school early, or otherwise reacts unfavorably, the fault is not that of the schools; youth itself is blamed.

## No State Breakdown

One of the greatest shortcomings of the statistical facts thus far regularly provided has been that they were available on a national level but could not be readily broken down for the States. Efforts to break down such data required supplementary facts from each State and then the results were not always satisfactory.[1] As a result State-by-State comparisons could not be made.

It was with these facts in mind that a quick survey was made of the data provided by the Bureau of the Census for the year 1950, and those provided by the Office of Education for the same year. The Bureau of the Census is just now completing its State-by-State reports, whereby it becomes possible to determine the population 14–17 years of age, inclusive, and the number and percentage of these "in school." These data do not, however, show the grade levels in which pupils are enrolled or types of school attended.

From the reports of the Office of Education it was possible to find the total number of youth enrolled in public and private secondary schools, but these did not report the data by age groupings. The fact that both types of data for 1950 are now available makes it possible to compute a percentage ratio for each State, using the youth population 14 through 17 given in the former source, and the high school enrollments given in the latter. While each set of data possesses certain shortcomings, each series provides helpful and comparable indices of high school retention for each State. Taken

[1] 547 Have Gone, Washington, Research Division of the National Education Association, 1948 (Federal Aid Series No. 3). 21 p. mimeo.

together the two sets of data not only strengthen each other but reveal significant facts neither set could provide singly.

By examining the increases since 1890 in the percentage ratios of the high school enrollments to population 14 to 17, inclusive, a rough index can be had of the extent to which high school youth of the United States as a whole have been retained in school. This ratio stood at only 7 out of 100 in 1890, 11 in 1900, 15 in 1910, 32 in 1920, 51 in 1930, 73 in 1940, and for 1950 it reached 79, its highest level thus far. In other words nearly 4 out of 5 of these youth are now in such schools. These data show that in the second and third decades of this century these ratios rose very rapidly. This was due both to the growing availability of the public high schools throughout the land and to the heroic efforts made by these schools to make their services more useful to all types of boys and girls. The more recent slowing up of the rate of rise in this ratio is due to the closer approach to the point of diminishing returns rather than any relaxation of the high schools in their efforts to reach all youth or to improve and diversify their programs.

The report here presented is concerned, however, chiefly with two sets of indices showing the holding power of the high schools of each State compared with each other. To be sure, the low ratios of some States do not necessarily mean that they have neglected secondary education. It is well known that the problem of providing satisfactory high school services is much greater in one State than in another—differences in climate, terrain, sparsity of population, ethnic groups all enter this situation.

To consider these indices intelligently they must be more fully understood than the data here presented will reveal. The "in school" data of the Census Report are based upon the question "has he attended school at any time since February 1, 1950?" Attendance at school included the "regular" public, private or parochial schools of all levels whereby educational credit was earned, operating either on a full-time or part-time basis, and as day or evening schools. Persons learning through correspondence courses, trade schools, commercial schools, etc., not generally recognized as elementary or secondary instruction were not included.

## *"In School" Data*

The "in school" data gathered by the census, therefore, are excellent indices of continued education as long as no effort is made to differentiate them for the elementary and secondary school levels. They show youth enrolled in the regular schools by age groups; they do not show in what grade level they are. Obviously many retarded youth 14 to 17 were still in the elementary grades, chiefly in the sixth, seventh, and eighth; a few of the accelerated 17-year-olds were already in college. Sample studies made by the Census Bureau suggest about 18 per 100 of the 14–17-year-olds in school are not in high school; of these about 15 are in grades below the high school and about 3 are in college.

The high school enrollments reported to the Office of Education are for June 1950. They include all youth enrolled in grades 9 to 12, and a few in high school "post-graduate courses." They are excellent indices of the extent to which youth are enrolled in the high schools, but they do not give these data by age groups. Obviously some accelerated 12- and 13-year-olds are already attending the ninth grade or higher, and many 18-year and older youth are still in the high school grades. Again a sample study reveals that about 14 per 100 of those attending high school are not 14 to 17 years old; 6 are below 14 years of age and 8 are 18 or older. These data may also include a few youth who enrolled in both a public and a parochial high school

**High School Youth Retention Indices, by States, 1950** [1]

| States | Population, ages 14–17, inclusive | Pupils "in school," ages 14-17, U. S. Census report | | | Enrollment, grades 9–12, public and private high schools | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Number | Ratio | Rank | Number | Ratio | Rank |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| **United States** | **8,019,870** | **7,067,790** | **88.1** | | **6,369,096** | **79.4** | |
| Alabama | 221,990 | 173,105 | 78.0 | 40.5 | 129,255 | 58.2 | 43 |
| Arizona | 47,885 | 38,040 | 79.4 | 36 | 29,605 | 61.8 | 39 |
| Arkansas | 135,530 | 104,995 | 77.5 | 44 | 80 297 | 59.2 | 41 |
| California | 483,185 | 437,070 | 90.5 | 3 | 430,938 | 89.2 | 4 |
| Colorado | 74,100 | 62,390 | 84.2 | 25 | 57,732 | 77.9 | 24.5 |
| Connecticut | 94,470 | 83,245 | 88.1 | 10 | 77,881 | 82.4 | 16 |
| Delaware | 16,960 | 13,865 | 81.8 | 30 | 12,494 | 73.7 | 29 |
| Florida | 144,685 | 119,690 | 82.7 | 29 | 102,174 | 70.6 | 32 |
| Georgia | 235,640 | 173,075 | 73.4 | 46 | 150,677 | 63.9 | 35 |
| Idaho | 38,075 | 33.705 | 88.5 | 8 | 31,616 | 83.0 | 13 |
| Illinois | 427,570 | 372,305 | 87.1 | 15 | 335,754 | 78.5 | 23 |
| Indiana | 214,150 | 184,770 | 86.3 | 19 | 177,421 | 82.8 | 14 |
| Iowa | 151,040 | 132,115 | 87.5 | 13 | 124,864 | 82.7 | 15 |
| Kansas | 108,110 | 92,250 | 86.3 | 20 | 82,260 | 76.1 | 27 |
| Kentucky | 203,465 | 142,255 | 69.9 | 48 | 108,201 | 53.2 | 45 |
| Louisiana | 171,790 | 135,910 | 79.1 | 37 | 96,473 | 56.2 | 44 |
| Maine | 56,135 | 46,510 | 82.9 | 27 | 45,249 | 80.6 | 19 |
| Maryland | 122,285 | 97,655 | 79.9 | 35 | 77,351 | 63.3 | 37 |
| Massachusetts | 234,425 | 203,080 | 86.6 | 17 | 241,062 | 102.8 | 1 |
| Michigan | 349,965 | 309,865 | 88.5 | 9 | 304,271 | 86.9 | 7 |
| Minnesota | 168,890 | 147,350 | 87.2 | 14 | 137,246 | 81.3 | 18 |
| Mississippi | 159,520 | 124,245 | 77.9 | 42 | 83,351 | 52.3 | 47 |
| Missouri | 216,220 | 173,220 | 80.1 | 35 | 165,969 | 76.8 | 26 |
| Montana | 33,365 | 29,245 | 87.7 | 11 | 28,692 | 86.0 | 8 |
| Nebraska | 77,835 | 66,855 | 85.9 | 22 | 66,686 | 85.7 | 9 |
| Nevada | 7,655 | 6,825 | 89.2 | 6 | 5,772 | 75.4 | 28 |
| New Hampshire | 29,785 | 25,505 | 85.6 | 23 | 25,040 | 84.1 | 11 |
| New Jersey | 228,095 | 196,765 | 86.3 | 21 | 207,774 | 91.1 | 3 |
| New Mexico | 46,555 | 37,615 | 80.8 | 33 | 29,634 | 63.6 | 36 |
| New York | 700,455 | 613,355 | 87.6 | 12 | 624,225 | 89.1 | 5 |
| North Carolina | 293,700 | 229,505 | 78.1 | 39 | 183,256 | 62.4 | 38 |
| North Dakota | 42,090 | 34,335 | 81.6 | 31 | 29,197 | 69.4 | 33 |
| Ohio | 403,575 | 357,530 | 88.6 | 7 | 321,926 | 79.8 | 21 |
| Oklahoma | 146,795 | 127,125 | 86.6 | 18 | 103,963 | 70.8 | 31 |
| Oregon | 79,375 | 72,575 | 91.4 | 2 | 70,283 | 88.5 | 6 |
| Pennsylvania | 575,620 | 500,050 | 86.9 | 16 | 472,819 | 82.1 | 17 |
| Rhode Island | 39,270 | 31,975 | 81.4 | 32 | 36,499 | 92.9 | 2 |
| South Carolina | 158,955 | 114,475 | 72.0 | 47 | 80,450 | 50.6 | 48 |
| South Dakota | 41,885 | 34,740 | 82.9 | 28 | 30,783 | 73.5 | 30 |
| Tennessee | 216,590 | 168,315 | 77.4 | 45 | 126,962 | 58.3 | 42 |
| Texas | 468,365 | 365,150 | 78.0 | 40.5 | 288,232 | 61.5 | 40 |
| Utah | 46,195 | 42,860 | 92.8 | 1 | 39,355 | 85.2 | 10 |
| Vermont | 23,110 | 19,400 | 83.9 | 26 | 18,013 | 77.9 | 24.5 |
| Virginia | 201,550 | 156,430 | 77.6 | 43 | 107,185 | 53.2 | 46 |
| Washington | 118,375 | 106,155 | 89.7 | 5 | 98,769 | 83.4 | 12 |
| West Virginia | 140,520 | 110,610 | 78.7 | 38 | 92,897 | 66.1 | 34 |
| Wisconsin | 197,435 | 177,315 | 89.8 | 4 | 158,942 | 80.5 | 20 |
| Wyoming | 17,300 | 14,780 | 85.4 | 24 | 13,813 | 79.8 | 22 |
| District of Columbia | 31,335 | 26,590 | 84.9 | | 25,788 | 82.3 | |

[1] Data for columns 2 and 3 are taken from table 19, "Population; General Characteristics," (P–B42) State Reports of U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1950, and those for column 6 from tables 11 and 48, Statistics of State School Systems, 1949–50.

during the same school year and were reported twice. There is also some possible source of error in the ratio of high school enrollments to the population figures resulting from the fact that the data were taken from two sources, gathered and processed differently.

Keeping these facts in mind it is interesting to note that with few exceptions the "in school" ratios from the census report are larger than those showing high school enrollment. The exceptions seem to be States in which private and parochial enrollments are known to be disproportionately high. This may mean that such youth were either counted twice, or lived in one State but enrolled in schools of another.

### *Wide Differences*

Generally speaking, the States showing the highest ratios in one set of indices also show the highest ratios in the other.

All of this suggests pointedly (1) that either series of measures provides fairly reliable comparative indices of the extent to which the several States succeed in keeping youth of high school age in school, (2) taken together they reinforce their indicative power, and (3) in the writer's opinion, the ratios of high school enrollment to population show the interstate comparisons of high school holding power somewhat more reliably than the "in school" data reported in the Census Report. Of course, without the population data (column 2) by age groups from that Report, none of these comparisons would be possible.

This study shows clearly that there are wide differences in the extent to which youth of high school age in the several States is reached by and retained in the high schools of all types. It also suggests that one must go to various sources if he wishes to know what the high school retention and drop-out situation is in each State. Regular reports by all States of school enrollments, both by age and by grade levels, would help greatly to clarify this picture.

# News From UNESCO

DURING a recent visit to Sweden, Mr. F. G. Leasure, formerly of Paul Smith's College, New York, and now specialist in vocational and technical education at UNESCO, was most impressed by the work being done at the Swedish Government Institute for Master Craftsmen, at Stockholm.

"No comparable institution," says Mr. Leasure, "designed exclusively to serve the interests of master craftsmen in small and home industries, exists anywhere else in the world." As Swedish home industries produce goods to the annual value of approximately $1,000,000,000, the Hantverksinstitut, enabling craftsmen to keep abreast of the latest techniques, is of vital importance to the economy of the nation.

As a practical step towards the development and encouragement of educational exchanges UNESCO has been publishing at regular intervals since 1948 its *Study Abroad*, a classified list of scholarships and travel bursaries offered by official and private agencies throughout the world. Volume IV of this publication, which has just appeared and which deals with international training and student exchange programmes for 1951–52, 1952–53, and 1953–54, contains information on 38,000 bursaries, fellowships and other types of study grants offered by international organizations and by governments, educational bodies and private institutions in 60 countries.[1]

There are awards for every field of study. Based on last year's volume, it is estimated that 60% or approximately 23,000 of the total number are "unrestricted," which means that all subjects are approved by the awarding agency provided the candidates have the required qualifications. The remaining 40%, or 15,000 awards, fall under the following heads, in descending order of totals in each group: technology, social sciences, medical sciences, education, engineering, physical and biological sciences, fine arts and architecture, agriculture, languages and literature, philosophy and religion and others. They include cancer research, classical and mediaeval studies, Oriental or African studies, metallurgy, pure and applied sciences, statistics, economics, theology, fishery research, Spanish and Arabic literature, textile and plastics, co-operatives, journalism, sanitary engineering, production engineering, commerce, Brazilian culture and many other subjects.

A regional Seminar for history teachers of the four Northern countries—Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland—was recently held in Sigtuna near Stockholm. The purpose of this Seminar was to discuss problems concerning the teaching of history in the four Northern countries in the light of experience gained at the two UNESCO Seminars held at Brussels and Sèvres. The meeting was organized by the Swedish National Commission for UNESCO in collaboration with the Norden Association and the Federation of Swedish history teachers.

A striking feature apparent in all the discussions of this seminar was the interest shown in the international aspects of history and the outspoken desire on the part of all the participants to give the teaching of world history and the study of foreign civilizations greater scope and depth in Scandinavian schools. Several of the participants had previously been working as teachers in other countries and continents in connection with missions and international organizations. The keen desire to widen their horizon beyond the radius of the advanced living conditions prevailing in the Northern countries so as to give practical help to people in other countries less fortunate than their own was apparently the underlying motive of this lively and sincere interest for greater international understanding shown by all throughout the Seminar.

Increasing attention is being given to the next seminar in the Unesco series on Education for International Understanding, namely the Seminar on the Teaching of Modern Languages which will take place in August 1953.

Recently Dr. Felix Walter, who has charge at UNESCO of the preparations for this Seminar, attended the meetings in Brussels of the Belgian Association of Teachers of Modern Languages. The theme chosen for discussion was the cul-

(*Continued on page 78*)

[1] *Study Abroad*, Vol. IV is available from the national distribution center for UNESCO publications in the U. S., Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York.

Planning and research required for One Office of Education pub

# Studying Elementary Scho

By the Staff of Elementary Schools Secti

*This article is one of several being published this year to present the details of programs referred to in the article "Improving Education for Children," School Life, January 1952. Vol. 34 No. 4. It shows how the Elementary Schools Section Staff works cooperatively on planned projects.*

## How We Began

It was the fall of 1949. The study entitled *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities* had been completed. This was the time when the elementary section staff had planned to begin a companion study in the field of instruction. Since we had used an interview guide drawn up in advance in making the organization and supervision study, the group of 10 staff members who were to work on this new project thought a similar guide might be helpful. We began such a guide. The group took a look at it and remarked, both individually and collectively, "Too brief." Subcommittees went to work and produced a detailed list of items for study in all instruction areas as well as for the total program. This time the group of the whole reacted even more negatively, "Too detailed." Although we tried to steer a middle course from that point forward, we never did succeed in coming out with a guide for working that could be labeled "Just right."

## Our Self-Education Program

However, as a result of these experiences, the group decided that we needed some self-education in order to answer such questions as, "How can you decide whether a total elementary school program is good for children? How do you recognize good teaching and learning? How does the teacher draw upon the subject matter of science, health, physical education, social studies, art, music, the language arts, arithmetic in relation to the learning experiences of children? What are children learning?"

As a result, each specialist spent 2 hours presenting his philosophy of teaching and learning, starting with the total elementary school program to show how subject matter contributes to all the experiences of the school day. For example, the specialists in science pointed out that (1) science is broader than plant and animal study, (2) science experiences should help children with problem solving in everyday living in their immediate environment, and (3) generalizations and principles are developed from many experiences that children have throughout their elementary school years.

The science specialists proposed that staff members use as a yardstick for themselves such a question as, "Can you find evidence that as children go from grade to grade, their incidental interests are considered, but that the children show evidence of sustained interest too?"

## How We Pulled Our Thinking Together

After about 9 months punctuated by such meetings at monthly intervals, in which each specialist presented his point of view for discussion, one staff member drew up out of all the suggestions and comments, and agreements, a set of *Principles of Modern Curriculum Development.* These were organized in a check list form with opportunity for each staff member to answer "Yes" or "No" to each item. The maker threw in a number "jokers" to make the checking experience more interesting. The main headings used were: Curriculum Goals, Selection and Planning of Curriculum Experiences, Organization of Curriculum Experiences, Evaluation, Whole-School and Out-of-School Activities Which the School Can Enrich, Relation of School to Other Community Agencies, and Materials, Equipment, and Resources. After we had checked the entire list, we took a look at both the areas of agreement and disagreement, in order to see where we stood as a group in our thinking.

## How We Selected Schools

While these self-education experiences were going on, letters went to staff members of each State department of education requesting the names of a number of school systems where our staff members could see *good* practices in elementary education. We did not ask for *best* practices, but for those that were judged as generally good so far as the State was concerned. In addition we asked for brief descriptive statements about each such school program that would help us in making decisions about where to visit. Replies were tabulated and filed in a large alphabetical file, for ready reference. Although we tried to select towns and cities in various sections of the country and of various sizes, our visits were limited to those places that were on our travel routes in connection with other visits. This fact was due to the limited travel funds available. In all, 83 visits were made in the 48 States.

## Finding Ways of Organizing Results

As the visits began, each visitor made a detailed report of what he saw and did. After 25 visits had been made and the results discussed, we drew up a list of Guiding Suggestions, to help us in looking for significant things. After another 25 visits this list gave way to what amounted to an outline of the bulletin that resulted from this study.

[1] *Schools At Work In 48 States.* U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1952, No. 13. Federal Security Agency. 35 cents. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

ation [1]

# l Practices in the 48 States

Evision of State and Local School Systems


Real money in exchange for real goods gives meaning to arithmetic. Here grade school children collect milk money and are responsible for accurate accounting. Photograph courtesy, Grand Rapids, Mich., schools.

## Plan for School Visits

After the selection of schools and the staff preparation, came the school visits. Each was a 2-day visit with groups of teachers, with supervisors and administrators; and in classrooms. Often parents were interviewed and sometimes student councils or other groups of pupils or individual pupils furnished information. Insofar as possible the interviewers tried to get an over-all look at the school systems, see the things that the persons in charge considered especially significant, and see as many classes in action as possible. Almost always the interviewers left with a large manila envelope packed with bulletins, leaflets, newspaper clippings, children's work, and other material that would further describe the work of the school. In some cases further information and detail were furnished by letter upon specific request.

The reports of visits were written up in considerable detail by the reviewers and were accompanied by a bibliography of the material from the schools visited. Then came the job of digesting, assimilating the material, and organizing these findings into a report which would be meaningful to readers who would like to know what schools are doing and how they are doing it. First the reports from the various schools were read carefully and significant procedures were checked for possible inclusion in the written report. From these came the final organization of the report.

It became evident from the reading of the material that all of the schools visited were concerned, to varying degrees, with the problem of in-service education of teachers, with including more and more teachers in curriculum planning, with orientation of new teachers to their duties, and with using local and nearby institutions of higher learning. Descriptions of practices with respect to these areas form the section in the report called *Teachers at Work.*

Accounts of various methods of grouping pupils, helping pupils to work independently, work of student councils and school clubs were grouped together under *Pupils at Work.*

The classroom observations were grouped in a section called *The School Program.* It describes some of the ways in which schools are meeting their problems of teaching reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic as well as ways in which they are including science, the social studies and health and safety education, and the creative arts. Specific illustrations of practices are described. Sometimes these are of individual lessons which illustrate a way of working. Sometimes they tell how pupils plan for, and carry on, an extensive study involving several subject matter areas and a variety of skills and activities. The descriptions show how schools attempt to make learning more vital and meaningful, how school work relates to community study, and how the school program is adapted to needs, abilities, interests, and aptitudes of the children.

The fourth section deals with *The School and Community at Work Together.* In it there are descriptions of parent and teacher groups working together on the problems of the school to improve education for children. The goals, methods of work, and services of these groups are indicated.

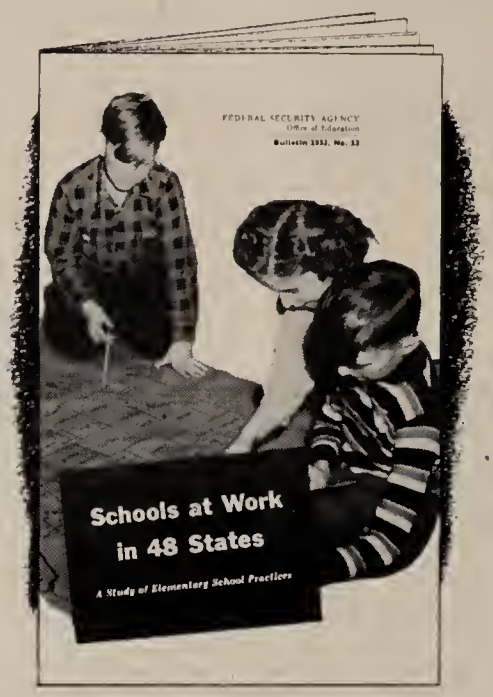
Another part of this section records practices in school and community relationships: How the schools make use of community resources and how the community uses the school program and facilities. A large part of this section describes how schools communicate with parents and other citizens to inform them of the work of the school through conferences, publications,

letters, and other means. The extent of this section appears to indicate that many schools are finding it increasingly desirable to provide their patrons with accurate, first-hand information and at the same time receive help from parents that is important in improving the school program.

### Some Conclusions From the Study

A concluding page entitled *A Profession at Work on Its Problems* summarizes the bulletin's intention in the following paragraphs:

"Observation in the school systems described in this bulletin shows that teachers, administrators, and parents are aware of many problems which are complex. They involve more and better trained teachers, a curriculum adapted to the needs of individual children, better equipment and facilities, closer school-community relationships, and an improved program of instruction. Many of the problems are long standing; some are presently acute in some communities. None can be solved by application of a formula. They must be approached through a cooperative effort of all persons involved at the local level.




"This bulletin shows how school systems in various States work to solve some of their problems. From these accounts it is evident that the best results are associated with the use of the democratic process at all levels of activity; with primary children, with older children, with teachers' in-service programs, with parent groups, and with teachers at work with supervisors and administrators. In all instances the problems are of real concern to those involved. Democratic procedures in any group insure the use of the variety of talents and abilities of the members, with each individual feeling that he is a part of the group and that his work and opinion count.

"A thoughtful reading of these accounts from schools can promote discussion in teachers' groups, offer suggestions to teachers for the improvement of instruction, interpret to parents the nature and purpose of the school program, provide ideas for increasing the effectiveness of teacher and parent groups, and be a useful tool in helping to evaluate elementary school practices, for it is through continuous evaluation of practices that progress results."

# Civil Defense—A Challenge to Education

By Dana B. Roblee, School Relations Officer, Federal Civil Defense Administration

PRIMITIVE MEN had a wartime civil defense. It was not highly organized but it was as effective as they knew how to make it. If the tribe's warriors were overcome on the battlefield, the simple plan was for noncombatants—the women, children, and aged—to gather up such possessions as they were able to carry and flee into the forest or to some other hiding place. The primitive homes and possessions left behind might be plundered or destroyed, but civilians saved themselves and what they could carry by running away and hiding. They had only a meager knowledge of civil defense, but they practiced what they knew.

Later, men developed more effective community protection. The lords of manors built their homes—their castles—with high turreted walls and surrounded them with moats. When an enemy approached the lands of a manor lord, the nearby civilian population fled to the protection of the castle. The high wall and moat gave effective advantage to the defensive forces and provided considerable protection to noncombatants within the castle. However, the outside lands and homes were left open to the enemy and, laying siege to the castles and taking them singly, one after another, an aggressor might subdue an entire country.

### Mutual Protection

In still later times, men learned that their defenses were strengthened when they banded together in cooperative groups; then they surrounded all the homes of communities within one wall and made the defense of each city more effective through mutual protection. This concept of defensive citizenship, behind walls as barriers to attackers, became so dominant that the famed Great Wall of China was planned to strengthen the defense of a whole country.

Today, the destructive power of modern weapons has made walls (even Maginot lines) useless for civil defense and new protective techniques have become necessary. Military experts recognize that the fighting potential of an opponent can be substantially lessened by exerting both psychological and physical forces against his supporting civilian population. An aggressor knows that if he can destroy the morale of an opponent's home folk—family members in homes and schools—or can weaken the industrial potential of an opponent's civilian supporters—production workers on farms, in factories, in mines. and in other occupations important to the national economy and the war effort, he can enhance the likelihood of his own military success. He knows that if he can weaken his victim's civilian morale and industrial capacity, he can win a great victory without even committing his military forces to fight for it. An aggressor will not strike unless he believes he can win.

Civilian morale can be disintegrated

both through subtle propaganda and through wanton destruction of property and life. Industrial strength can be destroyed through the powerful weapons of modern warfare—explosive, fire, chemical, and bacteriological.

An enemy knows that a contemplated attack may be frustrated by a citizenry which is able to think clearly despite attempts to create confusion by false rumors and conflicting reports; is ready to rise courageously above any sense of fear, of hopelessness, or of helplessness in the face of devastating blows against life, health, and property; is trained to act with resourcefulness in overcoming the ravages of disease and injuries; and is prepared to combat skillfully the damaging effects of explosive, fire, and chemical onslaughts. He knows that noncombatants with such competencies decrease his chances for success in an attack. In proportion, as an aggressor knows the chances for success in a first strike are lessened, the likelihood of his making an attack is decreased.

Realistically facing the facts thus brought into focus, it is clear that the power of civilians to balk forces aimed at the destruction of American morale and industry will be significant in determining whether war comes and if it does, which side will be victorious. That power is civil defense—the might of civilian America! A strength for peace!

### Four Points of Emphasis

The basic techniques in modern civil defense involve principles that have been proved effective in the protection of mental and physical health, life, and property in various emergency situations. However, the havoc that must be reckoned with, if civil defense is to be an effective force for peace, makes necessary four points of emphasis: an intensified sense of social interdependence and group solidarity; a broadened understanding of interpersonal responsibilities; an improved knowledge of the realities of the world we live in; and more commonly developed protective skills. Through these, protective citizenship will become a dynamic functional reality in American culture.

Education is uniquely qualified to be a major factor in building a peace-preserving civil defense program. It can develop insights which will dispel insidious propaganda and the deadly emotional effects of modern warfare waged against American lives, homes, and industries. It can teach the protective skills and understandings that are characteristic of alert citizenship.

Education has the resources to accomplish these goals. It has the social competence and the organizational structure for effective action; and it occupies a powerful, unique position of leadership in America. Indeed, in this period of undeniable world tensions, education has a challenging responsibility.

Every school and college, every special interest group, and every other educational organization which holds improvement of modern society as a major function shares in the responsibility of preserving world peace. The particular role of each may be unique; but the preservation of peace demands that all gird themselves to prepare the total population to withstand any attack against American civilian morale or industry.

### Protective Citizenship

Through many educational organizations — child, youth, and adult — the dynamic concept of protective citizenship as a characteristic of the American culture is being developed. Protective understandings and techniques are being taught as America becomes strengthened to resist threats against her morale or industrial capacity. Major educational organizations, including the American Council on Education, the National Educational Association, the United States Office of Education, and many others recognize the broad educational implication in modern civil defense. Also, many organizations with educational programs outside of the schools and colleges, such as the Boy Scouts of America, the Future Farmers of America, and parent-teacher associations, are developing effective civil defense programs.

All of American education should rise to support vigorously this great peace-preserving program of civilian preparedness for emergency situations. Every educational institution is, in a very real sense, a team player with American statesmen working to restrain the spread of war. Faithful dedication to this purpose requires each school to reappraise its curriculum, its plans, and its community resources in terms of its potential contribution to national security and peace through civil defense. This reexamination in the light of present tensions and possible outcomes will reveal rich opportunities for integrating into its present program, a broad and realistic understanding of protective citizenship.

Civil defense has become a part of our American culture. Educational leadership is needed! If the total resources of American schools, colleges, and other educational organizations are marshalled to protect the lives and property of all the people, a most effective peace-preserving civil defense program will emerge and the world will know that the strength and spirit of America cannot be destroyed.

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## Delinquency and the School

(*Continued from page 66*)

augurated specific programs to train teachers to work with delinquent youth. Representative of these is a cooperative project between a college and the State Youth Authority which involves a period of internship for the students in a juvenile institution. Here the students are able to work with delinquent youth in school, in their work and recreation programs, and in their living quarters. Opportunity is also given students to visit the home and communities of a selected number of cases. The majority of the students completing this program are employed by the public schools and have been exceedingly helpful in working with children with behavior problems. As teachers they also have been able to interpret the program of the Youth Authority to the school faculty and the community and to assist in the adjustment of youth returned to the community from Youth Authority institutions.

### Way Can Be Found

No set pattern of procedure can be adopted universally by the school in resolving the many problems it faces in trying to help the children and youth it serves. Many of these problems are local and must be solved locally in terms of a particular community environment. But if the basic principle is followed, that the school is to serve all the children of all the people, and if teachers and administrators are willing to give some study to phenomena of delinquency as it exists in our complex modern society, ways can be found in every community to enable the school to assume the leadership it should command.

# Penn State: International Host

By John W. Grissom, Acting Chief, Teacher Education Section,
Division of International Education

IN THE FALL OF 1951, Pennsylvania State College became the temporary home for fourteen educators from such faraway countries as India, Norway, Thailand, Costa Rica, the Philippines, Haiti, Turkey, Germany and Finland. The fouteen visitors were recipients of grants awarded under the U. S. Government's Teacher Education Program, one of the international exchange programs established by the Smith-Mundt Act of 1948. Pennsylvania State College, cooperating with the U. S. Office of Education, which administers the Program, had accepted the responsibility of advising and instructing these teachers in vocational education for one semester.

After a short period in Washington, D. C., for orientation to the United States and its educational systems, the teachers were sent to State College, Pennsylvania. Under the supervision of Dr. S. Lewis Land, Director of Industrial Education, and his associates, the teachers were enrolled in regular graduate classes at the College according to their individual interests. As there were headmasters and superintendents in the group, as well as classroom teachers, the interests varied considerably. Courses included "Introduction to Education for Vocational Teachers," "Shop Layout and Management," "Philosophy of Vocational Education," "Home Economics," "Food and Nutrition," "Family Health," "Agricultural Developments," "Plant Breeding" and others.

One course, "Seminar in Vocational Education," was established especially for the visiting teachers. This seminar served to coordinate the field activities with the formal courses on the campus. It also provided an opportunity for discussing the problems of individual interests with the group as a whole.

***In 1951–52, 201 educators in elementary, secondary and vocational education, and English as a foreign language came from 42 countries to participate in the Teacher Education Program. Seven institutions of higher learning were asked to provide these educators a fundamental understanding of education and society in the U. S. A. This article describes the training and experiences of one particular group but is typical of activities in all groups.***

Two days a week were left free for field visits to junior and senior high schools, technical and vocational schools, and for tours through industrial plants and farms. Schools in State College, Pine Grove Mills, Williamsport, Kingston, Hollidaysburg, Reading, Slippery Rock, Harrisburg and in many other Pennsylvania communities were host to these visitors.

Trips were taken to the Philco Manufacturing Company in Watsontown, the Bethlehem Wire-Rope Plant in Williamsport, the Titan Metal Manufacturing Company in Bellefonte, the Huber Colliery in Ashley, the Hershey Corporation in Hershey, and the Wilkes-Barre Record Publishing Company and the Vulcan Iron Works in Wilkes-Barre. The Centre County Agricultural Agent even arranged a 500-mile tour of farms and farm homes in Centre County for the teachers.

## A Living State

To these teachers from other countries, Pennsylvania became a living State of school children, workers, farmers, businessmen and housewives. An area of industries, farms, schools, churches and homes—in other words, a reality. No longer was Pennsylvania merely a colored portion of a map or descriptive words in a book to these teachers. In this way, they came to know intimately the United States and its people.

The visitors were impressed by the way we teach and practice democracy in our schools. This, they believed, was exemplified by the manner in which teachers and students worked together and by the fact that we were attempting to develop good citizens as well as to meet the academic needs of our children. One teacher expressed his praise by saying, "The liberal and democratic feelings that exist between pupils and teachers and between students and professors, I believe, worthy of emulation."

Most of the teachers came from countries with a strong, centrally controlled system of education, and the influence of our communities on the local school systems was unique to them. Said one teacher from India, "I am very much impressed by the keen interest taken by people in education of the children of the community and the various number of organizations helping and cooperating in educational work."

## Freedom For Teachers

Many of the visitors envied the wealth of textbooks, teaching aids and school facilities as well as the freedom allowed each teacher in presenting his courses. One teacher commented, "The vast educational resources of books, magazines, equipment most needed in accomplishing the objectives of any school are within their reach plus the able instructors, technicians and educational philosophers recognized the world over contribute greatly to the academic advancement of whoever would have the privilege of undergoing training in any

of the recognized schools in the United States."

Members of the group also attended several conferences in their fields of specialization. They participated in the Fourth Annual Conference on Industrial Education conducted by the Department of Industrial Education at Penn State and were guests at the Conference on the Rehabilitation of Physically Handicapped Miners in Williamsport. Four teachers interested in agriculture attended the Annual Future Farmers of America Convention in Kansas City, Missouri.

The Cosmopolitan Club, the Rotary Clubs, the American Legion, School Boards, P. T. A.'s and the Kiwanis Clubs in State College and the surrounding area invited the teachers to their meetings and luncheons several times. Often the teachers were asked to speak to these groups about their countries' culture, education, geography and customs. It was in this way that the visiting teachers had an opportunity to follow the "two-way street" of international cultural relations.

An attempt has been made by the Office of Education to analyze the number of talks and speeches given by the group. More than 50 talks and speeches were made by the group to civic clubs, international organizations, school groups, church meetings and professional clubs. Approximately 3,000 persons benefited from these presentations, while newspaper articles about the teachers reached an even greater portion of the American public.

The majority of the teachers resided in the college dormitory and soon learned about collegiate life. Several of the group even adopted the jackets, sporty caps and the mannerisms of their new American college friends.

### A Ready Welcome

How well were they accepted at Penn State? Let one of them tell you. "On my arrival at Pennsylvania State College, I was made to feel that my presence was as necessary on the campus as the fireman who watches the gage at a central heating plant or the guard who makes the nightly tour to protect the premises or the freshman student . . . I detected from every student, every professor, and every member of the schools visited, the cooperation to make my study and stay a success. As I trod the campus and visited in the community of State College, Pennsylvania, everyone whom I encountered approached with an outstretched hand. This is the pattern by which I was received in every community and school throughout my stay in America."

The faculty members of Penn State and the townspeople in the area entertained the visitors in their homes many times, and the teachers will never forget this warm hospitality. In the short period of 3 months at Penn State, which constituted the first half of their program in the United States, these teachers from all areas of the world learned how we live as well as how we educate our children from youth to maturity. They had opportunities to see our religious, social and political activities in natural settings. Their appreciation and understanding of America and her people were greatly strengthened. Although all comments were not favorable ones, there was a sincere exchange of respect and friendship between the teachers and their many American hosts.

What impressions did these teachers gather from their visit to Penn State and to other sections of the United States? Perhaps a few comments taken from the reports submitted by them to the Office of Education at the end of their grants may help to answer this.

### What They Liked

When asked what they liked about the United States, some wrote, "The American people's kindness, readiness to help and their lack of snobbery." "That you can go to and talk with everybody. All people are kindly and willing to serve you. For example, I went to the Director for an Archaelogical Division of a Museum and told him that I am interested in old string instruments and he spent a couple of hours with me and showed me all the instruments which they had, both in exhibition and storage. When I left him, I had the feeling that he was very satisfied and happy when he had the opportunity to serve me. I have never, under the period of 5 months I have been in this country, seen any person who has been 'sour' or unfriendly to me." "The way in which the church works in this country. For example: How the 13 different churches take care of and serve the students on this campus [Penn State] and how the churches in for example, Washington, are filled with people on Sundays." "Remarkable for a non-American appears the average high standard of living in the U. S. A. which is reflected in the innumerable mechanical aids." "The fact that open criticism in either form of speech or print is free."

Several aspects of our country brought forth unfavorable comments. Some teachers criticized the lack of frugality in our way of living, such as the waste of paper and food. For example, a number of the teachers live in countries where the teacher possesses the only textbook in classes of 60 to 80 pupils. Very few of the teachers were able to satisfy completely their desire to obtain textbooks and pamphlets before going home.

To several of the group, the average American's food supply must have seemed tremendous and what is wasted, criminal. One teacher came from a country where less than a decade ago almost 4,000,000

The group of foreign teachers of vocational education at Penn State College. Dr. S. Lewis Land, Director of Industrial Education, is with the group (back row center). His assistant, Mr. Peterson, is at extreme left.

of his countrymen starved to death during a famine.

When you think of how many times a day we use paper in one form or another, or how much food is consumed and discarded daily, it is not difficult to understand their criticism.

### A Paradoxical Impression

All commented on how little the average American knew about other nations of the world. As we are now assuming a position of world leadership in the eyes of these visitors, this weakness seemed extremely odd to them. Perhaps this created a paradoxical impression as well, for several of the teachers were surprised that people, knowing so little about them, would take them into their schools, homes and churches.

The racial problem was mentioned with varied feelings, but there was a consensus that, although it was not a good example of democracy, there was evidence that we are honestly attempting to solve it.

Our use of the radio, television and magazines to provide the public entertainment in the form of murder mysteries, crime and risqué stories was criticized, particularly from the standpoint of their effect on children.

The few unfavorable impressions did not appear to lessen the teachers' respect and friendship for this country. Most of them realized their lifelong ambition in coming to the United States. An excerpt from one of the reports may be a good example of what the training at Pennsylvania State College and the hospitality of the American people meant to the majority of these teachers from other lands.

*"I still remember when I told my mother of my ambition of coming to this country. I was a sophomore in the high school. I thought she would laugh as others used to do when I told them about it. She did not. Instead, she made me understand and gave me more hope and encouragement. 'I will be very proud of you and be very happy if someday you can go to the United States to study. If only I could afford it, I would more than be willing to send you. The only chance and hope is in your hands. Study hard and I will see to it, by all means, that you go to college. When you finish, you can get a job. Then if you can save and after several years you can go. Never lose hope and do not forget to ask help from God. He will help you if you deserve it.'*

*Since then, my ambition has been a part of my daily prayers . . ."*

### Two Homes

This young man may not have found the dreamland that he expected to find, but when he was ready to depart for home, he told me that now he had two homes. His only regret was that he could live in but one of them. Nevertheless, when he returned to his country, he would make every effort to reduce the distance between the two, mentally and spiritually, for the benefit of his people and mine.

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## News from UNESCO

(*Continued from page 71*)

tural aspect of language teaching. A most interesting feature of the sessions was provided by the intervention of representatives of the French, British, Dutch, Austrian, Swiss and Luxemburgois language teachers, who gave their version of the problem in their own countries.

It was very clear from the discussions which followed, as well as from the papers read by well known authorities such as Professor Louis Landré of the University of Paris and Mr. Vernon Mallinson of Reading University, that most of the Western European countries are making a great effort in their secondary schools and colleges to give language pupils an up-to-date and accurate picture of the countries and peoples whose languages they study. European countries do, of course, enjoy certain geographical advantages in this respect. It is comparatively easy, for instance, to arrange for mass exchanges of pupils during the holiday months and for frequent visits abroad of the language teachers themselves. There are, on the other hand, distinct handicaps too. Countries like Belgium, Switzerland and Luxemburg are themselves bilingual or even, as in the case of Switzerland trilingual, so that foreign languages and foreign cultures are not merely second languages but often third or even fourth languages. Teachers in these countries have professional obstacles to overcome as well. In Luxemburg, for example, the modern language teacher must also be a specialist in one of the two classical languages. In Holland there is the burden of teaching hours; for a thirty-hour weekly teaching schedule is considered normal!

## Save The Children

YOU CAN HELP many types of needy children in the United States and in many other countries through your support of the Save The Children Federation, 80 Eighth Avenue, New York 11, N. Y.

Through voluntary gifts this Federation helps to provide minimum essentials of school supplies, shoes, and warm clothing for many children attending ill-equipped schools in rural areas. The Federation provides shoes, clothing, and medical supplies for young American Indian children in need. For war-orphaned, crippled, and poverty-stricken children in Europe and the Middle East it helps fill lacks of adequate clothing and food. The Federation provides schoolroom essentials for children in many parts of Europe whose schools were bombed during World War II. Packages of baby things new mothers in need both in our countries and abroad can use to help themselves and their offspring during the baby's first year are furnished by the Federation. It sends to war-stricken Korean children clothing, school supplies, and other vitally needed materials.

For further information write to the Save The Children Federation, which is a member of the International Union for Child Welfare and the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, Inc. Programs and financial statements of the Federation are filed under Registration No. VFA 031 with the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid of the Department of State.

## Their Own Report

"We have learned much about the American way of life and gained precious knowledge about each other's countries."

This statement, appearing in the preface of a unique report, expresses the feelings of the teachers of English from many countries who attended the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan in 1952.

With an editor from Egypt, a co-editor from Panama, a photographer from Peru, and contributors from other nations, the visiting teachers planned, prepared, and published a report of their 8 weeks' course and related experiences while attending the University of Michigan.

# The Office of Education
# Its Organization and Functions

Many school administrators and teachers across the country address requests to the Office of Education asking for information on the organization and functions of the Office.

For these and other educators interested, SCHOOL LIFE will present in a series several recently-prepared statements of function for the divisions and branches of the Office of Edueation. In some instances charts will also be used.

The first statement in the series covers the functions of the Office of the Commissioner of Education and the respective divisions of the Office. There is a further break-down of the specific functions of the branches in the Office of the Commissioner of Education.

## COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

Under general supervision of the Federal Security Administrator, administers the program of the Office of Education. Maintains relationships in international educational matters. With staff assistance, develops and formulates Office objectives and programs, coordinates operations and activities, maintains relationships with Federal, State, and professional agencies and organizations; and provides administrative services.

## OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER

### Program Development and Coordination Branch

Studies and identifies emerging problems and trends in American education. Plans and recommends Office programs and objectives. Reviews projects and activities for effectiveness and conformity to over-all goals and policies. Assists in program implementation. Collects and analyzes basic statistical data in the several fields of education; issues statistical reports; supplies statistical information to the Office staff and the public; acts in liaison capacity with other statistical agencies of the government. Provides consultative and technical services to other divisions.

### Reports and Technical Services Branch

Plans and directs program to diffuse research findings of the Office; announces and interprets research publications and content. Plans and operates Office-wide publications program including periodicals; provides editorial services for technical reports. Assists in research for official papers of the Commissioner. Reviews all manuscripts prepared in the Office for conformity to policy. Controls, reviews, and appraises funds for printing and binding; serves as liaison with Government Printing Office and Superintendent of Documents. Answers public inquiries and distributes publications.

### Administrative Management Branch

Advises and assists the Commissioner on administrative and organizational matters; participates in program and policy planning; represents the Office in budgetary, personnel, and other management activities with the Agency, Congress, and other units of the Government; is responsible for planning and developing budget estimates and participating in their justification before Congress and the Bureau of the Budget; directs administrative management activities for the Office.

### Budget and Administrative Services Section

Formulates budget policies and procedures to be followed in developing and preparing budget estimates and justifications and provides technical advice and assistance to Office staff in budget and fiscal matters; administers the budget of the Office; provides budget and fiscal services, mail, records, and messenger services, space planning, and other administrative services.

### Personnel and Organization Section

Studies and reviews organization and procedures; provides advice and assistance in improving organization and procedures. Plans and provides recruitment, employment, classification and other personnel services. Provides advice and assistance in establishing and maintaining effective personnel relations and programs. Provides service to Board of U. S. Civil Service Examiners and Board on Employee Awards.

## DIVISIONS

### Division of State and Local School Systems

Provides educational leadership in the general field of elementary and secondary education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to State and local school systems and educational organizations in the field of elementary and secondary education, including organization and administration of State and local school systems, organization and administration of schools, supervision, curriculum and instruction, and auxiliary services.

### Division of Higher Education

Provides educational leadership in the general field of higher education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to institutions of higher edueation on such matters as administration and supervision, and curriculum and instruction. Administers funds appropriated for land-grant colleges.

### Division of Vocational Education

Provides leadership in the general field of vocational education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to State Boards for Vocational Education, other Federal agencies, and professional organizations on such matters as vocational guidance and vocational education in agriculture, distributive occupations, home economics, and trade and industry. Administers grants-in-aid for vocational education under the George-Barden and Smith-Hughes Acts.

### Division of International Education

Conducts research and publishes reports on foreign educational systems; assists American institutions in the evaluation of foreign educational credentials; promotes development of international understanding through educational channels. Provides staffing services to Point IV educational activities; recruits specialists and teachers for overseas educational missions. Plans programs for foreign teachers and trainees; arranges for matching and placement of American and foreign teachers on interchange assignments. Plans field programs for foreign leaders, specialists and U. N. fellows. Provides advisory services to public and private agencies and organizations in the field of international education.

### Division of Veterans Educational Services

Provides educational advisory services to the Veterans Administration, State Approving Agencies, and educational institutions and organizations in the veterans' education program. Reviews and evaluates agreements with, and operations of, State Approving Agencies. Promulgates and maintains lists of nationally approved accrediting agencies and associations. Promulgates criteria for the approval of nonaccredited courses by State Approving Agencies. Maintains relationships with organizations and agencies in connection with the education of veterans. Develops and coordinates defense educational activities in the Office of Education.

**Division of School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas**

Administers programs of financial assistance to local educational agencies for maintenance and operation of schools in Federally affected areas under P. L. 874, 81st Congress, and for construction of school facilities under Title II, P. L. 815, 81st Congress, in such areas. Processes applications from schools, colleges, and libraries for construction authority; allots controlled materials for construction projects and issues authorizations for necessary equipment and supplies; estimates educational needs for controlled materials.

# New Books and Pamphlets

By Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

*Adolescence and Youth; The Process of Maturing.* By Paul H. Landis. Second Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. 461 p. $5.00.

*The Administration of Public Education.* By John T. Wahlquist, William E. Arnold, Roald F. Campbell, Theodore L. Reller and Lester B. Sands. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1952. 611 p. $6.00.

*Desirable Athletic Competition for Children.* (Report of the Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High Schools, Simon A. McNeely, Chairman.) Washington, D. C., American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, A Department of the National Education Association, 1952. 46 p. Illus. 50 cents.

*Educational Television Moves Forward.* A Report of a Full School Day of Ultra-High Frequency. Classroom Television Programs in the Public Schools of Bloomfield and Montclair, N. J., on April 30, 1952. Prepared by Lawrence H. Conrad. Montclair, N. J., The Montclair State Teachers College, Television in Education Project, 1952. 39 p. Illus. $1.00.

*In-Service Education of Teachers in Connecticut.* Hartford, Connecticut State Department of Education, Bureau of Research and Planning, 1952. 63 p. (Bulletin 56.)

*Intergroup Education in Public Schools.* Experimental Programs Sponsored by the Project in Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools: Theory, Practice, and In-Service Education. By Hilda Taba, Elizabeth Hall Brady, and John T. Robinson. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1952. 337 p. $4.00.

*The Mentally Retarded Child. A Guide for Parents.* By Abraham Levinson. Prepared under the Auspices of the Dr. Julian D. Levinson Research Foundation. New York, The John Day Co., 1952. 190 p. $2.75.

*Organization Guide for Citizenship Education.* Relating Premises and Current Unresolved Issues and Laboratory Practices to Junior-Senior High School: Social Studies, Science, English and Communication. New York, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. 44 p. (Publication Number 23.)

# Selected Theses on Education

By Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

THESE theses are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*A Comparison of Methods of Teaching Vocabulary in Academic Areas at the College Level.* By Clifford L. Bush. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 303 p. ms.

*A Descriptive and Evaluative Bibliography of Mathematics Filmstrips.* By Alton W. Clark, Clayton H. Gardner, Raymond W. Allen, and Robert F. Sweeney. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 492 p. ms.

*An Evaluation of the Effect of Illustrations Upon Comprehension in Reading on First and Second Grade Children.* By Theresa V. Kuivila. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 56 p. ms.

*An Experimental Study of Some of the Relationships Between Specific Speech Characteristics and Aspects of Personality as Measured by the Minnesota Personality Scale.* By Charles Otto Drews. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 53 p. ms.

*Family Life Education in School and Community.* By Elizabeth McHose. Doctor's, 1951. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 182 p. (Teachers College Studies in Education.)

*A Further Study of Certain Factors Associated With Reading Comprehension.* By Lyman C. Hunt, Jr. Doctor's, 1952. Syracuse University. 260 p. ms.

*Higher Education for the American Indians in the American Colonies.* By Marie H. Smith. Master's, 1950. New York University. 83 p. ms.

*Psychologists' Judgments of Personality Characteristics in Children's Drawings.* By Helen A. Brown. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 77 p. ms.

*Some Factors Related to Effective Classroom Behavior of First-Year Teachers.* By Lester Seth Vander Werf. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 84 p. ms.

*The Study of English Grammar as Presented in Selected Freshman College Textbooks.* By Cornelius Van Jordan. Master's, 1950. University of Cincinnati. 68 p. ms.

*A Study of the Evaluation of Teacher-Administrator Relationships in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* By George R. Sherrie. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 247 p. ms.

*A Study of the Causes of Change in Attitude Toward Social Studies Between the Fifth and Seventh Grades Among 87 Children.* By Constance S. Harrier and George F. Laubner. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 76 p. ms.

# EDUCATIONAL AIDS From Your Government

**HOW TO ORDER**

**Free publications listed on this page are available in limited supply only and should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them. Publications to be purchased should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., unless otherwise indicated.**

Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services Branch

## Office of Education

**Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs.** By Homer Kempfer. Circular No. 356. 1952. 15 cents.

**The Core in Secondary Schools: A Bibliography.** Prepared by Grace S. Wright. Circular No. 323. Revised November 1952. Free.

**Directory of Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52.** Showing accredited status, enrollment, staff, and other data. By Mabel C. Rice. $1.

**Education's New Frontier—Television.** By Franklin Dunham. Reprint from *School Life*, October 1952. Free.

**Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born.** By Homer Kempfer. Circular No. 357. 1952. 15 cents.

**The Job Ahead for Educational TV.** By Paul A. Walker. Reprint from *School Life*, November 1952. Free.

**Literacy Education—A Series of Reprints from School Life.** 1952. 15 cents.

**Methods Used by College Social Science Departments to Improve Students' Understanding of Post-World-War II International Tensions.** By Jennings B. Sanders. Circular No. 362, December 1952. Free.

**School Buildings and Equipment for Young Children.** Prepared by Mary Dabney Davis. Selected References No. 27, January 1953. Free.

**Second Progress Report—School Facilities Survey.** Authorized by Title I, Public Law 815, 81st Congress. Prepared by the School Housing Section. December 1952. 35 cents.

**Selected References on Federal Aid for Education.** By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. March 1952. Free.

**Student-Body Size in Institutions of Higher Education: 1951.** By Henry G. Badger. Circular No. 361, November 1952. Free.

**Workshop Techniques in Elementary Education.** Prepared by Helen K. Mackintosh. Education Briefs, Elementary Education Series No. 10, February 1948, Reprinted October 1952. Free.

## Federal Security Agency

**The Head Nurse Looks At Her Job.** Public Health Service Publication No. 227. 1952. 40 cents.

**Organized Health Services in a County of the United States.** Public Health Service Publication No. 194. 1952. 45 cents.

## Other Government Agencies

### *Department of Agriculture*

**Work of the U. S. Forest Service.** 1952. 10 cents.

**Workers in Subjects Pertaining to Agriculture in Land-Grant Colleges and Experimental Stations, 1951–52.** 50 cents.

### *Department of Commerce*

**Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1952.** Cloth, $3.25.

### *Department of Defense*

**Armed Forces Newspaper Editors' Guide For Use in Armed Forces Information Program.** Suitable for use by all editors. 1952. 35 cents.

### *Department of the Interior*

**Custer Battlefield National Monument, Montana.** Revised 1952. 20 cents.

### *Department of Labor*

**Apprenticeship Past and Present.** 1952. 15 cents.

**National Policy on Employment of School-Age Youth.** 1952. 5 cents.

**The Outlook for Women as Occupational Therapists.** Women's Bureau Bulletin 203–2. Revised 1952. 20 cents.

### *Department of State*

**Foreign Relations of United States, 1934, Volume 5, The American Republics.** 1952. Cloth, $2.75.

**Let Freedom Ring.** Story of the struggle between democracy and communism. Department of State Publication 4443, General Foreign Policy Series 67. 1952. 50 cents.

### *Executive Office of the President*

**The Midyear Economic Report of the President, Transmitted to the Congress, July 1952, Together With a Report to the President, The Midyear 1952 Economic Review, by the Council of Economic Advisers.** 50 cents.

**The Mutual Security Program—For a Strong and Free World, Second Report to Congress for Six Months Ending June 30, 1952.** 30 cents.

### *House of Representatives*

**Federal Laws Pertaining to Veterans, 1914–50.** Contains all veterans laws enacted from the 63d through the 81st Congress. 1951. $3.
1952 Supplement. 30 cents.

### *Library of Congress*

**List of Titles of Motion Pictures and Filmstrips for Which Library of Congress Cards are Available.** Vol. 1, No. 1, October 1952. Free upon request to the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

### *United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization*

**The Community Factor in Modern Technology.** An International Study of the "Sense of Belonging" in Industry. Tensions and Technology Series. 1952. $1 from the Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y.

**Education in a Technological Society.** A Preliminary International Survey of the Nature and Efficacy of Technical Education. Tensions and Technology Series. 1952. 75 cents from the Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y.

Second Progress Report

# School Facilities Survey

Authorized by
Title I, P. L. 815, 81st Congress
FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education
School Housing Section

## What Are the School Building Needs in Your State?

The Second Progress Report of the School Facilities Survey is just off the press. This survey of school building needs in the United States, and the State and local resources available to meet these needs, was authorized by the Congress. The survey was conducted by the State departments of education in cooperation with the Office of Education. Order your copy of the Second Progress Report today. The single copy price is 35 cents. Send your order to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

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MARCH 1953

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# School Life



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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

# Friendliest Nation in the World

## by Eric Dehn, Grammar School, Bristol, England*

LAST days and dollars have been spent in New York. We have lined the rails of the Queen Mary in rather solemn silence as we pass the Statue of Liberty. Each of us, I am sure, is wondering secretly—will he or she find a chance to return, as the reiterated American cry of "come back" echoes tantalizingly in our ears.

We are not all returning on the same ship. A reunion of exchange teachers will be held in weeks to come. It will somewhat resemble scenes in the club house after a golf meeting. We shall be vying with each other to discover who has given the longest speech to the largest audience, who has climbed the highest and traveled the farthest: we shall be outdoing our neighbour in tales of American generosity, and defending with a new inborn sense of patriotism the State to which we were assigned as clearly the finest in all America. But most important of all we shall be exchanging and clarifying impressions, pooling educational ideas, and assessing the importance and value of this very good year of interchange.

Perhaps the main difficulty I encountered in my early days in the United States was the necessity to adjust myself to teaching students of widely different talents in any one class. We tend to segregate more sternly according to merit. American high school students I encountered were friendly, happy-go-lucky, keen yet carefree, easy to coax, well-nigh impossible to force. They never really ceased to be amazed at my pronunciation of class or tomato; their own pronunciation of French was occasionally seriously prejudiced by the presence of undetected bubble gum.

* * * * *

As regards financial status, the American teacher, despite the higher cost of living, is better off than his British opposite number.

* * * * *

I like the impressive graduation ceremony which ends American school life. We in Britain tend to drift away with no equivalent remembered climax.

* * * * *

I gave during the year 116 talks, and I gather from other exchange teachers this is by no means a unique feat. . . . New friends and new mutual understanding come from these exhausting but worthwhile occasions.

I return with a turbulent motley of ideas. . . . I may only have a partial understanding myself of the kaleidoscopic picture, yet I have acquired a deep and abiding affection for the State of Kentucky and for the land of America, which I hope I can visit again in years to come, and by giving to the British impressions gained in this full year I shall add a little to the goodwill that binds us and thus in some slight measure repay the friendliness shown me by the friendliest Nation in the world.

*Mr. Dehn is one of the many hundreds of Britons who have participated in the Teacher Exchange Program between the United States and Great Britain. During World War II he served as an artillery major for more than 6 years. He is a teacher in a school that is equivalent to an American high school. While in the United States he taught French and English at Louisville Male High School, Louisville, Ky. Only excerpts of a longer report by Mr. Dehn can be published in this special SCHOOL LIFE department.

School ★ Life

Official Journal of the Office of Education
• • • Federal Security Agency

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Volume 35 Number 6

Cover photograph shows the new shrine in the National Archives for the Constitution of the United States, the Declaration of Independence, and the Bill of Rights. Photograph courtesy National Archives of the United States.



Published each month of the school year, October through June.

To order SCHOOL LIFE send your check or money order (no stamps) with your subscription request to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. SCHOOL LIFE service comes to you at a subscription price of $1.25. Yearly fee to countries in which the frank of the U. S. Government is not recognized is $1.75. A discount of 25 percent is allowed on orders for 100 copies or more sent to one address within the United States. Printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget. (September 19, 1952.)

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# A Tribute to Teachers

**by Dwight D. Eisenhower**

***This statement was part of a farewell address by Mr. Eisenhower to the Faculty of Columbia University on January 16, 1953, just before he left for Washington, D. C., to be inaugurated as President of the United States.***

*I think most of you know of my admiration for the teacher, for the person who believes something and tries to impart it to young minds. In my all too short association with scholarly people I have found them to be intellectual leaders of Americanism. They have been able to explain Americanism, the values of the heart, of freedom, and what the mind must do to support those values.*

*In short, I have found teachers, I have found universities in general engaged in this one thing: how to bring up, how to teach, how to develop fine citizens to serve in a free democracy.*

*That I conceive to be their basic purpose and as long as they do it this Nation shall remain free and I, for one, will always be a witness that the great and vast body of these teachers, these administrators, these people living in universities, are the very foundation, the real refuge and bulwark of democracy and freedom in our country—the thing to which I at least attempt to devote my life.*

*Of course there can be those that misunderstand. There can be those who unwittingly will damage you occasionally. In your pride, you will be resentful, as all of us are, under attack. But as long as you adhere to the principles, the ideals that I have seen displayed so bountifully on this campus, I have no fear in my soul of the future of American education.*

*This is not to say that there may not be people among us, in any body or group, that are false to the doctrines, to the basic principles in which we believe. If they are there, if they are sworn enemies of our system, if they believe in its destruction by force, then I know of no one who will be more anxious than the true teacher to get rid of them.*

*But if they are there, they are also clever and they are not going to carry around flags in front of people who do believe in freedom and in the dignity of man.*

*So definitely do I believe in this function, in this great and noble mission of the teacher, that in the weeks I had been struggling in my poor way to get my inaugural address prepared, I have been able to say a phrase, to pay my tribute. Possibly it is not good public relations to express those things in advance, but I tried to say, speaking of the American system, as long as we preach with conviction and teach with integrity, that is the true defense against Communism.*

*So you can see the dependence that a person like myself, approaching these new and great responsibilities, places upon a group like this.*

*We are engaged in a war of great ideologies. This is not just a casual argument between slightly different philosophies. This is light against dark, freedom against slavery; it is Godliness against atheism. That is where we are standing; that is the struggle. And I say to you that no man flying a warplane, no man with a defensive gun in his hand, can possibly be more important than the teacher who is leading, training and explaining to the sound minds that must be the leaders of America.*

# New Federal Security Administrator

OVETA CULP HOBBY, appointed Federal Security Administrator on January 21, is the fourth director of the Federal Security Agency since its establishment in 1939 and the first invited by a President of the United States to attend all meetings of his Cabinet.

In her new position, Mrs. Hobby is responsible for the supervision not only of the Office of Education but also of the Public Health Service, the Social Security Administration (including the Children's Bureau), the Food and Drug Administration, and Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, as well as Howard University, Saint Elizabeths Hospital, American Printing House for the Blind, and the Columbia Institution for the Deaf.

Shortly after taking office, Mrs. Hobby scheduled a series of meetings with personnel of the Federal Security Agency in the metropolitan Washington area. She called for cooperation of all employees in serving the public efficiently. She urged continued devotion to public service, measuring one's work qualitatively rather than quantitatively.

Internationally known as the former director of the U. S. Women's Army Corps during World War II, Mrs. Hobby held many positions and served in activities of varied nature which give her a rich background for her present duties.

At the time of her appointment as Federal Security Administrator, Mrs. Hobby was editor and publisher of the Houston Post and executive director of Station KPRC—AM-FM-TV. She resigned from these positions before taking office.

Before she came to Washington in 1941 to serve as chief of the women's interest section of the War Department, she served as parliamentarian of the Texas House of Representatives and was on the editorial and executive staffs of the Houston Post. When the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps was created in 1942, she was appointed its director. With the rank of colonel, from 1943 to 1945, she served as director of the Women's Army Corps.

Both in this country and abroad, Mrs. Hobby has been active in journalistic affairs. She served on the board of directors of the American Society of Newspaper Editors from 1947 to 1950 and was consultant-alternate to the Freedom of Information Conference at Geneva in 1948.

Mrs. Hobby rendered important service as a consultant on the bipartisan Commission on Organization of the Executive branch of the Government. She served later on the board of directors of the Citizens Committee for the Hoover Report on matters dealing with Federal Government reorganization.

She has been a member of the board of directors of the National Conference of Christians and Jews and the Texas Medical Center and has served on the National Advisory Council of the American Cancer Society and the board of governors of the American National Red Cross.

A native Texan, the new Federal Security Administrator was educated in the public schools of Killeen, Tex., and at Mary Hardin-Baylor College. She holds honorary degrees from Baylor University, Mary Hardin-Baylor College, the University of Chattanooga, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Colorado Woman's College, and Bard College. In 1950 she was awarded honor medals for distinguished service to journalism by the University of Missouri and the Texas Press Association. Her name was added to the roster of the South's Hall of Fame for the Living in 1951. She was awarded the Distinguished Service Medal by the United States Government and the Military Merit Medal by the Philippine Government for her military service during World War II.

Married since 1924 to William Pettus Hobby, former Governor of Texas and president of the Houston Post, Mrs. Hobby is the mother of two children, William Pettus Hobby, Jr., 21, and Jessica, 16.

# Languages for Our Children*

by Mrs. Newton P. Leonard, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers

UNDERSTANDING among the peoples of the world is one of the great challenges of our day. We of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers recognize this. And for many years we have worked to help build the friendly mind, the friendly attitude and spirit. For we realize that children all over the world have no small stake in this cause.

Language differences—and the difficulties they may create—are among the big barriers that block the course of understanding. If the peoples of the earth are to meet and move together along the road to a better world for themselves and for their children they will need to communicate with one another. They will need to exchange ideas and feelings freely. To do this they will need to know more than they know of one another's languages.

We are considering a problem that *we* can move on directly. Here is a contribution to understanding in which *we* can boldly take the initiative—and at once. We need not wait in the hope that someone else will move.

All of us have known times when language failed us. We could find *no* words. Or we could not find the *exact* words. Or the words we used gave our listeners a message we never intended. We have had these experiences in trying to reach others who spoke *our* own language.

And these vexations multiply when we try to reach someone who does not speak our language. We are then reduced to the resources of primitive man—gestures, the sign language, or at best an interpreter.

I've often thought that musicians enjoy a wonderful advantage. Set a sheet of music before them, and whether the measures were composed by an Englishman, a Brazilian, a German, a Russian, a Frenchman, or an Italian, the player can still read the musical thoughts before him. Imagine how much more complicated a musician's life would be if each nation had its own system of musical notation, its own musical language that had to be mastered!

Some of the musician's advantages in communication are shared by scientists and mathematicians. They have symbols that are readily understood by specialists, whatever their mother tongue, whatever their homeland. These scientists may stumble over words of another language, but the formulas and the equations in their field—these are in a universal language which they can readily understand.

## How Can We Do It?

I am not advocating Esperanto—or any other single world language, but somehow or other more of us all over the world must be familiar with the same languages. And this means that more of us must learn at least one foreign tongue in school. We must learn it well enough to read it, to speak it, to understand it when we hear it.

"But," some may protest, "how can we teach children a second language when we're not doing a good enough job of teaching them their own language?" I'm sure you've heard this objection. I'm sure also that you've heard the answer that nearly always meets it. Learning a second language is often a help in the study of our mother tongue. All languages have much in common in the way of structure, in the symbolic uses of words: For example, Latin taught me much about English grammar as it has many other Americans.

Europeans are much more language-minded than we are. I have known Europeans who spoke several languages almost from infancy. Children in Denmark learn foreign tongues early. When I attended a meeting in Copenhagen not long ago I found there men and women who without the advantages of higher education knew four languages well, including English. They know that if they are to live and do business in that little country they must have several languages at their command.

Why should it be more difficult for Americans to learn a second—or even a third and fourth—language than for Europeans? Perhaps it is a question of nced and interest rather than a question of ability. Living in this big, broad land of ours many of us have long been indifferent to languages other than our own. We could travel thousands of miles from coast to coast and get by on our own language. Why encumber ourselves with more? Does someone want to talk to us? "Let them learn English."

Europeans do not call us an uncultured people as readily as they once did. We never deserved the criticism, really, but one valid reason for it might well have been our stubborn refusal to appreciate the need for speaking the languages of other nations. To be sure, our conception of the educated man does include an ability to read another language, living or dead, but it makes no provision for direct two-way communication between people of two nationalities.

## Most Important Human Skill

My own travels abroad in recent years have given me the impression that much of the arrogance that visiting Americans too often seem to betray as they travel through foreign lands comes from a sense of inferiority. They cannot understand or make themselves understood, so they try to compensate for their bewilderment and their feeling of being left out by a detached aloofness, by loud talk in English, and by an apparent lack of interest in anybody else.

Do we want our children to be unhappy strangers when they travel over the world? Do we want them to miss the opportunity of learning from peoples of other nations, other continents, other hemispheres? Do we want to deprive them of doing their share to bring peace and understanding to this

*This address was one of several delivered at the First National Conference on Foreign Language Study in Elementary Schools held in the Office of Education, January 15 and 16. A summary of the conference appears also in this issue of SCHOOL LIFE.

great globe of ours? Of course, we don't. Every thoughtful parent and teacher wants the younger generation to be prepared for living in a complex and close-knit world where ease and accuracy of communication will be among the most important—perhaps the most important—of all human skills.

Very well, then, how shall they learn another language? In school? Starting at what grade? By what methods? As you know far better than I, great strides in language teaching were made during World War II. The methods used were radical departures from tradition—from the emphasis on memorizing irregular French verbs, for example. The results were dramatic. G. I.'s took on completely new languages like Finnish or Japanese. For 17 hours or more a week they read and wrote and spoke and heard the new language. At the end of 36 weeks they were able to think in it without the bothersome business of translating from one idiom to another. And what is more, at the end of that time they could go into Finland or Japan and find themselves quite at home, linguistically speaking.

How different from my own school days! I studied German for 5 years, a few hours a week, with many vacations in between. I conjugated verbs, regular and irregular. I read—very slowly—a few rather simple German books. But even after 5 years German was still not a part of me. I had learned the mechanics by rote, but I had never learned to think in German.

Some of my generation were more fortunate. But they were those who studied a language in school or college and then journeyed to the country where it was spoken. There it did become a part of them. My friend Harry Overstreet did this, but even he has confessed that he feels at ease in another tongue only after he has begun to *dream* in it!

The intensive, accelerated programs developed by the Army are one method of hastening the mastery of a language. We have long known another way, a way that we are only now beginning to use in our schools. The key to this method is an early start.

## Utilize Enthusiasm

A psychologist once said that very young children can pick up a second language with remarkable ease and speed. Why? Because they are still learning their first language. They are enchanted with their word power and eager to increase it. Language, they are finding, is a key to many doors and at this period learning two words for the same object, one in English and one, say, in French, is no hardship at all.

It seems wise and efficient to take advantage of the enthusiasm for language that young people have. Why must we wait 10 years until they are far more interested in football scores or movie stars or first dates?

Of course, introducing a language program in the primary and elementary grades sets up certain problems. The training of teachers, for example, poses some big questions. But I know that these problems will be explored. I know it will be only a question of time until decisions are made and put into effect.

I can promise you this, on behalf of the largest semiprofessional educational organization in America, parent-teacher members will wholeheartedly support whatever steps should be taken to help our children learn another language early. In hundreds of communities all over the country there are lay advisory committees that work with educators and administrators. They help form school policies, study and improve school curriculums. These committees are made up of men and women representing major community groups. The P. T. A. often takes the lead in forming these advisory committees. Now if our parent-teacher associations—all 38,000 of them—are well informed about new proposals for teaching languages in the elementary schools, they will do all in their power to see that other community groups understand the value of these proposals. They will do all in their power to bring such programs into the curriculum.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has long been deeply aware of the responsibility that world leadership has placed upon our country. That responsibility must be shared by each one of us. We are sending diplomats and statesmen


Among those who took an active role in the recent First National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, called by U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, were those shown in the photograph above—Left to right, standing, A. B. Bonds, State Commissioner of Education, Little Rock, Ark., Alonzo Grace, New York University, James L. McCaskill, National Education Association, Arthur Selvi, Executive Secretary of the Conference, New Britain, Conn., and sitting, Mrs. N. P. Leonard, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Chicago, Ill., Harold Benjamin, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and William R. Parker, Executive Secretary, Modern Language Association, New York City.

and military forces into all parts of the world. We are also sending businessmen, laborers, stenographers, and technical experts in many fields. All these Americans will have to talk with people of other nationalities. And their conversations will not be limited to special state occasions. They will often be called upon to—and will wish to—chat casually with the people around them on matters of day-by-day concern.

Our young people today are living and working all over the world and the children now in school will do so in even greater numbers. Directly or indirectly they will be working in the cause of world peace and understanding. Directly and indirectly they will be demonstrating the goodness and richness and the workability of our democratic way of life. And for these responsibilities they will need not merely to think and dream in another language, but through that language to share the thoughts and dreams of those whose native tongue it is.

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# Teaching Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools

SUMMARY REPORT OF FIRST NATIONAL CONFERENCE CALLED TO DISCUSS THE PROBLEM

BY MARJORIE C. JOHNSTON, DIVISION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

MORE than 350 educators from all over the Nation met in a two-day conference in Washington, D. C., on January 15 and 16 to consider the need for extending opportunities for language study in the public elementary schools.

Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, invited school administrators from every State to this national conference. He also invited elementary school curriculum specialists, language teachers, parents, and persons in many other fields, including representatives of business and government to participate in the meeting.

Plans for the national conference first took shape as a result of the widespread interest expressed in a proposal made by Commissioner McGrath in an address given in St. Louis last May. (See SCHOOL LIFE, June 1952 issue for full account of Dr. McGrath's statement on that occasion, and SCHOOL LIFE, January 1953 issue for typical responses from educators and others.)

The conference featured a sequence of addresses and panel discussions dealing with background information on foreign language learning at the elementary school level. Following the keynote presentation by Commissioner McGrath, Professor Nicholas Hobbs, Director of the Division of Human Development and Guidance, The George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., reported the views of educational psychologists regarding language study and child development. Miss Emilie Margaret White, of the District of Columbia Public Schools, reviewed the extent to which languages are now being taught in elementary schools throughout the country. A color film from the Board of Education, Los Angeles, Calif., illustrated the methods used in the teaching of Spanish by the regular classroom teachers in the elementary schools of the city. Methods in French classes for gifted children in the elementary schools of Cleveland, Ohio, were presented through still films by Mrs. Dorothy E. Norris, Supervisor of Major Work Classes.

## To Clarify Issues

After the presentation of the background information, conference participants met in separate work groups to discuss aims and objectives of foreign language study for children of elementary school age and problems concerning curriculum, administration, and teacher education. Each work group provided opportunity for a frank exchange of ideas and experiences and enabled the conferees to clarify basic issues, discover helpful resources, and make suggestions with respect to ways of achieving common ends. The recorders in each work group made summary reports of the discussions, and these, together with copies of the prepared papers, are to be included in the conference report.

In the last general session of the conference Dr. Harold Benjamin, Director of the Division of Social Foundations of Education, The George Peabody College for Teachers, highlighted the conference by a quotation from Simón Bolívar, the South American liberator, who said, "Para juzgar el valor de las revoluciones y los revolucionarios, preciso es observarlos muy de cerca y muy de lejos."* In order to assess the situation realistically one must stand in the place of administrators and teachers who have the job to do; yet someone who is not an administrator or a language teacher may see the problems in better perspective. The good soldier, Dr. Benjamin stated, must be thoroughly realistic, even pessimistic, since he knows all the risks, but he must also move to a second stage where he stops looking at all the difficulties and says, NOW IS THE TIME.

Before the adjournment of the conference the following resolutions were passed unanimously:

***Resolved,*** That this Conference in recording its very real sense of gratitude to Commissioner McGrath and his colleagues for making possible the discussion by persons in divers fields of a timely and important problem in our public schools, wishes also to record its hope that the aims of this Conference will be made a matter of continuing concern and activity on the part of the U. S. Office of Education. We applaud the initiative of Commissioner McGrath and trust that our brief efforts to meet the challenge he has raised will prove but the beginning of a sustained and successful effort to solve the problem. (William R. Parker, Executive Secretary, The Modern Language Association of America.)

***I move,*** That, recognizing the importance to American Education of the questions we have discussed, and recognizing the urgent need of practical answers to these questions, we request the U. S. Commissioner of Education to appoint a continuing Advisory Committee, consisting of persons with a variety of experiences and points of view, to aid him in furthering the aims of this Conference. (A. B. Bonds, Jr., Commissioner of Education, Arkansas.)

***We recommend,*** That the U. S. Office of Education collect and facilitate the production of audio-visual and other materials for public relation purposes to be on loan for communities wishing to initiate programs of foreign languages in elementary schools. (Lawrence B. Kiddle. University of Michigan, Recorder for the Work Group on Administration.)

* In order to judge the value of revolutions and revolutionists, it is necessary to observe them near at hand and from afar.

# Librarians as Teachers

## How the Secondary School Library Helps Students, Teachers and Administrators in Certain Communities

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist for School and Children's Libraries

SCHOOL LIBRARY PROGRAMS designed to meet the needs of youth show some significant instances of interdepartmental participation as well as creative thinking. Well stocked libraries staffed with personnel prepared to guide students in solving problems in relation to themselves and their world demonstrate the fact that librarians are effective teachers.

According to data collected by the Office of Education for the *Directory of Secondary Day Schools in the United States*, 1951–52, there are 9,365 librarians employed more than half time in the 23,757 public secondary day schools. These librarians are a great potential force for instructional improvement in schools where teachers, librarians, students and administrators work together to select and make available library materials for effective use.

A few examples will illustrate types of programs that are being carried on by the schools that recognize the value of implementing resources of the school library in terms of individual student and group needs.

A developmental reading program at Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Ill., carried on with ninth grade students has resulted in: (1) Reading improvement scores for the ninth graders that are in excess of the normal expectation; (2) individualization of instruction by teachers; (3) 20 percent increase in book circulation over the previous semester; and (4) enthusiasm for the program by teachers and pupils. These data and subjective reports are an indication of the value and importance of the freshman library and librarian working in cooperation with reading teachers and other members of the instructional staff.

The high school is located in an industrial community similar in many respects to other urban centers of the United States. The socio-economic backgrounds of the students vary greatly. In a few instances the English language is not spoken in the homes.

The school population of approximately 3,000 is drawn from both public and parochial schools of Joliet and neighboring communities. This fact explains in part the variation in grade school experiences and learnings of the students who enter the high school.

Grades 9 through 14 are housed in one large building except for a few classes in agriculture and machine shop. There are three libraries in the school: one serves grades 13–14, one serves grades 10–12, and the other serves grade 9. Loans are made between these libraries when the need arises.

The freshman library has a seating capacity of 140 and is a combination of library and study hall. All freshmen are assigned to the library for study during their "free periods." A librarian and study hall counselor are in charge of the library. The reading specialist is in the classroom adjacent to the library. These three faculty members maintain a very close working relationship. The professional staff and freshman student body are assisted by student helpers who man the circulation desk and take care of magazines.

### Student Responsibility

A Freshman Library Committee, which has representatives from each of the freshman home rooms, is given some measure of responsibility for determining policies in their library. This library organization makes it possible to provide a laboratory-type of experience for students. The program is concerned with reading growth, such as depth of interest, use of reading for solving individual problems, and aesthetic appreciation of reading material.

Further observations of importance on the developmental reading program of the school are: (1) The first semester freshman English, English I, emphasizes reading skills, and (2) all students who still have reading problems after taking the course in English I are placed in special classes taught by the reading specialist.

Form B of the Iowa Silent Reading Test was administered in September 1951, and Form A of the same test was given in April 1952. The median grade level of reading ability, as determined from a random sampling of 100 instances of the Form B test, was 8.5. Seven months later, from a random sampling of 100 instances, the median obtained was 10.4. The score obtained is significant as it is well in excess of the normal expectation.

Pershing High School, Detroit, Mich., with the aid of a grant from the Children's Fund of Michigan, is engaged in a reading project designed to promote and improve reading interests.

### Reading Progress

Every student entering Pershing High School was given a reading test before he was assigned to an English class. This initial score was recorded on an individual reading card which provides space for indicating his progress. A complete file of all student reading records has been set up and is available to members of the faculty for reference. A retest of the entire student body will be taken periodically to determine progress. It is planned to use the present ninth grade class as a test group over the four-year high school period in order to gather reliable data on reading improvement.

Approximately 1,000 books for "outside" reading were purchased this semester. This collection was the result of careful analysis of pupil interests and reading levels and represents a wide range of subjects. All books chosen were from lists approved by the Board of Education for school libraries. This brought the total number of books purchased to date to 3,026.

Each class reads together a classic or

other worthwhile book purchased in a set. These are books which require the help of a teacher for interpretation and study. The set moves from one class to the next for a period of approximately four weeks. High reading groups within each grade study the classics of famous authors; slow readers are given adaptations of famous books or other books more easily understood. A single set of books is used by several hundred students each year.

In each classroom there is a collection of separate-title books which students borrow from the teacher for out-of-school enjoyment. At the present time they are able to supply 15 leisure time books to each ninth and tenth grade class, and 20 books to each eleventh and twelfth grade class. Circulation cards show that popular books were read by as many as 10 students during the first semester.

Students at Pershing High School in Detroit, Mich., use library resources to prepare class reports.

A trained staff of students helped with the work of cataloging the latest order of books. Members are on duty every hour of the school day to assist with the preparation of books, circulation, tabulation of reading scores and other details of the program.

An exhibition of new books was put on display in the school foyer in order to attract the interest of the students. This brought numerous requests for books and gave the pupils a sample of the kinds of books in the collection.

Although it is too early to determine scientifically exactly how much improvement in reading has been achieved, some progress is apparent to the staff. For example, it is known that students are reading more than they did a year ago despite the increased competition of television this year. They are asking for certain kinds of books. Students are discussing and comparing favorites among themselves. They are developing the habit of taking home a book to read. They are recommending titles for purchase. They are showing a good sense of responsibility for the care of books. The books are kept in their hands; the shelves are empty. These factors speak for the progress of the reading program.

Book discussions play an important part in the reading program of the McKinley High School, Washington, D. C. They have an active reading campaign designed to educate students to love to read. For slow or retarded readers there are remedial classes, and for advanced students there are classes in accelerated reading. There are opportunities for all types of readers to read. Particularly is this true in the English and history classes, where the student is urged to read not just one book, or two, but as many as he can possibly read in a semester. Many of the teachers allot a certain amount of reading time during each class period, at which time the group reads together. Teachers report that the sharing of reading experience in this way increases interest in reading and love of books among their students.

Several of the classes instead of giving formal reports now discuss their books in groups. The school makes much of group or committee work. Such a method also fits right into the school's philosophy. Sometimes it happens that several have read the same book, or it may be that only one member of the group has read a certain book, but he is enthusiastic about it, and wishes to tell others. This in turn leads to comparisons with other books read by other group members. Lively discussion results.

The library cooperates closely with the particular class involved. For some teachers and classes, books dealing with their immediate interests are assembled and shelved in a prescribed spot in the library. Many of the teachers engaged in this reading program prefer that collections of books be taken to their classrooms where the students can browse and make their selections by "talking over" the books with other members of the class and the teacher. Frequently an entire class comes to the library to spend the period reading and selecting books, or merely browsing. The reading program of book selection, reading, and discussion by students with groups as a whole, has done much to kindle the type of enthusiasm which it is hoped will be with the students all through their lives.

Natchitoches High School, Natchitoches, Louisiana, has the distinction of receiving the Louisiana Library Association's Modisette Award for two successive years. The program to widen students' reading features a printed noncompulsory list of "100 Best Books" compiled by the faculties of the local college, high school, and elementary school. The reading plan resulted in the students' reading 5,000 more books from the school library than they had read during the previous year.

Greensboro Public Schools, North Carolina, are working to encourage the use of all library materials. The Director of Instructional Services, Director of Libraries, and Director of Audio-Visual Education have meetings with faculty members in each school library to demonstrate the resources—books, films, filmstrips, slides, phonograph records, pictures and vertical file materials. They are cataloged through the Centralized Library Department.

Many reports from other cities indicate the importance of effective instructional programs carried on by the library and the instructional staff.

Care of growing things keeps us busy with hoe and sprinkler

Each child in his own way expresses his response to music

There is nothing like our own puppet show

It is fun to make music together


Parents are proud of what we have done at school

Teachers learn new skills by doing

# Planning Better Extended School Programs

**Prepared by Specialists of the Elementary School Section, Division of State and Local School Systems**

WHILE on a field trip to several Georgia communities where extended school programs were organized last summer, these comments from children came spontaneously in answer to the question, "Do you like to come to the school center?" Ronald, a sturdy boy of nine answered quickly, "It gets terrificer and terrificer," in true Hollywood style. Joey, quiet and a bit shy, said, "It's the best school I ever went to." Tommy voiced his feelings lustily, "I wish I could go every day in the week." The visitor had not expected to find children so eager and happy in school during the summer months. But it was evident that the extended school programs these children attended had been planned so as to appeal to children and to hold their interest even when torrid weather invited a more leisurely pace.

## Concepts Underlying Programs

One may ask what thinking has helped to shape the extended school programs for children. What ideas have been at the root of the planning of these services by educators, parents and others interested in opportunities for youth? To know some of the trends in community life which have influenced this phase of elementary education may help us to better understand and assess the value of extended school services.

Interwoven in the purposes which have brought about extended school services in our public schools are the needs of children coupled with some current social problems. Children living in crowded homes in large cities with no place to play, other than the city streets, are deprived of their rights as children. Children with both parents at work often need better supervision. Children who are left to their own devices to grow up need adult guidance. What better use of our school buildings after school hours and during vacation months than that they become centers where children may find wholesome activities, companions and supervision? There is little question about children needing a flexible schedule for the summer days after the first week or so of vacation has passed. And it is easier for the whole family if some plan is set up for vacation time which gives satisfaction, direction and achievement to children with alert and growing minds and bodies. In meeting these and other problems parents have turned to the school for assistance.

## A Major Problem

As educators face the demand to build a rich and varied curriculum in the modern school, the pressure for time to include all that should be taught becomes a major problem. Giving children time to work unhurriedly with raw materials through which their ideas find expression can not be accomplished in short periods of 30 or 40 minutes. Likewise going into the community to do research on questions they have raised about transportation, marketing or local government calls for blocks of time if desirable methods of teaching are to be effectively used. Every community has many resources, such as museums, art galleries, and historical landmarks but few children may come to know them unless plans are made for visitation by parents and teachers. Since these experiences are found to have great value to children in helping them to see relationships, many schools now combine trips and classroom study as part of their instruction. However, barriers often prevent these first hand contacts with community life and the extended school programs have served to reinforce and expand these meaningful experiences for children.

Another basic idea underlying extended school programs is that these services must be built upon sound child growth and development principles. Teachers are selected for their understanding of these principles as well as their knowing how to apply them. This kind of teaching calls for more skill than was needed in yesterday's classroom. Instead of dealing with boys and girls as a group, the teacher tries through individual observation to become familiar with each child and to help him in his personal development. Groups are necessarily small to allow for this end.

These purposes, as stated, have their main focus on benefits children derive from these programs. Let us take a look at the contribution of extended school service to teacher growth. Some school systems have discovered that when teachers are placed in a setting which allows freedom for experimentation and less attention is paid to measuring end results, they gain new satisfactions in teaching. Through such an experience it is also noted that some teachers improve their skills in working with children through an informal setting and professional growth increases more than had they gone off to summer school to add a few credits to their college record. As new insights are gained about children these are carried back into the classroom and often result in a better climate for learning.

## Larger Earnings

In charting some new opportunities for in-service education of teachers, extended school programs have pointed up a way to give full employment to teachers who find it necessary to increase their earnings. Through this service teachers have used their skills with children in a field familiar to them as well as improved their competence. For many years school administrators have been working to place teachers' salaries on a level commensurate with other professions. Through this extension of school service a way has been opened to solve some

community problems while at the same time give employment to those teachers desiring it.

In the effort to see that more children come into contact with organized youth programs and have a chance to participate in them, it has seemed a worthy enterprise for schools to give children who are isolated and unidentified with any community groups an opportunity for membership in one. In planning extended school services it has been possible to work with many community agencies with programs for youth. Girl and boy scouts, church groups, libraries, museums and others have been stimulated to take a look at the services provided for youth in order to see where gaps exist and new services are needed. Often the schools with their special facilities and leadership are discovered to be untapped resources which communities should be using.

It should be kept in mind that several pressing problems which stem from national security and defense measures have played a large part in the promotion of extended school services. Mobilization steps have called for increasing manpower and in turn greater demands have been made on women to fill jobs in industry, business and service occupations. As a nation our manpower shortages began during World War II and have continued with our high level of production. When further shortages arise, women will be considered the greatest untapped resource for the labor market. With many more mothers employed than ever before, problems of child neglect arise. Though many communities are aware of these changes which call for study and action to protect children they are often slow to do anything about these needs.

## Extended School Programs Take Different Forms

It is apparent that extended school programs take many forms depending on community needs and understanding. A number of school systems operate summer programs for children of school age, usually for a period of 4 to 8 weeks. Various leisure time activities including crafts, sports, dramatics, art, reading, science, and other experiences are offered. Other schools may organize their programs as after-school clubs and hobby centers for children whose parents desire them to have these opportunities. From these beginnings a next step may be to move into a year round program with some schools operating both late afternoon and vacation programs. Growing out of these services arrangements may be made for day or week-end camping, or possibly provisions for a school camp and outdoor education will be added to the program for elementary school children. Other services for children under six may include nursery schools, play groups or child care centers operated for a whole or half day session.

For any new school service developed on an experimental basis, a plan of financing has to be worked out. In the case of extended school services, these programs are frequently underwritten through parents' fees and other voluntary contributions. As these efforts are supported and placed on a larger scale of operation state aid has been given in a few states on a matching or formula basis. Other plans for financing are reported at the local level which involve the collaboration of city recreation and park departments with the schools in planning and budgeting to improve youth programs.

## Some Characteristics of the Experiences Provided

The quality of an extended school program is dependent on several factors, namely, program, staff and budget. But the most important factor seems to be the kind of experiences which children have during their leisure hours. A description of some of the types of experiences may help to give the reader some knowledge of their character.

Teachers and children in an extended school program find a unique advantage in the informal, friendly atmosphere which prevails. In this environment there are no prescribed things to be taught nor time limits set for learning specific things. The result is a situation which is free from many of the pressures of the average classroom and one which frees teachers and children to develop their own plans.

Emphasis is placed on self-motivation in the extended school environment. Since normal, active children are self-starters, they are encouraged to use the materials provided in their own ways. Rather than strive for perfection in a finished product, the teacher's attention is focused on natural, child-like expression found in spontaneous play. Children are also helped to seek information on questions and to satisfy their curiosity by tracking down their answers to how, why, when and where in the common experiences each day brings.

## New Skills and Adventures

Every child enjoys the wonders of growing and living things. Pets, aquariums, terrariums, gardens open new horizons to the young learner. The care of these living things also develops many traits needed in responsible, mature adults. Other activities stress the enjoyment of the out-of-doors through picnics, sports and camping which develop skills and give new adventure and pleasure.

Children live in the world of imagination where dreams are dreamed and tested with reality in their daily living. The timid child may hesitate to speak before his playmates but lose himself in a puppet project. Children observed to have speech defects may learn to overcome them as they become absorbed in making and using a loud speaker.

Books arranged in a quiet corner free from distractions lure almost every child. And various tastes are satisfied through the wide range of selections found in a carefully selected library. Other activities such as story telling, reading, searching for information bring new words and meanings and add to the understanding of the world of childhood.

Materials of many kinds are important in the extended school center. Trying out their possibilities and utilizing them for various purposes encourages children to be creative. The same talent often ascribed to primitive children who are untaught yet produce interesting art objects will be found in children who are allowed freedom to work with raw materials if uninhibited by patterns and adult standards. As teachers work with children they try to help them use various media in their expression of ideas. Children who have found avenues to release their talents will never be like many adults whose creative powers lie dormant for life.

Today few children learn the art of preparing, cooking and serving food in their homes. Homemakers rely more on purchasing canned or ready cooked food. Yet the experience of working in a kitchen and enjoying the end products are experiences all children find pleasurable. These activities are rich, too, in learnings contributing to their good health and well-being, not to

mention the social living which surrounds them. For these reasons they have been widely introduced in many extended school programs.

From these several examples some of the characteristics which will be found in the leisure-time programs for children can be identified. The examples embody such things as time to experiment, discover new facts, develop interests, extend experiences, find adventure and practice good living and working with others in a setting which fosters growth and development.

## Where ESS Programs Need To Be Improved

To be sure not all extended school services will have these qualities. An overview of programs in operation will show some common problems are ever present no matter what type of an extended program has been organized. Some situations repeatedly arise because there is lack of understanding or a limited budget. Certain difficulties come to the top—too large groups, untrained staff, inadequate arrangements for good living, lack of flexibility, too limited planning with parents and insufficient financing.

1. *Group Size.*—Demands to take more children than staff and space permit is a constant problem in an extended school program. Because of the nature of the extended program it is important that groups not exceed more than 20–25 children of school age, for the greatest benefit to the children. The tendency to destroy the informal, individualized programs by converting them into mass recreation is an ever-present danger.

2. *Selection of Personnel.*—The selection of personnel is one of the most important considerations in the leisure-time program. Finding teachers who understand and enjoy working with children is the best guarantee of a successful program. Qualifications in terms of academic training and specialization in a particular area can never outweigh the leader who establishes easy rapport with children and maintains their confidence and respect. Because this point of view has been established by experience, extended school programs draw upon persons from many fields—science, art, music, home economics, industrial arts, physical education, dramatics—to enrich the service but no one of these fields has priority in program activities. A team approach on the part of the staff is called for at all times.

3. *Arrangements for Good Living.*—Extended school programs need to be planned so that there is good living for children. When children are brought together for a full day their health and physical needs cannot be ignored. Plans may be needed for warm nutritious lunches, rest at intervals, indoor and outdoor facilities, individual and group occupations, in order that the greatest benefits may be derived from the school experience.

4. *Flexible Planning.*—Flexibility in developing programs for children should be encouraged for continuous improvement of services. Keeping ever before the staff and children the attitude of solving problems and being resourceful helps to promote the growth of all. The sharing of ideas of staff is also a valuable practice and is observed to contribute to staff growth and morale. As various talents and strengths in personnel are discovered they can be drawn upon to enrich and add to the experiences of other schools and programs.

5. *Parents and School Staff Plan Together.*—When parents and teachers plan together for their particular school and neighborhood a better program will result. It is to be expected that programs will differ in many respects depending on community needs and the services presently available. Danger lies ahead for any program when a prospectus is handed down from above which short cuts the process of group discussion and decision making.

6. *Teacher Education.*—The best source of leadership for extended school programs is no doubt to be found in the most successful classroom teachers. For them workshops and conferences are avenues for professional growth. However, attention must be given to the programs in teacher education institutions so that new teachers have preparation in learning to work with parents and community services which are closely related to education for leisure and citizenship responsibilities. The extended school program offers a fertile field for teacher education which has not yet been touched.

7. *Financial Support.*—As schools experiment with new services, the question how shall they be financed is certain to arise. Since public tax funds are rarely available to pioneer in a new field other plans must be worked out. This is not a new problem for schools. Precedents have already been established in a long list of services, such as school lunches, libraries, play centers, which have come into school programs financed through fees and voluntary contributions. Citizen and parent efforts have always been a means of doing something about children's needs and they will continue to be. In several States funds have been used to aid schools in experimental programs but mostly the initiative starts at the local level with citizens planning together. Perhaps one of the best ways for States to help is to give their backing and some professional leadership to these endeavors which are directed toward improving programs for children.

## A Look Ahead

It is predicted that in 1970 one-fourth of the population will be people over 65. The happiness of their lives may greatly depend on the resources they have within themselves for a rich and useful life. In a world of movies, television and radio, it becomes increasingly difficult for children to learn to develop their own forms of recreation. Yet in the school-age years is the time to discover their hidden talents and develop them. From this angle extended school programs are especially significant.

The extent to which the rates of juvenile delinquency are rising is cause for alarm. Court records show that the number of child delinquents in 1948–51 increased 19 percent. The expected increase based on present statistics is high. The extended school program offers one of the preventive measures which is least expensive but can be a channel for guiding the energies of deprived youth into constructive channels. It supplies the ingredients which these children who get into trouble need—companions, things to do and understanding adult guidance.

Another social problem flares up in the guise of new patterns of family life. Economic conditions and changing standards are bringing about the need for community services which will strengthen family life. Children in urban areas often lack the things needed for healthy growth—space, materials, companions and adult guidance if their parents are not fulfilling their responsibilities. As communities take action to remedy these problems they may turn to the schools to do their part of the job needing to be done in helping youth have wholesome leisure pursuits.

# Fewer School Districts in the United States

by C. O. Fitzwater, Division of State and Local School Systems

Viewed in terms of the large number involved, progress during the past two decades in reducing our oversupply of small inadequate local school districts seems little short of remarkable. In 1932 the total number of local school districts was slightly over 127,500. By 1950 that total had been reduced to around 83,200. Unofficial estimates indicate that at present there are probably fewer than 72,000.

This large-scale movement in school district reorganization has involved various sizes and types of districts. Most of those eliminated, as is the case with a large portion of those still in existence at present, operated a single one-teacher school. Several thousand operated no school of any kind, those having school-age children sending them to a nearby school operated by another district. Some were high school districts within whose territory elementary districts operated independently. Others were 12-grade units, typically small but occasionally quite large, which were surrounded by small elementary districts dependent on them for providing high school services on a tuition basis.

Reorganization of such districts over the past twenty years has resulted in the establishment of new administrative units of widely varying characteristics. In a number of instances larger elementary districts were created in the open country by mergers of two, three, four, or perhaps a half dozen one-teacher districts. Many districts no longer operating a school were merged with an adjoining operating district. Many 12-grade village districts have been enlarged from time to time by reaching out and taking in a few surrounding one-teacher districts. While most reorganizations such as these have been effected in a more or less incidental way as local people saw fit to make use of State consolidation laws, they could not be considered typical of most new administrative units.

In marked contrast are the reorganizations which have resulted in the creation of county-unit districts. Larger in area and total population, some containing cities above 50,000 population, the boundaries of such districts are coterminous with those of counties and include the territory of all former districts within them. Thus, when West Virginia adopted the county-unit plan all former districts, including those in all cities, were incorporated in county school administrative units.

There is a sizable number of districts commonly classified as county-units which include all the territory of counties except for one or a very few independent districts, most usually city school systems. Many of these were established before 1932. Although some were created in the 1930's very few have been established since 1940. In fact, there has been a trend toward making such districts complete county-units, although in some instances, notably in Georgia since 1949, a relatively small number of independent districts have been established in county-units that previously were completely unified.

## Community Unit

By far the most common type of local district resulting from reorganization in recent years is what is commonly termed a community unit. Such districts are formed on the basis of socio-economic patterns of association which local people naturally tend to follow in their day-to-day activities. The vast majority contain a trading center, usually a village or small city, and include the surrounding country-side from which people come to trade and to engage in social activities. The boundaries of such districts are seldom coterminous with those of the county. Most usually their territory includes only a part of one county but frequently parts of more than one.

A study recently conducted by the Office of Education based on 552 reorganized districts in eight States shows that, despite great variations in a few, the majority of those studied ranged in area from 50 to 125 square miles, had populations ranging from 1,200 to 5,000, and that less than two percent of the total number were county units. Approximately 8,400 old districts were combined in these 552 reorganized units, an average of 15 per reorganization. All but 43 of them included at least one old district which operated a high school.

A sizable number of these reorganized units had cities, some above 15,000 population, within their borders. Most districts containing a city also included a sizable amount of territory in the surrounding country-side, indicating that socio-economic factors had been influential in their formation. Others, adjacent to metropolitan centers, were densely populated but small in area. Both types illustrate sound adaptations to problems in reorganization confronting people living in and around urban centers in many sections of the country.

In the case of medium and smaller sized cities there appears to be a marked trend toward enlarging the boundaries of the school district beyond the corporate limits to include smaller districts in the open country constituting the trade and service area of the urban center. This is an application of the community unit concept applied in larger situations. Such districts have been established in recent years in a number of States. New York recently enacted legislation containing provisions for dealing more extensively with this problem.

## A Different Approach

In areas surrounding large metropolitan centers a different approach is usually taken. Suburban areas have in recent years mushroomed so rapidly that the inadequacies of small districts established years before have become acute. This problem has been met in most instances not by extending the boundaries of the metropolitan school district but by creating new and larger administrative units in the suburbs, frequently including territory extending into the open country as well. While such situations may appear to be a relatively small part of the total problem of establishing more adequate school districts, in terms of the number of

school-age children affected, this is in itself a large-scale problem. At the same time it should be added that some of the most notable accomplishments in school district reorganization have taken place in suburban areas.

The procedures used by the States in establishing more effective local school districts have varied greatly. In years past many States enacted consolidation laws prescribing the procedures local people must follow in making changes they considered desirable. Other States have used more direct methods. Thus, in West Virginia the State legislature in 1933 abolished all existing local school districts and created in place of them 55 county unit districts. The following year the Kentucky legislature directed county school boards to abolish all districts having less than 250 pupils and to incorporate their territory in county school districts.

A more recent example of direct legislative action took place in Texas, where in 1949 a law was enacted requiring districts not operating a school for two successive years to be consolidated with districts operating schools. Similar action was taken during 1948 in Arkansas, where an act initiated and approved by the State electorate abolished all school districts having an enumeration of less than 350 pupils and made them a part of county school districts.

However, in recent years most States engaged in reorganization have not employed direct methods. In 1941 Washington adopted a plan which has been used, with variations, in a number of others. A State commission on school district reorganization was created and empowered to give leadership and provide services in a concerted effort to reorganize local school districts. The law also provided for county committees to develop reorganization plans, each of which, on approval by the State commission, was submitted to a vote of the people living within the area of the proposed new district. This plan resulted in reducing the number of districts from 1,451 in 1940 to 591 in 1950.

Other States have had outstanding success with procedures quite similar to Washington's plan. For example, Idaho's local districts were reduced from over 1,000 in 1947 to less than 300 at present; Illinois' local units from almost 12,000 in 1944 to slightly under 3,000 at present; and Missouri's from over 8,000 in 1948 to less than 5,000 at present. Since 1947 Minnesota and Wisconsin each have eliminated approximately 1,000 districts.

Other States have had notable success with reorganization plans involving local participation and decision with the advice and counsel of leadership from the State department of education. Among these are New York, where since 1925 more than 6,000 old districts have been combined in approximately 430 community-type districts covering about 80 percent of the area of the State. While such procedures have not everywhere been as successful as State educational leaders desired, other influential factors have not always been favorable. A study of these factors, both favorable and unfavorable, together with the reorganization policies and procedures used is presently being pursued by four staff members in the Office of Education with the assistance of staff members in 16 State departments of education.

# Fifty Years of Flight

by Willis C. Brown, Specialist for Aviation Education

FROM his prone position in the first airplane, Orville Wright had no time on his first flight of 12 seconds to think how that flight would affect school children, teachers colleges, scientists, industries, and governments in future years. This frail plane, made of wood and cloth, and actually held together by wire, was being guided by a self-taught scientist, who was determined to find out for himself whether flight could be achieved in a heavier-than-air craft. What school or what individual has not felt the impact of that flight?

The 50th Anniversary of Powered Flight is being celebrated all over the Nation from December 17, 1952, to December 17, 1953. Schools and colleges will play an important role in this significant year of celebration.

In the short space of 50 years, we have advanced far from that first flight on December 17, 1903. At the Kitty Hawk dunes in North Carolina, Wilbur and Orville Wright, on their first trial, proved flight was possible by flying 120 feet, which is a distance less than the wingspan of a modern large plane. Today, we have on record an official flight of 11,235 miles without refueling. The best flight on that first day was 58 seconds. The established record today for a plane to remain in the air without refueling is 84 hours, 32 minutes.

It was five years before the Wrights established an altitude record of 350 feet—today's official altitude record is 59,445 ft.

Early speeds were usually about 25 miles per hour—today the official speed record is 698.5 m. p. h., made by a jet plane. Such progress is staggering, even in this age of miracles.

Have we learned how to use this "new" invention? The airplane was a novelty in its early years. Intrepid pilots amazed the public with their barnstorming performances at county fairs. It was an age that placed a premium on the daredevil spirit in pilots. Many general charter uses were made of planes in that era, but it was not until 1918 that civic use was planned. On May 15 of that year, the first regular air mail service was established between Washington and New York. As time went on, regular passenger service, and then freight service, were added to meet public time-saving demands.

The first trans-Atlantic solo flight, made by Charles Lindbergh on May 20, 1927, was the one thing that won over the public and demonstrated that flight, when carefully planned, was safe and practical. Scheduled commercial airlines began operations in 1926. The Lindbergh flight did much to give this new industry a good start.

## A New World

More than any other one event, this invention of the Wright brothers has brought nations into proximity and made it essential that they learn how to live in harmony with one another. Many say that aviation has

**To: General James H. Doolittle,**
**Chairman, 50th Anniversary of Flight Committee.**

*The celebration of the 50th anniversary of flight and the specific honoring of the Wright brothers and other aviation pioneers will, I believe, be welcomed by the schools of the country as an excellent emphasis in education.*

*The Office of Education will be very happy to cooperate with your committee in furthering the interests of schools in appropriate activities.*

**Earl James McGrath,**
**U. S. Commissioner of Edueation.**

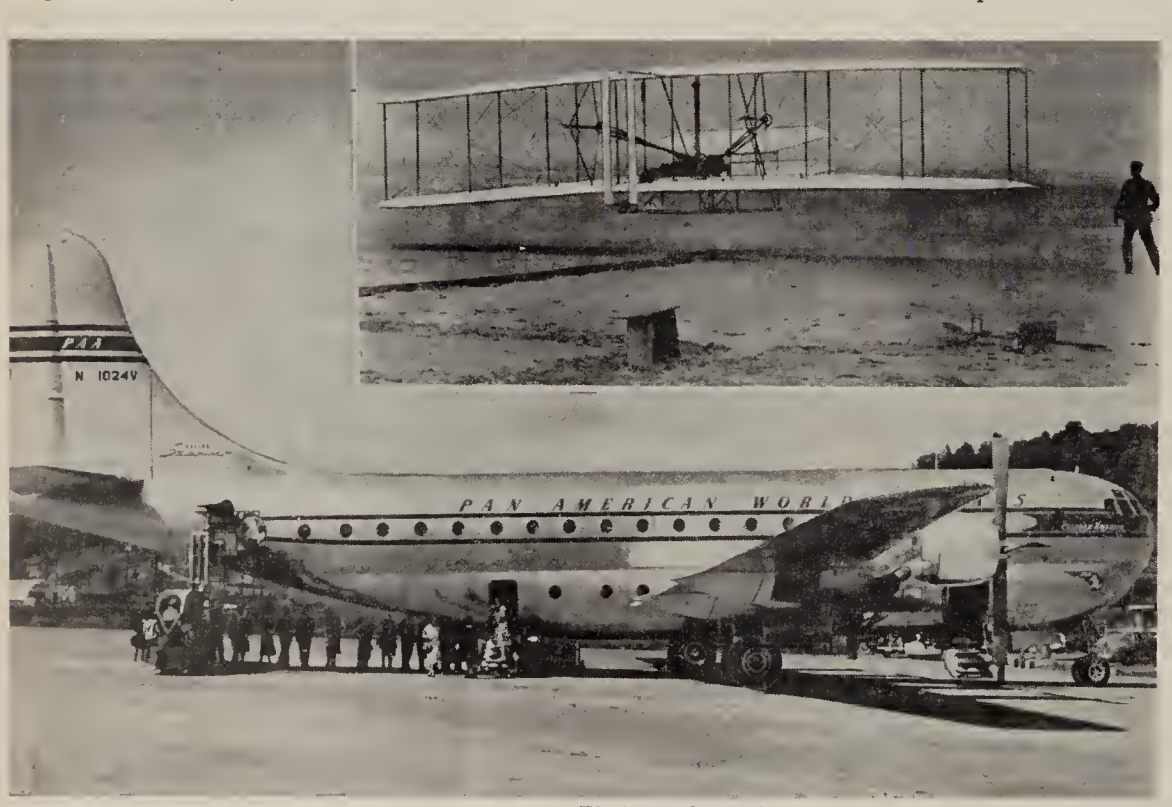
been the means by which our world has appeared to become smaller. Let's think of the airplane as a means of expanding our horizons and making possible important travel, new opportunities, and commerce with formerly remote and inaccessible areas. It is an important part of our national defense. It is a means of performing varied missions of mercy formerly impossible.

More than ever, the impact of aviation on our society warrants special consideration by the schools. The Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938 brought into being the vast airport and air traffic control system that has done much to assist aviation developments. It created a market for trained specialists to service that system. Factories of the aircraft industry employ hundreds of thousands of skilled workers. Airlines of the nation have produced new jobs in a huge new industry.

The 1952 issue of *Air Transport Facts and Figures* states that it is nine times safer to fly by scheduled airlines today than it was 20 years ago. Last year's safety record was the best to date. Tourist travel is increasing yearly. Domestic airlines flew over 10 billion passenger miles in 1951, almost double the passenger miles flown 5 years before. Airmail, express, and freight have experienced a similar gain.

Scheduled airlines have indeed made rapid progress, but the great frontiers of development are in military and experimental fields.

Research aeronautical engineers and designers have challenged us with new and ever more amazing developments for both civil and military aircraft. The highest speed flown by a plane now in production and certified to by the National Aeronautical Association was 698.5 m. p. h., recorded on November 19, 1952, by Captain J. S. Nash in an Air Force jet plane. The sonic barrier was first pierced by a flight of Captain Charles E. Yeager, U. S. A. F., in their experimental "X–1" plane on October 14, 1947. Many stories of planes exceeding the speed of sound make it seem likely that such flights are more common than we know. Then came the announcement by the Navy that their experimental rocket-powered "D–558–2" model had been flown by its test pilot to an altitude of 79,494 feet and at the computed speed of 1,238 m. p. h. in level flight.




—Photograph courtesy Pan Ameriean World Airways.

**The only existing picture of the historic first flight by Orville Wright is shown in the inset above. It was taken on December 17, 1903. Wilbur Wright is shown running along beside the plane. The first plane traveled 120 feet, not quite the length of the Pan American Clipper, also shown above. The Wright airplane cost less than $1,000 as compared with a cost of $1,500,000 for the Clipper.**

## Unanswered Questions

This accomplishment of a speed approaching a "Mach" number of 2 gives urgency to a whole new field of science and its mathematical computations. How can the plane be cooled at such high speeds? How can the pilot keep his body pressure normal and skin temperature reasonably cool? What happens when altitudes just beyond are reached where gravity no longer is a force? These, as well as problems of airport locations, noise, and accident, are questions that demand answers. If immediate solutions are not found, they must and will be answered by youth now in our schools.

What are the many implications of all of this for education? First, it seems that our children through all grades need to be taught by teachers who are aware of developments in aviation and the effect of these developments on our society.

In the few preceding paragraphs there are many implications of aviation to the curricula of teachers colleges, secondary, and elementary schools. Subject fields involved include science, English, mathematics, geography, history, social studies, government, industrial arts, vocational education, and other areas.

Valuable aviation content usable in all grades of public education and in most classes is available. Of course there is a place in the curriculum of schools in many cities, especially in centers of aviation activities, for courses with an aviation title such as Aviation I and II, or Science of Aeronautics, or Industrial Arts Aviation. But by far the larger need is for aviation to be integrated into existing courses. The subject matter is high in interest and motivation value. It affords many interesting

illustrations that could well replace hackneyed ones.

Many communities with airports or aviation industry will find it a vital tie between school and community. Extracurricular aviation and model building activities can provide many interesting exhibitions or "open house" programs as well as assembly programs. They may help in identifying those with special skills.

### *Aviation's Benefits*

As school people, we need most of all to investigate the many benefits of using aviation as an aid to modern education. We could study the aviation interests of our children and consult with local aviation industry for advice on appropriate content for school use.

The 50th Anniversary Committee, headed by General James Doolittle, has asked the Governor of each State to name a State committee to help develop local plans for celebration of the 50th Anniversary of Powered Flight. Events of civic or industrial nature may be planned. Certainly the honoring of the Wright Brothers and the 50th Anniversary of Powered Flight would be incomplete without educational programs. Much new resource material will soon be available to aid schools and colleges wishing to plan programs of value.

Those interestcd should get in touch with their State committee so that educational programs can be coordinated with other programs in each State. It is hoped that educational institutions, generally, all over the country may find ways to assist in honoring those American pioneers, Orville and Wilbur Wright, by planning participation in the 50th Anniversary of Powered Flight.

# The Office of Education
# Its Organization and Functions II

THIS is the second article in the SCHOOL LIFE series on organization and functions of the Office of Education.

The series is being presented to answer questions asked by many educational leaders, teachers, students, and laymen across the Nation.

The first article, published in the February issue of SCHOOL LIFE, reported the work of the Commissioner of Education, the branches under his direct supervision, and the functions of the respective divisions of the Office of Education.

This article goes further into detail in describing the responsibilities of branches and sections in the several divisions of the Office of Education.

## DIVISION OF STATE AND LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, OFFICE OF ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER

Coordinates and supervises the division program, formulates plans, policies, and procedures. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in field of elementary and secondary education.

## SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BRANCH

### Office of Director

Coordinates and supervises the branch program. Formulates plans, policies, and procedures. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in field of school administration.

### State School Systems Section

Studies and promotes the improvement of administration and organization of State school systems. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

### School Finance Section

Studies and promotes the improvement of provisions for public school financing. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

### School Housing Section

Studies and promotes the improvement of school housing. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this field. Administers grant-in-aid programs for surveying school facilities and planning school construction.

### Local School Systems Section

Studies and promotes the improvement of administration and organization of city, county, and rural school systems. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

## INSTRUCTION, ORGANIZATION, AND SERVICES BRANCH

### Office of Director

Coordinates and supervises the branch program. Formulates plans, policies, and procedures. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in field of curriculum and instruction at the elementary and secondary levels.

### Elementary School Section

Studies and promotes improvement of instruction and organization at nursery, kindergarten, primary, intermediate, upper grade levels. Cooperates with State and local school systems in developing programs for improved curriculum planning and evaluation, instruction in all areas, supervision, teacher education, rural education, international understanding, community-school relations, extended school services, cumulative records, and pupil progress reports. Provides advisory and consultant services to schools, organizations, and agencies interested in elementary education.

### Visual Education Service Section

Serves as central cataloging and information center for all U. S. Government films; assists in the release of Government films for public educational use; compiles national directories of film sources; collects statistics on audio-visual education; serves as liaison office between teacher education and audio-visual organizations; advises on use of films in educational television.

### Secondary Schools Section

Interprets and reports basic statistics; studies and synthesizes research; discovers, analyzes, and reports current practices. Promotes improved administration and instruction. Provides advisory services to and maintains liaison with public and private agencies and organizations interested in secondary education.

### Services for Exceptional Children and Youth Section

Studies and promotes the improvement of organization and instruction for physically handicapped, mentally retarded, gifted, and emotionally maladjusted children. Col-

lects and publishes statistical and legislative information on special education programs; provides advisory and informational services to State departments of education, local schools, institutional and private schools, professional organizations, teacher education institutions, parents of exceptional children, and voluntary and lay organizations interested in exceptional children; cooperates on inter-agency committees and renders advisory services to international programs.

### Radio-Television Services Section

Studies educational uses of radio, television, and program-recordings as a basis for promoting effective use of these media in schools. Assists schools in finding availability sources for radio and television programs and program-recordings suited for specific instructional applications. Provides consultative assistance to schools and colleges concerning policies and procedures pertinent to developing educational radio and television broadcast stations. Provides consultative assistance to schools on selection of radio, audio, and television facilities necessary for effective use of educational broadcasts.

### Services to Libraries Section

Promotes the Nation-wide improvement and extension of school, college, university, research, and public libraries as essential educational agencies. Gathers through surveys and research basic facts in the fields of library administration, legislation, finance, physical plant, methods, materials, and personnel; makes such information available to library administrators, educators, governing bodies, State library officials, Federal agencies, and professional organizations. Renders advisory service to Federal programs which require or affect the services and facilities of the various types of libraries.

***School officials are urged to cooperate in community-wide planning for local sports celebrations during the Mid-Century Festival of American Sports, April 11–May 17. Write: The Mid-Century Festival of American Sports, 1 N. LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill., for folder and posters.***

# New Books and Pamphlets

**Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency**

*(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)*

*Children's Camps in New York State, 1952.* Albany, State of New York, Department of Commerce, 1952. 68 p. Illus.

*Development of Moral and Spiritual Values Through the Curriculums of California High Schools.* Prepared by Committee on Moral and Spiritual Values of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators. Sacramento, Calif., California State Department of Education, 1952. 32 p. (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 13, Sept. 1952.)

*Education and Liberty; The Role of the Schools in a Modern Democracy.* By James Bryant Conant. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1953. 168 p. $3.00.

*General Education in School and College.* A Committee Report by Members of the Faculties of Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1952. 142 p. $2.00.

*Great Men and Great Issues in Our American Heritage.* A Series of Adult Discussion Programs. Prepared for the Experimental Discussion Project of the Fund for Adult Education, an Independent Organization Established by the Ford Foundation. New York, 1952. 222 p. (Address: Fund for Adult Education, 655 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.)

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*The Guidance of Learning Activities;* A Summary of the Principles of Teaching Based Upon the Growth of the Learner. By William H. Burton. Second Edition. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. 737 p. $5.00.

*A Guide to Better Hearing.* Hartford, Conn., Connecticut State Department of Education, Bureau of School and Community Services, 1952. 36 p. Illus. (Bulletin No. 52.)

*Industrial Training. A Guide to Selected Readings.* By John M. Brophy, I. Bradford Shaw, and Fred T. Golub. Ithaca, N. Y., New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, 1952. 62 p. Free to residents of New York State, 25 cents to others.

*Learning to Live in 1953.* Basic Relationships of Life; A Booklist for Children and Young People, Selected, Classified, Graded, Annotated. By Christine B. Gilbert, Jean Betzner, and Thomas J. McLaughlin. New York, The Combined Book Exhibit, 1952. 62 p. Free. (Address: Thomas J. McLaughlin, The Combined Book Exhibit, 950 University Avenue, New York 52, N. Y.)

*The Teacher of the Social Studies.* Jack Allen, Editor. Washington, D. C., National Council for the Social Studies, A Department of the National Education Association, 1952. 248 p. (Twenty-Third Yearbook, 1952.) $3.50 Cloth-bound. $3.00 Paper-bound.

*What Does Research Say About Arithmetic?* A Report Prepared by Vincent J. Glennon and C. W. Hunnicutt. Washington, D. C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1952. 45 p. 50 cents.

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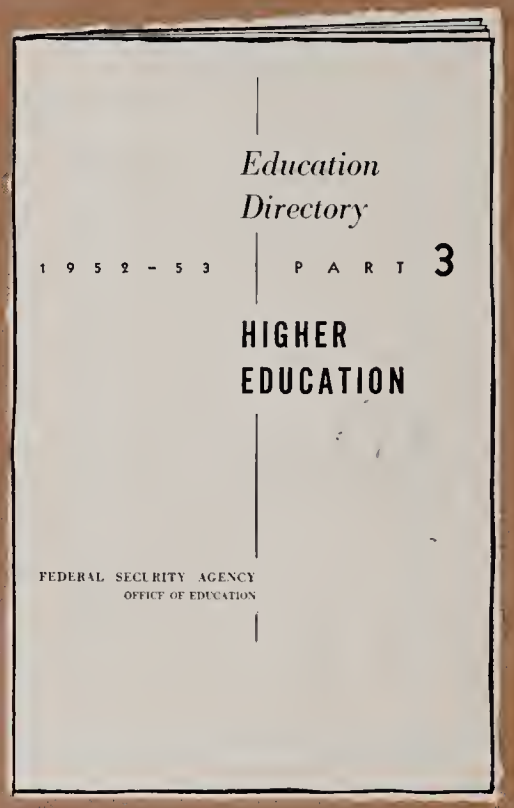


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# School Life

◀ Beacon of Truth



U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

# Freedom of Expression*

By Barbara Harris,

Bruton Heights School, Williamsburg, Va.

We are gathered today in the historic General Courtroom of Williamsburg's ancient Capitol. We are here to renew our allegiance to one of democracy's most prized possessions—the right of freedom of expression. We have come as judges and as witnesses and as jury. We have also come, in a very real sense, as prisoners before the bar, because mankind has too often failed to keep this freedom inviolate.

It is easy to sit in easy comfort in a nation strong and prosperous and agree among ourselves that freedom of expression is intimately interwoven in our heritage. But the ideal of freedom of worship for which Roger Williams fled to his wilderness is now accepted as a right and not recognized as a privilege. John Peter Zenger's trial for his right to print the truth is somehow lost in the dust of time. We have half-forgotten the courage of John Adams, the patriot who dared to defend the British redcoats of the Boston Massacre because he believed that a fair hearing even for the most unpopular cause was far more important than personal or political expediency. And even the story of Williamsburg's Burgesses and their fellow legislators throughout the colonies who would not be silenced by threat of Parliament or King seems only a chapter for a history book.

It is much harder, and much more important, to make ourselves realize that freedom of expression is again on trial today. In our own time of tempest there are many tyrants, great and small, who would take this right from us, whether they bear the insignia of the fasces or the hammer and sickle.

In the free world today, the right to speak and know the truth is as important to survival as it was when George Mason wrote it into the Virginia Bill of Rights. On the other side of the Iron Curtain and the Bamboo Curtain, the right of freedom of expression lives only in silence and in memories.

Let us, therefore, this afternoon, while we sit in this hallowed place, rededicate our minds and our hearts and our conscience to the ideal that free people must be free to express themselves as they wish.

Let us listen, as if for the first time, to John Milton while he says "Give me the liberty to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience, above all liberties."

Let us embody in the record of our own times the message from the Gospel according to St. John: "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

*Miss Harris read this statement at the third Democracy Workshop in Williamsburg, Va., February 14, 1953. The Williamsburg winner in the Voice of Democracy contest, Miss Miller, and the four national winners in the 1952 contest, presented upon this occasion episodes from America's colonial past to emphasize our traditional freedoms, including the freedom of expression.

School ★ Life

Official Journal of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

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Volume 35 Number 7

Cover Photograph: This "beacon of truth" is one of the giant towers of a Radio Free Europe transmitter which the Crusade for Freedom has provided to broadcast the truth through the Iron Curtain. Millions of American school children and adults contribute to this non-Government and non-profit crusade in Europe and Asia. The photograph shows one of the four antennas of the powerful short-wave transmitter at Holzkirchen, Germany.



Published each month of the school year, October through June.

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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Planning itineraries for their United States stay.

# Helping Foreign Educators Study Our Elementary Schools

By the Elementary Schools Section Staff

EDUCATORS from approximately 50 countries have come to the United States this school year to study our elementary schools. Members of the Elementary Schools Section of the Office of Education have cooperated with the International Education Division in the planning and arrangements for these visits, in orienting the visitors to American education, in planning study and orientation centers, in working out itineraries, and in helping with the evaluation of the experiences in this country.

*This article is one of a series being published this year to present the details of programs referred to in the article "Improving Education for Children," School Life, January 1952. Vol. 34, No. 4. It is designed to show how the Elementary Schools Section Staff works with the various international education programs of the Office of Education.*

## The International Group

Who are these educators? What is our responsibility concerning them? The International Teacher Education group was the most varied this year, including 64 elementary persons from 22 countries. These people are chiefly elementary school supervisors, principals, and teachers, who have come as recipients of Smith-Mundt grants, and in many instances with Fulbright travel assistance. These awards have been made by the United States Government after open competition held in each participating country. Generally, they are persons who hold much promise for the future development of education in their own countries, and who have a sufficient knowledge of English to make their visits profitable.

With this group the Elemcntary Schools Section staff had the responsibility for planning three days of orientation activities. In advance, staff members read the biographical sheets that were available in order to get some idea of the interests of the group. Included in the plans were several sessions of the whole group, division into two large groups for a visit to schools in nearby Maryland, and meetings in small groups of 8 or 9 persons, each with a consultant from the elementary staff.

The general sessions were aimed at giving the visitors a bird's-eye view of the aims and objectives of elementary education in the United States, how it is organized, and what a school day is like. In addition, a final session was used for summarizing purposes. The visits to schools were planned in advance by the Office of Education staff and the elementary school staffs. In small groups, the samc as those set up for conferences in the Office of Education, visitors spent a half hour in a primary room and the same in an intermediate grade room. Since this was the first week of school, and as a matter of fact, the third day, visitors were helped to understand that what they would see would be largely how children and teachers become acquainted with each other and how they plan together. The children themselves had an opportunity to talk with the visitors. At the close of the after-

noon in each school, the elementary staff, Office of Education representatives, the visitors, some parents, members of the administrative staff, and president of the board of education (in one of the schools) met for refreshments and for a round-the-table discussion of questions from the visitors.

Members of this international group went to three teacher education institutions in groups of 20 or more. to remain for approximately 3 months. There special seminars, opportunities to visit classes, and opportunity to observe in public schools were included in the plans. The remaining 6 weeks of their stay were spent visiting schools in a different State, with the State Department of Education in each case making the necessary arrangements.

When this group of international visitors returned to Washington, they spent two days with the Elementary Schools Section staff to take stock of the experiences they had, and to raise those questions which they felt had not been fully answered.

### British Exchange Teachers

Another large group of visitors is composed of the British exchange teachers who have come to this country on the Fulbright program. The 47 elementary teachers in this group are teaching in many parts of the United States while American teachers are teaching their classes in England. Some Elementary Schools Section staff members met with this group to discuss educational methods and procedures they would find in American schools.

### Visiting Teachers From Germany

Seventy-one German elementary teachers, principals, and supervisors spent 7 months in this country, studying schools and American life and culture. For this group, the Elementary Schools Section staff planned a visit to an elementary school in nearby Virginia, which was similar to that of the international group in its organization and purpose. Instead of working with the German educators in small groups on elementary school problems, they were divided in across-the-board fashion into 6 groups, elementary and secondary. Each of these groups was rotated so that in a 3-day period it met 3 teams, each team consisting of an elementary and a secondary school specialist who worked with the visitors on certain specific problems in education. The results of these discussions were summarized by means of a panel which discussed major issues and allowed for questions from the floor.

The German educators spent about 4 months in groups of from 15 to 20 each at 4 different colleges. These experiences were followed for each person by visits in two other States where most of the time was spent in visiting schools and other places of historic and cultural interest. For this group there was also an evaluation experience with the Elementary and Secondary Schools staff when they returned to Washington.

### Other Visiting Educators

In addition to these three groups, numerous individuals and small groups of educators have come to the United States throughout the year to study our elementary schools and to secure educational advice and guidance. These people were usually from ministries of education, colleges, universities, school boards, or other positions of responsibility. Hand-tailored itineraries were developed for these persons in the light of their special objectives and concerns.

### Planning and Arrangements

Much advance planning is done by the Elementary Schools Section of the Office for the four types of visitors mentioned above. Orientation sessions must be planned; advice is given concerning the selection of places where they will go; in many instances, arrangements must be made with the colleges and universities, and State and local school systems involved. Provision for reporting and evaluating the outcomes of the visits must be arranged.

During the period when the visitors are away from the Office, staff members keep in touch with them through correspondence and by visits when on field trips.

### Continuing Contacts

After the visitors return to their own countries, staff members keep in touch with them as far as possible, answering questions and requests, giving advice, sending materials, and receiving accounts of what the former visitors are now doing to improve their schools.

One of last year's visitors from Cuba writes, "I am working on a revision of our courses of study and preparing a series of speeches about my visit to your country. I am going to talk before different teachers and supervisors associations. It would be very convenient for me to receive some printed material about your educational situation, statistics, and so on. I would like also to become a member of the NEA or other organization of that kind. Will you let me know what I have to do in that sense?"

A Japanese educator writes, "I advocated holding camps for pupils to foster the democratic way of life after I came home, and the idea was adopted last summer. I want to get the materials about school camps in New York, Georgia, Chicago, Los Angeles, and other States or cities. I will be pleased if you can help me to get these materials."

(*Continued on page 109*)

Sharing reports of experiences before returning home.

# Crucial National Problems in Education

by Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education

## The Need for School Housing

One of the most serious situations existing in the Nation today is the shortage of schools. States and municipalities vary widely in their capacity to build new schools in replacement of those which have become obsolete, or to add to their existing facilities to take care of the many additional children who are appearing at schoolhouse doors because of the recent rapid increase in the number of births in the United States. Related to the major problem of a shortage of school buildings are others of transportation of pupils, of reorganization of school districts, and of school finance.

It has, of course, been generally known that thousands of communities, in addition to the federally affected areas, suffer from a lack of school facilities and are therefore seriously handicapped in providing even the basic education required for citizenship. But no authoritative and comprehensive factual information of the total requirement on a Nation-wide basis has been established. The Eighty-first Congress wisely provided for a national survey of the need for new schoolhouse facilities in Title I of Public Law 815. Through this legislation the Office of Education, authorized to conduct such a national study in cooperation with the several States, launched this project in fiscal 1951.

The first phase of the survey of schoolhouse facilities was completed in fiscal 1952, and the facts established were sufficiently comprehensive and impressive to justify the Commissioner in reporting them to the Congress in April 1952. At that time the information gathered from 25 States made it possible to estimate the situation on a national scale with reasonable accuracy.

The facts revealed in the survey by the spring of 1952 are startling, if not alarming. To provide adequate classroom and auxiliary facilities such as gymnasiums and auditoriums for all the children expected to be enrolled in the public schools in the fall of 1952 would require an expenditure of over 10 billion dollars. Moreover, many of the school plants now actually in use do not meet acceptable standards of fire safety; 40 percent of the school buildings are more than 30 years old and 16 percent are more than 50 years old.

That this is a national problem is clear from the fact that even the States with the most satisfactory facilities are in serious difficulties. In those States, too, the building shortage is severe and will grow worse in the years ahead as a result of the continuing rise in the number of births.

If it were possible to provide adequate school housing for all the Nation's children this year 10 billion dollars would be needed. Yet a conservative estimate by those reporting for the States surveyed indicates that only about half of the necessary funds could now be provided by States and local communities through the maximum utilization of bonding capacities. Some form of Federal assistance is imperative if the children of the Nation, regardless of where they live, are to have the advantages even of the basic education which Americans have traditionally considered their birthright. . . . .

Meanwhile, many State and local school authorities have been making an effort to construct the buildings necessary to meet the present and coming critical needs for new schools. During the fiscal year 1952 the Office of Education, under the Controlled Materials Plan of the Defense Production Act, issued permits and allocated controlled materials supporting educational construction valued at $1,878,000,000.

This construction rate was possible during a period of material shortages because those persons in the Defense Production Administration responsible for policy decisions recognized the essentiality of education to the national defense and assigned to school construction a position second only to the direct defense agencies in the allocation of critical materials.

In fulfilling its responsibilities as the claimant agency for education under the controlled materials plan, the Office of Education has been able to approve all applications for construction designed to relieve overcrowding, with postponement only of less essential types of construction, such as gymnasiums, auditoriums, and similar facilities. An estimated total of 49,500 elementary and secondary school classrooms were completed during the year. This number is short by 6,500 classrooms of the

***In presenting the Annual Report of the Office of Education for the fiscal year 1952, U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath emphasized this major point:***

***The strength of this Nation is composed of many ingredients, but the most important is the quality of its citizenry. Recognizing this fact, we become increasingly conscious of the decisive role of the school in shaping our Nation's future. The school is the reservoir from which must flow not only the technical skills but also the intelligence and the love of freedom needed to keep us strong in a world of conflict.***

***With this main point in view, Commissioner McGrath in his annual report discussed in detail the rewards that have resulted richly from the fundamental policy that education should be locally controlled. He reviewed the national interest in specific types of education, called for the safeguarding of local control in any Federal activities dealing with educational problems of national scope, and stressed the need for Federal leadership, "the kind of leadership which can give unity and a sense of direction to a joint local-State-Federal assault upon the educational problem at hand . . ."***

***Commissioner McGrath sets forth seven educational problems or areas of service which require national leadership and action, with the cooperation of State and local authorities. SCHOOL LIFE offers excerpts from the report of the Commissioner of Education as evidence of action taken or necessary to meet crucial national educational needs. Problems dealt with are "illustrative, not exhaustive," Commissioner McGrath explains.***

number needed merely to care for the 1,691,000 pupil enrollment increase between September 1, 1951, and September 1, 1952. During the fiscal year applications were approved for the construction of college and library facilities valued at $327,000,000.

## The Need for More Teachers

Inadequate school housing is obviously detrimental to a sound educational system. But there is another national problem of equally serious significance. It is the present inadequate supply of properly educated teachers. To get a true picture of the teacher shortage we must again look at the Nation as a whole. For, it could be shown that in certain favored communities, especially in urban areas, many children are attending classes with no more than 25 or 30 students, that the teachers in these classrooms have had a full teacher-education program of studies, that they hold first-class certificates from State authorities, that school sessions run throughout the day, and that the curriculum is complete with such specialized or supplementary instruction as is needed. But for the Nation as a whole, such a picture would be false and it is just such a distorted view which may block progress. Only a complete survey of every hamlet and county of the Nation as well as of the big cities can reveal to the citizens of this country the seriousness of the present teacher shortage. More important, it will show how inevitably the present situation must become worse in the immediate years ahead.

Even with the incomplete information available at present, however, the picture is disturbing. To bring this problem into sharper focus, let us look at two sets of facts placed in juxtaposition: the birth rate of the Nation, and the annual number of graduates of our teacher-training institutions.

In the early forties, the sharp upward curve of the national birth rate was generally regarded as a war phenomenon from which a return to normal was expected at the war's end. However, all of the years since the end of hostilities in 1945 have shown a consistently high birth rate. The result will be felt acutely in September 1952, when the elementary schools will be called upon to enroll 1,691,000 more children than a year earlier. From now on, until at least 1957 or 1958, each autumn will find hundreds of thousands of additional children waiting before the school doors of the United States. These figures take into account only the children already born, and no serious student of population problems envisages a sudden decrease in the number of births in the immediate future. Thus, with the lower grades already crowded to the bursting point, the continued high birth rate will engulf an additional higher grade each year.

As a parallel to the steadily increasing annual enrollments in our schools, the attention of the Congress is directed to the situation in the colleges and universities where teachers are trained. It is estimated that the replacement needs of our schools for the year 1952–53 will total 160,000 teachers. This number is needed to fill the places left vacant by those who will have retired, died, left the profession because of marriage or to seek more attractive employment. To meet this need our teacher-training institutions have this year graduated only 106,000 teachers, 96,000 at the A. B. degree level, and 10,000 below degree level yet meeting certification requirements in some of the States. These figures show that the supply of elementary school teachers was far below the demand. An estimate of the student enrollment in institutions preparing teachers for the elementary schools indicates that the number of graduates will not increase in the years immediately ahead. And the teacher shortage now so acute in the elementary schools will extend to our high schools appreciably in a few years. The present apparent oversupply of teachers in some fields in the high school is distinctly a temporary phenomenon which will quickly change to a shortage as the present large population in the lower age groups advances upward in the school system.

The American people must face the stern reality that this dismal situation cannot, with the best will in the world, be changed much in the next 3 or 4 years. Teacher education, like other education, cannot be a makeshift affair. It involves a process of maturing for which there is no adequate substitute.

Yet for the next few years emergency steps must be taken to relieve the present situation as much as possible. Already a dozen States have established programs to retrain and bring into elementary schools, teachers who had prepared to teach in high school, or who were graduated from a liberal arts college without special preparation for teaching. Several other States have set up programs for teacher reserves, designed for qualified persons who may have taught school earlier in life but allowed their certificates to expire, or for others who have met most but not all of the qualifications for teaching. Some colleges and universities have established special programs to bring these people up to the minimum standards before placing them in the classroom. These and other makeshifts, of necessity, can be used temporarily but they are no final or proper solution.

We must now plan ahead 5, 6, or more years for a permanent and satisfactory solution to the teacher-shortage problem. We must begin now by securing answers to certain fundamental questions: What is behind the lack of interest of American youth in teaching as a profession? How can we increase enrollment in teacher-training institutions? How can we keep trained teachers in the schools?

Many of the facts which account for the lack of interest of American youth in the teaching profession are known. There is, for example, the matter of inadequate compensation. Salaries of teachers have always been low compared to other occupations requiring education beyond the high school. In recent years, however, while the educational requirements for teaching have risen, the salaries of teachers as compared with those in most other professions and vocations with less exacting requirements have declined even further. In many States and communities salaries compare unfavorably with incomes in occupations requiring little or no formal education beyond elementary grades.

There are other factors which are probably influential in making the life of a teacher unappealing to many young people. In some communities, especially in rural areas, the personal and social lives of teachers are placed under restrictions which do not apply to other citizens. And some forms of these restraints seem to be expanding. Infringements on freedom of expression and of teaching, for example, exist to a degree which alert young professional workers find difficult to accept. The notion that members of one profession—teaching—must be singled out to make an official declaration of their loyalty to the United States seems to many to imply an atmosphere of suspicion and surveillance which Americans of independent minds and freedom-loving spirits will not tolerate.

There is no more loyal group of citizens in this country than the educators. In short, many young people, who would have found in teaching an opportunity for service, are discouraged from entering a profession in which the reward is too often likely to be public criticism and suspicion, personal frustration and annoyance, little security, and low pay.

The facts related so far are easily visible from the surface. Actually, however, the forces at work in creating the present teacher shortage are most intricate and require deep analysis.

A Nation-wide study is urgently needed: To determine State by State such things as the extent of the shortage, the rates at which teachers leave the profession for various reasons, where teachers come from, what their salaries are in various types of communities and teaching positions, and why more young people are not entering the profession. Complete and reliable information of this sort will be required before the present disturbing situation can be corrected.

A survey of the teacher shortage and related matters, like that for school facilities under Title I of Public Law 815, Eighty-first Congress, is needed before effective action can be taken on a Nation-wide basis to recruit and keep in the profession the numbers and the types of young people needed to provide a satisfactory education for all American children regardless of where they live.

This study should be a cooperative enterprise, involving the Office of Education, the State departments of education, educational associations, and colleges and universities. If the survey of school facilities may be used as a basis of judgment, there is reason to believe that a similar survey of the teacher shortage would provide the information needed to deal with this problem which is of such determinative significance in the life of our Nation.

## The Three R's and More

From teachers to curriculum is but a short step. Some members of the American public are raising questions about certain aspects of the teaching in the schools, questions concerned with the curriculum—with the basic disciplines generally referred to as the "Three R's." The recent criticisms of the curriculum have often taken a dramatic form. Severe attacks have been launched in several cities with echoes reverberating throughout the Nation's press. Such attacks, no matter how baseless, can have a seriously unsettling influence upon the public mind. Americans feel a close kinship with their schools which, they realize, play an important role in the lives of their children. Not even the slightest doubt cast upon the school's effectiveness, therefore, can be safely disregarded.

We are in the fortunate position of being able to prevent a crisis in American education growing out of such misunderstandings. The vast majority of Americans have confidence in their schools. The keen interest exhibited by hundreds of thousands of citizens in the activities of local groups organized in connection with the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers proves that our people have faith that whatever inadequacies exist in the schools can be corrected through the cooperation of educators and citizens generally.

The problem of the teaching of the basic subjects needs definition. What is the basis for some of the dissatisfaction expressed about the quality of instruction? To some degree, at least, this stems from the very nature of the educational process. American education has made great strides in recent decades. Increasingly, our schools are becoming child-centered and community-centered; our teaching, less a matter of drill and more of personal experience. Emphasis is upon the development of the ability to think, upon the growth of personality, upon the acquisition of skills. There are, quite naturally, differences of opinion among educators on educational theory and practice. There is complete agreement, however, that children of today, living in an atomic age, cannot be taught the same subject matter and with the same methods and materials which served the needs of earlier generations. In an age of progress, education, too, must keep pace or decline in usefulness.

Educational progress, however, is a long and complicated process, in which the citizens, parents and others, must participate step by step. Their interest must be enlisted, and the changes must meet with their approval. This places a heavy burden on the busy layman and an even greater one upon the school, but the lines of communication must be kept open if our citizens are to understand the school program and support it. Lack of understanding of changes in teaching materials and methods is at the basis of most of the present criticisms of the teaching of the subjects called the "Three R's."

To speak of the modern curriculum solely in terms of the "Three R's" is an anachronism. It is an emotional rather than a scientific approach. Its use is designed to appeal to nostalgia, rather than to the practical sense of the American citizen. As a matter of fact, however, most professional students of the elementary schools believe that today we teach the traditional elementary subjects—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic—as well as, if not better than, these subjects were taught in our grandfather's day. And the schools teach many other things besides. They give instruction and experience in fields of knowledge and areas of living totally untouched by the schools of an earlier day.

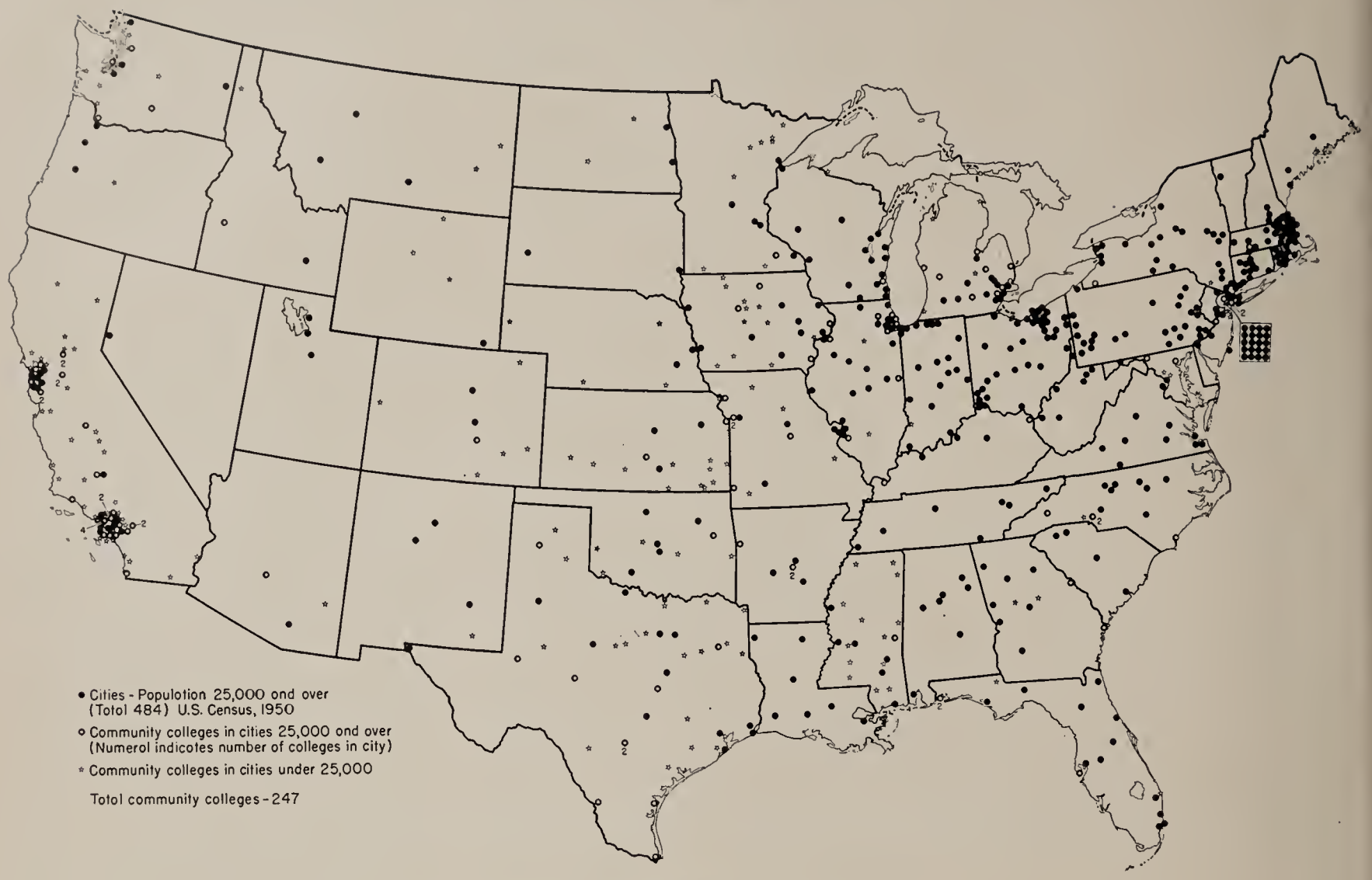
The difficulty is that the evidence to support the claim that schools do a better job today than they did some years ago is scattered and not easily accessible. To shed light on the present controversy a body of authoritative information, scientific data, gathered by competent professional workers, is therefore urgently needed. Opinions of prominent educators, however valuable, will not serve for this purpose. A national enterprise should be undertaken, enlisting the efforts of schoolmen, scholars, and laymen, to bring together research information on the teaching of the basic disciplines and other subjects such as physical education, social studies, the sciences, music, and what these contribute to the lives of our young people.

The advantages of such a project would be many. One: The facts about the curriculum of the modern school could be made available to the public in suitable form thus providing a basis for an intelligent evaluation of present practices. Two: Information on current curriculum changes and improvements would be more easily channeled to members of the profession in all parts of the country. Three: Further changes and improvements on a Nation-wide basis would thus be encouraged through constructive suggestions and interchange of experience rather than adversely critical attack.

This project should thus be concerned not only with the gathering of reliable in-

(*Continued on page 106*)

# Community Colleges on the Map




By William R. Wood, Program Planning Officer,
Program Development and Coordination Branch

THE CURRENT population story of the United States is well known. Every 13 seconds the total for the Nation is increased by one, every month by more than 200,000, every year by 2,500,000. Based upon the number of live births recorded since 1944, it is evident that within the next dozen years our older youth population, ages 18–21, will increase sharply; the annual number of high school graduates will almost double. It is possible, then, that there will be almost a million more students in college in 1963 than are presently enrolled. This figure does not take into account probable expansion of technician-grade educational programs, or the upward trend in the percentage of high school graduates seeking entrance to college.

***Of the 484 "urban places" of 25,000 or more population, as listed in the 1950 Census, and shown on the accompanying map, 86 have community colleges. Seventy-nine such concentrations of population have one community college each; 6 have 2 each; 1 large city has 4. In all there are 95 community colleges in 86 places. The remainder of the 247 community colleges, nearly 60 percent of all, are located in places with fewer than 25,000 population each. Nearly a score of institutions are in places having a population of under 2,500.***

What patterns of higher education will make possible provision of adequate opportunities for so large a number?

What percentage of increase in the facilities and staffs of existing colleges is desirable?

Shall we encourage the further expansion of the largest universities?

Shall we try to work out some plan of decentralization for some portion of higher education?

Our ever-expanding technology apparently requires the extension of educational programs for increasing thousands needed in technician-grade occupations. Upon our success in fulfilling this task the present security and the future hope of the Free World may largely depend.

What educational programs are essential? For what portion of the adult population are they needed?

In the various occupations what is the present ratio of technician-grade or junior executive-grade personnel to professional-grade personnel and to total personnel employed?

Is a new type of educational institution needed or can existing types be sufficiently modified and augmented to do the job?

What portion of the task could best be carried by business, agriculture, industry, and public administration within their own organizations?

### *Technician-Grade Education*

Our leadership in the Free World has been built on technological and economic might. It can be maintained to the extent we succeed in making it a social and moral force for the general good. This task can be met only by an ever more enlightened people. Apart from, yet associated with, occupational advancement, then, there must be opportunities for a general educational upgrading of mature citizens. The educational process is continuous through all stages of adult life including the years after retirement. It is not possible to store up by age 20, all of the learning required at age 40. No one knows just what the tasks of the future will be. Consequently, there is growing recognition that for adults, schools are in session all the time. For a number of years, for example, increasing emphasis has been placed by industry, by the military services, and by the medical profession upon continuing education programs for all types of personnel.

How can a local community, then, best organize to meet the continuing education needs of its residents?

To what extent and in what ways can responsibility be shared among institutions and agencies concerned with various aspects of the total educational problem?

How can appropriate opportunities be staffed and financed?

What evolving patterns of community development give promise of adding strength to the Nation?

How can under-developed communities be stimulated to better themselves with the resources they have?

As a desirable way of extending post-adolescent educational opportunities to meet the demands of our growing population in our expanding technology, and to sustain our position of leadership in the world, the community college has been widely advocated. Typically this has been conceived as a locally-controlled institution designed specifically to meet local conditions. It has been pictured as an excellent way to provide low-cost higher and continuing education for the millions otherwise denied such opportunities. It has been put forward as a practical means of meeting many of the perplexing problems of noncompulsory education for persons over 18, ranging from functional illiteracy, through upgrading in occupational, civic, and personal competency, to education for the aging. It has been proposed as a cultural center for the typical community.

One of the measuring sticks frequently used in studies to determine the need for establishing a community college is the number of residents in the geographical area to be served. A minimum population of 25,000 for the principal urban place is commonly accepted as a very rough indication that enough prospective students of post-secondary school age are available to justify a community college development. If there is no urban place of this size, then a minimum of 35,000 for the total population of the primary geographical area to be served is sometimes accepted as adequate.

Size of population alone never determines success. There are many community colleges today doing a good job in small urban or rural places where the total population for the region served is well under 25,000. There have been community college failures in cities of 100,000 or more.

How do we know that the establishment of a system of community college education would be able to accomplish what its advocates claim for it? How urgent are the needs in post-adolescent education? Can they be postponed until elementary and secondary needs are more fully met? What is the responsibility of the Federal Government for expanding higher and continuing educational opportunities? Of the several States? Of the individual communities?

It is both timely and appropriate to undertake studies of the complex issues in education for those beyond the age of compulsory school attendance. If they are needed and wanted, let's find out where to put new community colleges on the map.

## FFA National Officers at the White House

President Eisenhower recently welcomed at his White House office the 1952–53 national officers of the Future Farmers of America.

Shown with the President, the new national FFA officers are, left to right, Jimmy Dillon, national president, Jones, La., Bill Sorem, vice president, Central Region, Dundas, Minn.; Jimmy Willis, national student secretary, Clio, S. C.; Fred Reed, Jr., vice president, Southern Region, Hindsville, Ark.; Donald R. Travis, vice president, Pacific Region, Fallon, Nev.; and Malcolm Ellis, vice president, North Atlantic Region, Mapleton, Maine.

# How To Obtain U. S.

by Seerley Reid, Chief, Visua
U. S. Department of

The following chart explains how to borrow, rent, and purcha
were available for public use in the United States on Marc
such films have been omitted from this chart. Also see re

| U. S. Government Agency | Kind of Films | How to Borrow or Rent Films | How to Purchase Films | For Further Information Write to |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Department of Agriculture* | 200 motion pictures and 165 filmstrips—on agriculture, conservation, forestry, home economics, and related subjects. | Borrow from State extension services and from regional offices and other film depositories of the Department. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase motion pictures from United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y. Purchase filmstrips from Photo Lab, 3825 Georgia Ave., Washington 11, D. C. | U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Information, Motion Picture Service, Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Department of the Air Force* | 150 motion pictures and 70 filmstrips—70 public information and 150 training films on various aviation subjects. | Borrow public information films from the Air Force, training films from the CAA. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 60 motion pictures and 30 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of Defe Office of Public Informati Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Department of the Army* | 725 motion pictures and 75 filmstrips—65 public information, 240 medical, and 495 training films on various subjects. | Borrow public information films from the Army, medical films from the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology, Washington 25, D. C. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 415 motion pictures and 40 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of Defen Office of Public Informati Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Civil Aeronautics Administration (Department of Commerce)* | 14 motion pictures and 14 filmstrips—on aviation subjects. (Note: The CAA also distributes several hundred Air Force and Navy films dealing with aviation.) | Borrow from CAA Washington and regional offices. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 6 motion pictures and 3 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of Com merce, Civil Aeronautics Adminis tration, Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Coast Guard (Department of the Treasury)* | 45 motion pictures and 45 filmstrips—20 public information and 70 training films on various subjects related to the Coast Guard and its operations. | Borrow public information films from Coast Guard Washington and district offices. Rent training films from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 25 motion pictures and 45 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Coast Guard, Office Public Information, Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Office of Education (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare)* | 467 motion pictures and 432 filmstrips—on machine shop practices, woodworking skills, and other industrial and vocational training subjects. | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase from UWF. | U. S. Department of Healt Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Corps of Engineers (Department of the Army)* | 30 motion pictures—on rivers and harbors, flood control, and hydroelectric power. | Borrow from district offices of the Corps of Engineers. | Not for sale. | U. S. Department of the Army, Corps of Engineers Washington 25, D. C. |
| *Fish and Wildlife Service (Department of the Interior)* | 20 motion pictures—on commercial fisheries and on wildlife conservation. | Borrow from FWS or from FWS film depositories. | Purchase 6 motion pictures from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service, P. O. Box 128, College Park, Md. |
| *Bureau of Indian Affairs (Department of the Interior)* | 18 motion pictures—about Indians and Indian life. | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase from U. S. Indian School, Intermountain School, Brigham City, Utah. | U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington 25, D. C. |

# ernment Films, 1953

n Service, Office of Education
ucation, and Welfare

tion pictures and filmstrips of the U. S. Government which
Because of space limitations, agencies with fewer than 10
ow for Kind of Films,[1] and How To Borrow or Rent Films.[2]

| U. S. Government Agency | Kind of Films | How to Borrow or Rent Films | How to Purchase Films | For Further Information Write to |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| te of Inter-American rs (Department of State) | 45 motion pictures—on health and agriculture—with English, Portuguese, and Spanish commentaries. | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase from IIAA. | Institute of Inter-American Affairs, Washington 25, D. C. |
| e of Inter-American rs (terminated in 1946) | 111 motion pictures on Latin America; 5 on Ohio. | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm film libraries that have acquired prints. | Purchase 68 films from UWF, 48 films from IIAA. | U. S. Department of State, Division of Public Liaison, Washington 25, D. C. |
| ne Corps (Department Navy) | 25 motion pictures—for public information and recruiting. | Borrow from Marine Corps district offices. | Not for sale. | U. S. Marine Corps, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C. |
| au of Mines (Department Interior) | 60 motion pictures—on mining and metallurgical industries and natural resources of various States. | Borrow from Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13, Pa., or from USBM film depositories. | Not for sale. | U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, Office of Mineral Reports, Washington 25, D. C. |
| al Security Agency | 100 motion pictures—about U. S. aid to Europe and economic recovery in European countries. | Borrow from MSA film depositories. | Not for sale. | Mutual Security Agency, Audio-Visual Branch, Washington 25, D. C. |
| rtment of the Navy | 540 motion pictures and 200 filmstrips—45 public information and 695 training films on various subjects. | Borrow public information films from the Navy, aviation training films from the CAA. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 500 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C. |
| nal Advisory Committee eronautics | 20 motion pictures—on technical aeronautical subjects. | Borrow from NACA. | Obtain authorization from NACA. | National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Washington 25, D. C. |
| c Health Service . Department of Health, ation, and Welfare) | 140 motion pictures and 145 filmstrips—on public health and medical subjects. | Borrow from PHS (if professional groups) or from State and local health departments. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase 67 motion pictures and 42 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale. | U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington 25, D. C. |
| rtment of State | 30 motion pictures—on American life (produced for overseas use). | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase from UWF. | U. S. Department of State, Division of Public Liaison, Washington 25, D. C. |
| rans Administration | 50 motion pictures and 4 filmstrips—mostly on medical subjects, some on VA activities and programs. | Borrow from VA. | Purchase 34 motion pictures from UWF. Other films not for sale. | Veterans Administration, VA Central Film Library, Washington 25, D. C. |
| e of War Information, stic Branch (terminated 45) | 32 motion pictures—on World War II activities. | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints. | Purchase from UWF. | U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. |
| e of War Information, seas Branch (terminated 45) | 13 motion pictures—on American life (produced for overseas use). | Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints. | Purchase from UWF. | U. S. Department of State, Division of Public Liaison, Washington 25, D. C. |

[1] See also "3,434 U. S. Government Films," Bulletin 1951: No. 21, compiled by the USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Washington 25, D. C. Price: 70 cents.
[2] See "A Directory of 2,002 16-mm Film Libraries," Bulletin 1951: No. 11, compiled by the USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government ng Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 35 cents.

# Crucial National Problems in Education

(*Continued from page 101*)

formation, but also with its distribution among the people. A nationally representative body of educators and laymen, working with diligence and devotion, gathering and disseminating information on the effectiveness of instruction and of the total school program, would remove the doubts of many of those who now question whether our schools are adequately preparing the children of this generation to live full lives as human beings and as effective citizens.

## Life Adjustment Education

In the field of secondary education there are a number of problems which, though less dramatic, nevertheless call for long-range planning if they are to be successfully dealt with.

One of the most significant features of American society is the growth in the high-school population. Since 1890 it has doubled every 10 years until the high point was reached in 1940 with an enrollment of more than 7,000,000. The drop in the last decade may largely be attributed to the decline in the birth rate during the thirties. Soon, however, there will be another increase and by 1960 it is estimated that high-school enrollment will exceed 8,000,000. Thus while in 1890 only 7 percent of the eligible youth were enrolled in high school, in 1950 the percentage had risen to 77 percent and there will be further increases in the years ahead.

All the more reason, therefore, why it is our obligation at this time to give a realistic accounting of the achievements of secondary education in the United States. Though secondary education is serving the needs of many young people of high-school age the complete picture is not as satisfactory as the enrollment statistics would make it appear. Studies reveal that despite great increases in the percentage of youth of high-school age who are in school, we still fall short of the goal of providing equal educational opportunity for all, for 1 youth in 5 still does not enter high school. And fewer than 63 percent of those who do enter remain to graduate.

The Office of Education began some years ago to help the high schools serve more completely the needs of American youth through the work of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education. This Commission, established by the Office following a national conference held in Chicago in 1947, took steps to develop a program of life adjustment education "designed to equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers and citizens." [1] The work of the first Commission on Life Adjustment Education which completed its term in 1951 is going forward under a second Commission appointed in that year.

The crucial problem with which these Commissions have been concerned is how to provide adequately for pupils of all intellectual levels. Before the great influx of recent decades the problem was relatively simple. In 1890, for example, nearly all high-school students intended to go to college and the instruction they received was designed to prepare them for advanced education. Today only one in five goes to college. Vocational training is pursued by another 20 percent of high-school students. The middle group of 60 percent embraces the young people which life adjustment education is attempting especially to serve.

In behalf of this group of American youth we must come to grips with the educational goals of our modern society. If not a college education, then what? How are these young people to be encouraged to remain in school beyond the legal age limit? How are they to be helped best to utilize the time they do spend in school in preparation to face the problems of life?

For these young Americans secondary education must have new objectives designed to meet their particular needs. Young people vary greatly in their abilities and in their capacities to learn. All of them, however, are capable of development as valuable members of society. A narrow academic education, far from helping all youth to mature properly, often causes social maladjustment, thwarts the desire to learn, and creates attitudes of failure and resignation detrimental both to youth and to society as a whole. The large number of young people who leave high school before graduation is an indication that for them we have failed to establish a suitable education.

The life adjustment education program is fashioning a revised curriculum which stresses the basic objectives of good health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, civic competence, good use of leisure time, and the development of ethical character. There is a growing recognition that in our modern society the development of social attitudes, of occupational efficiency, of an understanding of the relationship between employer and employee, can no longer be left to chance. These objectives are basic in the life adjustment program.

The Commission on Life Adjustment Education is a cooperative project on a Nation-wide scale designed to find suitable types of high-school education for these youth. The success of this project centered in the United States Office of Education is indicated by the fact that 22 States have established some type of formal body to take the initiative in the development of life adjustment education programs. The work is gradually being extended to all States. Before the benefits of these efforts to revise the high-school curriculum in such a way as to serve the needs of all American youth can be fully successful, greater resources are needed in the Office of Education. The cost in comparison to the total national expenditure on secondary education would be insignificant. Yet it can bring about a vitalization of this entire unit of American education with tremendous benefit to the whole Nation.

Thus far, this report has dealt with Nation-wide problems affecting American children generally. The attention of the Congress is now drawn to several problems, equally urgent, prevailing in specific educational areas or in certain regions of the country.

## Children of Migratory Workers Need Education

One challenging problem grows out of a basic economic and social situation involving the children of migratory workers. The Congress has already given serious attention to certain matters related to migrant workers. The Subcommittee on Labor and Labor-Management Relations of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare held a number of hearings during the sec-

[1] *Vitalizing Secondary Education.* U. S. Office of Education. 1951.

ond session of the Eighty-second Congress on the conditions of life among the several million migratory agricultural workers in the United States. The basic facts concerning these children, insofar as we have facts, are recapitulated here to indicate the seriousness and the scope of the problem. How many children are involved? What geographical course do their migrations follow? What is their educational status?

The number of migrant agricultural workers' children now living in the several States cannot be accurately estimated. Those who have studied the matter most carefully, however, believe that between a quarter and a half million children are involved. Most of them travel with their parents in four identifiable streams: (1) from lower California, moving northwest through the State and ending in Oregon or Washington or Idaho; (2) from Arizona or New Mexico, moving up through the Mountain States to the Canadian border; (3) from Texas or New Mexico, moving northward along the Mississippi River and the adjacent States to Michigan and Minnesota; and (4) from Florida, moving through the Southeastern and Middle Atlantic States to New England, often as far as the potato fields of Maine. They remain in a given community long enough to plant or harvest a crop of fruits or vegetables. Then after a few days or a few weeks, they move on to another location. Generally, these workers and their children, though welcomed with open arms to perform the casual labor without which the community would fail economically, are rejected socially as soon as their special job is done. Usually, their living conditions are poor, and the social services available to the rest of the community—medical care, education, sanitation, fire and police protection—are meagerly provided or entirely missing. Children of from 8 to 14 years of age, who should be in school, work in the field often with the encouragement of parents and employers. Neither school attendance officers nor representatives of the Department of Labor are able to make local school attendance laws effective among these nomads. In some communities there is little inclination on the part of the authorities to do so. Consequently the educational achievements of these children range from zero to 4, 5, or 6 years of schooling, usually with accomplishment below that of other children who have had the same number of years of schooling. Studies in some regions reveal that children of migrant workers actually show a lower average educational achievement than their parents. Clearly, we are losing ground.

The United States Office of Education, encouraged by the Department of Labor, by State educational officials, faculty members of colleges and universities, private philanthropic organizations, as well as by Members of Congress, has launched a small-scale study of the education of these children of migratory workers. With the limited resources available, only the merest beginning could be made in meeting this sorely aggravated and highly volatile situation. Nevertheless, with the help of educators in many sections of the country, we have succeeded at least in determining the scope of the problem and outlining the activities which should be carried forward to provide a workable program for the education of the children of migratory workers.

A larger Federal interest in the plight of these children and more effective activity in their behalf are imperative. National responsibility is appropriate because these under-age migrants, tomorrow's citizens, reside in several different States during the course of each year. The children whose education is being neglected may move annually from Texas to Oklahoma, Missouri, Iowa, and Michigan, only to repeat the cycle during the next crop season. Ten years hence they may be living as adults in St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, or New York. Their productive capacity will be limited by their lack of early education; their earnings will probably be low. They are far more likely to become a community responsibility than other more adequately trained citizens. Since no one State or community can rightfully be charged with their education, Federal initiative is necessary to establish a joint responsibility.

Ours is a Nation which subscribes to the principle that each individual is entitled to the full educational opportunities generally available. To deprive these migrant children of such opportunities because of the economic and occupational circumstances of their parents is inconsistent with this principle. From the point of view of national interest, we need manpower—well-trained manpower, and there can be no justification for this waste of our human resources. The Office of Education, as a Federal agency, should be charged with the responsibility of organizing a comprehensive and thorough study of the present educational opportunities, or the lack of them, for children of migrant workers. It should do so in cooperation with the educational authorities of the several States. This study ought to lead to the development of a plan by which the present situation can be remedied.

## Exceptional Children Deserve Equal Opportunity

The migratory child is a problem created by the twentieth century mobility of our people plus economic and social maladjustments. He and his fellow migrants belong to the Nation's educationally underprivileged, but they constitute only a minority within that group. They are outnumbered by at least ten to one by 5,000,000 other children who for educational purposes are designated as "exceptional." Though the problem of "exceptional" children is as old as history, special educational efforts to meet it are of but recent origin. Today these children still constitute a challenge to our democratic community.

Who are the "exceptional" children? The term covers a wide range of physical handicaps, mental defects, social maladjustment, emotional disturbance, and, on the other side of the scale, exceptional talents and extraordinary mental gifts. In the United States it is estimated that more than 2,000,000 boys and girls have physical handicaps of varying severity; 700,000 are slow learning. The rest of the 5,000,000 can be classified within the many categories of the mentally defective, the maladjusted, and the specially gifted.

The partially handicapped present the more difficult problem. Traditionally, Americans with their keen sense of responsibility toward those whom nature has rendered helpless were primarily concerned with the problem of the totally disabled. For example, some blind children were cared for in residential institutions as far back as a century ago. Not until 1911, however, were the first day-classes for partially seeing children opened. Since then, progress has been made in providing State and local programs for the education of all types of exceptional children. But considered in terms of the full needs, it is not much more than a beginning.

According to the most recent reports only

(*Continued on page 110*)

# Stumbling Blocks to School Board Effectiveness

By Edward M. Tuttle, Secretary, National School Boards Association

*Mr. Tuttle has succinctly presented in this article certain obstacles that stand in the way of progress in local school systems.* School Life *is pleased to publish this article which originally appeared in The American School Board Journal, February 1953 issue.*

Let it be said at the start that, by and large, the American public is ably represented and has reason to be proud of the service rendered by its 70,000 or so local boards of education. The control of public schools at the local level through a local agency authorized by the State is a peculiarly American institution. It is the closest thing we have to home rule in this country, and the fact that most board members serve voluntarily and without material reward, is added evidence of the high regard in which public education is generally held, and the honor felt by our ablest citizens in being asked to give such service to their communities.

Notwithstanding the truth of these general observations, it is also true that many boards—too many—are not as effective as they could be and should be. My contacts in nearly every State of the Union have led me to believe that certain school boards fail to reach their possible effectiveness for one or another of six or seven major reasons. I should like to list these reasons, with a brief comment about each one. I realize that there will be differences of opinion regarding some of the things which seem to me to be stumbling blocks to progress, and that there are all degrees of their application. But I believe that a frank consideration of them will be wholesome, and perhaps in some cases further discussion in these columns may result.

These points are none of them new. They have all been discussed in educational literature time and again from many different angles. I simply suggest that we set them down in one list and take a good look at them.

1. **Individual board members are sometimes dominated by partisan instead of by public loyalties.** Whatever these partisan loyalties may be, they cause those who entertain them to lose sight of the main objective of school board service, namely, the highest welfare of the community's children and youth. They also prevent the board member from truly representing the community as a whole, and they inevitably result in a lack of unity on the board which is fatal to effective action.

2. **A lack of written-down school board policies, kept up to date.** Recent studies indicate that probably not over 20 percent of school boards have reduced their policies to writing. The net result is that board action is more often based on expediency than on consistency. This is a frequent reason for confusion and misunderstanding between the board and the administration, between the board and the public, and between the administration and the public. Recently a growing wave of interest in written policies is evident among school boards and their associations, and this particular stumbling block to effective action is one of the easiest to overcome.

3. **Too exclusive attention to the housekeeping problems of the schools.** This is a common weakness of many boards which meet simply to pass upon a budget, pay bills, purchase sites, approve architects' plans and contractors' bids, arrange for insurance, and take care of business affairs. The result of such practice is a failure on the part of the board to understand the values and purposes of public education, and an inability to interpret, defend, and support constructive educational programs when the need arises. The housekeeping side of school board operation is only part, and the lesser part in my judgment, of a school board's responsibilities. The board which really fulfills its proper function of policy making devotes fully as much time to building its own background regarding educational practices and programs as it does to taking care of school business. There are various ways in which this can be done.

4. **Abuse of the use of closed, or executive, sessions of the board.** One result of such practice is to create an atmosphere of secrecy and intrigue which is not compatible with a public service. It also results in a failure to keep the public fully informed on school matters at all times. Theoretically, every board meeting should be an open meeting, and actually, legal action can only be taken under such conditions. The only excuses for private discussion by a board are in connection with items like personality problems or the contemplated purchase of building sites. Even in such cases, the wise board, which has established good press relations, enables press representatives to benefit by the background discussions, *off the record*, so that later on when the subject breaks, a correct story will result based on all the facts.

5. **The use of standing committees.** This is a point on which there will be differences of opinion. Some boards still operate on the committee system, but the trend is strongly toward operation as a committee of the whole at all times, except in the case of some special committee temporarily organized for a particular purpose. The biggest objection to standing committees is that in practice they inevitably result in several boards instead of one, both from the standpoint of the administrator and his staff and from the standpoint of the public—one small group of board members is identified with finance, another with buildings, another with personnel, another with curriculum, and so on. When fractions of the board specialize, so to speak, in particular areas of school operation, they soon tend to look upon themselves as authorities and to

infringe upon the administrative functions of the superintendent and his staff instead of confining their activities to the making of policy. Finally, such a system gives board members a very uneven understanding of school affairs (intensive as regards their own committee, nebulous as regards the concerns of other committees) and thereby reduces the effectiveness of total board operation. On the other hand, with agenda well planned in advance and with efficient board procedure, there is no reason why all school matters cannot be considered by all members of the board acting together, and this is the manner in which the great majority of school boards operate. The resulting effect on the schools and on the community is much more salutary than under divided responsibilities.

6. **The fiscal dependence of a board of education upon the review, revision, or approval by some noneducational governmental agency or commission is likely to be a major stumbling block to educational progress.** Advocates both of fiscal dependence and independence for school boards advance strong arguments to prove their respective cases. Good examples and bad examples of operation under either system can be cited. It is doubtful that the issue can be settled on the basis of factual evidence. It involves our conception of the relative importance of different social values. The idea that a direct, democratic determination of educational policy is of greater social value than a centralized fiscal management seems to be steadily gaining ground. In the past few years, for example, New York State by legislative action has given complete fiscal independence to practically all of the school boards in that State on the theory that public education is a continuous, constructive, nonpartisan service to all the people in which they should have a direct voice not complicated by any other consideration than the greatest possible good to children and youth.

7. **A dual administration which divides responsibility for educational affairs and for business affairs within a school system is a fertile source of school board ineffectiveness.** Here again there will be differences of opinion because occasionally, where personal cooperation is of the highest order, the dual system has been made to work. But in most places it has not proved satisfactory to separate financial planning from educational planning. Experience has shown that a school system should have just one executive directly responsible to the board, and that he should be given such assistants, including a business manager, as are needed to carry out the board's policies in all aspects of school operation. The best systems have first determined what the schools should be doing for the community and then have considered the cost. When fiscal planning is put ahead of, or separated from, educational planning, the result is too often disastrous for the educational program.

We have listed above, and briefly considered, seven practices which appear to be stumbling blocks to effective school board action: (1) partisanship; (2) lack of written policies; (3) overemphasis on housekeeping; (4) executive sessions; (5) standing committees; (6) fiscal dependence; and (7) dual control. There may be others which, in greater or less degree, frustrate harmonious, and constructive accomplishment. But at least these seven have revealed their handicapping tendencies in a majority of cases. Boards which are operating under any one or more of these conditions would be well advised to study their operation with open minds to determine whether some modification more closely related to widespread trends might not yield as rewarding results for them as for others.

## Helping Foreign Educators

(*Continued from page 98*)

A Philippine supervisor requests, "Have you some new materials on the teaching and supervision of English in the elementary and junior high schools? I should like to have some of them which I know will be immensely helpful to me and the teachers in the field.

"Last August, we held, with key teachers from all over the province, a workshop on the procedure of constructing curricular materials based on local resources. These new materials are intended to enrich the present curriculum of the community school for the encouragement of economic development. I am sure that this workshop was very helpful to the teachers since at present, many schools have already started making new curricular materials."

It is believed that through continuing relationships with these people, the best educational outcomes can be obtained.

These programs involving visiting foreign educators bring a two-way exchange to American elementary schools. At the same time the visitors are learning more about us and our schools, our teachers and pupils are gaining knowledge and understanding of them, their cultures, and their countries in a much more realistic way than through books alone.

Discussing source materials found in our schools.

# Crucial National Problems in Education

(*Continued from page 107*)

about 15 percent of the exceptional children who need special help by the schools are currently receiving it. The same factors which have contributed to the growth of other serious problems in American education have doubtless been responsible also for our lethargy in developing appropriate education for the exceptional child. We have suffered from a scattering of effort, from the absence of a national viewpoint, the lack of a central organization which could identify the problem as being Nation-wide in scope and which could stimulate a pooling of experience on a Nation-wide basis. Now, however, Americans have awakened to their responsibility and they are demanding action in behalf of these children. Educational authorities throughout the country are convinced that within a few years public opinion will demand that practically all such children be admitted to the public schools.

But will the schools be ready for them? Will they have properly trained teachers? Proper housing? Will they be able to provide the kind of education which will serve the special needs of these children? At present some of these questions must be answered in the negative. A number of factors retard the expansion of programs for exceptional children. Among them are the shortage of qualified teachers, the high cost of special education, inadequate school housing and facilities.

Of all the factors holding back the service none is so crucial as the lack of qualified personnel. The difficulty in recruiting teachers, however, is not the whole problem. A more basic matter is the necessity to determine what specific qualifications should be possessed by those concerned with the education of exceptional children. If these qualifications could be more adequately identified it would then be much easier to seek out the kind of people who have suitable characteristics and to plan curricula for their professional preparation. Many groups and individuals have recognized the need for this type of information on a Nation-wide scale. Many have named the Office of Education as the logical agency to initiate and carry out such a study.

The main deterrent to the launching of this important national project was the lack of funds available from governmental sources. This situation was fortunately remedied in the late fall of 1951, when a grant of $25,500 was made by a private agency enabling the Office of Education to initiate such a study, which is now known as Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children. This project, directed by an Office specialist, has the advice and assistance of two committees, one a National Committee of Leaders in Special Education, and the other an Office Policy Committee.

This enterprise is another excellent example of the type of cooperative action which can be so effective in dealing with a national education problem. It involves the Office of Education, over 20 organizations devoted to the problems of exceptional children, national educational agencies, and the education departments of the several States.

This study represents a great step forward in American education. Though progress will necessarily be slower than the urgency of the situation demands, the establishment of certain basic principles will save years of groping, of trial and error, in the effort to remove the greatest obstacle to the education of exceptional children, the lack of qualified teachers.

## Educational Television

The seventh and final item on our agenda of educational matters of national concern is the task of realizing the full potentiality of television as a medium of instruction and communication. Television probably holds greater promise for education than any other single development since the invention of the printing press.

The profession of education generally approaches new developments with caution. The widespread enthusiasm for television is therefore significant especially since it is based on long experience with related media and on scientific research on the learning capacities of students. Television has added another important dimension to time-tested and proven audio-visual techniques. The old-time lantern slides, the film strip, the silent and then the sound motion picture, the AM radio, and lastly the FM radio have been the proving ground for educational methods which with further experimentation can be brought to a high state of effectiveness in television broadcasting.

In the autumn of 1950 the United States Office of Education joined with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters and the Association for Education by Radio in calling a national meeting for the purpose of planning representation at the hearings scheduled to be held by the Federal Communications Commission in November of that year. An outcome of this meeting was the establishment of the Joint Committee on Educational Television. Under the auspices of the Office and of the joint committee, 87 representatives of principal educational organizations in the United States appeared before the Federal Communications Commission. In addition, a number of Members of both the Senate and the House of Representatives appeared in support of the request for setting aside channels for educational use. In his testimony before the Commission, the Commissioner of Education recommended that an adequate number of both very-high-frequency and ultra-high-frequency channels be set aside for educational television broadcasting and that these channels be reserved for a sufficient length of time to enable educational institutions to develop plans for their use.

The case for education in television was effectively presented. The "Sixth Report and Order" of the FCC, dated April 14, 1952, assigned 242 television channels for educational purposes, about 12 percent of the total 2,000 channels available. These reservations are subject to review after June 2, 1953.

Evidence is at hand that educational institutions are moving rapidly to take advantage of these reserved channels. Within 60 days after the issuance of the order 14 applications were filed with the FCC and 8 channels actually assigned. Reports received by the Office of Education indicate that more than four hundred school systems and educational institutions are in various stages of planning for the utilization of television.

Even the current gratifying response to the ruling of the FCC will fall short of full realization of expectations and requirements unless additional support can be given to the schools, institutions, and State and local educational organizations. Relatively large sums of money are involved in establishing and operating television broadcasting sta-

tions. School boards, boards of trustees, State legislatures, and private endowing sources require time to consider such enterprises, especially where public financing, hedged about as it is legally, is involved. Moreover, a great deal of experience and guidance must be made available to educational broadcasters both before and after such a station is established.

A beginning has been made toward the provision of Nation-wide research and advisory services in the area of educational television broadcasting. The Joint Committee on Educational Television, operating under a grant from the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation, is advising educational institutions on legal, engineering, and programing problems. The United States Navy has developed effective training programs through the use of television and these programs are open to observation and research. The United States Office of Education, though severely limited in staff and funds for services, has outlined a program of research and advisory assistance. The Office has also published a monograph, "Television in Our Schools" (Bulletin 1952, No. 16, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education), which contains much information about the development and use of educational television. The services currently available, both public and private, are, however, wholly inadequate. State educational agencies, local school systems, and colleges and universities require much more help in developing their television facilities if this potentially great new medium of instruction is to make its maximum contribution to the formal educational programs of the schools, colleges, and universities, and to the education of adults through discussions, lectures, demonstrations, and the vicarious experiences of travel and historical review.

It is imperative that the opportunities offered by the "Sixth Report and Order" of the Federal Communications Commission not be allowed to lapse. Even though the launching of such a vast enterprise on a Nation-wide basis is a gigantic task, speedy action is required on the part of American education. A backward look over the last quarter of a century shows that though the educational significance of radio has come to be enormous, the delay in its development was inexcusable. Neither the profession nor the lay public generally can afford a repetition of this costly time lag in the full use of television for educational purposes.

American education is now teetering on a tight-rope in relation to television. It can topple over into failure or it can achieve great success. Television represents a large financial investment in terms of original capital investment and to a degree in the cost of current operations. In terms of the cost per student or general observer, however, the cost will be far below that of many other types of education. And the cost must be equated to the educational benefits to our people as a whole and to the strengthening of our democratic institutions. It is in my judgment not money alone which will discourage educational institutions from undertaking the establishment of television stations. More likely it will be the sense of uncertainty about how and where to get help in exploring the costs, the procedures, the resources, and the cooperative relationships involved in the establishment of an educational television station while channels are still available.

## The Role of the Office of Education in Meeting These Problems

The United States Office of Education has a rare opportunity of establishing a service not for remedial purposes—to deal with a problem after it has been allowed to grow—but of creating a climate in which a new educational medium can flourish.

The problems described in the preceding sections of this report are some of the most urgent and critical problems presently facing the American educational system. As such they are of great and increasing concern not only to the men and women who staff our schools, but to millions of American citizens everywhere who are interested in a brighter future for their children.

It is not, however, the urgent and critical character of these problems as such which warrants their discussion in this report. The annals of State and local school systems are replete with instances in which comparable crises within a particular State or local jurisdiction have been surmounted and overcome by an aroused citizenry.

The distinguishing characteristic of the problems discussed here—and the reason for their inclusion in this report—is that they are national problems. They are national problems in that they extend beyond the borders of any one State, or any group of States. They are national problems in that they are beyond the resources of any one State, or group of States. They are national problems in that they require national solutions.

Now the recognition of these problems as national problems requiring national solutions by no means implies that the Federal Government should assume the sole responsibility—or even the primary responsibility—in developing ways of meeting them. It is the peculiar genius of our American form of government that every public question is traditionally resolved as close to its point of origin as possible. In this respect the American educational system is a shining example in which the States have traditionally acted only with respect to problems which are beyond the resources of individual local school districts, and the Federal Government has likewise acted only on those problems which are beyond the resources of local and State jurisdictions combined. Other countries have different patterns, but in education in the United States this is the American way.

But the American way does not require the American people to stand by helpless merely because a problem in American education is national in scope and calls for a national solution. Here again the American genius for practicality in public affairs has evolved a pattern in solving national problems which calls upon, first, the local school districts, then the State or States concerned, to enlist and combine their efforts in reaching a solution. It is only after the problem has been determined to be beyond local and State boundaries and resources that assistance from the Nation as a whole has been sought. And it is the glory of the American educational system—and the pride of most of the American States—that such calls for help have been sounded only in dire straits; and further, that when sounded the calls have been not so much for Federal funds as for Federal leadership, the kind of leadership which can give unity and a sense of direction to a joint local-State-Federal assault upon the educational problem at hand. This, again, is the American way of doing things.

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

*(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)*

*American School Curriculum.* Washington, D. C., American Association of School Administrators, A Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1953. 551 p. Illus. (Thirty-First Yearbook) $5.

*An Annotated Bibliography on School and College Information.* By Ruth E. Anderson. Washington, D. C., National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1952. 38 p. 35 cents. (Reprinted from The Bulletin, October 1952, Vol. XXXVI, No. 188) (Address: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th St., NW., Washington 6, D. C.)

*Building Brotherhood; What Can Elementary Schools Do?* By Mary Beauchamp, Ardelle Llewellyn, and Vivienne S. Worley. New York, The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1953. 64 p. 25 cents.

*Building Your Philosophy of Life.* By T. V. Smith. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 49 p. Illus. 40 cents. (Life Adjustment Booklet.)

*Clinical Studies in Reading II.* With Emphasis on Vision Problems. Edited by Helen M. Robinson. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press, 1953. 189 p. Illus. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77, January 1953.) $3.75.

*Current Trends in School Libraries.* Alice Lohrer, Issue Editor. Vol. I, No. 3, January 1953 Issue of *Library Trends*, a Quarterly Publication of the University of Illinois Library School, Urbana, Illinois. $2 single copy; Subscription price: $5 a year.

*Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools.* By Charles W. Boardman, Harl R. Douglass, and Rudyard K. Bent. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. 557 p. $5.

*First Steps in a Grown-Up World; The Preschool Child.* By Mary Edge Harlan. New York, Abelard Press, 1952. 112 p. $1.95.

*The Function of the Public Schools in Dealing With Religion.* A Report on the Exploratory Study Made by the Committee on Religion and Education. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1953. 146 p. $2.

*History, Purposes and Organization of The American Association of Psychiatric Clinics for Children.* New York, The America Association of Psychiatric Clinics for Children, 1953. 52 p. 50 cents. (Address: The American Association of Psychiatric Clinics for Children, 1790 Broadway, Room 916, New York 19, N. Y.)

*Report of the Committee for the Study of Factors Involved in the Higher Education of Vermont Youth to the General Assembly of 1953.* (Report of the Consultant's Study, "Vermont Youth and Higher Education," p. 11–64, by Ernest V. Hollis). Montpelier, Vt., 1952. 64 p.

*Social Welfare Information for Teachers.* By Dorothy Zietz. East Lansing, Mich., 1952. 92 p. (Processed.) $1. (Order from Author or Campus Book Store, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich.)

*A Study of Urban Public School Adult Education Programs of the United States.* Washington, D. C., Division of Adult Education Service, National Education Association, 1952. 171 p. $1.

# Selected Theses on Education

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THESE THESES are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*An Analysis of Pupils' Likes and Dislikes.* By William Power MacLean. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 57 p. ms.

*Analysis of the Study of Music Literature in Selected American Colleges.* By Elizabeth E. Kaho. Doctor's, 1950. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. 74 p. (Contributions to Education, No. 971.)

*A Course of Study for Improving Voice and Articulation of Children in the Primary Grades of Medford, Massachusetts.* By Elizabeth Nestor. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 177 p. ms.

*The Effect of the Limitations on Education of Eastern Woodland Indians 1630: 1830.* By Frank William Marcoux. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 79 p. ms.

*The Extent to Which Selected Elementary, Junior, and Senior High School Textbooks Confirm Certain Misconceptions in United States History.* By Arthur B. Jerome. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 43 p. ms.

*A Follow-Up Study of Student Teachers in Secondary School Social Studies, Graduates of Boston University, 1947–49.* By Grace S. Thomson. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 95 p. ms.

*The Function of the Academic Dean in American Catholic Higher Education.* By Rev. Darrell F. X. Finnegan. Doctor's, 1950. Catholic University of America. Washington, D. C., Catholic University of America Press, 1951. 120 p.

*History and Evaluation of the Graduate Course for Women in Student Personnel Administration at Syracuse University.* By Margaret Cairncross Wells. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 468 p. ms.

*The Personal Embarrassments of Junior High School Pupils.* By Isabel Dolores Murphy. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 55 p. ms.

*The Personal Problems of Some College Women.* By Helen W. Inman. Master's, 1951. University of Michigan. 81 p. ms.

*Recent Trends in Teaching the Classical Languages and Literature in the Liberal Arts College.* By Sister Mary Rose Agnes Gressel. Doctor's, 1950. University of Cincinnati. 261 p. ms.

*A Study of the Relationship Between Flexibility in Thinking and Achievement in College.* By Rolland R. Tougas. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 95 p. ms.

*A Survey of the Business Graduates of 1945–1949 of the Winthrop Senior High School, Winthrop, Massachusetts, to Determine the Effectiveness of the (Intensified) Business Curriculum.* By Rachel Ardel Johnson. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 68 p. ms.



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## Office of Education

Education in Other Countries:

**Bolivia, Education in.** Bulletin 1949, No. 1. 25 cents.

**Chile, Education in.** Bulletin 1945, No. 10. 25 cents.

**Colombia, Education in.** Bulletin 1946, No. 6. 30 cents.

**Costa Rica, Education in.** Bulletin 1946, No. 4. 20 cents.

**Cuba, Education in.** Bulletin 1943, No. 1. 25 cents.

**Dominican Republic, Education in the.** Bulletin 1947, No. 10. 15 cents.

**Ecuador, Education in.** Bulletin 1947. No. 2. 30 cents.

**El Salvador, Education in.** Bulletin 1947, No. 3. 25 cents.

**France, Higher Education in.** Bulletin 1952, No. 6. 20 cents.

**Guatemala, Education in.** Bulletin 1947. No. 7, 25 cents.

**Haiti, Education in.** Bulletin 1948, No. 1. 25 cents.

**Nicaragua, Education in.** Bulletin 1947, No. 6. 20 cents.

**Panama, Education in.** Bulletin 1948, No. 12. 25 cents.

**Peru, Education in.** Bulletin 1946, No. 3. 30 cents.

**Sweden, Education in.** Bulletin 1952, No. 17. 30 cents.

**Turkey, Education in.** Bulletin 1952, No. 10. 30 cents.

**Venezuela, Education in.** Bulletin 1948, No. 14. 30 cents.

**Tentative List of Teaching and Background Materials for Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools.** January 1953. Free.

**Transfers to Schools or Colleges of Engineering.** By Henry H. Armsby and Robert C. Story. Circular No. 365, February 1953. Free.

## U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

**Better Health for School-Age Children.** Children's Bureau, Office of Education, and the Public Health Service. 1952. 10 cents.

## Other Government Agencies

### *Atomic Energy Commission*

**Major Activities in the Atomic Energy Programs, January–June 1952.** 35 cents.

### *Department of Agriculture*

**Highlights in the History of Forest Conservation.** 1952. 15 cents.

**Making Radio Work for You—Handbook for Extension Agents.** 1952. 15 cents.

### *Department of Commerce*

**Questions and Answers for Private Pilots.** 1952. 15 cents.

### *Department of Defense*

**Trials of War Criminals, Volume 6.** Volume 6 is designated as "The Flick Case." Trials held before the Nuernberg Military Tribunals, October 1946–April 1949. 1952. Cloth, $4.00.

**The United States Navy, A Description of Its Functional Organization.** 1952. 50 cents.

### *Department of the Interior*

**Kansas-Missouri Floods of July 1951.** A detailed description of this destructive flood. 1952. $1.25.

### *Department of Labor*

**Employment Outlook in Electronics Manufacturing.** A study conducted in the Occupational Outlook Service of the Labor Department. 1952. 25 cents.

### *Department of State*

**Background—Iran: Point of World Interest.** 1952. 5 cents.

**Background—Turkey: Frontier of Freedom.** 1952. 10 cents.

**Background—Yugoslavia: Titoism and U. S. Foreign Policy.** 1952. 5 cents.

### *Executive Office of the President*

**Building America's Health.** A report to the President by the President's Commission on the Health Needs of the Nation, Volume 1, Findings and Recommendations. 1952. 50 cents.

**The Job Ahead for Defense Mobilization.** The eighth quarterly report of the Director of Defense Mobilization, January 1, 1953. 30 cents.

**Whom We Shall Welcome.** A report of the President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization. 1952. 75 cents.

### *Library of Congress*

**Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1952.** $2.25.

**Philosophical Periodicals: An Annotated World List.** 1952. 65 cents from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

**The White House: A Bibliographical List.** 1952. 95 cents from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

# School Practices Can Contribute to MENTAL HEALTH

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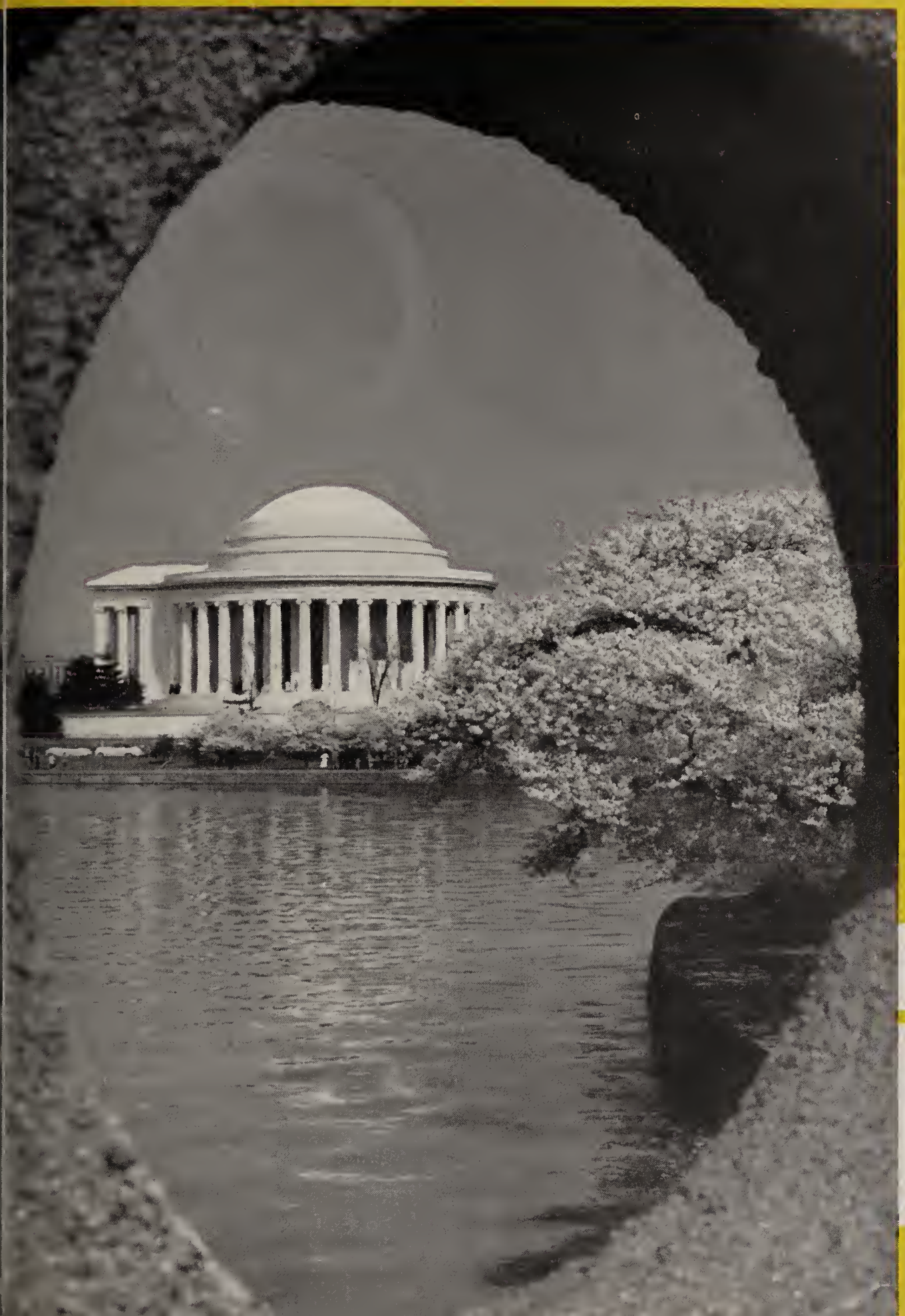
# School Life



◄ Jefferson Memorial



U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

# What Freedom Means in American Education

## By William G. Carr*

LAST summer in Brussels I saw the impressive memorial in honor of Belgium's Unknown Soldier. At each corner of this monument stands a statue representing 1 of the 4 freedoms. These four freedoms, however, are not quite the same as those enumerated by President Roosevelt. The four freedoms on the Belgian memorial to the Unknown Soldier are Freedom of Assembly, Freedom of the Press, Freedom of Worship, and Freedom of Education. It seemed to me significant that this memorial would link, on an equal footing with freedom to persuade, freedom to publish, and freedom to pray, a fourth freedom—the freedom to learn.

The word "free" as applied to education has at least three different meanings. In these times all of our social institutions, including the schools, are under close review and appraisal. It may be well, therefore, that we Americans also remind ourselves of the various ways in which we have made our schools free, and mean to keep them so. Vigilance remains the price of liberty—in education as in government.

1. The first meaning of "free" schools is economic. When we speak of free education, we usually mean that it is paid for from the public purse and provided without cost to the entire population of suitable age. The conviction that self-government is possible only if exercised by educated men runs far back into our history. This concept also penetrates deeply into many of our present social arrangements. We intend that government by the people shall endure. We are, therefore, required to see to it that all the people shall have a full opportunity to learn the rights and duties of American citizenship.

We have come a long way in making education free in this economic sense. We have not reached the end of the road. There are still a few individuals and groups who do not believe that universal free education is either possible or desirable. Many economic obstacles to the achievement of equal educational opportunity remain. Nevertheless, our country has gone further in offering free education to all its citizens than any other nation anywhere in the world, or at any point in history.

2. There is a second sense in which the word "free" can be applied to American schools. We have aimed to make our educational system as free as possible from restrictive shackles of tradition. American industry has grown great and productive by daring, by invention, by ingenuity, by freedom to adopt new systems and requirements. American education has increased its efficiency by using the same kinds of freedom. If anyone can propose a more effective way of teaching arithmetic, or of arranging the facts of

*Dr. Carr, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, made this statement before the Education Writers Association annual meeting in Atlantic City, N. J., on February 18, 1953.

(*Continued on page 124*)

**School ★ Life**

Official Journal of the Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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Cover photograph: This unusual view of the Jefferson Memorial by Henry W. Rohland, Washington Post photographer, was given honorable mention in the pictorial class at the 10th Annual News Photo Exhibit of the White House News Photographers Association in Washington, D. C. The 1953 exhibit, which included Mr. Rohland's photograph, was displayed during the month of April in the Library of Congress.



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## Education in American Ideals of Freedom

# The High Calling of Teachers

By Ward W. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation

THE vital relationship of education to American freedom and national security has been the theme of writers, orators, educators, and statesmen from he founding of the Republic. On this subject Daniel Webster gave us a basic political maxim in words of classic strength and clearness when he said:

> *"The first object of a free people is the preservation of their liberty."*

And Woodrow Wilson gave us the following unimpeachable educational and political philosophy:

> *"Freedom and free institutions cannot long be maintained by any people who do not understand the nature of their own government."*

High among the freedoms of the teaching profession is the freedom to imbue our youth with the ideals and principles of the American system of government. This freedom is one which should be cherished and proudly assumed by every teacher in America. Clearly, this function is not only the *right* but also the *legal duty* of public teachers. Moreover, it constitutes a mission and a vital part of the high calling of the teaching profession and is basic to any positive program of American education adequate to the needs of our time.

It is always the duty of teachers to inculcate through education the ideals and principles of our liberty, just as in times of crisis we are expected to support them by military effort. Moreover, under the laws of most of the States, it is the teacher's legal duty to do so. Statutory provisions to this end represent the will of the people, and a teacher who fails to respect or discharge his legal responsibility in this field, therefore, fails in a fundamental principle of American citizenship.

There has been some recent claim that American freedom includes the freedom of public teachers to propagate thoughts that are subversive or in derogation to our system of government. Such a claim in the name of academic freedom is without constitutional support. The Supreme Court of the United States in a recent New York case held that a State may disqualify persons of Communist affiliation from teaching in its public schools. In that connection the Supreme Court of the United States sustained a New York statute providing that "membership in any such [communistic] organization * * * shall constitute prima facie evidence of disqualification for appointment to or retention in any office or position in the public schools of the state."

The freedom of teachers to teach the facts about other systems of government is not in question, and is not therefore a part of this discussion.

### *Founded a Republic To Run Forever*

The founders of this Government took particular care that one thing should never happen in this country either by peaceful means or by revolutionary force, to wit: that monarchy, tyranny, dictatorship (communistic or other) should never triumph in this country. The framers of the organic law of this country set this forth in clear and unmistakable manner in section 4 of article 4 of the United States Constitution: "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government."

One who follows the debates of the Constitutional Convention cannot escape the conclusion that it was the avowed intention to establish a stable republic capable of perpetuating itself. At no time did the debaters discuss a provision for the termination of the government they sought to establish. The deliberations of that convention clearly indicate that they intended to build a nation that should endure and to become something more than merely an uncontrollable market place for the propagation of ideas subversive to our system of government. They had no intention of establishing a see-saw government subject to the whims and fancies of ambitious kings, dictators (communistic or other), or of planning other forms of totalitarian government which characterized the history of the Old World.

The Founding Fathers who fought monarchy in a terrible struggle had no intention of throwing away the prize of independence and freedom by providing a sanctuary and refuge for the hated and corrupt systems of monarchy of the Old World which might seek to be transplanted to America.

These men of 1787 were fully aware of the evils of monarchy and dictatorship of the Old World, or totalitarian governments by any other name, or in the name of economic interests or security. They sought to prevent a monarchy, dictatorship, or totalitarian government from ever obtaining a foothold or triumph in America. They not only presupposed the orthodoxy of "a republican form of government," as expressed in article 4 of the Constitution, they also guaranteed its continuance by organic law, which in itself laid down the procedure by which it may be modified or amended. It may even be asserted with assurance that the men of 1787 never believed that the amending procedure set out in article 5 of the Constitution was a universal solvent which drained the substance of every other article and provision of the Constitution (other than the first amendment relating to freedom of thought). The men of 1787 never contemplated that the amending process would be used to obliterate the distinc-

tions between the constitutional government, which they were establishing, and the tyrannical and unstable governments then functioning or later to function in the Old World.

### No Intention To Follow Old World Examples

It may be asserted with assurance that the Founding Fathers intended to eliminate any possibility that we in America might take a course such as that demonstrated by the Italian and German people under their respective constitutions between the First and Second World Wars and thus surrender our freedom. In this connection it is important to observe that after the failure of Hitler's violent attempt to seize control in the 1923 "Putsch," he and his advisers concluded that the way to do away with the Republic in Germany was to use "democracy"—to assert democratic rights and principles to the extent of paralyzing constitutional procedures and processes. Hitler then proceeded on a philosophy of freedom for subversive ideas. He contended for opening the market places to ideas incongruous and debauching to the principles of a stable and free government. As a result of his organized propaganda of fraud the people of Germany abandoned the Weimar Republic and lost their liberty; they surrendered their rights under the Weimar Republic. The story was the same when the people of Italy surrendered their freedom to Mussolini.

There is absolutely nothing in the Constitution of the United States which requires that we follow the German or Italian examples, nor that we follow the example of the overthrow of Czechoslovakia in 1948 by the Communists. Yet there are those in America who, in a vacuum of their own design, contend for the freedom of subversive ideas. It is yet for those who contend for such freedom to propagate subversive ideas to show at what point the governments of Germany, Italy, and Czechoslovakia might have prevented the undermining of their government. Those who contend in behalf of such a philosophy and who ignore "clear and present danger" are asking that subversive ideas be let alone until they become triumphant. It is then too late to question these ideas or to arrest their progress.

The Opinion of Judge Learned Hand (183 Fed. [2nd] 201) of August 1, 1950, blows as a healthy breeze of fresh, realistic air upon this matter. Judge Hand held that "a conspiracy to organize the Communist Party of the United States as a group to teach and advocate the overthrow of United States government by force and violence created such a clear and present danger as to justify the suppression of the danger by the statute forbidding advocating overthrow of government by force and that such statute as applied to such conspiracy is not unconstitutional as abridging freedom of speech."

In view of Judge Hand's opinion, it is fair to assume that there is nothing in the Constitution of the United States that requires that we suffer the experience and demise of our own republic in a way similar to that of Germany, Italy, and Czechoslovakia and their republics.

### Rights of Pupils

The heritage of every American youth includes the right to a thorough understanding of the ideals and principles of American constitutional government so that he may become an intelligent, loyal, and devoted citizen. He should know the facts of history—that our Federal and State Governments have doubtless provided more human rights, to more people, and over a longer period of time than has any other system of government yet established. He should also know the verdict of history regarding other systems of government.

It is of course vital that a pupil should have the freedom to learn and to be inquisitive about various forms and philosophies of government. That freedom, however, ought not to be construed and applied so as to deny or abridge the right of pupils to full benefit of history in the development of the principles of American liberty. On this subject George Washington deemed it appropriate to say:

*"We ought to deprecate the hazard attending ardent and susceptible minds from being too strongly and too early prepossessed in favor of other political systems before they are capable of appreciating their own."*

State laws support the theory that a pupil in his immaturity and lack of understanding of history ought not to make a blind choice. He should have the benefit of experienced and qualified teachers. If it is important to give information and guidance as to what a child should eat, so is it equally important to give him information and guidance with respect to governments in general in order that he may fully understand the facts of American liberty and Government.

### No Freedom To Undermine American Freedom

There is no constitutional guarantee of freedom (academic or other) to destroy freedom itself. There is no constitutional guarantee of protection to individuals who seek to undermine the Constitution, who take advantage of the First Amendment of the Constitution guaranteeing freedom of speech only that they may be able to destroy the Constitution itself and the Republic which it established. Such a guarantee would be an absurdity. It would make a mockery of our oath of allegiance. It would violate the first principles of constitutional representative government. It would be inconsistent with a well ordered and stable society. Such a claim is founded on a negative reactionary idea outworn and bankrupt and old even in the days of ancient Rome. They who contend for freedom to undermine our constitutional Republic by propagation of obsolete ideas and systems, which gave neither freedom nor security, close their eyes to the great lessons of history. They would have us and our children repeat the fatal errors of other countries and peoples whose republics have demised and whose freedom and security have vanished.

### Liberalism of American Ideals

The basic philosophy of our principles of freedom is liberal, positive, and dynamic. It was expressed in the Declaration of Independence by the founding fathers and runs as follows:

*"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness—That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. . . ."*

The principles of liberty embodied in this statement and implemented by the Federal and State constitutions and their bills of rights enhance the dignity and liberty of

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# Radio vs. Television in the Schools

By Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television, U. S. Office of Education

A MOST ELECTRIFYING EXHIBITION of interest in science and accompanying phenomena possible by sight and sound has just been demonstrated to 4,500 junior and senior high-school students in New York City. Opened by Dr. Henry Heald, Chancellor of New York University, at the studios of the American Broadcasting Company, these demonstrations were sent into two large theaters on a Saturday morning. By acquiring telephone lines direct to the studios, it was possible to establish two-way communication, so that students could, at appropriate times, ask questions. The American Medical Association had already done this with surgical operations but it was the first time public schools had ever participated in such dramatic proceedings. Of course, it served to show what could also be done in thousands of high-school auditoriums or communications centers on school properties, as well as what can be done in the classroom by television.

The question arises immediately as to what part of the success was due to two-way communications. No doubt, this was a factor in holding interest. No less a person than the Archbishop of Canterbury has attacked television in education because the BBC did not provide two-way communication, essential, says this British prelate, to the learning process. That was in the Spring of 1952 in England. However, it is possible to have significant questions asked right in the studio and carry on that process, even *without* two-way communication. In fact, it is almost general practice in classroom TV broadcasting to have students participate vicariously.

The second question arises as to the part this *sight* plays in the learning process. The old saying, attributed to Confucius, that 1 picture is worth 10,000 words, can be immediately answered by—what picture? and, what words? The point is—we do not yet know these values, but a commercial publication of the National Broadcasting Company, analyzing the comparative values of sight and sound combinations in TV advertising announcements, goes far to point out what our lines of research should now be in educational radio *and* television.

From observation of TV programs now current on the air, we have already discovered some manifest advantages of sight and sound in the communication process. We also are beginning to discover that sight is either unnecessary or even undesirable in some forms of presentation. There are three areas in which radio seems to excel: One is music, another is news, and still another is the exciting story or mystery drama.

## Music and News

In music, sight is frequently a distraction. Up to now, TV has meant comparatively little, even to show the use of instrumentation, since music is an aural art and we *should* be able to recognize the instruments and assuredly types of voices by their *sound*. However, since all TV sound is in the FM band, TV sound may easily be better than that of AM radio but certainly not better than FM radio.

In the regular news program, TV has not produced much of value yet in visual help except where actual news clips are inserted from motion-picture newsreels or special TV–News services. The use of inept visual materials becomes as in music, distracting and, moreover, often confusing to the thought. Many people like their news "straight" and like the inflections in the human voice to further emotionalize the thought content. We are "used" to radio news.

The exciting, thrilling sound drama, with its appeal to the imagination whether it be in the realm of beauty, or of ugliness, has greater hold on the interest, increases suspense and, therefore, delivers a more forceful impression frequently than the same drama does on TV. This does not mean that the stage drama always fails where sound succeeds. It does mean that poignancy is increased, such as occurs in Thornton Wilder's "Our Town," where props and scenery are absent.

On the other hand, television can do many tasks better than radio. Even a partial list of them here should convince us of its greater teaching potential in a wider area, by far, than we ever reached with radio. It can: (1) demonstrate in the "how to do it" manner, especially when there are involved exact manipulations in a fixed sequence, (2) present eye-witness accounts of what happens in any variable situation, (3) present talks, with picturization of dramatized illustrations as the talk progresses, (4) convert lessons to picture animation, (5) take to us great public events, with word and picture description, (6) put us in the front row, or 50-yard line, for athletic and sporting events, (7) present panoramic views of spectacles and pageants, (8) give us front seats at stage presentations of dramatic performances or concerts, (9) induce audience participation and stimulate viewers to identify themselves with the program action, (10) convert discussion programs into acts of immediacy, with full value to the viewer of observable reactions of the participants.

These are examples of a few of the television program types and possibilities which are currently found on the air. The demonstration is illustrated in automobile driving, cooking, preserving food, smoking cigarettes and all the other types of "commercials" now in use. Eyewitness demonstrations are to be found particularly in surgery and scientific programs. The talk, with illustrations, is amply illustrated by Ed Murrow's "See It Now" and similar programs. Picture animation is commonly used in commercials, a borrowing from Walt Disney techniques. The spectacle is seen as in Sonja Henie's performance of an ice carnival. Great public events may be extremely well illustrated, as the Inauguration of President Eisenhower. Sports are seen in the games of football, baseball, prize-fighting and wrestling bouts. Stage drama-

tizations are common in such programs as "Robert Montgomery Presents" and "Studio One." Audience participation by identification is well shown in "This Is Your Life." Discussion programs are amply illustrated by television performances of "Meet the Press" and the "American Forum of the Air," incidentally, a simulcast.

### Television Lessons Needed

What are the influences and implications of all this for education? Simply this, that standard commercial broadcasting has provided, and is providing now, ample experimentation for a thousand educational uses of radio and television. Standard broadcasting is even providing some research, such as the NBC analysis of the effectiveness of TV advertising "commercials," just released.

Radio is not obsolete in broadcasting. In fact, it is growing, in competition with television, and so it is growing in education. Some 20 new FM stations have been set up in colleges and school systems since September 1952, and all indications point to a similar increase in the general use of radio in schools during the same period. More radio programs are locally available for in- and out-of-school listening, and of a more useful character, than ever before. The NAEB Tape Network, with its original contributions of such programs as "The Jeffersonian Heritage," has been of tremendous influence in stimulating this increased interest.

We are now certain that school listening is on the increase, that utilization patterns are more easily available through increased training courses, and that the same schools, in many instances, are *adding* television viewing to their class-room practices. Larger numbers of television sets would be purchased if more television lessons were available in school time. WOI-TV at Ames, Iowa, now has 5 such programs a week, and as TV education stations are added—Los Angeles, Houston, and St. Louis this Spring—so will the television reception increase beyond the occasional viewing in some 65 school systems. Philadelphia, Baltimore, Chicago, Portland, Seattle, and many other cities where regular school TV programing is established will of course continue to expand their services.

The answer to radio vs. television in our schools is beginning to become apparent. We shall use both. Wherever radio is used, as in homes, it will continue to be used. Television will, at first, supplement radio. Later, radio may simply supplement television in TV equipped schoolrooms. We may eventually do what Canada is doing partly over TV today, present some programs in sound only. We may even develop the lost art of pantomime and true marionettes to the point where some programs will be received by sight only, as in art, untrammeled by extraneous sound. We shall be growing up in that manner.

Some of our present highly-developed radio programs may be strengthened by the addition of sight, some, as is indicated, may not be helped one bit, some may even be affected adversely by the supplement of sight.

At any rate, TV is here. It has amply demonstrated its value over the standard broadcasting facilities of the country. We are in the throes of making it serve education. "All Roads Lead to Rome", and Rome, in this case, is the furthering of the learning process. There is every indication that radio, as in the past, will continue to gloriously serve that purpose.

To reduce all of our present TV experience to educational formulae would be impossible today, yet we are, in as many ways as we can, taking advantage of it. "The Whole Town's Talking" at WOI-TV is a version of the original radio "Town Meeting" and "The People Act." Teleaventure Tales on KING-TV is a story-telling program for children with the charm of radio's "Singing Lady." The "Johns Hopkins Science Review", on the other hand, could not be done on radio. It originates in the laboratory and words could not adequately describe the lab experiments occurring during the program. If we wish to teach scoring or marketing, as the U. S. Department of Agriculture does, we must use television or we won't be able to *show* what to do. No football or any other game has ever been described by sound alone as satisfactorily as the fan demands.

All of these radio and TV program types become models for teaching programs, for every subject in the curriculum including the language arts, social studies, science, art, mathematics, music, and particularly for the "fringe" subjects such as health, vocational guidance, automobile-driving, safety education, debating, school journalism and many other extracurricular activities. Philadelphia began 4 years ago with this latter type of subject on TV, since the subject matter was less well-known to the teachers and, therefore, of more immediate value to the classroom at the time of view-addition of sight, some, as is indicated, ing. Television can do many of these subjects very well, and may even surpass radio at times as a means of illustration to the regular prepared lesson. The question will be—which will serve education's purpose best? That will be for us to discover.

**Children in the Riverside Elementary School, Miami, Fla., watch television to see the inauguration of President Dwight D. Eisenhower.**

A Review of Historic Background of Today's Office of Education

# To Promote the Cause of Education

By Lloyd E. Blauch, Division of Higher Education

"PASS THIS BILL and you give education a mouthpiece and a rallying point. While it will have no power to enter into the States and interfere with their systems, it will be able to collect facts and report the same to Congress, to be thence spread over the entire country.

"It will throw a flood of light upon the dark places of the land. It will form a public sentiment which will arouse to increased activity the friends of education everywhere, and ignorance will fly before it."

These historic words of Representative Ignatius Donnelly from Minnesota were uttered on June 5, 1866, in the congressional debate on a bill to establish a Department of Education in the Federal Government.

The testimony of Representative Donnelly formed part of a background of events and contributions that led to establishment of an agency for education within the Federal Government structure and authorized functions which the Office of Education has carried on for nearly 100 years in the service of education.

Now a part of the new Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Office of Education was originally established upon the request of leading educators for assistance that would aid the States and the people to establish and maintain efficient institutions and systems of education. Its creation was a recognition that the Federal Government, without controlling education, could do much to promote the cause of education.

**This article by Dr. Blauch is most timely. It was written just when the Office of Education was coming into the newly established Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, authorized by the Congress. Serving as secretary of the new department is Oveta Culp Hobby, who, for the first time, will represent the areas of health, education, and welfare for the Nation in the President's cabinet. Because of the long history of the Office of Education, Dr. Blauch's review will be presented in two parts for SCHOOL LIFE readers. This is the first part of his interesting report.**

## *Educational Background*

During the period from 1800 to 1860 the public school idea became well established in the Northern States; the main lines for future development were laid down, and the principal battles were won. The people definitely decided to establish and maintain State systems of free, publicly controlled, tax-supported, nonsectarian common schools. A few State normal schools were set up to train teachers (as examples, in Massachusetts, New York, Connecticut, Michigan), and in some of the cities high schools were organized (as examples, Boston, Portland, New York, Harrisburg, Philadelphia, Cleveland). A like development occurred in the Southern States, but not to the same extent as in the North.

Progress was also made in higher education. A number of small colleges were established, largely through the efforts of the churches. As early as 1795 North Carolina opened the first State university, and by 1856 at least 13 other States had provided for such institutions. These universities were regarded as the capstones of the public school systems.

This achievement was the result of a series of long and hard-fought engagements. Among the leaders in the struggle were Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, Horace Mann of Massachusetts, Henry Barnard of Connecticut and Rhode Island, and Calvin H. Wiley of North Carolina. The obstacles they had to overcome were many, not the least of which was ignorance of what schools and colleges were and what significant functions they had to perform in a democracy.

It may be observed that at an early date the Federal Government had begun to encourage education largely through donating to the new States formed from the public domain rather extensive grants of land for common schools and for State universities. These grants provided effective assistance to new States in establishing systems of education. In 1862, through the First Morrill Act, Federal grants of land were made to all the States for the establishment of colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts. This act has stimulated significant results in higher education. Its passage reflected an increasing interest on the part of the Federal Government in the social and economic development and strength of the Nation.

This interest is further reflected in such actions as: (1) The reorganization and adjustment of the patent law in 1836 as a means of promoting "the progress of useful arts"; (2) the establishment of the Smithsonian Institution in 1846 for "the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men"; and (3) the creation of the Department of Agriculture in 1862 "to acquire and to diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word, and to procure, propagate, and distribute among the people new and valuable seeds and plants."

## *Movement for a Federal Office of Education*

As early as 1839 Henry Barnard induced those in charge of the 1840 United States Census to collect data concerning illiteracy, schools, academies, and colleges. The data were used by educational leaders in their efforts to promote education. These men also felt a great need for a central agency that would collect and disseminate educational statistics and general information on education, and from time to time, beginning in the 1840's, they made various proposals

for the establishment of such an agency. The data obtained through the Census proved very helpful, but educators expressed need for a much greater service than the mere collection of data. Almost every national educational meeting of any importance gave attention to the question and took some action to bring about the creation of a Federal office of education. Among these meetings were a national convention in Philadelphia (1840) of the friends of common schools and the regular conventions of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, the National Teachers' Association, and the National Association of School Superintendents.[1]

## An Official Agency

Educational leaders who promoted the idea of a Federal educational agency had in mind a number of things such an agency should do. They wanted an official agency for the exchange of educational information among the States, a means of diffusing knowledge of the science and art of education and of the organization and administration of education. They suggested that the head of the agency should attend educational conventions, publish an educational journal, and make an annual report on the progress of education in the United States and foreign nations. These leaders thought that the Federal educational office should maintain an education library containing educational reports and documents from the States and from foreign countries, educational books, plans, and models of schoolhouses and furniture, and school apparatus.

What was contemplated for the office was something more than collecting and reporting educational information, important and necessary as that function was. The educational leaders wanted an office that would make comparative studies of schools and school systems in this country. The Federal office, they said, should be a means through which more efficiency and uniformity would be secured in the educational movements of the country. They asked for the establishment of a bureau of education that would make suggestions for the advancement of education in the States and encourage the adoption of school systems "adapted to our form of government." Such a bureau, it was said, would "prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems" of education. It was clearly intended that a national office of education should actively stimulate and influence the development of education throughout the Nation.

Discussion resulted in definite action in 1866 when in February of that year the National Association of School Superintendents held its annual meeting in Washington, D. C. The question was thoroughly discussed at the convention, and the association appointed a committee of three to prepare a memorial to Congress asking for the creation of a "National Bureau of Education." Members of the committee were: Emerson E. White, Commissioner of the Common Schools of Ohio; Newton Bateman, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois; and J. S. Adams, Secretary of the State Board of Education, Vermont.

The brief but comprehensive memorial enumerated various ways in which a bureau of education might render effective service to the schools of the Nation. The memorial, and a bill for the establishment of a national bureau of education, were given to James A. Garfield, a Representative in Congress from Ohio, who at once presented them to the House of Representatives. Mr. Garfield, soldier, statesman, and educator, had been president of Hiram College from 1856 to 1861. He was deeply interested in the cause of education.

What was the political situation that existed at the time? The dreadful Civil War had ended, President Lincoln had been assassinated, and Vice President Andrew Johnson, a Democrat, had succeeded to the Presidency. In the 1864 fall elections the Republicans had won an overwhelming victory; more than two-thirds of both houses of Congress were members of the Republican Party.

## The House of Representatives Passes the Bill

Mr. Garfield presented the bill to the House of Representatives, February 14, 1866. The Congressmen referred it to a select committee composed of 4 Republicans and 3 Democrats. Mr. Garfield was committee chairman.

The bill as originally drawn provided for a bureau in the Department of the Interior, but, when it was reported back from the committee on June 5, it had been amended so as to establish a Department of Education. The new department was to be under a commissioner with a salary of $5,000 a year. He was to have authority to appoint a chief clerk with a salary of $2,000 and four other clerks with salaries at $1,800, $1,600, $1,400, and $1,200. He was to report annually to the Congress, and in the first report he was to present a statement on the educational land grants made to the States.

## Pressing Necessity

In the debate that followed after the bill was reported from the committee, Mr. Donnelly, a Republican of Minnesota, made the first address in advocacy of the proposed department. After pointing out what foreign governments had done towards making education an affair of the State, he declared that "the United States, * * * whose very cornerstone is the enlightened judgment of each individual citizen, has allowed despotisms to build up mighty systems in behalf of education, while in this, its capital, not a department, not a bureau, not even a clerkship is to be found representing that grandest of all interests." After presenting data on illiteracy in the Nation, pointing out the disparities among the States with respect to education, and describing various contrasting views regarding the need for education, he asked, "Can we doubt for one instant the great and pressing necessity for the general Government to interest itself in this question of education?"

At this juncture an amendment was offered by Mr. Randall, a Democrat of Pennsylvania, placing the proposed function under the Secretary of the Interior who would be authorized to appoint two clerks with salaries at $1,800 a year to do the work.[2]

Mr. Rogers, a Democrat of New Jersey, opposed the bill on constitutional grounds; on the ground of wasteful expenditure of public moneys; and on the ground of the danger of centralization of educational forces. Concerning the first, he declared that there was "no authority under the Con-

[1] Three national associations that grew out of these early educational organizations are the National Education Association, the American Association of School Administrators, and the Association for Higher Education. All of these organizations have consistently supported and promoted a strong Federal Office of Education even to the present time.

[2] It may be observed that the Bureau of the Census was then in the Department of the Interior.

stitution of the United States to authorize Congress to interfere with the education of children of the different States, in any manner, directly or indirectly." "The only effect of this bill," he continucd, "will be to create a prejudice in the South by undertaking to regulate their educational systems through the agency of officers in Washington. We are to have a centralized power here to tell the people of the South and the people of all the States of this Union what their system of education shall be. The head of the bureau is to receive $5,000 a year. What is he to do for that large salary, which is $2,000 more than a member of Congress receives?" He said the bill proposed to collect such statistics as would "give controlling power over the school systems of the States." He denounced the measure as "a mere wild scheme of philanthropy."

On June 8, the bill again came up for consideration, whereupon Mr. Moulton, a Democrat of Illinois, made a plea for its passage. After answering the objections urged against it by Mr. Rogers, Mr. Moulton said among other things:

"If this bill has been thrust upon this House without anybody asking for its passage, without anybody desiring its passage; if there is no necessity and no want in the country that requires it, of course it should not be passed. Now, how has this subject been brought to the attention of this Congress? By the leading educational men all over the United States, from Maine to Georgia, for the South has been heard in this matter * * *.

### For the General Welfare

"Talk about this not having foundation in the Constitution! Upon what constitutional provision have you established the Interior Department? There is no specific power given. But it is a great and necessary part of the machinery of the Government. It promotes the general welfare. Our bureau does the same. If we decide that it is necessary to promote the general welfare, no other department of this Government can question our power.

"It is said that this matter should be left to the States, or to individuals. Permit me to say in answer to this that the advantage of this bureau is this: We do not propose to invade State rights, to go to Massachusetts and say, you shall change your system and conform it to our views. We do not propose to go into Ohio or any other State, but we propose to correct whatever is wrong or mischievous in any of these State systems by pointing out and showing to them that their systems are wrong and what the better plan would be; just the same as the Bureau of Agriculture, by disseminating information all over the land, giving the results of experience, corrects errors in the method of the cultivation of lands, and promotes the interests of agriculture in the different States."

Mr. Moulton also argued that the Government had a direct interest in the establishment of a bureau of education because: (1) "At least every child in the land should receive a sufficient education to qualify him to discharge all the duties that may devolve upon him as an American citizen;" (2) the information collected every 10 years by the Census should be propagated and disseminated in proper form for the benefit of the people; and (3) information should be disseminated on how the land grants of education were disposed of and what use was made of the funds.

Mr. Garfield made an eloquent speech in behalf of the bill, declaring it to be of paramount importance. He asked the House, first to consider the magnitude of the interests involved in the bill. "The very attempt," he said, "to discover the amount of pecuniary and personal interest we have in our schools shows the necessity of such a law as is here proposed. Gentlemen who have discussed the bill this morning tell us that it will result in great expense to the Government. Whether an enterprise is expensive or not is altogether a relative question, to be determined by the importance of its object."

Then he proceeded to enumerate the millions expended in such a Government institution as the Coast Survey. "We have," he remarked, "expended vast sums in order perfectly to know the topography of our coasts, lakes, and rivers, that we might make navigation more safe. Is it of no consequence that we explore the boundaries of that wonderful intellectual empire which encloses within its domain the fate of succeeding generations, and of this Republic? The children of today will be the architects of our country's destiny in 1900."

In like manner he discussed the Astronomical Observatory, the Light House Board, the Patent Office, and expenditures made for explorations, the survey of the route for the Pacific railroad, and for the promotion of agriculture. "We have paid," he stated, "three quarters of a million dollars for the survey of the route of the Pacific railroad, and have published the results at a great cost in 13 quarto volumes, with accompanying maps and charts. The money for these purposes was freely expended, and now, when it is proposed to appropriate $13,000 to aid in increasing the intelligence of those who will use that great continental highway when it is completed, we are reminded of our debts, and warned against increasing our expenditures. It is difficult to treat such an objection with the respect that always is due in this hall of legislation * * *.

### More Precious

"As man is more precious than soil, as the immortal spirit is nobler than the clod it animates, so is the object of this bill more important than any mere pecuniary interest."

Others who spoke in favor of the bill were Mr. Banks and Mr. Boutwell, both Republicans of Massachusetts. Mr. Pike, a Republican of Maine, and Mr. Randall opposed it.

Mr. Grinnell, a Republican of Iowa, who desired that the bill be enacted, offered an amendment to reduce the salary of the Commissioner of Education to $4,000 and to omit the two clerks with salaries of $1,400 and $1,200. It was agreed to. The amendment previously offered by Mr. Randall was lost.

The amended bill, on its third reading, was defeated. The votes were: 59 in the affirmative; 61 in the negative; 63 not voting. On the same day Mr. Upson, a Republican of Michigan, moved to reconsider the vote.

On June 19, Mr. Garfield, in moving to call up the motion by Mr. Upson to reconsider the bill, said: "Mr. Speaker, as the House is aware, this bill, when under consideration here, was amended so as to provide for a department, instead of a bureau. I am willing, if unanimous consent be given, that the name be changed, and that this shall be called a bureau instead of a department." Objection being raised by Mr. Randall, Mr. Garfield replied that the change could be made in the Senate.

Mr. Ancona, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, moved that the motion to reconsider

(*Continued on page 123*)

# A Million Voices of Democracy

## The National Winners

Adelaide Nacamu, Peekskill, N. Y.

YOUNG AMERICANS in the Nation's 30,000 public, private, and parochial high schools—one million strong—spoke out for our country's cherished ideals in the 1952–53 Voice of Democracy Contest.

Through radio, television, and the press, the utterances of these high school students reached many more millions not only in the United States but in many other lands where freedom-loving peoples do not enjoy the same type of privileges guaranteed citizens under our representative form of government.

Local, State, and national judgings were climaxed by the selection of four coequal national winners. From California, New York, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia, these national winners were brought to the White House where they talked with President Eisenhower. They were guests of sponsoring groups, and national leaders in government in the Capital City and in Williamsburg, Va., "the cradle of democracy."

Presiding at a special Awards Luncheon, Earl James McGrath, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, introduced the contest winners. The Honorable Margaret Chase Smith, United States Senator from Maine, presented to them $500 college scholarships as the top prizes for their winning presentations.

The national winners were Frank Lammedee, 17, of South Pasadena High School, San Marino, Calif.; Thomas J. Walsh, 17, Gonzaga High School, Washington, D. C.; Robert Davis, 17, Maui High School, Haiku, Maui, Hawaii; and Adelaide Nacamu, 14, Peekskill High School, Peekskill, N. Y.

Sponsors of this annual contest are the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, the Radio-Television Manufacturers Association, and the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce. The contest is endorsed by the U. S. Office of Education, and is approved by the contest board of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

The presentations of the four national winners are published in full for SCHOOL LIFE readers.

### Adelaide Nacamu, Peekskill H. S., Peekskill, N. Y.

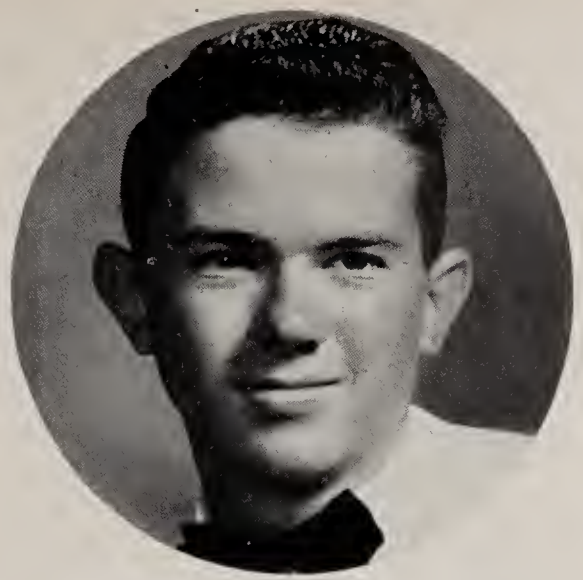
"There are some things that a person never forgets. One of my most unforgettable memories goes back approximately three years. You see, three years ago I became a citizen of this country under my own name. I had actually become a citizen prior to that time, but it was under my father's name due to the fact that I was a minor.

"Becoming a citizen is quite an honor. I can still see the room in the Bureau of Naturalization and Immigration with the chairs all filled with people from foreign lands seeking citizenship in their adopted country. I can remember the thrill when the officer called out my name, and I can still feel the lump rising in my throat when I meekly answered to it. I stood there entranced. As I placed my hand over my heart and pledged allegiance to the flag the words took on a new significance. I had said those words over and over again in school, but today they meant something new. Now as I say, 'I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands,' I feel as if these lines were written just for me—and they were! They were written for me and for every other American citizen.

"After I again raised my hand and pledged to support the Constitution and obey the laws of the land, it was all over. And as I left the building, I felt a strange feeling creep over me. It was the feeling of Equality. No longer was I a foreigner in the United States. I had all the rights and privileges of the other citizens. Bestowed upon me, however, was the weight of freedoms, because I now owed the United States something. I owed my loyalty in payment for these freedoms. It was, and still is, my duty to exercise my privileges. I found that some people have the wrong idea about American democracy. Many of us think that democracy is supposed to give us certain rights and liberties—for free. But to me this is not the way democracy works. In our democracy every right has its obligations and responsibilities. Anyone who claims his rights without also assuming his responsibilities is taking something that does not really belong to him. What we call 'rights' aren't actually rights at all. They are Privileges. They are granted with the understanding that they will be treated as privileges—or else will be forfeited. Yet, the way we sometimes abuse our privileges is something to be ashamed of. We seldom hesitate about accepting our 'rights' as a matter of course—in fact some people go about demanding them, but when it comes to the responsibilities involved—well, we're just too apt to let others worry about them.

"For every privilege there is an obligation. A child is thrilled with the privilege of receiving an allowance, but is saddened at the thought that 5% of it must go into the bank each week. Another example is that of a young man, who at the age of 21

Thomas J. Walsh, Washington, D. C.



Robert Davis, Paia, Maui, Hawaii

Frank Lammedee, San Marino, Calif.

receives the privilege of casting his vote. At that time he becomes obligated to know the candidates for office, become acquainted with their platform, learn the issues, and then votes as he sees fit.

"Heading the privileges my country gives me are the right to express my personal opinion, the right to write what I think, and to worship in the way I believe. Because only through these rights can my country grow in knowledge and strength.

"I am, as is every American, proud and happy to be able to be of some service to the United States, because the reward is tremendous. Yet, I try never to belittle other countries, since they are important to the success and happiness of our own.

"Since that day, three years ago when I became a citizen, I have been and still am proud to say that I am an American, and that is why, I speak for Democracy."

## Frank Lammedee, South Pasadena H. S., San Marino, Calif.

"One of the hardest questions that I ever had to answer pertains to the very subject I'm speaking to you about now. It came from a dark, curly-haired Italian boy who had long been intrigued at the fantastic Russian propaganda concerning the American democratic system of government. Naturally, Christo had many misunderstandings about America's democracy. But his basic lack lay in his inability to understand the word, democracy.

" 'Americans, I know them, I have seen them; but this democracy I do not know. I have not seen it. You will tell me, please, what it means.'

"I looked at Christo without speaking for a few moments, for I was at a loss for words. But then I proceeded to stumble through the text-book, school room definition of democracy: 'It was a government of the people, by the people, for the people,' I told Christo. 'A government where everyone is free to act and think as they please within certain necessary limitations. Under such a government, one enjoys the right of free speech, free press, free religion, and free assembly, insured by a constitution handed down from our forefathers who fought for a land where men and women the world over could enjoy these rights which are basic desires of all men.' That was it. That was all I could tell Christo of a democracy I had lived in for seventeen years.

"Christo nodded, saying, 'Oh! Now I understand. Now I see.' But I knew by his puzzled look and dubious tone of voice that I had failed to tell Christo what a *real* democracy is.

"Those gatherings after school at the nearby soda-fountain to talk over a day's activities. That's what I forgot to tell Christo. The hours spent at the public library doing research for the first interscholastic debate. The long, hard days of football practice in anticipation of the first big game; and then the thrill of watching the home-town team score in the final quarter to bring victory and glory to the school. Oh yes, I can't forget school—the chance to receive a free education which is the one thing no man can take from another.

"And Gee! There's Dad. Boy! Did we have some great pack trips up to the mountains for fishing and hunting. Of course, the greatest fun is always in telling Mom and the gang about the big one that got away. That before-breakfast morning paper in which we read about praise and criticism that our Federal administration is receiving—is something we seldom think about. Then once every four years, as the speculation of who will next sit in our White House arises, the people send forth their verdict amid the tumult of political campaigning. Yes, it is *people* that make a democracy.

"Yet, it is more. For then comes Sunday—the day when Dad leaves his crowded desk at the office, the neighbor next door puts aside his carpenter's tools, Mom leaves the household work until another day, public officials lay aside the pressing demands of office, and one-and-all go to the church of their faith to pay homage to the One, the Almighty, from whose hand the living democracy we enjoy, flows. For wherein is the guiding philosophy of democracy, if not in the deep, human understanding of mankind found in Christianity. For as the 'salt is lost if it loseth its savor,' so is democracy lost if it loses sight of the ideal upon which its foundations rest—that ideal being the will of God as enacted in the lives of men.

"Democracy is more than a word definable in so many words. It is rather a living truth that emanates from the hearts of freedom-loving men the world over. It is a government in which there is moral integrity and self-sacrifice on the part of every citizen as well as those in public office. Mom's hope for a new dress, Tommy's excitement at winning that scholarship to college, Dad's elation over that new raise, and Sis's worry for her boy friend, Bob, serving overseas. All of these are as much a part of a vital, living democracy as is political

principle. Yes! Hope, opportunity, anxiety, and success are all the fruits of a *real* democracy. *These* are the rewards of free men, Christo, and *this* is why today *I speak for democracy*."

## Thomas J. Walsh, Gonzaga H. S., Washington, D. C.

"'Turn back—turn back' chattered the machine gun. 'Back to America—Back.'

"And then there was silence—Jan Jablonski listened. Jacob Stein raised his head. Phil Johnson strained his eyes to see the place from which the burst had come.

"Silence—over Iron Horse Mountain on a peninsula called Korea. The wind blew—and with the wind came a Voice—A Voice which cried 'Liberty!' 'Freedom!' 'Democracy!' Jan Jablonski heard and remembered a steel mill in Pennsylvania—the church of Saint Stanislaus—his place in the line on Election Day.

"Jacob Stein listened and thought of a grocery store in the Bronx—the Synagogue on the Sabbath—Yankee Stadium and the Series.

"Phil Johnson heard and he could smell the sweat of men lifting cotton bales onto trucks in Georgia—he could hear the sound of the congregation in the little church singing his favorite spiritual—he heard a melancholy trumpet retelling the blues.

"The Voice spoke, and it talked proudly of the Declaration of Independence, of the Magna Carta, of a tall, thin man who told his people one November day that Government of the people, by the people and for the people shall not perish from the earth. The Voice speaks of a man from Monticello, Virginia, who wrote that all men are created free and equal. It tells of the days when it was young—that was in the year 500 Before Christ when the Grecians coined a new word meaning the rule of the people and put it into practice. Since that time many have heard the Voice, others have not—Philip of Macedon silenced it—Julius Caesar stilled it. Recently Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler tried to put the Voice out of existence, but they themselves were the ones who passed away. Today Communism is trying to still the Voice, but it cries out to modern man—'You have been made by God. You have not been created for the State—rather the State has been created for you. You were never made to be slaves, nor were you made to be masters.'

"Throughout the centuries, men have given their lives so that their posterity might also hear the Voice.

"On Iron Horse Mountain three of these men sit and wait. They are Protestant, Catholic and Jew. They are white and Negro. Their ancestors have come from Israel, Africa and Poland. They are all Americans. They listen to the wind and the Voice.

"Somewhere ahead of them the machine gun chatters once more, 'Turn Back!' 'Turn Back!' They answer the challenge with a burst of fire.

"The Voice speaks again. But this time it addresses itself to Heaven and says—'As You died to make men holy—so they die to make men free.' And from beyond the stars another Voice answers—a Voice which sounds strangely like—The Voice of Democracy."

## Robert Davis, Maui H. S., Maui, Hawaii

"It was on a Sunday. It started out like any other Sunday, I guess. I got up, ate breakfast, and got ready for church just as I have been doing on Sundays for as long as I can remember. Then I went out the door into the most glorious morning you ever wanted to see. The sun was shining, the birds were singing and everything was beautiful.

"I don't know, maybe I'm just sentimental or something but such a morning always makes me start to think and become aware of the things around me.

"Since it was time to leave, I climbed into my dilapidated Model A Ford and as I stepped on the starter, I thought, 'Gosh, I'm pretty lucky to own this car. It isn't much of a car, but I went to work and earned the money to buy it. And you know, I was free to do that. Nobody told me that I couldn't work where I chose. Nobody denied me the right to own a car.' Then I began to think, 'I wonder what it is that gives me this freedom . . . I wonder . . .'

"I started out and on my way to church I met Manuel and Ralph in Ralph's jeep. I waved. and after they had passed, I began to think about them (you know how you always do when you have just met someone you know) and I remembered that Manuel was a Catholic and Ralph was a Buddhist. And here I was on my way to a Protestant church. It was then I began to realize what it means to us here in Ameriea to be free to worship in any way we please whenever we please. I suddenly felt personally grateful to those early American Settlers who came to this country and established the right of free worship. Again I began to wonder—to wonder what it is that those early settlers gave us which in turn insures us that we can continue to have that freedom of worship which they fought and suffered for.

"After church, as we stood around outside talking, I saw many people; ordinary people like you and me. But this morning I began to think of things which I hadn't paid much attention to before. Things deeper than outward appearances.

"Over there was Mr. Warner for example; he had come from a humble background and by his own efforts had made quite a success of himself in local business.

"Then I waved to Mr. Itagawa. He had come here as a laborer from Japan and was now a successful farmer.

"About that time Dick hailed me to tell me the news. He had been awarded a scholarship which would allow him to continue his education.

These are examples of what our people are able to accomplish all over Ameriea. For the first time I became fully aware of the unlimited opportunities we have of making a suecess of our lives. Again I wondered what it is that gives us all this.

"Sunday was quite a busy day for me because that evening I went to a meeting of our church Young People's group. At the meeting we were having a discussion on American government, past and present. As we talked and argued, I could see that here was another thing that we have . . . the right to speak freely. As the discussion progressed, I began to see the answer to what I had been wondering about all day. It dawned on me that it was nothing new to any of us but was something that I was just beginning to see in a new light.

"We talked of George Washington, Molly Pitcher, Benjamin Franklin, Abraham Lincoln . . . great Americans who had done great things for a common ideal.

"We mentioned Mr. Mitchel who lost a leg on Saipan, and Dick's father who gave his life in World War II and Harry Nelson who only the week before had been listed as missing in action in Korea. Americans like you and me who have done their small

(*Continued on page 126*)

## To Promote The Cause of Education

(*Continued from page 119*)

be laid on the table, which was lost, whereupon Mr. Randall endeavored to have the bill recommitted, but without success. "I desire," he said, "that this bill be recommitted, so that it may be amended in the manner proposed by me when it was heretofore under consideration; that is, so as to provide that the educational matters shall be under the control of the Secretary of the Interior, with 2 or 3 additional clerks, sufficient to perform the duties contemplated."

Mr. Garfield, in reply, said: "I offered to consent to an amendment of the bill, so as to provide for a bureau instead of a department; but the gentleman from Pennsylvania objected. I trust the bill will not be recommitted; for if that be done, it cannot be reached again this session. If the House should pass the bill in its present form, the committee will endeavor, and will no doubt be able, to secure in the Senate an amendment providing for a bureau to be under the control of the Secretary of the Interior * * *."

Mr. Dawes, a Republican of Massachusetts, said he desired to vote for the bill, but he thought it should be recommitted to the end that the basis upon which it stood might be enlarged. To this suggestion Mr. Garfield replied:

"I know the object the gentleman seeks to accomplish, and I would cheerfully unite with him in accomplishing it if it were now practicable. I should be glad to see the Bureau of Agriculture consolidated with this and a general bureau of statistics added, but I do not believe the House would consent to it at this time. If gentlemen are unwilling to pass the pending proposition they would be still more unwilling to enact a more comprehensive measure.

"We ask the passage of this bill, which provides for a commissioner and three clerks for the purpose mentioned in the first section, at the earnest request of the school commissioners of several of the States. It is an interest that has no lobby to press its claims. It is the voice of the children of the land, asking us to give them all the blessings of our civilization. I hope that the instinct which has moved the other side of the House to vote solidly against this liberal and progressive measure will at least induce this side to save it from defeat."

The motion to reconsider the bill was decided in the affirmative, the yeas being 76, the nays 48; not voting 58. The bill was then passed by a vote of 80 yeas to 44 nays, with 58 members not voting.

### *The Senate Passes the Bill*

In the Senate the bill passed by the House of Representatives was referred to the standing Committee on the Judiciary, of which Senator Trumbull, a Republican of Illinois, was chairman, to determine whether there was any legal or constitutional obstacle that might militate against its passage. It was reported back at the next session, without amendment, and with a recommendation that it pass.

The bill came up in the Senate on February 26, 1867. Senator Trumbull made the opening address in favor of the measure. Senator Conness, a Republican of California, objected to the use of the word "department," on the ground that the head of a department is entitled to a seat in the President's Cabinet, and thought it a misnomer to give such a designation to an establishment which was to have 2 or 3 clerks. Consequently, he moved to amend the bill by striking out the word "department" wherever it occurred and substituting therefor the word "bureau."

### *A Center for Education*

Senator Trumbull, in reply, contended that there was no law that made the head of a department a cabinet officer. He remarked that one reason for calling the projected office a department was because the head of it might select and appoint his own clerks. "If it is a bureau," he said, "you cannot confer that power upon him. The Constitution authorizes Congress to vest the appointment of inferior officers in the heads of departments but not in the heads of bureaus." He deprecated the amendment offered by his colleagues, because if it should prevail, it would be necessary to make other amendments in the bill and involve the necessity of sending it back to the House of Representatives. "I regard this bill," he declared, "as one of great importance to this country. It is particularly important now. If peace and harmony are ever to be established among the people of this Republic we must educate them; and now, in the disorganized state of Southern society, when all their schools have been broken up for years, and a generation is growing up without education, it is important that we have some head to this educational interest in the country. The Nation has done a great deal for education. In all the new States we have appropriated a section of land in every new township for that purpose. We have also donated large tracts of land for seminary purposes and for agricultural colleges. The Nation has been doing much to educate the children of the land. But, sir, we have no head to this. No means have been devised by which the improvements in science and education may be brought together and disseminated throughout the land."

Senator Sumner, a Republican of Massachusetts, speaking briefly, said: "I am unwilling that this bill should be embarrassed by any question of words. I am for the bill in its substance, whatever words may be employed. Call it a bureau if you please, or call it a department; I accept it under either designation."

Senator Howard, a Republican of Michigan, stated that he would vote for the measure, but thought that the term "department" as used in the bill, was rather an "unconstitutional application of the word"; and hoped, therefore, that the slight amendment of Senator Conness would be made. "It cannot delay the passage of the bill," he remarked, "for I am quite sure the House will at once concur in what is merely a correction of the designation of the officer."

Senator Yates, a Republican of Illinois, expressed the opinion that the bill would pass, and that it ought to pass. "I think," he said, "it will produce beneficial results to the Nation, now and hereafter, through all the future history of the Government * * *. We need a center for our educational system; and I do not know that I should have said one word upon this subject but for the fact that a very distinguished citizen of Great Britain, upon a visit to our State Capital at Springfield, Ill., made the statement to me that he could not ascertain the statistics of education in the United States. He could obtain the reports of the superintendents of schools of the various States, but he could obtain no reliable data or statistics of the educational position of the United States. We want this as a central department to which the reports of the various superintendents of schools of the

respective States shall be made, so that we shall have collective information of all the systems of schools in all the States, which we may see at a glance, and which may be distributed and sent back to the States, with the collective wisdom of all these State institutions, for the benefit of the people."

Other senators who advocated enactment of the bill were: Dixon of Connecticut, Howe of Wisconsin, and Stewart of Nevada, all Republicans; and Norton, a Union Conservative of Minnesota. Opposing statements were made by Davis of Kentucky, Hendricks of Indiana, and Saulsbury of Delaware, all Democrats.

On February 28 the amendment by Senator Conness to strike out the word "department" wherever it occurred in the bill, and to insert the word "bureau" in its place, was rejected. Senator Conness further proposed to amend the bill to give the Secretary of the Interior the power, upon nomination of the Commissioner of Education, to appoint the clerks of the Department of Education, but this move also failed.

The bill was then passed without a division. On March 1 a motion to reconsider the matter was defeated by a vote of 7 to 28, 17 members being absent.

### The Act Signed

When the bill was sent to President Johnson there were indications that he would likely veto it. Mr. Garfield at once telegraphed to Henry Barnard, who was then President of St. John's College at Annapolis, Maryland, to "Come over and attend to bill. It is going to be vetoed." Barnard came to Washington and asked Senator Dixon to intercede with the President for the bill. Apparently this action got results, for on March 2, 1867, President Johnson signed the bill.

### The Act

The text of the organic act creating the department is as follows:

"An Act To Establish a Department of Education (Approved March 2, 1867).

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established, at the city of Washington, a department of education, for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

"Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, a Commissioner of Education, who shall be intrusted with the management of the department herein established, and who shall receive a salary of $4,000 per annum, and who shall have authority to appoint 1 chief clerk of his department, who shall receive a salary of $2,000 per annum, 1 clerk who shall receive a salary of $1,800 per annum, and 1 clerk who shall receive a salary of $1,600 per annum, which said clerks shall be subject to the appointing and removing powers of the Commissioner of Education.

"Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, That it shall be the duty of the Commissioner of Education to present annually to Congress a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which this department is established. In the first report made by the Commissioner of Education under this act, there shall be presented a statement of the several grants of land made by Congress to promote education, and the manner in which these several trusts have been managed, the amount of funds arising therefrom, and the annual proceeds of the same, as far as the same can be determined.

"Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, That the Commissioner of Public Buildings is hereby authorized and directed to furnish proper offices for the use of the department herein established."

**(The second and concluding part of Dr. Blauch's historical review of the Office of Education will appear in the June, 1953 issue of SCHOOL LIFE.)**

## What Freedom Means in American Education

*(Continued from inside front cover)*

history, or of teaching and learning any other useful skill or knowledge, our schools are free to put such suggestions to the experimental test. Local control of schools has been an exceedingly important factor in safeguarding this phase of freedom for our schools.

This second aspect of educational freedom, like the first, has not gone unchallenged. Our schools are criticized from time to time because they do feel free to try new teaching methods, new arrangements of subject matter, or new mechanical aids to teaching and to learning.

3. There is a third respect in which we can apply the adjective "free" to American schools. We want our schools to be free not only in economic terms and not only in terms of ability to try new methods. We also boast of education that is free in terms of the freedom of the mind. We have regarded our American schools as instruments for presenting varied points of view, and for giving practice in the evaluation of evidence and in the reaching of rational conclusions. We have looked upon our schools as a means of protecting our citizens from bias rather than as a means for indoctrinating the young. For that reason, our schools at their best indoctrinate only in the principles of freedom themselves.

This third aspect of freedom, too, is under attack today in ways that are well-known.

The priceless heritage in American education is freedom. Freedom in all respects of that powerful word. The teaching profession in this country will do its utmost to keep education free in the economic sense, free in ability to adapt, and free in the right and the duty to develop attitudes and standards of critical thought and civic responsibility. The teaching profession can no more take any other attitude than the medical profession could try to make people ill.

Other countries of the world have achieved in varying degrees each of the three aspects of freedom in education. Many countries, including many of the dictatorships, have a substantial amount of free schooling in the economic sense. Nearly all countries have been willing to consider new methods of education if they gave promise of achieving desirable results. The unique character of freedom in American education, as contrasted with that of

*(Continued on page 126)*

# The Office of Education

## ITS ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS—III

THIS is the third in the series of articles for SCHOOL LIFE readers on the organization and functions of the Office of Education.

The first article in the series appeared in the February 1953 issue of SCHOOL LIFE, and the second was published in the March issue of SCHOOL LIFE.

A description of the work of the Division of Higher Education, Division of Vocational Education, Division of School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas, and Division of International Education, is presented in this article.

### DIVISION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

#### Office of Assistant Commissioner

Coordinates and supervises the division program. Formulates plans, policies, and procedures. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in the field of higher education.

#### General and Liberal Education Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of curriculum and instructional services in the fields of general and liberal education in institutions of higher education. Furnishes advisory services and maintains professional relationships in this area.

#### Professional Education Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of curriculum and instruction in the fields of professional education in the institutions of higher education. Furnishes advisory services and maintains professional relationships in this area.

#### College and University Administration Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of administration and supervision in institutions of higher education. Discharges obligations relating to land-grant colleges and universities, Howard University, and Columbia Institution for the Deaf. Furnishes advisory services and maintains professional relationships in this area.

### DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

#### Office of Assistant Commissioner

Coordinates and supervises the division program. Leads in the development of policies, plans, and procedures for administering the Federal vocational education acts. Cooperates with States in developing an over-all vocational education program. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in field of vocational education.

#### Agricultural Education Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of vocational education in agriculture and cooperates in the administration of vocational education. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

#### Distributive Education Branch [1]

Studies and promotes the improvement of vocational education in the distributive occupations and cooperates in the administration of vocational education. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

#### Home Economics Education Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of vocational education in home economics and cooperates in the administration of vocational education. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

#### Trade and Industrial Education Branch

Studies and promotes the improvement of vocational education in trades and industry and cooperates in the administration of vocational education. Provides advisory services to and maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations in this area.

### DIVISION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

#### Office of Assistant Commissioner

Coordinates and supervises the division program. Leads in the development of plans, policies, and procedures. Maintains relationships with public and private agencies and organizations.

[1] Shown as a branch for functional purposes only. Reduced funds have resulted in staff reduction in this service. Hence, remaining staff report directly to the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education.

#### Administrative Branch

Furnishes staff assistance in organization and management of division's programs and coordination of their administrative aspects; develops and controls division budget; administers personnel, travel, fiscal, clerical, and service activities of the division.

#### Comparative Education Branch

Conducts research and publishes reports on foreign educational systems; assists American institutions in evaluation of foreign educational credentials; advises in development of foreign educational programs and in approval of veterans training abroad. Provides liaison between Office of Education and UNESCO and other international agencies on educational matters; services requests for materials. Promotes development of international understanding through educational channels; selects or prepares for distribution or exchange, materials on education in United States and foreign countries.

#### Program Development and Review Branch

Develops and maintains liaison with appropriate governmental and nongovernmental agencies and organizations. Coordinates Office assistance in development of programs of education appropriate to the needs of foreign countries. Provides for preparation or review of position papers relating to education. Performs staff work and undertakes special projects necessary to enable the director to administer the educational programs of the division and to utilize professional competencies of the Office of Education.

#### Educational Missions Service Branch

Provides staffing service to Point IV educational activities; recruits specialists and teachers for recommendation to Mutual Security Agency and appointment by the Office of Education for Technical Cooperation Administration; plans professional orientation of TCA appointees. Assists Point IV agencies in negotiating contracts with U. S. educational institutions. Coordinates for the Office provision of technical evaluation or "backstopping" for TCA and MSA; obtains professional advice or evaluation on education programs, equipment, and materials as requested.

### Leader and Specialist Programs Branch

Plans field programs for foreign leaders, specialists, and U. N. Fellows visiting U. S. educational institutions, under Government programs. Assists foreign leaders and specialists who are not on Government programs in obtaining information on American education. Provides consultative services to non-Governmental agencies interested in exchange programs for leaders and specialists in the field of education. Assists Department of State in the recruitment of U. S. education specialists for short term assignments abroad (3 to 6 months).

### Teacher Programs Branch

Plans programs for foreign teachers and trainees under P. L. 584 (79th Congress), P. L. 402 (80th Congress), P. L. 265 (81st Congress), and for TCA and MSA. Arranges for matching and placement of American and foreign teachers on interchange assignments. Recruits American teachers for placement in specific positions in foreign countries under P. L. 402 and P. L. 584. Arranges for placement and exchange of Latin American and American graduate students in colleges and universities.

## First Meeting of Vocational Education Committee

Those attending the first committee meeting are shown in the photograph. Left to right: Galen Jones, Director, Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch, Office of Education; M. N. Stratton, Director, Division of Vocational Educational, Boston, Mass.; James H. Pearson, Field Representative, Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education; Joseph R. Strobel, Assistant Commissioner, Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education; Lewis A. Wilson, Commissioner of Education, Albany, N. Y.; Dean M. Schweickhard, Commissioner of Education, St. Paul, Minn.; Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner, Division of State and Local School Systems, Office of Education; Earl J. McGrath, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, Office of Education; Dowell J. Howard, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richmond, Va.; Pearl A. Wanamaker, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Wash.; C. M. Miller, Director, State Board of Vocational Education, Topeka, Kans.; J. Warren Smith, State Director, Vocational Education, Raleigh, N. C.; Mark Nichols, Director, Vocational Education, Salt Lake City, Utah.

THE FIRST meeting of the National Committee for the Further Development and Improvement of Vocational Education was held recently in the U. S. Office of Education.

Announcing appointment of this committee to chief State school officers, the Commissioner of Education said, "The Chief State school officers on several occasions have expressed their desire to have such an advisory committee named to review vocational education and to make recommendations for its further development and improvement."

The first meeting of the Committee was devoted to discussions of: the historical setting of vocational education, changes in American life which have an impact on the further development and improvement of vocational education, concept of vocational education in this mid-century period, principles of operation which have proven to be sound through the years and identification of problems which have a bearing on the further development and improvement of vocational education.

Future meetings of this Committee will be reported in SCHOOL LIFE.

## The High Calling of Teachers

(*Continued from page 114*)

the individual. They encourage a liberal and progressive education and political philosophy. These principles are neither outworn by time nor exhausted by use.

***Indoctrination.***—Education for the preservation of these American principles of freedom is the antithesis of indoctrination as it exists under totalitarian governments. Instruction in these principles of freedom tends to keep the power in the hands of the people, which is the reverse of totalitarianism. Education concerning the ideals and fundamental principles of the constitutional system is an investment in liberty and security. Education along this line tends to make dictatorship or totalitarianism impossible from within, and thus safeguards freedom from government itself. Education for freedom under our principles of government insures freedom from State indoctrination as to any ideology of government—except the ideology of American freedom itself.

## Freedom in Education

(*Continued from page 124*)

the dictatorships, is its intellectual freedom.

The newspaper writers of the Nation and the educators have common cause. Freedom of the press is essentially freedom to present and interpret facts having a bearing upon human behavior. When you interview a representative of the schools or colleges, you ask for the full story. We try to give it to you. You present it fairly and accurately. We appreciate your objectivity. Educators also try to report and interpret to their students with the same objectivity. We ask of you the fullest measure of support for the exercise in the classrooms of the same freedom you practice in the pages of your newspaper.

## Voices of Democracy

(*Continued from page 122*)

part for the same great ideal. Yes, then I saw what it is that gives us freedom to work, worship and speak, that gives us opportunity to learn and become a success. Then I saw what that Ideal is that so many Americans have fought, prayed and died for. Yes, I knew that the answer was and always will be, God willing, our wonderful heritage . . . Democracy. And I realized that everything that had happened to me that day had truly been speaking for democracy.

# Expenditures for Education in Various Sizes of School Districts

By Clayton D. Hutchins* and Albert R. Munse†

PEOPLE PREFER to send their children to large graded schools where more and better services are available. Teachers and administrators consider it a promotion to advance to larger districts where there is a broader base for school support and where larger budgets prevail.

These general statements are supported by some figures which have recently been assembled by the Office of Education and a part of which are included in summary form in the accompanying tabulation. Very rarely are summaries listing these items of information and segregated by size of school district available for review. The figures are quite comprehensive and include information for all of the pupils and classrooms in the Continental United States.

## For Each District

Reports were received from all State departments of education which listed all school administrative units that operated schools during the 1949–50 school year, and which gave essential facts about pupils, staffs, and expenditures. The average expenditure per classroom unit was calculated for each school district. Districts were then grouped into the 12 size categories listed in the table. Size refers to the numbers of pupils in average daily attendance and is not associated with areas in square miles, or other measures of size.

The 63,277 districts in the total of column 2 are considered to include 100 percent of the districts of the Nation that operate classrooms. Other summaries on total numbers of districts for the same year are about 20,000 greater, but among them are approximately 3,000 supervisory districts that do not operate classrooms and do not pay the salaries of classroom teachers. Also, among them are an additional 17,000 school districts which have boards of education, but which operate no schools. They send their few pupils across the boundaries to attend schools operated by neighboring districts. Their pupils were reported in the average daily attendance figures of the districts of attendence.

Included in the data for this special study of school expenditure levels were 22,271,132 pupils which represent about 99.94 percent of the 22,284,000 reported by the Office of Education as the official average daily attendance for the 1949–50 school year.

Numbers of classroom units shown for each group are not the actual numbers of classrooms or of teachers. Classroom units were calculated for each school district upon the basis of the reported average daily attendance figures, allowing 27 pupils per classroom unit in the elementary grades and 25 per unit in grades 9 to 12. For both elementary and high-school grades, allowances were also made in terms of additional classroom units where smaller numbers of pupils attend schools in sparsely settled areas.

Figures for the small school districts having from 1 to 19 pupils are included in the lowest row of the table. This row summarizes significant data for about 40 percent of the Nation's school districts. The proportion of districts appears substantial but the numbers of pupils are small. They had only 1.31 percent of the pupils and they expended about 1.58 percent of the total expenditures applicable to classrooms. As indicated in column 10, they expended an average of $2,516 per classroom unit for the 1949–50 school year. This was lower than the average for the classrooms of any other district size.

## Expenditures

The smallest districts had the lowest expenditures per classroom unit, but they had expenditures per pupil that were higher than for any other district size category, except for those with 40,000 or more pupils. The expenditures per pupil are listed for the size groups, in column 12. In all of these expenditure figures, were included only those items of current expense which were closely associated with the operation of classrooms. Amounts paid for transporting pupils, for tuition to neighboring school districts, and for capital outlay or debt service were not included.

A comprehensive impression of the levels of support for the classrooms of the Nation may be obtained from the figures in column 10. These average expenditures range from $2,516 for the districts having 1 to 19 pupils to $6,161 for those having 40,000 or more pupils. The salary of the teacher is usually about 70 percent of the expenditure per classroom. At this rate, average salaries would range from $1,761 to $4,313. On a monthly basis for the calendar year, these are equivalent to $147 to $359.

Average expenditures per classroom unit increased steadily from small to large districts, with a slight break in the trend appearing for districts having from 1,500 to 7,000 pupils. For these districts, the average is lower than might have been expected in view of average expenditures for both smaller and larger districts. Lower averages in this range were produced by large numbers of county school districts which are usually in this range and which are typically in the Southern States where expenditures for education are somewhat lower than average.

*Specialist in School Finance.
†Research Assistant, Division of State and Local School Systems.

This relationship between size of district and expenditure level, noted in column 10, is definitely associated with the financial abilities of school districts to support education. In general, progressively larger districts have more substantial financial support and are better able to finance the more complete educational program.

Expenditures per pupil given in column 12 do not show the same trend as the expenditures per classroom unit. For the larger districts having more than 3,000 pupils, the per pupil expenditures appear to go along with the expenditures per classroom unit and district size, but for those having less than 3,000 pupils there is a reversal in this trend. In general, the per pupil expenditures for these smaller districts, increase, as the expenditures per classroom and the size of the districts decrease. A possible explanation for this reversed trend is to be found in column 11 showing the numbers of pupils per classroom unit. Districts having fewer pupils are not able to assign the optimum numbers of pupils to the classrooms and they are required to operate many classes with only a few pupils. More than the normal numbers of teachers are required and the numbers of pupils per classroom unit decrease to an average of 11.2 for districts having only 1 to 19 pupils. The smaller numbers of pupils account for the higher expenditures per pupil. Expenditures per classroom unit decrease but the expenditure per pupil rises.

School administrative units in the top three rows number only 372 and amount to only half of 1 percent of the districts of the Nation, but they had about 35 percent of the children. They were responsible for about 40 percent of the funds expended for education, and they supported their classrooms at an average near $5,400 for the 1949–50 school year. These districts had slightly more than 25 pupils per classroom unit, as they were calculated for the study, and expended an average of about $213 per pupil.

Districts grouped in the lowest three rows include those having fewer than 100 pupils. These accounted for 69 percent of the districts of the Nation, but had only 5 percent of the children and supported classrooms at an average of about $3,000. They had an average of about 16 pupils per classroom unit, as these units were calculated for the study, and expended about $190 per pupil for the year. On a per-pupil basis, it appears that the small districts are expending almost as much as large districts with more complete programs of education.

Space does not permit more extensive interpretation of the figures in the table, but other comparisons will be evident to administrators as they note the categories of school districts in which they have served and consider characteristics of the groups of districts with reference to pupils, classrooms, expenditures, and other data presented.

## President Eisenhower's Picture

We are proud to present to SCHOOL LIFE readers as a special insert in this issue a photograph of President Dwight D. Eisenhower which he inscribed "To the teachers and pupils of the United States."

The President wrote this special inscription on a photograph by Muray, New York City, for reproduction and issuance in SCHOOL LIFE to answer the many letters reaching the White House and the Office of Education from school children and teachers requesting an autographed photograph for their classrooms.

Produced by the Government Printing Office, the President's picture is suitable for framing.

Additional copies of SCHOOL LIFE with the special Presidential picture insert are available at the usual single copy price of 15 cents per issue from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Dwight D. Eisenhower is the third President of the United States to inscribe a photograph to the school children of the nation and their teachers—for distribution as an insert in SCHOOL LIFE, official monthly journal of the Office of Education. Franklin D. Roosevelt did so when he was the Chief Executive, and Harry S. Truman inscribed a photograph likewise in 1949 which appeared as an insert in the December 1949 issue of SCHOOL LIFE. The Roosevelt-inscribed photograph was an insert in December, 1934 SCHOOL LIFE.

## Distribution of Districts, Pupils, Classroom Units, and Expenditures Among School Districts of Various Sizes, 1949–50

| Size of administrative units in terms of average daily attendance | School districts | | Average daily attendance | | Classroom units | | Current expense of classrooms | | Average expenditure per classroom unit | Average daily attendance per classroom unit | Expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Amount | Percent | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Continental United States | 63,277 | 100.00 | 22,271,132 | 100.00 | 926,084 | 100.00 | $4,143,857,951 | 100.00 | $4,475 | 24.0 | $186.06 |
| 40,000 and up | 34 | .05 | 3,426,742 | 15.38 | 133,485 | 14.41 | 822,350,340 | 19.85 | 6,161 | 25.7 | 239.98 |
| 16,000–39,999 | 74 | .12 | 1,816,986 | 8.16 | 71,544 | 7.73 | 366,453,405 | 8.84 | 5,122 | 25.4 | 201.68 |
| 7,000–15,999 | 264 | .42 | 2,485,497 | 11.16 | 99,116 | 10.70 | 455,878,343 | 11.00 | 4,599 | 25.1 | 183.42 |
| 3,000–6,999 | 854 | 1.35 | 3,803,468 | 17.08 | 154,388 | 16.67 | 625,735,353 | 15.10 | 4,053 | 24.6 | 164.52 |
| 1,500–2,999 | 1,360 | 2.15 | 2,804,723 | 12.59 | 113,478 | 12.25 | 472,518,132 | 11.40 | 4,164 | 24.7 | 168.47 |
| 800–1,499 | 2,136 | 3.38 | 2,322,026 | 10.43 | 94,122 | 10.16 | 405,954,526 | 9.79 | 4,313 | 24.7 | 174.83 |
| 400–799 | 4,117 | 6.51 | 2,244,849 | 10.08 | 93,300 | 10.08 | 389,454,115 | 9.40 | 4,174 | 24.1 | 173.49 |
| 200–399 | 5,317 | 8.40 | 1,514,983 | 6.80 | 65,618 | 7.09 | 263,815,435 | 6.37 | 4,020 | 23.1 | 174.14 |
| 100–199 | 5,419 | 8.56 | 781,911 | 3.51 | 35,065 | 3.79 | 140,006,672 | 3.38 | 3,993 | 22.3 | 179.06 |
| 50–99 | 5,649 | 8.93 | 402,056 | 1.81 | 19,843 | 2.14 | 72,832,821 | 1.76 | 3,670 | 20.3 | 181.15 |
| 20–49 | 12,791 | 20.21 | 376,487 | 1.69 | 20,068 | 2.17 | 63,287,272 | 1.53 | 3,154 | 18.8 | 168.10 |
| 1–19 | 25,262 | 39.92 | 291,404 | 1.31 | 26,057 | 2.81 | 65,571,537 | 1.58 | 2,516 | 11.2 | 225.02 |



U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1953

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

(*Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers*)

*Audio-Visual Materials; Their Nature and Use.* By Walter Arno Wittich and Charles Francis Schuller. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1953. 564 p. Illus. $6.00.

*The Child Entering Nursery School; A Study of Intake Principles and Procedure.* By Joseph Steinert, Edith Atkins, and Theresa Jackson. New York, Council Child Development Center, 1953. 34 p. 50 cents.

*Citizens Advisory Committees: Avenues to Better Schools; A Guidebook for Citizens Advisory Committees and Other Groups Working for Better Schools.* Albany, The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department for the Regents Council on Readjustment of High School Education, 1952. 46 p. Illus.

*Dance in Elementary Education; A Program for Boys and Girls.* By Ruth Lovell Murray. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1953. 342 p. Illus. $4.00.

*Freedom and Public Education.* Edited by Ernest O. Melby, and Morton Puner. New York, Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 1953. 314 p. $4.00.

*The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work.* 4th Edition, Revised and Enlarged. By Ruth Strang. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 491 p. $3.75.

*Science for Children and Teachers.* By Herbert S. Zim. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1953. 55 p. 75 cents.

*A Television Policy for Education.* Proceedings of the Television Programs Institute Held under the Auspices of the American Council on Education at Pennsylvania State College, April 21–24, 1952. Edited by Carroll V. Newson. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1952. 266 p. Illus. $3.50.

*What We Can Do About the Drug Menace.* By Albert Deutsch. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1952. 32 p. Illus. (Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 186.) 25 cents.

*When Peoples Speak to Peoples.* An Action Guide to International Cultural Relations for American Organizations, Institutions, and Individuals. By Harold E. Snyder. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1953. 207 p. $3.00.

*Your Health Handbook.* By Julius B. Richmond. Chicago, Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 40 p. Illus. (Junior Life Adjustment Booklet.) 40 cents.

*Youth Discussion: Patterns and Techniques.* Columbus, Ohio, Junior Town Meeting League, 1953. 32 p. (Copies are available by writing to Junior Town Meeting League, 400 S. Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio.)

# Selected Theses on Education

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THESE THESES are on file in the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*The Development of a Public Relations Program in Speech Therapy for Public Schools.* By Ruth M. FitzSimons. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 59 p. ms.

*An Evaluation of Attitudes of Fear and Confidence in Speaking Situations at the Eighth and Eleventh Grade Levels.* By Richard Matthew Emery. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 66 p. ms.

*An Exploration Into Level of Aspiration.* By Burton Meyer. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 44 p. ms.

*An Identification of the Extent of Participation in School and Community Activities of a Selected Group of Adolescents Together With an Investigation of the Possible Relationship Between Intelligence and the Holding of Major Offices Within the School.* By Carol Young Woodard. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 71 p. ms.

*The Organization of Religious Instruction in Catholic Colleges for Women.* By Sister Mary Gratia Maher. Doctor's, 1950. Catholic University of America. Washington, D. C., Catholic University of America Press, 1951. 158 p.

*Principles and Practices of Referral Between Schools and Social Agencies, With Illustrations From a Selected Locality.* By Isabel Acquarone. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 117 p. ms.

*Rorschach Test Performance of 100 Elderly Males.* By Carl O. Keil. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 50 p. ms.

*A Study of Selection and Preparation of Educational Personnel in the Field of Speech.* By George Henry Miller. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 242 p. ms.

*A Study of Tongue Agility and Hand Motility Correlated With Tongue and Hand Length as Influenced by Age, Sex, Training and Handedness.* By Mecislaus A. Orszewski. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 245 p. ms.

*A Study of Tongue Agility and Tapping Motility as Related to Nationality, Training and Handedness.* By Aubrey R. Byer. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 153 p. ms.

*A Study of Tongue Agility and Tapping Motility and Their Relationships to Handedness.* By Blase S. Thurston. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 94 p. ms.

*A Study of the Use Made of a Group of Sound Motion Pictures in Relation to the Administration of the Department of Visual and Radio Education, Rochester Public Schools.* By Paul C. Reed. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 127 p. ms.

*A Summary of Values in Hindu Education and Philosophy.* By Dona Luisa Coomaraswamy. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 104 p. ms.

*The Validity of a Teacher Administered Rating Chart for Talks at the Secondary Level.* By John Wyman Crawford. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 62 p. ms.

# EDUCATIONAL AIDS From Your Government

**HOW TO ORDER**

**Free publications listed on this page are available in limited supply only and should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them. Publications to be purchased should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., unless otherwise indicated.**

Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

## Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

**The Child—December 1952.** The December 1952 issue of **The Child**, monthly publication of the Children's Bureau, is devoted to eight important articles on juvenile delinquency. 15 cents.

**Children with Impaired Hearing.** Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1952. 15 cents.

**Directory of State and Territorial Health Authorities—1952.** Public Health Service, Bureau of State Services, Division of State Grants. PHS Publication No. 75, revised 1952. 20 cents.

**Illness and Health Services in an Aging Population.** Public Health Service, Division of Public Health Methods. PHS Publication No. 170, 1952. 25 cents.

**Services for Children.** How Title V of the Social Security Act benefits children. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1952. Free.

## Office of Education

**Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815—Second Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1952.** 55 cents.

**Annual Report of the Office of Education, 1952.** 15 cents.

**Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1951–52.** By Robert C. Story. Circular No. 360, December 1952. 60 cents.

**Education Directory 1952–53—Part 2, Counties and Cities.** Prepared by Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School System. 1953. 25 cents.

**Engineering Enrollments and Degrees, 1952.** By Robert C. Story and Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 364, January 1953. Free.

**Foreign Language Instruction in American Schools.** An address by Earl J. McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, delivered at the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools held in Washington, D. C., January 15 and 16, 1953. Free.

**How Children Grow, Achieve, Feel, and Behave.** Based on a wire recording of a talk presented with video aids by Willard C. Olson, Dean, School of Education, University of Michigan. Free.

**Report of Conference on Improving Education for Children.** February 2–4, 1953. Free.

**Report of Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools.** By Marjorie C. Johnston. February 1953. Free.

## Other Government Agencies

### *Atomic Energy Commission*

**You Can Understand the Atom.** Explains the elementary principles underlying the release of atomic energy so that they can be understood by those who have no training in physics, chemistry, or mathematics. Free.

### *Department of Agriculture*

**Our Forests: What They Are and What They Mean to Us.** 1950. 15 cents.

**Our Remaining Land, We Can Use It and Save It.** Revised 1953. 5 cents.

### *Department of Commerce*

**Congressional Districts for the 83d Congress.** A Bureau of the Census map of the United States showing States, counties, and congressional districts. 44 by 60 inches. 25 cents.

**Foreign Commerce Yearbook, 1950.** Cloth, $2.25.

**United States County Outline Map.** This Bureau of the Census map shows the boundaries and names of all counties in the United States. 26 by 40 inches. 30 cents.

**United States, Population Distribution, Urban and Rural, 1950.** Bureau of the Census map. 40 by 62 inches. 35 cents.

### *Department of Defense*

**Pocket Guide to Great Britain.** September 1952. 20 cents.

**Tinian.** The story of the United States Marines during the invasion of Tinian in the Marshall Islands. 1951. Cloth, $2.50.

### *Department of the Interior*

**Louisiana Purchase Sesquicentennial, 1803–1953.** 10 cents.

### *Federal Civil Defense Administration*

**Organization and Operation of Civil Defense Casualty Services, Part 1, The First-Aid System.** 1953. 20 cents.

**What You Can Do Now.** A folder on Family civil defense. 1952. 5 cents.

### *Joint Committee on Printing*

**Pocket Congressional Directory, 83d Congress, January 1953.** Contains photographs of President Dwight D. Eisenhower, Vice President Richard M. Nixon, Members of the Senate and of the House, officers of the Senate and House, and officials of the Capitol. 1953. $1.

### *Library of Congress*

**Copyright Law of the United States of America.** Bulletin No. 14. Revised to January 1, 1953. 20 cents.

**Political Science in Western Germany.** This report is an analysis of political thought and writings in Western Germany from 1950 to mid-1952. $1.00 from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

**Postwar Foreign Newspapers: A Union List.** 1953. $1.60 from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

### *National Science Foundation*

**National Science Foundation, Second Annual Report, Fiscal Year 1952.** 30 cents.

### *United States Senate*

**Inaugural Address of Dwight D. Eisenhower, President of the United States.** January 1953. 5 cents.

Volume 35 Number 9
JUNE 1953

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# School Life

◀ Winchester Pageant Finale





U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

# Tasks That Lie Ahead

By Oveta Culp Hobby*
Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is bound together by a common purpose and a common outlook. Its aim is service: its philosophy is cooperation: and its method is teamwork. We neither impose nor direct. We work with others to get the common job done.

I could tell you of many interesting facets of our amazingly diversified and complex operation. However, I can give you further background on the size and importance of some of these programs by telling you of some of the urgent matters on which we have been working since last January 20.

At the direct request of the President we are working on four urgent pieces of Administration legislation. In capsule form, they are as follows:

1. Tightening factory inspection provisions so that the Food and Drug Administration can do a better job to protect consumers against impure food, drugs, and cosmetics.

2. Extending, with some needed changes, two public laws providing for Federal help on school construction and maintenance and operations of schools in what we call federally impacted areas. This legislation is to help school districts where the Federal Government moves in on a special project—say atomic energy—takes large areas of land off the tax rolls and adds literally thousands of children, whose fathers are employed on the Federal project, to the school load. Some of you are from areas where just this sort of thing has happened and you know what a predicament local school districts face.

3. Broadening the base of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance so that it covers more people now outside of Social Security. I am meeting regularly with a group of consultants who are well-versed on Social Security laws. With their help, I hope to work out and recommend changes designed to realize this objective which was part of the Republican platform and which the President specifically mentioned in his State of the Union Message to Congress in February.

4. In his message transmitting the Plan elevating the Federal Security Agency to Departmental status, the President asked that the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare have available to her a special committee to advise her on educational matters. Enabling legislation for this committee now is being prepared.

As editors I think you will be interested in some other examples of projects currently under way.

In midsummer we anticipate that the new Clinical Center of the Public Health Service at Bethesda, Md., will admit its first patients. This Center, provided for by the Repub-

*Portion of Mrs. Hobby's address before the American Society of Newspaper Editors, April 16, 1953, in Washington, D. C.

(*Continued on page 139*)

School ★ Life
Official Journal of the Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

## CONTENTS for June 1953

Volume 35 Number 9

The cover photograph, by Arthur Ellis, Washington Post photographer, shows a chorus of high school graduates as they sang the finale in the 1953 pageant of the traditional Shenandoah Apple Blossom Festival at Winchester, Va. Twelve hundred school children took part in this year's pageant.



Published each month of the school yeor, October through June.

To order SCHOOL LIFE send your check or money order (no stomps) with your subscription request to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Woshington 25, D. C. SCHOOL LIFE service comes to you ot a subscription price of $1.25. Yeorly fee to countries in which the fronk of the U. S. Government is not recognized is $1.75. A discount of 25 percent is allowed on orders for 100 copies or more sent to one address within the United Stotes. Printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been opproved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget. (September 19, 1952.)



Address oll SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the Director, Reports ond Technical Services, Office of Educotion, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE.



THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION wos estoblished in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics ond facts as shoIl show the condition and progress of education in the severol Stotes ond Territories, and of diffusing such informotion respecting the orgonization and monogement of schools ond school systems and methods of teoching, os shall oid the people of the United Stotes in the estoblishment ond mointenonce of efficient school systems, ond otherwise promote the couse of education throughout the country."

SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, ond in Education Index - - - - - - (Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents)

# Deferment for High School Students

NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS officials have announced that local boards may classify a high school student directly into class I–S if they have in their possession, prior to making the classification, evidence that the registrant is a full-time high school student and that he is making satisfactory grades. It is desirable that students bring such information to the attention of their local boards.

A student who receives a I–S statutory deferment from his local board is entitled to retain that classification until one of the following occurs: (1) he graduates, (2) he reaches age 20, or (3) he ceases to make satisfactory grades.

By classifying a student directly into class I–S a local board can, in many instances, effect a monetary saving to the Government besides avoiding inconvenience to the student. If the student is classified in I–A he must be sent for a preinduction physical examination when his order number is reached. Since a preinduction physical examination is good for only a prescribed period, many students who might later be reclassified into I–S would have to be reexamined after the termination of their I–S deferment.

Under the Selective Service law every youth must register with a local board within 5 days after he reaches his eighteenth birthday. The law provides further, however, that he does not become liable for service until he becomes 18½. Shortly after a youth registers, his local board mails him a Selective Service classification questionnaire. When the questionnaire is returned, the local board classifies the registrant, on the basis of the information he put in his questionnaire. If the registrant disagrees with the classification made by the local board he may appeal to the State Appeal Board by merely sending, within 10 days from the date of mailing, a letter to his local board stating he wishes to appeal his classification.

***Rall I. Grigsby, Acting Commissioner of Education, transmitted to chief State school officers recently a statement from the National Headquarters of Selective Service. This statement "is of great importance to all high school students," said Dr. Grigsby. "It modifies and clarifies their rights under current Selective Service procedures." The Selective Service announcement, General Information Bulletin No. 37, is reported in full on this page.***

Since the local board classifies an 18-year-old shortly after he registers, it is suggested that every youth who receives a questionnaire while still in high school, go to the principal of the high school, after mailing his questionnaire, and request him to send a letter to the student's local board. The principal's letter should attest the following: (1) The registrant is a full-time student at that high school, (2) he is making satisfactory grades, and (3) the date he is expected to receive his diploma.

All registrants are required by law to notify their local boards of all changes in their status. Therefore, all high school students should be reminded that they must notify their local boards when they receive their dipoma, when they cease to make satisfactory grades or if they quit high school.

If high school students are advised of their rights and obligations under the law and keep their local boards correctly advised of their status at all times, the Selective Service machinery can function with the minimum of concern and inconvenience to the registrant and a lighter workload on the local board. The men who operate the local boards, appeal boards and act as appeal agents and advisors all serve without compensation. These men donate their time as a patriotic service so that our registrants may be classified by local men who are familiar with local conditions.

One of the problems facing many youths in their last year of high school is deciding whether to go into service immediately after graduation and discharge their obligation *or* go on to college and try to complete their education before going into service.

For the high school senior intending to enter college, there are two provisions to consider. First, a full-time college student called for induction during his academic year may request that he be deferred until he has finished his academic year. If he does so, the deferment must be granted but he can get such a statutory deferment only once.

Also, a youth who starts a full-time college course before being called can try for a second type of student deferment. He can apply to take the Selective Service College Qualification Test. It's being given at various intervals each year.

The results of the test are sent to the local board. The board can then defer the student for another academic year if he has achieved a certain score, *or* if he attains prescribed class standing. A local board is not required to defer a student who meets either criteria but their decision is subject to appeal.

It should be remembered that a deferment is just that—a delay. When the student graduates from college, he is expected to serve 2 years on active duty. In fact, he remains liable for service until 35, if he has been deferred.

A student can also gain deferment by being accepted for college military training. Members of college ROTC units are deferred, so long as they remain in good standing, provided they sign an agreement to accept a commission upon graduation and serve 2 years on active duty.

# To College Seniors—What of Your Future?

**By Martin P. Durkin,* Secretary of Labor**

*IT HAS become a spring custom for the Secretary of Labor to advise college seniors of the job opportunities which await them upon completion of their collegiate work. It is therefore with pleasure, that I take this opportunity to congratulate you upon achieving one goal in your career. I also extend a hearty welcome to those of you who will join the men and women of the nation's labor force and begin working toward succeeding goals.*

*Some of you will go on to do graduate work in your chosen field. For most of you, however, your bachelor's degree will mark the completion of your formal education. Many of you will face a period of military service. Whatever you do now, it would be profitable to develop a vocational plan for your future, if you have not already done so. Such a plan should be based upon the relationships between your own interests, abilities and training, and long-range economic opportunities. Your first postcollege job, your graduate work, or your military service, as the case may be, should fit into that plan and advance you along your chosen path.*

*The economy of the United States is now operating at record-breaking levels. The job outlook this year is excellent. You will, however, be faced with the problem of getting started in the field of your choice. Common sense dictates that you learn as much as you can about where the immediate and the long-range opportunities lie—in what industries, in what occupations, and in what sections of the country.*

*The attached article discusses the general over-all situation and presents information with respect to job opportunities in a number of broad fields, most of them professional. This information should be supplemented with information and services which you may obtain from campus placement and guidance bureaus and from local offices of State employment services affiliated with the Labor Department's United States Employment Service, including more detailed local and regional employment information, and professional counseling, testing, and placement services so valuable in facilitating the process of finding a satisfactory job.*

*There is sometimes a glamour attached to the job openings created as new industries are born or existing industries expand. It is well to remember, however, that most of the jobs taken by this year's college graduates will be, as usual, those which have been vacated by other workers. Deaths and retirements create the largest number of openings. It follows that most of the openings will occur in the large industries and in the areas where there are now the heaviest concentrations of employment.*

*It is my hope that you will speedily find employment where you can best utilize your knowledge and skills and contribute most to the society that made possible your education. Collectively, you and your classmates are a national resource of major importance. We need the work of your hands and minds and the cooperation of your hearts if our country is to prosper and grow, and retain its leadership of the free world.*

*Yours very truly,*

Martin P. Durkin.

*SECRETARY OF LABOR.*

# Job Outlook for 1953 Graduates

The economy of the United States is operating at extremely high levels. Employment records are established nearly every month, and unemployment is at postwar low. Consequently, the employment outlook for college graduates this year is excellent.

The main forces responsible for our present high production and employment are consumer purchases, new construction, and capital investment in new plants and equipment. All of these forces are operating at the highest levels in our history and are likely to continue so for a number of months to come. A further incentive is provided by the demand for military goods and equipment for national defense. Such expenditures have been at a record high for peacetime, but are scheduled to edge downward within the foreseeable future.

It is traditional for Americans to look upon military service as an interruption of their civilian lives, but this service can provide significant vocational and educational opportunities. You may therefore wish to consult the latest editions of a number of official publications on the vocational and educational opportunities offered by the armed services. These are available at local recruiting offices.

***This statement, addressed to the Nation's college seniors by the Secretary of Labor, is a timely presentation at the graduation period when youth leave high school or college and look ahead to the future. The information given by Mr. Durkin should be helpful to high school students, and to those responsible for counseling young people as they plan and study for careers in an ever-changing world.***

## Engineering

Opportunities in engineering are excellent for both new graduates and experienced men and women. During the build-up stage of the defense program the demand for engineers rose spectacularly. Over the forthcoming period of partial mobilization an average of 30,000 new engineers per year will be needed. On the other hand, the number of new engineering graduates has been declining since the 1950 peak of 52,000 and will continue to drop, reaching a low of

*An open letter from the Secretary of Labor, with supplemental data on Job Outlook for 1953 Graduates.

about 19,000 in 1954. Graduations are expected to rise again to about 22,000 in 1955 and 29,000 in 1956 (assuming continuation of present Selective Service student deferment policies). However, many of the new graduates of the next few years will enter the Armed Forces upon graduation. Therefore, the shortage of engineers is expected to continue for a number of years.

Chemical, electrical, and mechanical engineers will continue to find employment mainly in manufacturing industries, while Federal, State, and local governments will employ the largest number of civil engineers.

## Natural Sciences

Demand for personnel in most of the natural sciences has increased sharply during the past 2 years, especially in activities related to defense production and research and development. However, personnel are also needed in other kinds of scientific work such as administration and technical sales. The demand for personnel in the natural sciences as a whole is expected to exceed the supply for several years as the defense program continues; the need will be most intense for workers with graduate training or considerable experience. However, opportunities for persons with only a bachelor's degree will continue to remain good, particularly in view of the declining numbers of graduates with bachelor's degrees.

***Chemists.***—Employment opportunities for chemists are greatest in such manufacturing industries as chemicals, petroleum, rubber, food, and paper. Educational institutions and government also employ substantial number of chemists. They are also in demand in consulting laboratories, nonprofit research institutes, hospitals, and mining companies. Though the need for persons with graduate training is greatest, those with only a bachelor's degree will find numerous opportunities.

Median income of chemists in 1951 was $5,800 in private industry, $5,000 in government, and $4,900 in educational institutions. Chemists with a Ph. D. earned $6,900; those with a master's degree, $5,400; and those with a bachelor's degree, $4,900.

***Physicists.***—The defense program has greatly increased the need for physicists, particularly for those with advanced training. The demand for persons with only a bachelor's degree also exceeds the supply. Opportunities are especially good for young physicists in nuclear physics, electronics, quantum theory, atomic and molecular physics.

Private industry, government, and educational institutions each employ roughly similar numbers of physicists. Median income in 1951 for physicists was $7,000 in private industry, $6,300 in government, and $5,600 in colleges and universities.

***Earth Scientists.***—Experienced geologists and geophysicists are needed especially in the petroleum and mining industries. New graduates in geology and geophysics, especially those who have had some field experience in connection with their academic work, will be in demand throughout the early 1950's. Meteorologists who are prepared for research work are finding good employment opportunities. Oceanographers capable of carrying on research work are also in great demand.

## Teaching

The demand for elementary school teachers is greater for 1953–54 than for 1952–53. Over a million additional children will enter the elementary schools and add to the already swollen enrollment. The supply of new teachers to meet this great demand is slightly lower than it was in 1952–53. Around 35,000 college students will meet the requirements for grade-school teaching in June, and many times that number are needed for new positions and the replacement of experienced teachers leaving the profession.

At the high school level the supply of newly trained teachers has dropped significantly each year since 1950. This year many vacancies exist in such subject fields as: home economics, girl's health and physical education, agriculture, industrial arts, and certain physical sciences. The demand for high school teachers is expected to rise slowly over the next several years and will reach extremely high levels near the end of the decade.

Salaries for teachers continue to increase. Average salaries for all classroom teachers for 1952–53 were about $3,400 with 13 percent averaging $4,500 or more. Average salaries of more than $4,000 were received by teachers in New York, California and Delaware; lowest average salaries were in some Southern States and States with a high percentage of rural schools.

## Federal Civil Service

The U. S. Civil Service Commission reports that the pressing needs of Federal agencies are in scientific and technical positions such as engineer (various branches), physicist, metallurgist, cartographer and cartographic draftsman, chemist, mathematician, meteorologist, geologist, and oceanographer as well as in medical, dietetic, and library specialties. There are some opportunities for summer employment in the physical sciences for student aids and trainees.

Information about examinations currently open may be obtained from college placement officers, from Civil Service Commission offices, and from first- and second-class post offices.

## Health Professions

Shortages of physicians and dentists existed even before the present mobilization program was begun. Expansion of the Armed Forces intensified the need for personnel in these professions. Demand is also growing for other health-service personnel—physical therapists, occupational therapists, pharmacists, dietitians, public health nutritionists, medical laboratory technicians, medical and psychiatric workers, and veterinarians. Over the long run the growth of the population, the increasing proportion of the older people, and increasing demand for health services by the population will sustain the demand for health-service personnel.

***Nursing.***—There is a critical demand for nurses brought on more by growing civilian needs than by the fighting in Korea. Hospital construction is expected to add about 200,000 beds by 1954, calling for 20,000 nursing recruits in institutional nursing alone. Thousands more are needed for public health nursing services, civil defense, industrial nursing, and as instructors in nursing schools.

Average monthly earnings of professional registered nurses in 1949 were from $205 to $256. Average annual salaries of industrial nurses in 1952 ranged from $2,730 to $3,588 in various cities.

## Business and Law

Industry is actively recruiting college graduates trained in business administration. Those specialized in management and in such business techniques as accounting, advertising copywriting, market research,

sales, statistics, insurance underwriting, and personnel management are particularly sought. Those who combine leadership qualities with technical skill will have best opportunity for selection by large firms recruiting for potential executives. The demand for lawyers is greatest for those who have specialized, for example, in tax, patent, administrative, admiralty, or international law. Opportunities for women in this field have improved in recent years.

***Banking.***—Men graduates are in demand for trainee-positions in banks leading to positions as department heads and branch managers. The continued expansion of the banking industry is creating these opportunities. However, employers are still highly selective, particularly for positions in the largest banks. Opportunities for women have improved since the beginning of World War II; about 45 percent of all teller positions and 7 percent of all officer posts are held by women.

***Accountants.***—The demand for accountants is expected to remain high during the defense mobilization period and for at least a year or two thereafter. College graduates with courses in business administration as well as in accounting are preferred to those trained only in accounting. Opportunities for beginning jobs in private business establishments are more numerous than in public accounting firms. The demand for certified public accountants is strong at present and continued gains in employment are expected over the long run.

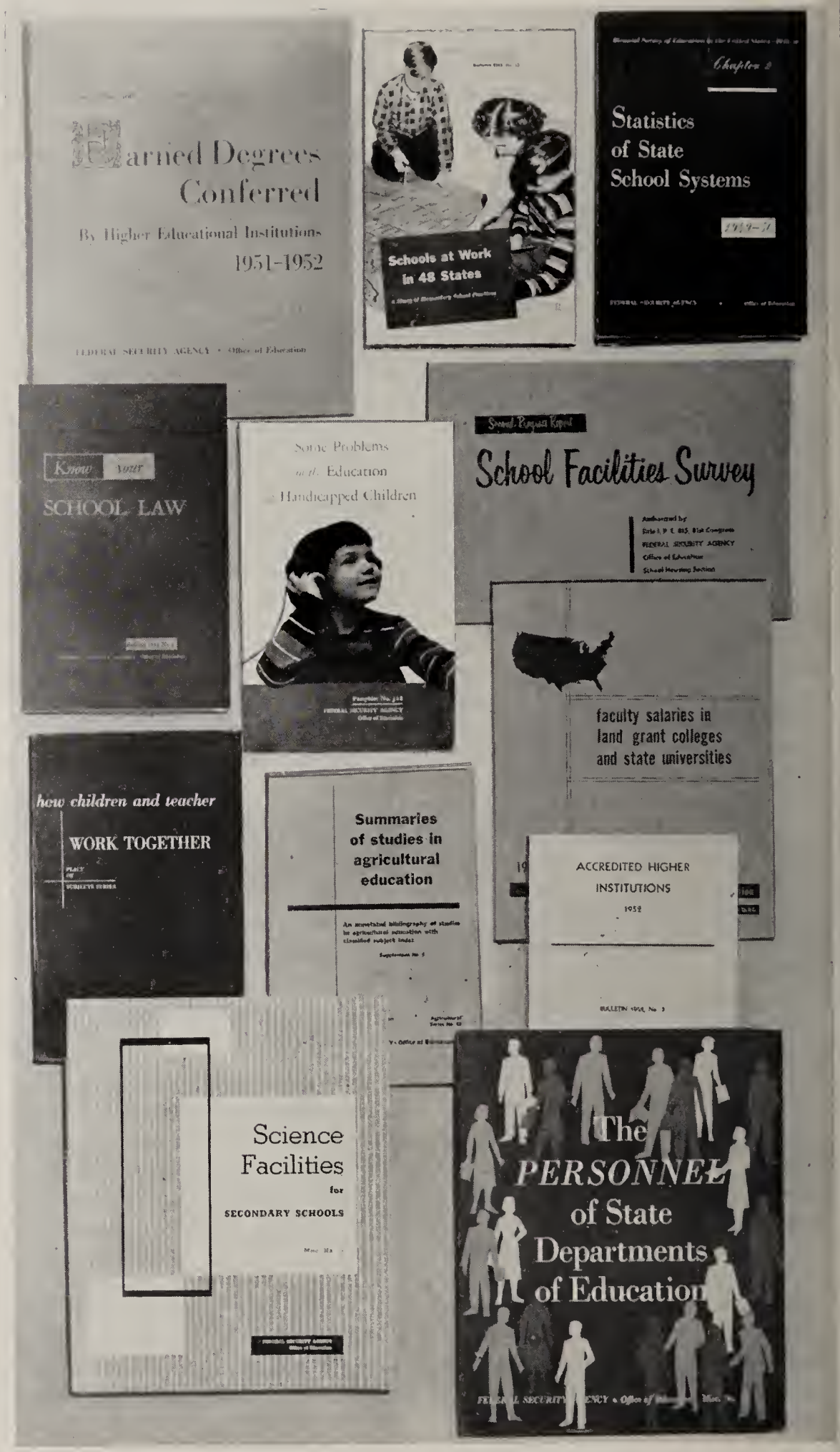
Public accounting firms pay lower beginning salaries than do private business establishments, but afford experience which is often a prerequisite for the CPA license and for advanced positions in other accounting fields.

## Social Work

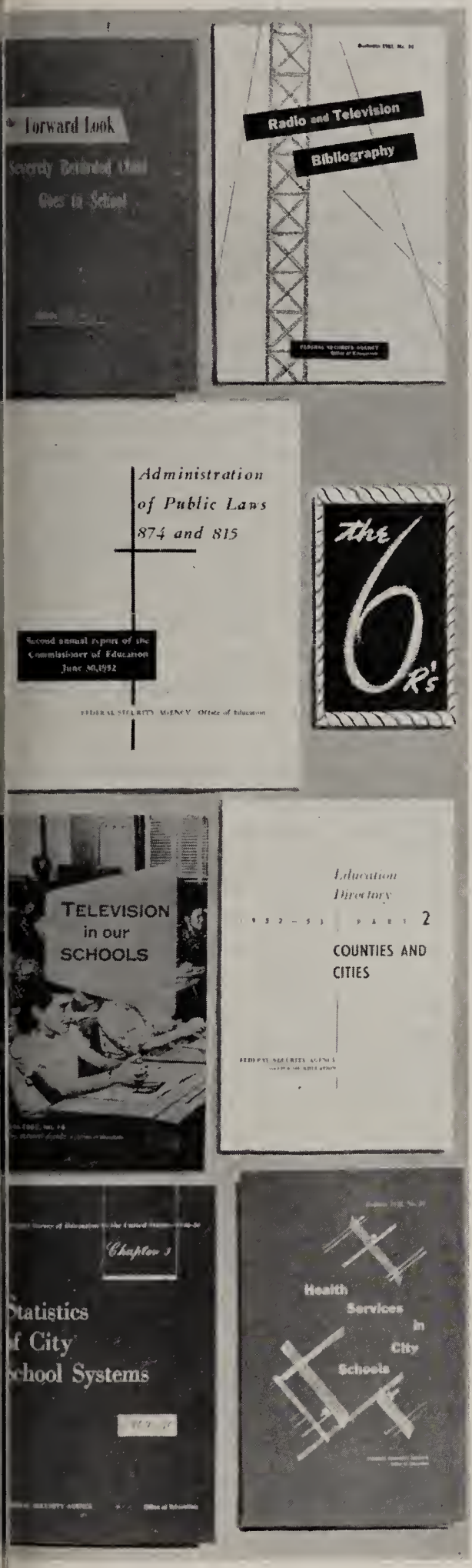
An expanding field and one which offers a variety of specialization is that of social work. There is a great need for trained personnel to handle case work, group activities, and work connected with community organization for social welfare. The field also includes administrative work, teaching, and research in social welfare. The shortage of trained qualified workers is expected to continue at least for several years among welfare agencies, hospitals, and State and Federal welfare establishments.

Median annual salaries in 1950 ranged from $2,960 for case or group work to $3,710 for teaching and research.

# Diffusing Educational



# Information Through Office of Education Publications




SHOWN on these pages are certain publications of the Office of Education that have come from the press during 1952–53.

A longer listing of Office publications, available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., follows:

Accredited Higher Institutions, 1952. 35¢.

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815. Second Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1952. 55¢.

1952 Annual Report of the Office of Education. 15¢.

Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs. 15¢.

Core Curriculum Development—Problems and Practices. 30¢.

Counseling College Students During the Defense Period. 25¢.

Counseling High School Students During the Defense Period. 25¢.

Directory of Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. $1.

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1951–52. 60¢.

Education Directory:

Part 1, Federal Government and States, 1952–53. 20¢.

Part 2, Counties and Cities, 1952–53. 25¢.

Part 3, Higher Education, 1952–53. 45¢.

Part 4, Education Associations, 1951–52. 20¢.

Education in Sweden. 30¢.

Education in Turkey. 30¢.

Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born. 15¢.

Expenditure Per Pupil in City School Systems, 1950–51. 25¢.

Faculty Salaries in Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, 1951–52. 15¢.

Federal Funds for Education, 1950–51 and 1951–52. 30¢.

Financing Adult Education in Selected Schools and Community Colleges. 15¢.

The Forward Look—The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School. 20¢.

Health Services in City Schools. 25¢.

Higher Education in France. 20¢.

How Children Learn to Read. 15¢.

How Children and Teacher Work Together. 15¢.

Know Your School Law. 15¢.

Land-Grant Colleges and Universities—A Federal-State Partnership. 15¢.

Literacy Education—A Series of Reprints from School Life. 15¢.

Occupations—A Basic Course for Counselors. 45¢.

Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948–49. 30¢.

The Personnel of State Departments of Education. 30¢.

Proposed Minimum Standards for State Approval of Teacher Preparing Institutions. 20¢.

Pupil Appraisal Practices in Secondary Schools. 50¢.

Radio and Television Bibliography. 20¢.

Recordings for Teaching Literature and Language in the High School. 25¢.

School Facilities Survey, First Progress Report. 40¢.

School Facilities Survey, Second Progress Report, December 1952. 35¢.

Schools at Work in 48 States. 35¢.

Science Facilities for Secondary Schools. 35¢.

The 6 R's. 10¢.

Some Problems in the Education of Handicapped Children. 15¢.

State Provisions for School Lunch Programs—Laws and Personnel. 20¢.

Statistics of City School Systems, 1949–50. 30¢.

Statistics of Higher Education: Faculty, Students, and Degrees, 1949–50. 25¢.

Statistics of Higher Education: Receipts, Expenditures, and Property, 1949–50. 20¢.

Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities—Year Ended June 30, 1951. 20¢.

Statistics of State School Systems, 1949–50. 30¢.

Students and the Armed Forces. 45¢.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education. 20¢.

Supervised Practice in Counselor Preparation. 20¢.

The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States. 20¢.

Television in Our Schools. 15¢.

Be sure to mail requests for these Office of Education publications to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Enclose check or money order with your order.

# To Promote the Cause of Education

By Lloyd E. Blauch, Division of Higher Education

The newly-created Department of Education was intended to be broad in scope, a fact which appears clear not only from the language of the act but also from two sources: (1) Statements of educators promoting the establishment of the office, and (2) the interpretation of the act by the first United States Commissioner of Education as revealed by his official actions.

The Commissioner of the Common Schools of Ohio, Emerson E. White, who helped prepare the memorial to Congress and the bill which was enacted, said of the proposed office:

"It would render needed assistance in the establishment of school systems where they do not now exist, and prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. I conceive it to be possible for a national bureau of education to be so managed as to well-nigh revolutionize school instruction in this country, and this, too, without its being invested with any official control of the school authorities in the several States. A national bureau would hold up to many school systems a mirror which would reveal attainable results and desirable changes. I remark, finally, that the creation of a national bureau would be a practical recognition by the Government of the value and necessity of universal education as a means of perpetuating free institutions."

Nine days after the President signed the act creating the Department of Education, he appointed Henry Barnard as Commissioner of Education, an office he held until March 15, 1870. For years Barnard had been engaged in educational work. He was Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Commissioners for Common Schools (1838–42), State Superintendent of Schools in Rhode Island (1843–49), State Superintendent of Education in Connecticut and Principal of the State Normal School (1850–55), Chancellor of the University of Wisconsin (1858–60), and President of St. John's College at Annapolis, Md. (1866–67). He was an educator, administrator, editor, author, and scholar. He had been untiring in his efforts for the creation of the Department of Education.

***This is the second and concluding article prepared by Dr. Blauch to review the historic background of today's Office of Education. There have been many favorable comments on the first article that appeared in the May issue of SCHOOL LIFE.***

The act creating the Department of Education required the Commissioner of Education to make an annual report to Congress "embodying the results of his investigations and labors," and it stated that his first report was to contain a statement about the Federal grants of land for education. Mr. Barnard soon mapped out his field of inquiry, which covered all aspects of education — elementary, secondary, collegiate, professional, and supplementary. His annual report of 856 pages, made in 1868, contained a wealth of material on schools and school systems, land grants for education, State colleges and schools of science, professional education, and education in foreign countries. It was a monumental work.

The Congress now had an office to which it could turn for assistance on educational matters, and it was not long in using the opportunity. By a Joint Resolution, approved March 29, 1867, the Commissioner of Education was directed to ascertain the conditions of public schools in the District of Columbia and submit a report on the relative efficiency of the system in force and on such additional legislation as he deemed necessary to secure the advantages of the system to all the children of the district. The report was submitted to the Senate in June 1868 and in more extensive form in January 1870. In final form it contained 912 printed pages. This project constituted the first educational survey made by the Federal educational agency.

The second special call on the Commissioner of Education occurred in January 1870, when the House of Representatives requested from him information on technical education. The report was not complete at the time Dr. Barnard resigned from his office. Subsequently he finished the work and printed the document as one volume (807 pages) of the *American Journal of Education*. It was a comprehensive statement of technical instruction in the schools and universities in European countries.

Thus from the language of the law, the statement of Emerson E. White, and the official acts of the first Commissioner of Education it is altogether clear that the Federal Department of Education was conceived of as an office that would render an extensive service to education by way of collecting and disseminating information about education, making educational investigations, and in various ways promoting the cause of education and influencing its development. It was definitely intended as an office to which the Congress could turn when it required assistance in educational matters. The discussions of the proposal to create the office reveal no disposition whatever to limit its functions and service, except that it was not to control education; that function was to remain in the States.

The educational agency created by the Congress in 1867 was known as a "Department of Education." The original draft of the bill presented by Mr. Garfield asked for the establishment of a bureau of education in the Department of the Interior. Apparently the word "department" was adopted to give the Commissioner of Edu-

cation the power to appoint his subordinates. He was not, of course, a member of the President's Cabinet.

The office did not continue long under the title "department." In the annual appropriation act of July 20, 1868, under the caption, "Department of the Interior," appears the following:

"For compensation of Commissioner of Education, $4,000; chief clerk, $2,000; one clerk of class four, $1,800; and one clerk of class three $1,600.

"For stationery, blank books, freight, express charges, library, miscellaneous items, and extra clerical help, $10,800; in all, $20,000: *Provided*, that from and after the 30th day of June, 1869, the Department of Education shall cease, and that there shall be established and attached to the Department of the Interior an office to be denominated the Office of Education, the chief officer of which shall be the Commissioner of Education, at a salary of $3,000 per annum, who shall, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, discharge all such duties, and superintend, execute, and perform all such acts and things touching and respecting the said office of education as are devolved by law upon said Commissioner of Education."

The Congressional Globe makes but brief mention of the alteration in the status of the Department of Education. There was no debate on the subject in the House or the Senate; the change from "Department" to "Office of Education," under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, was effected in committee. It is significant that the act creating the Department of Education in 1867 was not repealed.

The Secretary of the Interior at that time, G. H. Browning, was not favorably disposed toward the Office. In his annual report to the President on November 30, 1868, he expressed "the conviction that all legislation touching the Department, and the Office of Education should be repealed." He suggested (1) that, should the Office be perpetuated, consideration be given to "the propriety of enacting by whom the Commissioner shall be appointed," (2) that the appointment of the clerks be vested in the Secretary of the Interior, (3) that the Commissioner be required to report to the Department of the Interior and not to the Congress, and (4) that an appropriation of $6,000 for the next fiscal year would be sufficient to pay the expenses of the Office of Education if it is economically administered.

This situation aroused the National Superintendents' Association. At its annual meeting in August 1869 it appointed a committee to act with a like committee of the National Teachers' Association to confer with the authorities in Washington in regard to the best interests of the "Bureau or Office of Education," to represent to the Congress the value of such an office, and to urge upon the Congress "that the causes which have impaired the present usefulness of said department—whatsoever they may be—be not permitted to weigh against the continuance and liberal support of the department itself."

The immediate successor to Secretary Browning was J. D. Cox. It was under him that the Office of Education began to function in the Department of the Interior. He was favorably disposed toward it.

In the appropriation act for 1870 the title of the "Office of Education" was changed to "Bureau of Education" without altering the status of the Commissioner as regards salary and duties. In 1929 the title "Office of Education" was adopted.

## Brief Subsequent History

In 1917 the Congress established the Federal Board for Vocational Education, an independent agency to administer the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act. A similar function with respect to vocational rehabilitation of the physically disabled was lodged in the board in 1920. By Executive Order in 1933, the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Department of the Interior, and in the same year the Secretary of the Interior assigned these functions to the Office of Education.

In the reorganization of Government agencies on July 1, 1939, the Office of Education and its functions and personnel were transferred to the Federal Security Agency. The vocational rehabilitation function was continued in the Office of Education until it was organized in a newly established Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency, in 1943.

Through the years of its history the Office of Education has continued the policies begun by Commissioner Barnard in collecting and disseminating educational information and making studies of all aspects of education. From time to time additional functions have been assigned to it either by Acts of Congress or by Executive Order. Thus the second Morrill Act (1890) made the Secretary of the Interior responsible for certain activities in the Federal administration of the law. He delegated this work to the Office of Education.

After 1887 the conduct of educational and relief work among the Natives of Alaska was administratively under the Office of Education. This function was transferred to the Office of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior on March 16, 1931.

During World War I the Office of Education received appropriations to carry on certain educational activities related to the war effort. Among these were promoting school gardens, social studies, and the Americanization of immigrants. After 1934 Federal emergency relief funds were allotted to the Office to conduct certain educational investigations and demonstration projects with the use of unemployed persons. The educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps, which trained more than 3,100,000 enrollees, was carried on under the general supervision of the Commissioner of Education. During World War II the Office carried on several extensive training programs and a student war loans program. More than 14,000,000 persons were enrolled in the training programs, which cost $410,000,000, and 11,000 college students received a total of $3,250,000 in loans.

Soon after the passage of the National Defense Act following the outbreak of hostilities in Korea the Office of Education was designated by the National Security Resources Board as the focal point for the relationship of Federal agencies with the schools and colleges. The Office administers the laws which provide a program of assistance for school construction and operation and maintenance in federally affected areas. To the Office was assigned responsibility as the claimant agency for the allocation of controlled materials for school and college construction. It also has certain responsibilities for the operation of an educational advisory service for the college housing program.

The Office renders a considerable amount of assistance to other Federal agencies and to Senators and Representatives on educational matters.

## Pupil's own experience is basis for his learning

# Reading Geared to Readiness

*This article by Mrs. Post originally appeared in the Salisbury Post under the title, "Johnny Won't Know His A B C's in a Hurry but He'll Read Better, Faster." It appealed to many educators as well as laymen, and was suggested to the Editor of SCHOOL LIFE by J. H. Knox, Superintendent of Schools in Salisbury, N. C. We are pleased to present Mrs. Post's article to SCHOOL LIFE readers as an interpretation of how children in Salisbury, N. C., and many more thousands of our boys and girls throughout the United States learn today in terms of their own experiences. Photographs are by Johnny Suther, Salisbury, N. C.*

By Rose Zimmerman Post, Salisbury, N. C.

"Why, it's nothing but talk wrote down," the six-year-old said in wonder. "That's all it is—just talk wrote down!"

The teacher didn't bother to correct the grammar.

Talk wrote down? Stories wrote down? Ideas wrote down?

The little boy was right, and the correct tense could come later. What was important was the wonder and the interest and the fact that he had been talking for a long time so reading "talk wrote down" was exciting and full of possibilities for him. The child was ready to start. And today, the system for teaching reading in the public schools is geared to his readiness and his desire to learn about the printed word.

It was not always so. Although prominent educators for more than a century have believed that this eagerness should be added to a child's basic familiarity with the sound of his language in teaching him to read, the primary use of the alphabet has survived until very recent years.

And parents, who remember that they were required to be letter perfect in the A, B, C's, are finding it almost as difficult to understand the new system as the children are finding it easy to learn to read.

"I really want to apologize to you," one mother told a first-grade teacher recently. "My son doesn't know his A, B, C's."

But the teacher was glad. Knowing the alphabet would not hurt the child. But not knowing the alphabet would hurt him even less, for his mind would be clear to grasp the new ideas that were in store for him.

A good first-grade teacher today realizes that reading out of books is not the most important item on the agenda of the first grade—even though many parents wonder why Johnny or Jane doesn't receive a book on the first day of school and immediately set about learning what it says.

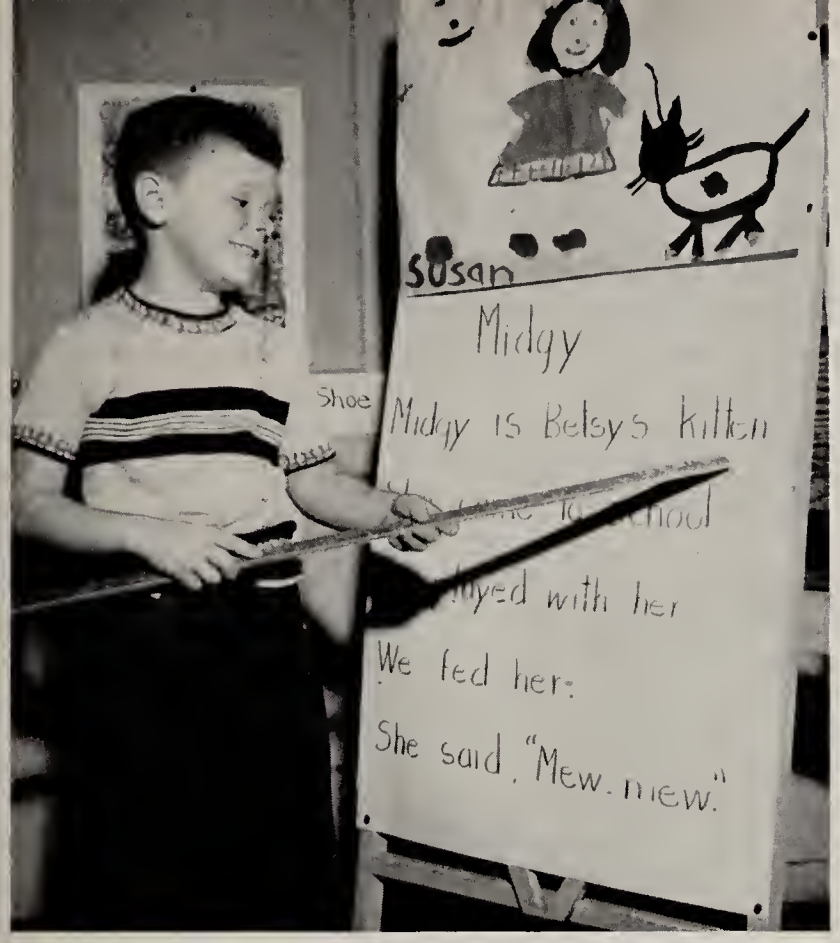
To present a skill before a child has use for it sets up an antagonism which hinders learning even at the right time. Much more important in the first grade and in every grade are a habit of success, joy in living, some techniques for finding out what a person wants to know, responsibility toward his neighbor,

Having learned words and written their own stories, this first-grade reading circle finds fun in what may be discovered in books.

and a growing interest in the community. In fact, the real purpose of learning to read is to contribute toward these objectives as well as to develop an interest in books and reading.

Basic to a child's learning to read well and with understanding, is the desire to do so, and enjoyment in the doing. That was one place where the ABC method failed. And that is the purpose of the reading readiness program now being used in the Salisbury, N. C., city schools.

The phrase "reading readiness" may in itself be a stumbling block to the parent trying hard to understand what the teacher is doing. Actually it is a simple thing. It means giving the child a wealth of experiences, letting him realize that it is fun to read about those experiences, helping him to develop an adequate speaking vocabulary, and getting him accustomed to the habit of reading from left to right and from top to the bottom of the page.




**Johnny Misenheimer finds it a simple task to read his lesson—a story about Betsy and her kitten, and illustrated by one of the other children.**

It means putting a lot of books before him so that his curiosity is aroused and reading a lot of stories to him so that he develops the ability to concentrate. It means listening to him and encouraging him to tell stories—stories about himself and his friends and his pets—because those are the kind of stories in which he is most interested. And that's the place that the parent can help his child most in learning to read—rather than in making sure that he knows his alphabet.

When Johnny enters the first grade, he finds that the objects around him are labeled. Tacked to the teacher's desk is a sign which says, "desk." Beside the box of pencils is a sign which says "pencils." Near the scissors is one which reads "scissors." Beneath the painting easel is one which reads, "Come and paint." Beneath the table of storybooks is one that invites, "Come and read."

**Betsy Kimball brought her kitten to school to illustrate her story to other first-grade children at Calvin H. Wiley School in Salisbury, N. C.**

Johnny's first grade is just like a bulletin board, changed daily, which says:

"Today is Monday.

"There are 14 girls at school.

"There are 15 boys at school.

"There are 29 children at school.

"Tomorrow is Tuesday."

Tomorrow might also be Johnny's birthday, in which case the bulletin board would say so.

And soon Johnny finds himself being able to find the line that says how many boys there are at school—or what day tomorrow is.

And Johnny and the other boys and girls, while listening to stories, also tell stories. Maybe Nancy brought her rabbit to school and the children like the rabbit. They make up a story about the rabbit and tell it to the teacher and she writes it down in big letters on a chart. Maybe the story says, "Nancy has a rabbit. She brought it to school one day. The children like the rabbit. They like to see it eat. The rabbit eats lettuce."

And maybe Johnny feels like drawing a picture of Nancy and her rabbit, so the picture is attached to the story, and the children, since they all like the story, all soon learn to read it.

Because the most interesting kind of stories and the most interesting kinds of pictures are those about themselves, they learn to read them because they want to know what they are.

While Nancy is telling about her rabbit and Johnny is telling his experiences, the teacher also has a favorite story. It's a story about a family with a boy and a girl and a baby. And the children like the teacher's story, too, so they make her write it down and draw pictures about it and learn to read it.

At first they learn to read the stories sentence by sentence because they learn to look for complete thoughts. But as they see them over and over again they are able to pick out phrases and then words, and then the teacher shows them some interesting games they can play with the words.

They have all kinds of games. There's too much competition from television and radio and movies and funny books these days for school to be boring. And the children learn to read very quickly.

By the time they are issued their first books—which happily are about a little boy and a little girl and a baby—they already know how to read them. So the desire to read more—to go on and see if they can also read the next book—is firmly planted. They want to look at the pictures in a book to find out what the children are doing and then they want to read to find out what they are saying—"just talk wrote down."

As long ago as 1838, Horace Mann, secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, wrote in an annual report: "Children . . . then utter words—the names of objects around them—as a whole sounds, and without any conception of the letters of which those words are composed. In speaking the word "apple," for instance, young children think no more of the Roman letters, which spell it, than in eating the fruit, they think of the chemical ingredients—oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon—which compose it. Hence, presenting them with the

alphabet, is giving them what they never saw, heard, or thought of before. It is as new as algebra, and to the eye, not very unlike it. But printed names of known things are the signs of sounds which their ears have been accustomed to hear, and their organs of speech to utter, and which may excite agreeable feelings and associations, by reminding them of the objects named. When put to learning the letters of the alphabet first, the child has no acquaintance with them, either by the eye, the ear, the tongue, or the mind; but if put to learning familiar words first, he already knows them by the ear, the tongue, and the mind, while his eye only is unacquainted with them. He is thus introduced to a stranger, through the medium of old acquaintances. It can hardly be doubted, therefore, that a child would learn to name any 26 familiar words, much sooner than the 26 unknown, unheard and unthought of letters of the alphabet."

"But my child didn't learn to read in the first grade at all," one parent might say. No, but he did learn to read in the second or the third, and in all probability was as good a reader as the child who learned immediately. Possibly he just wasn't mature enough. It is as unfair to children to expect all of them to learn to read at exactly the same time as it would be if 25 parents lined their year-old babies up and said, "Now, walk." Every child is not ready for the same experiences at the same time, and one child might be mature enough for a reading experience at six when another needs another year for it.

"Well," another parent might ask, "do they read better? Tests have shown that children do read better. And they read faster—a very necessary factor in the quickly moving world today. The man of 50 years ago was not bombarded with the fantastic amount of reading matter which it is necessary for the average man of today to consume to be well informed. Moreover, tests have shown that the rapid reader, the reader who is accustomed to looking for ideas rather than words is the more thorough reader, is the reader with the greatest grasp of what he reads.

"But, the spelling," the next parent might say. "Children today just can't spell." Not true, the records show. When comparison is made today there is one basic fallacy. Fifty years ago the largest number of children were only going to school until they were big enough to go to work. A relatively small number of people actually finished high school, whereas today the opportunities for education have been extended to almost everyone. The average speller of today is being compared with the exceptional pupil of years back.

Although modern teaching methods seem strange to the majority of parents as they first become acquainted with them, they have actually been in use for the last quarter of a century—gradually changing, gradually growing, gradually improving as the knowledge of childhood grows and as the understanding of a child develops.

# Educational Level of the Nation's Population

By Rose Marie Smith, Educational Statistician

WHAT is the educational attainment of the people of the United States?

As reported by the Bureau of the Census for 1950, the median educational attainment of the Nation's population in the age group 25–29 was 12.1 years of school completed. This means that approximately half of the 25–29 age group in our country had at least entered college—a marked improvement over the same age group of a generation ago, represented by those now 55–64 years old, who had completed only 8.4 years of schooling.

### Trends

Long-time trends for educational attainment of the population are not available because the Bureau of the Census did not collect such data prior to 1940. Trends may be approximated, however, by comparing the median educational attainment of the various age groups in 1950 (see table 1). Thus, the median number of school years completed by those age 25–29 in 1950 (practically all of whom had completed their formal schooling) was 12.1 years; the median number of school years completed by those aged 30–34 in 1950 was 11.5 years; by those aged 35–39, was 10.5 years; by those aged 40–44, was 9.9 years; and so on, each successively older group having progressively lower educational attainment. The oldest group, 65 years and over in 1950, representing the average educational level of almost two generations ago, had completed only 8.2 years of school.

For each age group women had a slightly higher average educational attainment than men.

### Urban and Rural

The adult population (25 years old and over) living in urban areas not only had the highest educational attainment, a median of 10 years of school completed, but also showed the greatest progress over the years: from a median of 8.2 years of school completed by the oldest group (65 years and over) to 12.2 years for the 25–29 year-old group—an increase of approximately 4 years of schooling. Rural-nonfarm adults, with a median educational attainment of 8.9 years, showed increases of about 2.5 years of schooling for men and 3.6 years for women during the same period; and rural-farm persons, with an educational attainment of 8.4 years, showed the least increase: 1.7 years for men and 2.6 for women.

### White and Nonwhite

White persons 25 years old and over in 1950 had completed an average of 9.7 years of school; and nonwhite persons, 7 years. ("Nonwhite" persons, as defined by the Bureau of the Census, consist of Negroes, Indians, Japanese, Chinese, and other nonwhite races.) Nonwhite persons in the age group 25–29 in 1950 had completed somewhat less than 9 years of school, as compared with slightly more than 12 years for the white persons of the same age group. This median of 9 years of school completed by nonwhite persons, however, represented

Table 1.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, BY AGE GROUP, SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREA, AND COLOR, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1950

| ITEM | Years of school completed by persons aged— | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 25 to 29 years | 30 to 34 years | 35 to 39 years | 40 to 44 years | 45 to 54 years | 55 to 64 years | 65 years and over | 25 years and over |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| TOTAL | 12.1 | 11.5 | 10.5 | 9.9 | 8.8 | 8.4 | 8.2 | 9.3 |
| Male | 12.0 | 11.3 | 10.3 | 9.7 | 8.7 | 8.3 | 8.1 | 9.0 |
| Female | 12.1 | 11.8 | 10.7 | 10.1 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 9.6 |
| URBAN | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 10.0 |
| Male | 12.2 | 12.0 | 11.0 | 10.4 | 8.9 | 8.4 | 8.1 | 9.9 |
| Female | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 10.5 | 9.1 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 10.2 |
| RURAL NONFARM | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 8.9 |
| Male | 10.6 | 10.1 | 9.4 | 9.0 | 8.5 | 8.2 | 8.1 | 8.7 |
| Female | 11.9 | 11.0 | 10.5 | 9.5 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 9.1 |
| RURAL FARM | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 8.4 |
| Male | 9.0 | 8.7 | 8.5 | 8.4 | 8.2 | 8.1 | 7.3 | 8.3 |
| Female | 10.6 | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 | 8.6 |
| WHITE | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 9.7 |
| Male | 12.1 | 11.7 | 10.7 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 8.4 | 8.1 | 9.3 |
| Female | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.1 | 10.5 | 9.0 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 10.0 |
| NONWHITE | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | ..... | 7.0 |
| Male | 8.5 | 7.4 | 6.4 | 6.5 | 5.8 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 6.5 |
| Female | 9.0 | 8.1 | 8.0 | 7.5 | 6.8 | 5.4 | 4.4 | 7.4 |

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Population, Preliminary Reports, Series PC–7 No. 6, May 13, 1952.

the greatest progress for any group, since the group of nonwhite persons 65 years old and over who had received their education almost two generations earlier, averaged only 4.4 years of school (table 1).

### Region

The West was conspicuously above the other regions in number of years of school completed by the population aged 25 years and over, with a median of 11.3 years, as compared with 9.3 for the Nation as a whole. The Northeast averaged 9.6 years; the North Central, 9.4; and the South, 8.6 (table 2).

In each region, nonwhite persons, 25 years old and over, had a lower educational attainment level than the white persons in the same region. The median number of school years completed by nonwhite persons aged 25 and over in the South was 5.8 years; for the Nation as a whole, this figure was 6.9 years.

Table 2.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY PERSONS 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY REGION, SEX, AND COLOR, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1950

| REGION | Years of school completed | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ALL CLASSES | | | WHITE | NONWHITE |
| | Total | Male | Female | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES | 9.3 | 9.0 | 9.6 | 9.7 | 6.9 |
| Northeast | 9.6 | 9.5 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 8.4 |
| North Central | 9.4 | 9.0 | 9.9 | 9.5 | 8.4 |
| South | 8.6 | 8.4 | 8.7 | 9.0 | 5.8 |
| West | 11.3 | 10.8 | 11.8 | 11.4 | 8.7 |

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 United States Census of Population, P–B1.

## Tasks That Lie Ahead

(*Continued from inside front cover*)

lican Eightieth Congress, will, literally, be a hospital where there is a story in every room. It will be a combination hospital and laboratory which will admit persons who have various types of diseases which need clinical study. These patients will each receive the most minute medical care so that the Public Health Service can intensively study their particular cases in the hope of finding new answers to pressing medical problems.

Another project in which you might be interested is the special Juvenile Delinquency Project now being studied by the Children's Bureau. This is being financed from private contributions made to the Child Welfare League of America. I am sure each of you, from stories you run in your own newspapers, know that this is a matter of grave national concern. More than a million children a year now come to the attention of police because of delinquency. We have high hopes that this study will be of assistance in trying to find an answer to this deplorable juvenile delinquency problem of our national life.

There are other examples—as you would expect in a Department as large and complex as ours.

I am sure it will be no news to you when I say that the Department, in the days and years ahead, will continue to make news for you.

As a Department whose concern, I repeat, is our human resources you would expect these stories to be human interest stories as well as the normal grist of news about appointments and administrative changes.

I have spoken of the complexities of the Department and of the tasks that lie ahead and of an occasional twinge of nostalgia for the editor's chair. Yet I can say to you in all sincerity that I am grateful for the opportunity that has been given me to play a part in these undertakings.

## Last Issue of This Volume

This June 1953 issue of SCHOOL LIFE is the last issue of the 1952–53 volume No. 35.

If your SCHOOL LIFE subscription expires with the June issue, you may wish to renew your subscription at this time to insure getting SCHOOL LIFE service during the 1953–54 academic year. Send check or money order ($1.25) to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25. D. C.

# Extending Special Education Through State Legislation

By Arthur S. Hill, Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth

AUTHORIZATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION for exceptional children is found in the school laws of 46 States.

This statement does not imply that all 46 of these States have legislation pointed toward a comprehensive plan of special education services for all exceptional children. In several States only a restricted program for one type of handicapped child is mentioned in the school laws, i. e., instruction for homebound crippled children, or for hospitalized crippled children. In a few States the legislation authorizes or requires special education for one or more types of handicapped children but provides for no financial participation of the State in local programs. Nevertheless, in most instances, the legislation specifies that special instructional services may, or must, be maintained for several types of handicapped children and provides for State assistance to local districts in which special education services are established.

In 1949 Martens[1] found that only 42 States referred to special education in their school legislation. However, legal recognition of the school needs of exceptional children hardly begins to tell the story of developments in this field of education during the past three years. A comparison between the legislative information reported by Martens in the Office of Education bulletin, "State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children" (including its addenda which brought her data up to date as of June 1949) and similar information pertaining to legislation in existence as of June 1952 reveals that during the 3-year period, 15 State legislatures passed bills extending existing or establishing new special education programs involving State assistance to local school districts. These legislative acts did not include increases in appropriations designed to implement more adequately already existing statutes. The new laws and modifications of existing legislation may be classified as follows:

*New comprehensive legislation providing State financial assistance to local programs for both physically and mentally handicapped children* ---------- 6
(*Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, North Dakota, Rhode Island*)

*Extension of existing legislation for the physically handicapped to include mentally retarded, socially maladjusted, and "other" handicapped children* ---------- 1
(*Washington*)

*Extension of legislation to include mentally retarded children in States already providing financial assistance to programs for the physically handicapped* ---------- 3
(*Louisiana, Tennessee, Texas*)

*Extension of existing legislation to include severely mentally retarded children* ---------- 4
(*California, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin*)

*New legislation providing reimbursement for program for mentally retarded children and an additional tax levy for support of programs for physically handicapped* ---------- 1
(*Kansas*)

In several additional States, legislation affecting certain types of handicapped school children and not involving comprehensive programs was passed. These involved home-bound children in Vermont and "handicapped" children in Alabama. The later legislation authorizes special classes for handicapped children approved by the State Crippled Children's Society but provides only transportation assistance to local school districts maintaining classes.

An overview of legislative developments between 1949 and 1952 affecting local special education programs is presented in this article.

The rapid development of special education has been implemented to a great extent by provisions for supplementary assistance from State school funds. Since classes for handicapped children usually vary in size from a half dozen deaf pupils to a maximum of 20 mentally retarded children, and services for speech handicapped, hard-of-hearing children, and those with limited vision, involve the employment of additional instructors, it is understandable that many of the legislative acts have included formulas for "excess cost" reimbursement. Such formulas are written into the provisions of more than half of the legislation providing reimbursement for special education services to physically and mentally handicapped children.

It appears that the development of programs for general support of local schools from State funds has made an increasing impact upon the methods of assisting local special education services. In a number of States, the support of local schools is based upon an overall Foundation Program. State funds are distributed upon the basis of class room units in operation or the number of pupils in average daily attend-

**Growth of State Legislation for Educational Services to Exceptional Children 1949–52**

| Provisions specified in legislative acts | Number of States | |
|---|---|---|
| | June 1952 | June 1949 |
| Authorization of some type or types of special education with and without financial assistance | 46 | 42 |
| Reimbursement from State funds authorized for one or more types of programs | 44 | 34 |
| Comprehensive legislation, referring to both physically and mentally handicapped children and providing State aid for both types of programs | 31 | 22 |
| Reimbursement provided to local districts for special education programs serving various types of physically handicapped children | 37 | 30 |
| Reimbursement provided to local districts for special education programs serving mentally retarded children | 32 | 21 |
| Modifications extending special education and State assistance to programs for severely retarded children | 4 | 0 |
| State directors, coordinators, or departments of special education required by legislation, or provided as part of the program of the State department of education | 41 | 34 |

[1] Martens, Elise. State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children, and Addenda.

# The Legislative Status of Public School Special Education Programs in Continental United States

JUNE 1952

| State | Physically handicapped | | | | | | Mentally retarded | | | Severely mentally retarded | | | Maladjusted emotional, social, and delinquency problems | | | State dept. or director of special education | | Remarks |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Various handicapping conditions including speech | | | Restricted to one or two types of programs | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Mandatory | Permissive | Type of reimbursement | Mandatory | Permissive | Type of reimbursement | Mandatory | Permissive | Type of reimbursement | Mandatory | Permissive | Type of reimbursement | Mandatory | Permissive | Type of reimbursement | Required by legislation | Established by chief State school officer | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
| *Continental U. S.* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Alabama | | xx | None | | | | | x | None | | | | | x | None | | | |
| Arizona | | | | | x | B1 | | | | | | | | | | | xx | |
| Arkansas | x | | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | | | | | | | x | |
| California | | x | A3 | | | | x | | A2 | | xx | A3 | | | | x | | |
| Colorado | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | | | | | | x | | |
| Connecticut | x | | A3 | | | | | x | None | | | | | | | x | | |
| Delaware | xx | | A1 | | | | xx | | A1 | | | | xx | | A1 | xx | | |
| Florida | x | | B2 | | | | x | | B2 | | | | x | | B2 | | x | |
| Georgia | | xx | B3 | | | | | xx | B3 | | | | | | | | xx | Law specifies exceptional children; interpretation is assumed. |
| Idaho | | xx | B2 | | | | | xx | B2 | | | | | | | | xx | |
| Illinois | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | x | |
| Indiana | | x | A1 | | | | | x | A1 | | | | | | | x | | |
| Iowa | | x | A1 | | | | | x | A1 | | | | | x | A1 | x | | |
| Kansas | | xx | None | | | | | xx | B2 | | | | | xx | None | xx | | Local districts may levy 1 mill tax to support programs of special education. |
| Kentucky | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | | | | | | x | | |
| Louisiana | | x | A3 | | | | | xx | A3 | | | | | | | | x | |
| Maine | x | | A3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | | |
| Maryland | | x | A3 | | | | | x | B2 | | | | | | | | x | |
| Massachusetts | x | | D | | | | x | | None | | | | | | | x | | |
| Michigan | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | | | | | | | x | |
| Minnesota | | x | A3 | | | | | x | A3 | | xx | B1 | | | | | x | |
| Mississippi | | xx | A3 | | | | | xx | A3 | | | | | | | | xx | |
| Missouri | | x | A3 | | | | x | | A3 | | | | | | | x | | No legislation. |
| Montana | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Nebraska | x | | A3 | | | | x | | A3 | | | | | | | x | | |
| Nevada | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | No legislation. |
| New Hampshire | x | | None | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | |
| New Jersey | x | | A2 | | | | x | | B2 | | | | | | | | x | |
| New Mexico | | | | | x | B3 | | | | | | | | | | | x | |
| New York | x | | C2 | | | | x | | C2 | | | | x | | C2 | | x | |
| North Carolina | | x | A1 | | | | | x | A1 | | | | | | | x | | |
| North Dakota | | xx | A3 | | | | | xx | A3 | | | | | xx | A3 | xx | | |
| Ohio | | x | A3 | | | | | x | B2 | | | | | | | x | | Law is mandatory for crippled children. |
| Oklahoma | | x | A3 | | | | | x | B2 | | | | | | | x | | No reimbursement provided at present, appropriation bill vetoed. |
| Oregon | x | | A3 | | | | | | | | | | | x | A3 | x | | |
| Pennsylvania | x | | B1 | | | | x | | B1 | | xx | E | | | | | x | |
| Rhode Island | xx | | C2 | | | | xx | | C2 | | | | xx | | C2 | xx | | |
| South Carolina | | | | | x | D | | | | | | | | | | | x | Appropriation measure for speech correction and hearing program. |
| South Dakota | | | | | x | D | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Tennessee | | x | A3 | | | | | xx | A3 | | | | | | | | x | |
| Texas | x | | B2 | | | | xx | | B2 | | | | | | | x | | |
| Utah | xx | | B2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Recent appropriations approved to implement law requiring certain programs for physically handicapped. |
| Vermont | | | | | xx | C1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Virginia | | x | D | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | | Derived from appropriation bill. |
| Washington | | x | D | | | | | xx | D | | | | | xx | D | x | | |
| West Virginia | | | | | x | D | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wisconsin | | x | B2 | | | | | x | B2 | | xx | B2 | | | | x | | |
| Wyoming | x | | C1 | | | | x | | C1 | | | | | | | x | | |

*EXPLANATION*

Permissive legislation states that local districts *may* provide special education services.

Mandatory legislation *requires* the establishment of services under certain conditions, i. e., upon petition of parents, the identification of a certain number of handicapped pupils, etc.

The data are compiled from legislative provisions and do not involve local interpretations, except in Georgia (see Remarks, above), or modifications due to limited appropriations.

x Legislation reported by Martens in 1949.

xx Legislation reported since 1949.

*Code for Types of Reimbursement*

A. Excess cost formulas:
- A1 Total excess cost.
- A2 Limited to a stipulated percent of excess cost.
- A3 Excess cost limited to a stated amount per pupil.

B. Prescribed Allotments:
- B1 Per pupil.
- B2 Per class unit, according to a formula.
- B3 For additional teachers.

C. Cost of maintaining special classes provided:
- C1 Total costs.
- C2 Limited to a stipulated percent of total cost.

D. Administrative Allotments—no specified formula.

E. Classes Provided by State Department of Education.

ance. It is hardly surprising then that there seems to be an increasing tendency for special classes to be reimbursed as units in the general educational program. State assistance may be given as flat amounts per teacher or per classroom, or school districts may be authorized to maintain special class units involving fewer children than the number required for the reimbursement of regular elementary and secondary school classes. About one-sixth of reimbursed programs for the physically handicapped and nearly one-third of those for mentally handicapped children involve assistance on a per unit or additional teacher basis. Present legal provisions for allotting reimbursement are outlined in the following table:

**Legislative Provisions for State Assistance to Local Special Education Programs**

| Type of formula for reimbursement of special education | Number of States in which formula is used | |
|---|---|---|
| | Physically handicapped | Mentally handicapped |
| ***Excess cost formulas:*** | | |
| Total excess cost | 4 | 4 |
| Limited to a stipulated percent of excess cost | 1 | 1 |
| Excess cost limited to a stated amount per pupil | 19 | 12 |
| Range of limit per pupil excess cost | $100–$400 | $100–$300 |
| Average of limit per pupil excess cost | $290 | $160 |
| ***Prescribed allotments:*** | | |
| Per pupil | 2 | 1 |
| Per class unit according to a formula | 5 | 9 |
| For additional teachers | 2 | 1 |
| ***Cost of maintaining special classes provided:*** | | |
| Total costs | 2 | 1 |
| Limited to a stipulated percent of total cost | 2 | 2 |
| ***Administrative allotments—no specified formula*** | 6 | 1 |
| Total | 43 | 32 |

Authorities in the education of handicapped children are agreed that the educational development of many exceptional children depends upon early recognition of needs and appropriate training during the preschool years, as well as the extension of school programs beyond the ordinary school-leaving ages. Nursery school experiences for blind, deaf, and cerebral palsied children are considered very important.

Many legislative acts pertaining to special education do not specify the age limits of the children who may be served but a considerable number extend the authorization of services to nursery age children and young adults. In a number of instances laws apply to any children under the age of 21 and the authorization of preschool programs may be implied. Two States specify that preschool age children may be included in special education programs and several States indicate that certain types of instructional services may be provided for 3- and 4-year old children. These modifications in early entrance requirements are not limited entirely to crippled, deaf, or blind children. Three States set the age of acceptance for mentally retarded pupils at 3. Seven laws merely require that children be under 21 or some other upper age limit.

At the upper limits of acceptance the greatest proportion of legislative acts indicate that services may be extended to children up to 21 years of age, the usual age limit for tuition free schooling. However, in a limited number of instances special education may be provided only for children up to the ages of 17, 18, or 19. Several laws impose no maximum age limitations, two specify an upper level of 25 and another allows youth already enrolled in special classes to continue their membership three years beyond the age of 21. In two States (Louisiana and North Carolina) special education may be provided for handicapped adults.

A tabular summary of special education legislation in the 48 States as of June 1952 is presented on page 141.

Among the conclusions that may be drawn from this review, the following seem to have unusual significance:

1. The States have made exceptional progress in providing legislative encouragement for special education during the past few years.

2. All except two States have recognized the need for some type of special education service through legislative enactments. In 44 States reimbursement for some type or types of programs is legally authorized.

3. An entirely new field for special education legislation has developed in recent enactments providing school programs for severely retarded children.

4. Much of the legislation can be described best as having a "piecemeal" approach. In only 31 States are there provisions for reimbursed local programs for both physically and mentally handicapped children.

5. There is no common pattern or formula for the reimbursement of local programs, although payment by the State of all or a part of excess costs seems to be the most commonly adopted method. Reimbursement from general school funds on a per-unit or per-teacher basis seems to be gaining in favor.

6. Legal authorization of services for children below and above the usually accepted school-age classification in a considerable number of States seems to indicate that much of the adopted legislation is consistent with modern thinking relative to the education of exceptional children.

7. Specific authorization of special education programs for gifted children is found in only two States and for "maladjusted" children in a limited number of instances. Nevertheless, many of the legislative acts indicate that services may be provided for "otherwise" handicapped children and might be interpreted to apply to all pupils deviating markedly from the average.

8. State legislation usually has been accompanied by provisions for leadership in the State departments of education. In 23 States this leadership is required by law in terms of a director or coordinator of Special Education. In other instances responsibilities for carrying out the legal provisions are given to chief State school officers, many of whom have appointed specialists in Special Education to their staffs. In 41 States a member of the staff of the State department of education—frequently assisted by one or more specialists—has been designated as the director, supervisor, or consultant in Special Education. All but five of these are assigned to full time services in this field.

The implications of the data may be more disturbing than satisfying. It is obvious that the advances in legislative enactments, and their formulas for State assistance, indicate that the citizens of the various States expect their schools to provide well for their handicapped children. It is true that subsequent implementing appropriations do not always enable the States to reimburse their special education services to the extent indicated by the enabling legislation. In one instance a law providing

*(Continued on page 141)*

# Testing High School Students for College

By Walter G. Daniel, Specialist for Higher Education,
Division of Higher Education

A COOPERATIVE Intercollegiate Examination Program has been developed by thirteen colleges and was implemented with the administration of tests during the period March 1–15, 1953. The initial sponsors are Bishop College (Texas), Clark College (Georgia), Dillard University (Louisiana), Fisk University (Tennessee), Johnson C. Smith University (North Carolina), Knoxville College (Tennessee), Le Moyne College (Tennessee), Lincoln University (Pennsylvania), Morehouse College (Georgia), Morris Brown College (Georgia), Spelman College (Georgia), Talladega College (Alabama), and Tougaloo College (Mississippi). These are private institutions which have united in an effort to solve some of the problems connected with securing a student body competent to do college work. They believe that a preadmission testing program will help to provide a more objective measure of student selection. In agreeing to become participants, they have committed themselves to sharing jointly in the administration of tests and the financing of costs. Experimentation and evaluation are important aspects in the operation of the program during its first year.

## Advantages

The program has evolved through cooperative planning. Over varying periods of time, a few of the colleges have conducted individual testing programs. Through experience and observation officials have become increasingly aware of unnecessary competition, duplication of effort, evidences of waste of time, personnel and resources, and the existence of dissatisfaction in making arrangements in the secondary schools. A conference of college representatives explored the possibilities and values of working together. In a mimeographed statement the six following advantages of a cooperative testing plan were listed:

1. "It would avoid the irritation and loss of time involved for high schools and students when several colleges give their own separate examinations in the course of a month or so in the same locality.

2. "It would save money for the colleges by eliminating the serious waste involved in multiple travel and maintenance expenses and in multiple expenses for test administration and scoring when two or more colleges give independent examinations in the same locality.

3. "It would lead students and high schools to attach greater importance to the examinations because the examinations would be announced well in advance for a definite date and would be publicized as examinations associated with a number of colleges.

4. "It would allow the colleges to offer tests in a much larger number of places than any one college can now reach.

5. "It would provide selected students with a good opportunity for practice in taking objective examinations, which are becoming more and more important in educational advancement, and it would provide the secondary schools with an additional check on their academic success with their students. We hope that the plan would provide a significant incentive for individual high school students who are eager to prove their merit and we hope that it might stimulate the schools to try to provide more challenging work, and in some cases a more appropriate curriculum for the superior student.

6. "The main, inclusive value of the plan is that it would help colleges to find the best qualified students for scholarship awards and would help colleges to sift out in advance those students who are not adequatcly equipped for college work. Individual colleges would of course make their own decisions about their use of the tests."

## Flexible Uses

Within the framework of general uniform procedures, the plan allows the institutions freedom and flexibility in using the test results according to their own purposes and needs. At least three different uses and types of requirements have been identified. (1) Most colleges have indicated that only scholarship applicants were required to take the tests. (2) A few colleges have prescribed the examinations for all candidates for admission. (3) Some colleges have specified the tests for applicants who did not qualify for admission through the usual procedure, and wished an opportunity to demonstrate their fitness for college by some other means.

## Testing Centers

Approximately 75 testing centers were announced for the 26 States and the District of Columbia. In determining the location of these centers, the principal aim was to reach the areas with the largest population and potential for college students. Examinations were scheduled in from three to seven cities in each of the States of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. The heaviest concentration, therefore, was in the South. In each of the border States of Ohio and West Virginia, two cities were selected. In 14 other States, in both the North and the South, the largest city was chosen. In this group the States were Arkansas, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, and Oklahoma.

The participating colleges assumed responsibility for giving the tests in the areas located nearest to them. For example, the colleges in Atlanta were in charge of the centers established in Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Because of needs, resources and experience, some of the in-

stitutions undertook to cover a larger geographic area than others. Each institution made all the arrangements with the high schools for administering the tests in the assigned area and then submitted comprehensive statements of details to the liaison officer. The interested students registered for the examination through a sponsoring college which issued a ticket of admission to the testing center.

The liaison officer was Dean George St. John, Jr., of The Basic College, Fisk University. His responsibilities included the development of uniform procedures and general instructions regarding test administration, the coordination of all information and activities, and the supplying of such supplementary information and assistance as would facilitate smooth operation and efficient management.

### Scoring

The Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N. J., accepted the responsibility for test scoring. It will send the individual scores to the colleges named by the student at the time of his registration.

### Recruiting

Each college was left free to continue its own program of recruitment. Prior to the giving of the tests, it supplied appropriate information concerning scholarship awards and examination requirements by the methods which it deemed most appropriate and useful.

### Association Stimulation and Endorsement

Effective stimulation for the development and implementation of this program came from the Commission on Higher Education of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Following a discussion at its Atlanta meeting in December 1951, the Commission authorized a committee to investigate the problems and possibilities in cooperative testing. In October 1952, Fisk University sponsored a conference on the subject and some of the representatives at this meeting served as members of the committee which the Commission chairman appointed. In addition to the delegates from Dillard, Fisk, Hampton, Howard, Lincoln of Pennsylvania, Morehouse, Spelman, Talladega, and Tuskegee, there were representatives from the College Entrance Examination Board, the Educational Testing Service, the National Scholarship and Service Fund for Negro Students, and the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. From this conference came a proposal for the establishment of the "Cooperative Intercollegiate Examination Program." Institutions were circularized during November. The proposal was incorporated in a report by the special committee presented at the Association meeting at Memphis in December 1952. The Commission on Higher Education gave its informal endorsement, the opportunity to participate was extended to both public and private colleges, and the delegates from the interested institutions proceeded at once to make the necessary arrangements.

In undertaking this cooperative enterprise, the institutions did not wish to organize a special regional board or a special examination board for Negro institutions. Serious consideration was given to the use of the College Entrance Board Scholastic Aptitude Tests. The cost of $6 per student, however, seemed prohibitive. Most of the students who were interested in the examination could not afford such a fee in view of their low economic status. The colleges considered the total cost involved more than they were able to bear. They decided on tests that were similar to those which many had used, and the Educational Testing Service indicated that it could cooperate with a program that would be less expensive. The examinations were administered without cost to the students and without restriction as to race. Four of the institutions associated with the plan are developing interracial student bodies.

### Other Colleges Interested

With the interest and cooperation that have already been engendered, additional colleges are expected to join the program another year. The 65 institutions which hold membership in the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools were canvassed in November. Replies from two-thirds of the group showed that very few colleges have used preadmission examinations to any considerable extent. A total of 41, however, indicated an interest in such a program for one or more purposes. Thirty-nine felt that examinations were needed to determine scholastic awards. Regarding other purposes, 22 favored examinations for all applicants and 14 felt that they should be used for candidates whose high-school records indicated some doubt with regard to their qualifications. Many institutions expressed an interest but were unable to participate during the first year. All of the 13 sponsoring colleges hold membership in the United Negro College Fund which has achieved outstanding success in cooperative fund raising.

### Significance

The Cooperative Intercollegiate Examination Program provides another means of increasing the opportunities for higher education on the basis of individual merit and worth. It constitutes a challenge to the high schools to prepare qualified students who may meet objective standards for college admission. If the participating institutions succeed in attracting good college students and then offer an education that will meet their needs, a signal service will have been rendered for the cause of higher education. These institutions have created a plan that offers a potential demonstration of the kind of contribution that private colleges may make to improving the quality of higher education programs.

## Special Education

(*Continued from page 142*)

substantial State assistance has been rendered inoperative due to the veto of an appropriation bill. Nevertheless, the intent of the legislation is plain, and the financial implementations have been strong enough to cause a corresponding demand for increased services in local school districts.

Legislation sets a pattern for providing educational services and the implementation of legislative acts must involve both financial assistance and leadership. In many instances the establishment of local programs for exceptional children has been delayed and limited by lack of available teachers and qualified professional leadership. The preparation of specialized teachers is likewise limited because qualified college personnel experienced in special education is difficult to find. In view of the current lag in teacher education in the various States, it would appear that the situation may get worse before it improves. Perhaps the most important conclusion to be reached from a review of the legislative data is that in special education, even more than in other areas of teacher shortage, there must be found effective ways and means of teacher recruitment and preparation consistent with the rapidly developing demand for special education services.



U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1953

# New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

*(Books and pamphlets listed should be ordered from the publishers.)*

*Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth.* Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, William G. Brink, Chairman. Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press. 1953. 316 p. (Part I, the Fifty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.) Cloth $3.50. Paper $2.75.

*Bright Children; A Guide for Parents.* By Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Moseley. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1953. 238 p. $3.50.

*The Community School.* Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, Maurice F. Seay, Chairman. Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press, 1953. 292 p. (Part II, the Fifty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.) Cloth $3.50. Paper $2.75.

*Education in Georgia Moves Forward: Extended School Program.* Atlanta, Ga., State Department of Education. 1952. 36 p. Illus.

*Education of Veterans in Farming.* Prepared by the Committee on Research in the Education of Farm Veterans. Washington, D. C., American Vocational Association, Inc., 1952. 96 p. (AVA Research Bulletin No. 5.) 75 cents.

*Educational Work at the Cleveland Museum of Art.* By Thomas Munro and Jane Grimes. Rev. 2nd Ed. Cleveland, The Cleveland Museum of Art, 1952. 89 p. Illus.

*A Guide to Citizens' Action for the Public Schools.* Montpelier, Vermont, Division of Educational Planning, State Department of Education, 1952. 50 p.

*Healthy Personality Development in Children As Related to Programs of the Federal Government.* Report of the Interagency Conference, Nassau Tavern, Princeton, N. J., September 21–25, 1951. New York, The Josiah Macy Jr. Foundation, 1952. 154 p. Illus. $1.

*How to Get Along With Others.* By Bernice L. Neugarten. Chicago, Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 40 p. Illus. (Life Adjustment Booklet.) 40 cents.

*Improvement of Holding Power Through a Continuous Study of Youth in School.* The Readjustment of High School Education. New York State Education Department. Albany, the University of the State of New York Press. 1952. 56 p.

*A Public School for Tomorrow; a Description of the Matthew F. Maury School, Richmond, Virginia.* By Marion Nesbitt. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1953. 164 p. $2.50.

# Selected Theses on Education

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THESE THESES are on file in the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

*An Analysis of the Training Needs of Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors in New England.* By Frieda A. Sapienza. Master's, 1946. Boston University. 95 p. ms.

*Apportioning State Aid in the United States.* By William J. Kowalski. Master's, 1952. University of Michigan. 110 p. ms.

*Characteristics To Be Incorporated in a United States Junior High School History Book for the Slow Reader.* By Mary Patsourakos. Master's, 1940. Boston University. 68 p. ms.

*A Comparison of Two Plans for the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers.* By Curtis E. Nash. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 335 p. ms.

*A Compilation, Tabulation, and Analysis of Spelling Errors in Grade Six.* By Henri Joseph Lambert. Master's, 1940. Boston University. 180 p. ms.

*Deterrents to Film Use In Schools.* By Arthur Ole Davidson. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 255 p. ms.

*The Effectiveness of Two Methods of Teaching Social Studies in High School.* By Alva Freadman Allen. Master's, 1952. Indiana State Teachers College. 74 p. ms.

*Leadership and Group Productivity.* By David Robert Hunter. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 206 p. ms.

*The Simplification of English.* By John Burt Wight. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 265 p. ms.

*A Study and Appraisal of Oregon's Continuation Schools.* By Mary Manning. Doctor's, 1952. University of Oregon. 187 p. ms.

*A Study of Balance of Audio-Defective Children and Adolescents.* By Barbara Childs Dixon. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 38 p. ms.

*A Survey of the Testing Program of the Reserve Township School in Relationship to the Establishment of a Functional Guidance Program.* By Charles Warren Flicek. Master's, 1952. Indiana State Teachers College. 72 p. ms.

*Teacher-Pupil Planning in the Primary Grades.* By Tosca E. Albera. Master's 1952. Western Michigan College of Education. 70 p. ms.

*The Socio-Economic Status of the Classroom Teacher in Metropolitan Detroit With Special Emphasis on Extra-Contractual Income and Its Implications.* By James David Berry. Sponsored by the Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Cooperative School Studies. Doctor's 1952. Wayne University. 14 p. ms. (Abstract.)

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## Office of Education

**Civil, Electrical, and Mechanical Engineering.** Supplement to Guidance Leaflets Nos. 11, 12, and 13. By Walter J. Greenleaf. January 1952. Free.

**The Federal-State Vocational Education Program.** Misc. 2354, Revised March 1953. Free.

**Home Economics in Schools and Colleges of the U. S. A.** Questions and Answers. Misc. 3306—Rev. 2, March 1953. Free.

**Languages for Our Children.** By Mrs. Newton P. Leonard. Reprint from **School Life**, March 1953. Free.

**Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities with Enrollments of 5,000 Students or More, 1951–52.** Circular No. 370, March 1953. Free.

**Statistics of City School Systems, 1949–50.** By Lester B. Herlihy. Chapter 3, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1948–50. 1953. 30 cents.

**Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 100,000 or more: 1952.**—By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 372, April 1953. Free.

**Statistics of State School Systems, 1950–51.** By William A. Jaracz. Circular No. 367, March 1953. Free.

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FREE copies are still available of the following Office of Education publications issued in recent years:

Annual Reports of the Office of Education. Available to librarians to complete files for years 1875 through 1952.

**Atomic Energy Here to Stay.** Supplement to **School Life**, March 1949.

Biennial Survey of Education in the United States. Bound volumes for years 1934–36 and 1936–38 available to librarians.

**Business Periodicals.** Misc. 3148, 1948.

**Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1950–51.** Circular No. 333.

**Education in Turkey.** Bulletin 1952, No. 10.

**Education in the United States of America.** Special Series No. 3, 1951.

**Educational Interests and Activities of 25 National Organizations.** 1950.

**Homemakers in the Defense Program.** Misc. 3403. January 1952.

**Officer Training for Fire Departments.** Misc. 3345, March 1951.

**Pupils Transportation in Cities.** Pamphlet No. 111. 1951.

**Recordings for Teaching Literature and Languages in the High School.** Bulletin 1952, No. 19.

**A Report on an Administrative Survey of the U. S. Office of Education.** October 1950.

**Requirements and High School Students' Programs.** Circular No. 300, February 1949.

**Resource Material on Inflation.** Misc. 3401, August 1951.

**Safety for the Worker.** Defense Training Leaflet No. 1, 1942.

**Socio-Economic Approach to Educational Problems.** Misc. No. 6, volume 1, 1942.

**Sources of Materials Dealing With Reading Difficulties.** June 1948.

**1949 Work Conference on Life Adjustment Education.**

## Other Government Agencies

### *Department of Defense*

**United States Army in World War II, the War in the Pacific—Approach to the Philippines.** 1953. Cloth. $5.50.

### *Department of Labor*

**Employment Outlook for Air Transportation.** Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 1128. 1951. 20 cents.

**Employment Outlook for Mechanics and Repairmen.** Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 1129. 1951. 20 cents.

**Employment Outlook in Metalworking Occupations.** Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 1130. 1951. 30 cents.

**Employment Outlook in Printing Occupations.** Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 1126. 1951. 25 cents.

### *Department of State*

**Background—Military Assistance to Latin America.** 1953. 5 cents.

**Point 4, What It Is, How It Works.** 1953. 5 cents.

### *Government Printing Office*

**Checklist of Official Government Publications on Civil Defense.** Superintendent of Documents. 1953. Free.

### *Library of Congress*

**Education in Western Germany.** 1953. $1 from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

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# School Life

*Special Issue*

## Citizenship for an Atomic Age

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE Office of Education

# Citizenship for the Atomic Age

*Every age has faced grave problems. But in no other age have there been problems as complex or as perilous as those confronting us today. Twentieth Century technology, which has brought mankind so many blessings, has also increased man's power to do evil. Today, the forces of good and evil hang in precarious balance—a balance which must be overweighted for good if we are to preserve our civilization. Avoidance of an atomic war is the paramount problem for the young men and women now in our schools who will assume the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship in a few short years. How will they be equipped to solve the problems of an atomic age? Will they be wiser, more patient, more firm, of keener vision than our generation? Will they have a deep sense of religious and moral responsibility? The answer rests heavily upon the educators of the free world—upon dedicated leadership in the schools and in the pulpits of this and every free land.*

LEWIS L. STRAUSS

*—Chairman, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission*

VAL PETERSON

*Faith, hope, and courage are vital elements of the American spirit. The tensions of today's world make great demands on that spirit. Never has the need for responsible citizenship been so great. Never has good citizenship had more at stake. Never has the promise of the future been so bright, if we be strong, if we be resolute, if we be dedicated. The schools of our Nation have done much to preserve the ideals of democracy and to develop responsible citizenship. I commend our school administrators and teachers for their strength, their resolution, and their dedication to great purposes.*

*—Administrator, Federal Civil Defense Administration*

## CONTENTS



THIS special issue of SCHOOL LIFE—"Citizenship for the Atomic Age"—presents information furnished by the Atomic Energy Commission and the Federal Civil Defcnse Administration.

The Office of Education is pleased to offer this timely report to educators and the public as a supplement to Volume 35 of SCHOOL LIFE.

Publication of this special issue was approved by the Bureau of the Budget, and is in line with the traditional mandate for the Office of Education ". . . to promote the cause of education throughout the country."

### Consultants

*Cooperating in the planning and production of this special supplement to SCHOOL LIFE, Volume 35 have been:*

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# Living Without Fear
# In a Century of Continuing Crisis

by R. J. Blakely,* The Fund for Adult Education Established by the Ford Foundation

HOW could *anyone* live without fear in *any* century? No age has been without its reasons for fear. For most human beings, at least one of the Four Horsemen, when not actually thundering around, was not far away. Whenever a people or a class has felt secure simply because it judged that it deserved to be secure or was lucky, history has quickly and cruelly exposed that delusion.

How in particular can one live without fear in the second half of the Twentieth Century?

The Soviet Union developed nuclear weapons much sooner than most experts anticipated. It would be foolish to assume that the Soviet Union will not soon have them in a sizeable number.

American nuclear development indicates at the very least that there is some reason to believe that the fusion bomb is both possible and deliverable. It would be foolish to assume that what is possible for us is not possible for the Soviet Union.

It must be assumed that methods of the delivery of nuclear weapons have been vastly improved since World War II and will continue to be improved by the U. S. S. R. as well as by the United States. Defense against delivery, in the light of the damage which even a few weapons can do, almost certainly has not kept pace.

Nuclear weapons are only one kind of "weapons of mass destruction." In others, such as radioactive, biological and chemical poisons, the Soviet Union must be assumed to have made and to be making headway.

The American society, because of its highly industrialized nature and its intense concentrations of physical resources and people, is the most vulnerable society on earth to weapons of mass destruction.

To speak very mildly, the American people's efforts to reduce their vulnerability to weapons of mass destruction have been inadequate.

Plainly, we are facing greater dangers and are having made upon us greater demands than any other generation in history. These dangers and these demands are not passing ones. They will be with us and increasing in magnitude for as far ahead as even the most optimistic can foresee.

This may seem a strange way to begin an article on living without fear. But what is fearlessness? It certainly is not being ignorant of or refusing to accept reality. It is not even—despite the language—not feeling fear. Fear is a response given us by nature to help us survive. A better phrase would, perhaps, be "how to live courageously," for courage means carrying on, despite fear, with intelligence and purpose.

Both intelligence and purpose require us to ask, "What produced the continuing crisis in which we live? What can we do about it?"

Within the limits of this article, I list three of the main factors which have brought the present situation to pass.

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*Manager, Office for the Central Region.



261059°—53——1

1. ***Increasing control over nature without comparable control over society.*** Nuclear weapons are the most spectacular products of the "age of science." But four points should be kept in mind.

First, science has produced much good and promises even more good. The nuclear bomb and the germ capsule are concentrates of knowledge which hold almost unbelievable potential boons for mankind.

Second, the essence of science does not lie in its products, either for good or for ill. It lies in an attitude and a method—the attitude of "methodic doubt," the refusal to accept any proposition merely on authority; the method of critical analysis, hypothesis, observation, experiment and verification.

Third, the technology of science is the product of intellectual and social freedom generally; it thrives best in an atmosphere of general freedom.

Fourth, although specific methods must be appropriate to different subject matter, the attitudes and methods of science applied to society may have as vast potentials as they have applied to nature. In horrible ways we have seen this in nazism and communism. Always we must remember that science itself is amoral. It is the persons who use it and the ends and the means in the service of which they put it to use that make it moral or immoral. Already we know enough to see that the social sciences can be one of the first handmaidens in the service of a humane, rational and decent world.

2. ***Democracy without adequate preparation for wise "rule by the people."*** The simple and powerful meaning which the peoples of the world have read into the ideas of the present age is that the conditions of life need not be accepted passively. Volcanic resentments and tidal yearnings have been unleashed. These have resulted in a series of revolts and revolutions, national and social.

When groups of individuals who have not shared in government seize the reins, let us not be surprised that they do not handle them well. In the first place, it is rare that they are given the reins peaceably and rarer still that they are tutored before the surrender. In the second place, self-government, like walking, cannot be learned without practice, and practice means falls and dangerous climbs.

Many are the demagogues to exploit and pervert the people's resentments and yearnings. The American people were the first to develop self-government; they have achieved the highest success. Theirs are the opportunity and responsibility to help guide the torrent of democracy into the proper channels, to guide most importantly by example, but also by wise instruction and assistance.

3. ***An interdependent world made up by all the cultures and subcultures of the human race without either a pervasive toleration of differences or an adequate system for dealing peaceably with common affairs.*** Did human kind evolve in one place and migrate over the planet? Or did it evolve independently in several or many places? This is a subject for speculation and debate. Regardless, human kind is at once more the same and more various than any other species. It is more similar in its fundamental characteristics and capacities. It is more various in the expressions of these characteristics and capacities. It is similar in that each human must learn everything he knows. It is different in that each human is the creature of his culture, and human kind has a bewildering variety of cultures.

The creatures of each culture naturally regard their way of life as "the way" and all other ways of life as inferior at least and menacing at worst. Yet, today, because of science all cultures and subcultures are intimately in contact and intricately interdependent. And, because of the urge for self-determination, which is nationalism in terms of peoples, and democracy in terms of individuals, each culture is striving grimly for self-fulfillment.

Many are the false prophets and the deceivers who would turn old tired imperialisms into new vigorous ones. What is needed is a genuine respect for differences and a willingness to work together. This is a description on a planetary scale of what the American society has achieved on a national scale. It calls attention to the opportunity and the responsibility of the American people to give leadership—a leadership which learns and educates and develops further leadership.

In sketching how we arrived at this century of continuing crisis, I have tried to indicate that the situation is a product of achievement. I have tried also to indicate the hopeful aspects and the main courses of the things to be done.

Against this background and in this forecast, let us look at the purposes of civil defense. They are at least four:

1. To help prevent a war or other disaster. 2. To prepare to help win a war or overcome disaster, should one occur. 3. To help reduce the loss of civilian life and property during war or disaster. 4. To help increase the Nation's ability to resume activity afterwards.

Civil defense will contribute to the prevention of war, because it will reduce the advantages of attack. In this respect, it is affirmative. In this respect, it should not be regarded as pessimistic by ourselves, discouraging by our allies, or ominous by our enemies.

However, no program limited to such matters as decentralization, plane-spotting, stockpiling and the like—as necessary as these are—can hope to succeed. Civil defense must be a part of a larger program. This program cannot be negative; it must be highly affirmative. And affirmation is not made by fear. It is made by confidence and hope.

At this point, I would like to return to the three major factors which produced this century of continuing crisis—the incomplete achievements and the unfinished business of science, democracy, and the multicultural world society which is being born.

Who would choose a different time in which to be alive? Who has taken the leadership in science? Western society, of which the American people are a part. Who has taken leadership in applying science for humane purposes? The American people. Who has fully demonstrated the rights and duties of self-government, both nationally and individually? The American people. Who has shown the greatest sensitivity for the rights of subject people to be free? Who has taken leadership in trying to create a world which at the same time respects differences and provides machinery for the peaceable adjustment of conflicts? The American people.

This is our heritage, and these are our advantages. We have made mistakes and we have lost time. But ours is the opportunity and the responsibility to fulfill our heritage and to offer new leadership. Since the essence of a free society is the individual, the opportunity and responsibility are personal to each of us.

How then do we dare to be afraid?

# How a Small High School Meets the Challenge of the Atomic Age

Student-constructed model atomic pile at the Suffern (N. Y.) High School.

by Gerrit C. Zwart, Suffern High School, Suffern, N. Y.

ABOUT 100 YEARS AGO the words coil, current, conductor and a few others gave new meaning to the slowly awakening giant we now know as Electricity. Only yesterday an even greater giant came into our lives from the unknown, with a violence and a vengeance that often makes us think that we might better have left this veritable Pandora's box strictly alone. Today we hear such words as atomic pile, breeding, fission, fusion, Geiger counters, etc., all of which are being gradually included in everyday thoughts and speech.

My students and I are somewhat impatient with the layman's lack of interest. We have a consuming conviction that, whether he likes it or not, we are all enmeshed in a fantastic framework of fate . . . like a fly caught in a spider web.

We have been told that there can be no small atomic bomb to do the work of blasting . . . that the atomic furnace is too hot, too dangerous, too costly for everyday use. We don't believe these rumors; in fact we are convinced that while experts sit around board of directors' tables deciding that a thing can't be done, perhaps someone will be doing it. We feel the atomic surface hasn't been scratched—that results will stagger even the wildest imagination. We believe that the language of science, although only too recently concerned with war and weapons, can be directed just as effectively toward the betterment of human understanding . . . that atomic energy can be put to such peaceful uses as to make a utopia for all mankind.

This report includes some of the activities of the Suffern High School Atomic Energy Club as well as its hopes for future programs. We draw no line on membership. Anyone who wants to make model cyclotrons, reactors or atom smashers, is welcome . . . as are art students who like to make charts and posters; writers and reporters for our school and town newspapers or simply technicians and stage hands to help put on an assembly program or an "Atomic Medicine Show." The study of Atomic Energy in our senior science classes is required, with access to current literature and advanced work for interested students.

Also, on a lower level and to a lesser degree, in elementary science where many of the simpler types of demonstration which have to do with the nature of matter and energy can be shown, every effort is made to get this grade level accustomed to the new vocabulary of atomic energy. Experiments in evaporation, solution, diffusion, impenetrability, adhesion and cohesion, the composition of matter and others are introduced to the Junior Tommy Edisons and the young Marie Curies in natural classroom situations.

Our social studies teachers cover the implications of atomic energy for the field of medicine, criminology and agriculture as well as military aspects. With student discussion groups attempts are made to appraise such things as the desirability or futility of using atomic weapons for strategic and tactical purposes.

## The Atomic Story

Ever since 1945 our club has been active on "Cavalcade Night" (open house night for parents and friends) in bringing before the people of our community the atomic story. One of the first projects was an assembly program of the Hiroshima bombing. The following year the historical background and individual contributions by various nations formed the theme. At another annual party night we had a display of the tools of the atomic scientist, mostly student-made.

For our project last year, with the help of the speech teacher, we produced a one-half hour radio play entitled "The Peaceful Atom" which was broadcast by the students themselves over Station WLNA, Peekskill, N. Y. We also made a permanent tape recording of the broadcast for future use.

This year our "Open House" night featured student-conducted tours through the science department which was dressed up like a miniature Brookhaven exhibit. Visitors were met at the entrance by student guides who directed them from table to table. At the first table the visitors heard a brief summary of the historical background of the atomic concept.

At the next table a large student-painted poster formed a backdrop for the speaker who revealed the "secret" of the atomic bomb. Just beyond, fission and fusion were explained with the aid of tinker-toy models, followed by a simplified interpretation of Einstein's famous formula for the equivalence of matter and energy. At table No. 5 an excellent 1-foot model of the large Brookhaven reactor was described in some detail. From here the

(*Continued on page 160*)

# The Atomic Age Moves Forward

**by Gordon Dean, Former Chairman, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission**

NO ONE can predict the future, but if past performance is any gage, we need only look at the astounding rate at which the atomic age has progressed in its first decade to be convinced that the potential benefits of atomic energy are truly enormous.

To obtain these significant results we have concentrated our best efforts on the military application of atomic energy, because it has been our primary concern to preserve the security of this Nation while lending a helping hand to other peoples in their struggle to stay free. There is undoubtedly an awareness in the teaching profession of the unpleasant realities that have required us to put such great emphasis on the purely destructive potential of the atom. This first decade of the atomic age might have taken a different turn had mutual understanding and cooperation among the big world powers endured after World War II, for it was in 1946 that the United States, the sole possessor of the atomic bomb, offered its plants and stockpiles of fissionable materials to an international authority which would control the development of this new force for peace. This offer met rejection by the Soviet Union and its satellites, however, and hope gave way to mounting tensions, peace to Communist aggression.

## Development Ahead

We offer no apology for the fact that most of our effort in the atomic field has been directed toward the development of weapons. Indeed, our past achievements in this field will not lessen to any degree our continued concentration on the military aspects of atomic energy. It is generally agreed that our stockpile of atomic weapons is a principal deterrent to world war III, the threat of which, nonetheless, persists.

In taking stock of the atomic age to date we can take pride in the fact that despite our preoccupation with weapons significant strides have been made in putting the atom to work for purposes other than military. These advances, coupled with our weapons' successes and with the desire of private industry to be allowed to assume some of the burden of the development work ahead, make 1953 a noteworthy year in the peaceful life of the atom.

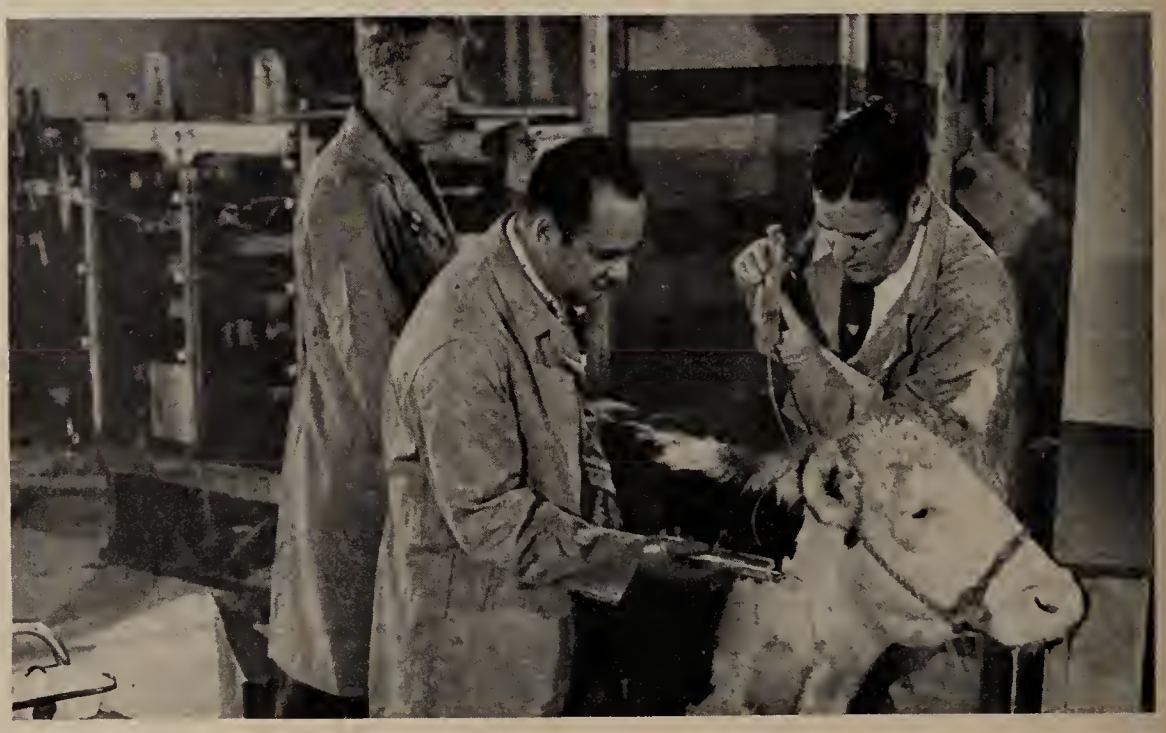
We have already established that electric power can be obtained from the atom. The first successful demonstration was made in December of 1951 in the experimental breeder reactor at Arco, Idaho. On March 9, 1953, the experimental homogeneous reactor at Oak Ridge provided 150 kilowatts of electricity, enough to light 50 average 5-room dwellings. The prototype power plant for a submarine engine also began operating early this year.

The principle of using the heat generated by a nuclear reaction to produce electricity has been proved beyond doubt. From the technological standpoint it is now only a question of development to bring the costs of atomic electricity down to where they can compete with those of electricity from conventional sources.

The potential power to be harnessed from the atom staggers the imagination. There is the same amount of energy in one pound of fissionable material as in 2,600,000 pounds of coal or about 300,000 gallons of gasoline.

Another recent accomplishment is the successful demonstration of the breeder principle by the same reactor which first demonstrated that the atom will produce useable electric power. In this experiment it was proved that fissionable material can be produced from nonfissionable uranium at least as fast as it is consumed in a nuclear reactor. The result is that we now have the means by which we can ultimately use all of the uranium in the world for fuel, instead of just a part of it as was heretofore the case.

This development represents another triumph for our scientists and engineers, and constitutes an encouraging and important factor in determining the best technical and economic approach to competitive atomic power. While the United States is blessed with conventional power resources adequate for its needs for years to come, the realization of atomic power should enable us to conserve those resources for coming generations. And, just as important, it should help large areas of the world that lack coal



As part of an experiment to secure basic data on body processes, Oak Ridge scientists inject radioactive material into bloodstream of a steer. *Atomic Energy Commission photo.*

or oil or water resources to become industrialized with attendant material benefits which, God willing, will contribute to world peace.

I suggested earlier that the outstanding accomplishments of atomic science in its brief life span give us a yardstick by which to measure the possibilities of the future. Let me cite a few more of these accomplishments now.

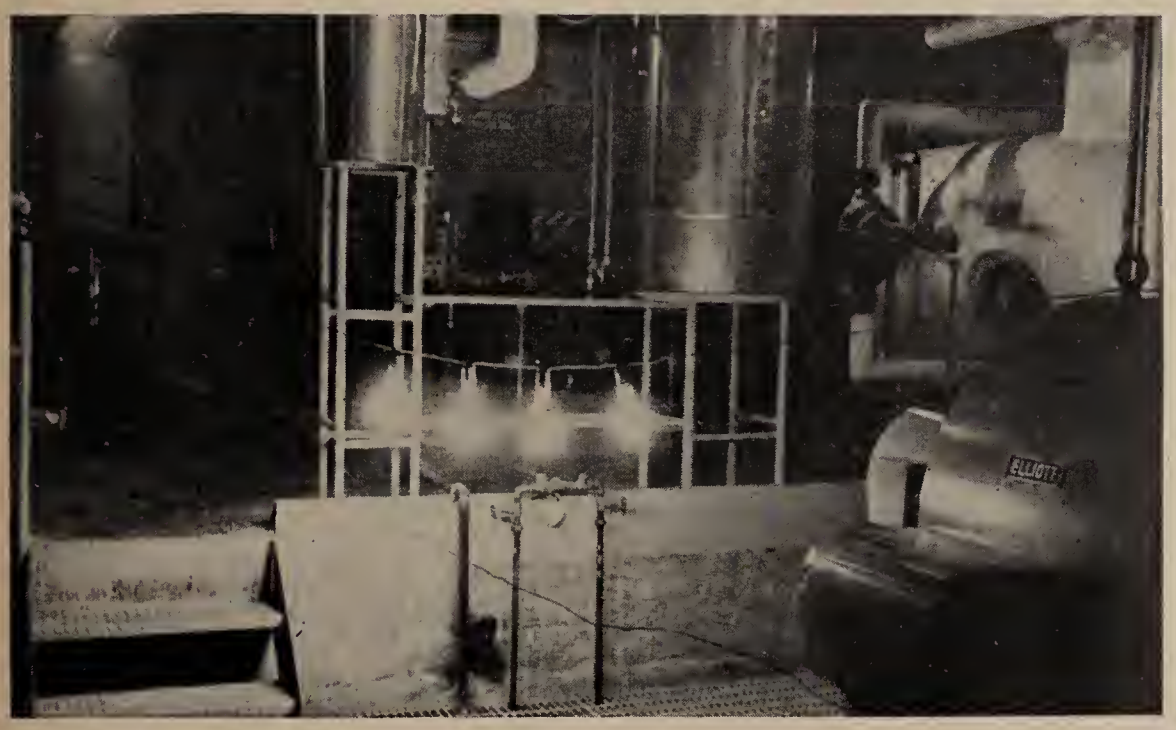
One product of atomic energy that is frequently heard of is the radioisotope, which has been called the greatest research discovery since the microscope. Thirty thousand shipments of this product of the atomic furnace at Oak Ridge have been distributed to more than 1,000 medical, industrial, agricultural and scientific institutions in every state in the Union, our territorial possessions, and 35 foreign countries. And several thousand scientists and technicians have been trained to use them.

## Radioisotopes in Medicine

While by far the greater portion of these radioisotopes are used for basic research in biology and medicine, agriculture and industry, they have already proved to be of some value in medical diagnosis and therapy. Radioactive iodine, for instance, has been used successfully in the diagnosis and treatment of hyperthyroidism and in the location of thyroid cancer and cancer offshoots. Some brain tumors can now be detected with a radioactive dye prior to surgery and without discomfort or injury to the patient. The pattern of the blood flow, whether the circulation is good or poor, and the exact location of arterial constriction can now be determined by the injection of a radioactive sodium solution at a given point in the blood stream.

Radioactive iodine has given relief to patients suffering from angina pectoris; and radioactive strontium has proved useful in treating small lesions and benign tumors without surgery in highly sensitive areas such as the eye. The strontium isotope is also readily adaptable to therapy of postoperative lesions. Radioactive phosphorus is now standard treatment for certain blood disorders.

Less than a generation ago, several radioisotopes became available to medical scientists for the first time, but in very limited quantities, as byproducts of the development of new high energy particle accelerators. Their use for the treatment of cancer was immediately recognized, but limited by prohibitive costs and minute supplies. It was a boon to cancer research, therefore, when the infinitely more cheaply produced and plentiful radioisotopes from our reactors were made available to the medical profession. At first, to stimulate the exploration of methods of using radioisotopes against cancer, these products were provided free of charge for cancer studies and treatment except for cost of transportation and handling. As this encouragement has become less necessary, the Commission now charges 20 percent of production costs and there does not seem to have been any falling off in requests for these atomic energy products.



First known use of electric power from atomic energy produced Dec. 21, 1951, at the Atomic Energy Commission's National Reactor Testing Station, Arco, Idaho. *Argonne National Laboratory photo.*

## For Cancer Research

The distribution of radioisotopes represents only a part of the Commission's overall support of cancer research within and outside its facilities. A 30-bed hospital is maintained at Oak Ridge devoted exclusively to the study and experimental treatment of patients. A 1,000 curie source of radioactive cobalt which is as powerful as 1,000 grams of radium will soon be treating cancer at this hospital. At the Argonne National Laboratory (in Chicago), a $4,180,000 hospital completed in May of 1952 is also serving medical science in its fight against cancer. At the University of California School of Medicine in San Francisco, we have built a radiological laboratory equipped with a betatron to be used in the treatment of cancer.

Moreover, the AEC is supporting directly, at universities and medical schools, work involving unique applications of atomic energy developments to cancer, such as the use of radiogold in interstitial therapy, and the use of Cobalt 60 in needles, seeds, etc., in place of the more expensive radium.

Grateful acknowledgment is due our Canadian colleagues for their invaluable contribution to medical science in this country as well as in Canada by producing the first high intensity cobalt sources which hold forth such promise to teletherapy. Other high intensity cobalt sources have been provided by the Canadians to the Lankenau Hospital Research Institute in Philadelphia and the Montefiore Hospital in New York.

Another fascinating use of atomic energy in cancer treatment is the effort to exploit neutrons produced in the Brookhaven pile in the treatment of brain tumors. Encouraging progress has been made in this experiment.

These are but a few examples of how atomic energy is being directly exploited in the medical sciences. Many other biomedical advances are being made through atomic energy. In solving health problems of atomic energy operations, for instance, and in studying how to combat the effects of atomic warfare, biomedical scientists are adding whole pages to fundamental knowledge of the body's processes which should in one way or another profit mankind.

(*Continued on page 156*)

# Protective Citizenship— Its Educational Implications*

by Jack T. Johnson, Provost, Hofstra College, Former Assistant Administrator, Federal Civil Defense Administration

THE TEACHERS OF AMERICA are continuously guiding education in the light of realities of contemporary life.

Among present realities are the possibility of attack by an aggressor and the continuing probability of a state of international tension.

Because of the potential danger of attack, the schools in target areas must make certain adjustments quickly. Shelter areas should be ascertained and designated; programs for self-protective drills should be developed; and parents should be informed of the plans for children under emergency conditions. School life to the extent that it is educationally sound must become a part of the protective program of the community.

Because of the implications of a long period of crisis, all of our schools must make adjustment. The concept of protective citizenship should be studied as a fundamental aspect of American life. This, of course, is merely a new dimension of citizenship education.

Civil defense is a part of this pattern of protective citizenship, to be accepted by our citizens and to be developed in our schools under the guidance of well-trained teachers.

America knows something of modern war. But fortunately, its hardest lessons have not been brought to our shores. To study the tragic lessons of ruin and rubble, we must go to the shattered cities of Europe and Asia.

But this we know, there would be no immunity from attack in the event of another war. The enemy has bombers. bombs, and the ability to reach every critical target area in the United States. The enemy objective would be to destroy our productive capacity and our will to resist.

Civil defense is an instrument for winning that war, should it come; and civil defense is a positive technique for preventing war.

If an aggressor felt that our weakness on the homefront or our lack of civil preparation invited easy victory, it would be an added inducement to attack us. The blows of war are struck with a purpose. If instead of weakness we have homefront strength, the purpose of enemy attack may be denied. Therefore, the blow may never come. Thus, civil defense is an integral part of our plan for peace.

## Education for Peace

Protective citizenship is not new. We support police to protect us from lawbreakers. We teach children safety education to protect them from the hazards of everyday life. We accept the principle of insurance to protect us from the unforeseen. Civil defense is in this great tradition.

How then can our schools strengthen our hopes for peace and broaden our obligations of citizenship?

At the outset, let me clarify the position of the Federal Civil Defense Administration with regard to its relationship to education as a force for peace.

We believe that educators and educational organizations should be met on educational terms. We wish to encourage them to independent educational activity regarding civil defense. We do not regard educators as customers for preconceived programs or as mere channels of communication. The review of many well-conceived programs throughout our nation which have been entirely due to the activities of State and local leaders indicates to us that there is no lack of local initiative.

We believe that the concepts of civil defense should become a part of going educational programs. We view with alarm attempts to promote drastic intrusions on an established curriculum.

We believe in communicating with educators through established educational channels rather than through artificially created, more expensive, and less effective ones. Again our experience in working through such channels has been reassuring.

We see our present roles as sharpening objectives and improving the climate in which educators must work.

With these beliefs clearly in mind, let us turn to certain specifics of civil defense education.

1. Schools and colleges in potential target areas should develop protective plans. If they have not already done so, administrators have a responsibility for locating shelters, for instructing students in self-protection measures, and for informing parents of plans to care for children during an emergency. This is the obligation to perfect plans for the protection of life and property. This program should enlist the cooperation of administrators, teachers and students, and be based on a full understanding by all concerned on why such measures are needed.

2. Each school should define the role it is to play in an emergency both in regard to its own program and that of the community. How should school facilities and school personnel be utilized?

*An address before the Florida Education Association, Tampa, Fla.

Disaster planning by ninth-graders in Broughton (N. C.) High School. *The Raleigh Times* photo.

This definition can be locally oriented. Is the school in a target area, in a support area, or in a remote area?

This definition should be worked out with the cooperation of local and responsible civil defense officials.

This definition should ask the schools to assume tasks related to regular educational functions.

This definition should also be explained to the general public in order to gain local understanding and acceptance.

3. Educators should recognize the general education aspects of civil defense. For example, protective citizenship intensifies a sense of social interdependence and group solidarity, broadens an understanding of interpersonal responsibilities, and improves our understanding of the world in which we live.

Such fundamental civil defense concepts as mutual aid and mobile support are new words to our vocabulary. But they are simply new examples of old ideas. In an interdependent society, our cities cannot survive without our farms, and the life of our rural areas is tied into the life of our urban areas. This is why we can say that "civil defense is everybody's business."

4. An understanding of civil defense can be integrated with specific subjects already in the curriculum. The facts of biological warfare can be included in courses in botany; the facts of civil defense as an instrument of peace can enrich courses in international relations; the problems of panic can have application in courses in psychology; the need for individuals skilled in emergency mass care can be emphasized in courses in home economics; and an analysis of urban vulnerability can be a part of courses in government.

And so it goes for every subject in the curriculum and at all levels. Civil defense does not supplant that which is now offered. It makes more meaningful those subjects now taught.

5. Scholars have always taken the lead in exploring the frontiers of knowledge. At no time in the history of man have our problems been so varied, so exciting, and so challenging.

Thus, graduate schools and all other educational institutions have a responsibility to focus upon the problems of our atomic age. In this connection, it may be fair to state that the implications of civil defense are proper topics for further investigation.

6. The plans, the objectives, and the principles of civil defense are new. Consequently, they must be professionalized. Here the participation of teachers through their associations and organizations can be of vital assistance in supplying the best guidance in educational aspects of civil defense by educational experimentation.

By discussions in professional meetings, by seminar consideration, and by independent writing, the goals and responsibilities of civil defense can be introduced into the fabric of American life.

7. A corollary to the professionalization of civil defense is the use of established school and college programs for specialized skill training.

A major task for civil defense is to see to it that firemen are trained in the responsibilities of atomic fire fighting, that policemen are skilled in the tasks of the mass movement of people, and that local governmental officials recognize the impact of an emergency upon their political structure. These are among many others.

Where should this training be given?

It would seem that established fire schools, extension services, and bureaus of government research are logical places to begin. These programs are already underway. They need only to be adapted to the problems of an atomic age.

8. As every educator knows, no training can be given without adequate training materials. The preparation of training materials is a traditional function of school men and women.

In cooperation with State and local civil defense officials, teachers can be called upon for advice and guidance. And in many instances, school administrators can adjust schedules which will allow teachers to help in preparation of manuals and training aids. This is the normal function of our schools.

9. Local civil defense directors might call upon the schools for help in the solution of their specialized problems.

10. Finally, the schools should take the lead in formulating plans for the continuity of education during the time of crisis.

Two principal problems should be considered. How can the schools best cope with a general shift in student population?

How can educational facilities be improvised if normal ones are disrupted? It is possible that many of the usual facilities will be destroyed in case of mass attack on our urban areas. Plans will have to be available for substitute classrooms, substitute textbooks, and substitute teachers.

These plans must come out of our schools and colleges. They must be planned in advance. They cannot be improvised after a disaster has taken place.

This program makes up a task of high order. It is not one of low-grade civic chores.

This program is within the long and fine tradition of American education.

This program raises questions of great challenge and great purpose.

It gives meaning to the age in which we live. But more than anything else, the concept of protective citizenship underlines the idea that a time of trouble may also be a time for greatness.

# What Schools Are Doing in Atomic Energy Education

**by George L. Glasheen, Chief, Educational Services Branch, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission**

THIS SUMMER a group of Idaho school teachers, on scholarships arranged through the Idaho State Department of Education, participated in an intensive training course on the various aspects of atomic energy at the University of Idaho, in Moscow. This program followed two similar seminars held last year at Idaho State College, Pocatello, and at Moscow. The goal this year was the development of specific teaching material on atomic energy, prepared by the group, for inclusion in the State's study guide. These teachers heard lectures on the various peacetime applications of atomic energy. They learned of the atom's power potential and its impact upon their particular section of the country—the Northwest United States. They heard about weapons and weapons' effects, too. At the session's conclusion they were well grounded in the fundamentals of education on atomic energy.

Further west, at Oregon State College in Corvallis, a group of approximately two dozen secondary school teachers attended a week's workshop on atomic energy. They heard specialists on the subject from their own college and from the Atomic Energy Commission's installation at Richland, Washington, as well as from the University of Washington, Seattle. They spent much time in round-table discussion. They will bring back to their classrooms in the fall new knowledge on this important subject.

Elsewhere, too, teachers this summer were engaged in the study of the atom. At Ohio State University, the School of Education had planned a concentrated attack on the problem. At Morgan State college, in Baltimore, Md., a summer seminar on science was devoted to nuclear energy and its classroom implications. Later in the summer high school teachers of Aiken, South Carolina, and Augusta, Georgia, received information on atomic energy from scientists and experts from the nearby Savannah River project and elsewhere to help them get answers to questions from their students.

These are but scattered examples of the attention that educators are now giving to the study of atomic energy. Once considered by the majority as being too difficult to understand, or disposed of with a wave of the hand as being of no concern in the elementary and high school classroom, atomic energy is now finding its appropriate place in the various classrooms of the Nation. And this has been accomplished through no preconceived pattern prepared by an agency of the Federal Government of what schools should or should not teach. Rather it has been achieved through

# What Schools Are Doing About Civil Defense

**by Dana B. Roblee, School Relations Officer, Federal Civil Defense Administration**

EVERY PERSON who feels a genuine interest in faithful communication of the American heritage is keenly concerned about the content of our country's educational programs. Among the questions he raises is whether schools and colleges are finding that civil defense has sound educational values. He inquires concerning the extent to which our institutions of learning are utilizing civil defense as an educational resource. The third question follows: How are they using it? This is a brief report designed to suggest some answers to these questions.

Civil defense may be defined as the power of civilians to prevent forces from destroying their property, industry, morale, lives, or freedoms. The effectiveness of that power in protecting from destruction, in insuring opportunity for safe, peaceful, and productive living is being determined by education—childhood education, youth education, and adult education.

Research has not yet given American educators objective material by which to analyze the values in a broad program of education in civil defense. The international tensions and the domestic stress to get something done immediately upon enactment of Public Law 920—the Civil Defense Act—led to concentration on physical skills needed in protection from destruction by atomic bombing. However, time has crystallized American fortitude; hysterical fear of calamitous atomic bombing of great masses of civilians has been superseded by more studied and courageous consideration of disaster potentials. Educational statesmen now are making a more sophisticated appraisal of the social scene and are getting deeper insights into the significance of points that merit educational emphasis.

Functional civil defense—in educational terms, protective citizenship—calls for emphasis on four facets of education. The points which it emphasizes are: an intensified sense of social interdependence and group solidarity; broadened understandings of interpersonal responsibilities; improved knowledge of today's world—the political currents, cross currents, and problems as well as understandings of modern social and scientific power; and widespread mastery of the skills which enable mankind to meet adequately the dangers and tensions of emergency situations.

Informal reports, analyses of plans, and statements in educational guides and directives clearly indicate that school systems and colleges are now perceiving that within civil defense lie resources for making protective citizenship—interpersonal, intergroup, and international—a dynamic force in American education. Programs, both of theory and of practice, are emerging with focus on increasing sensitivity to social interrelationships,

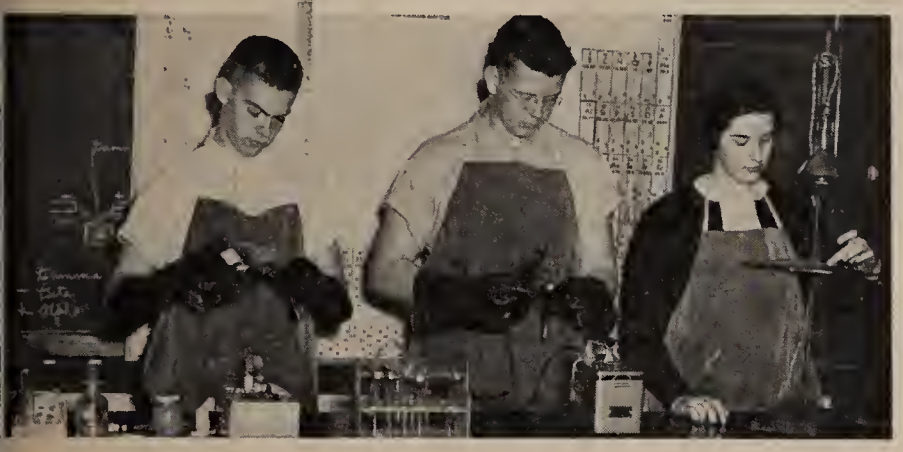
the individual initiative of many teachers working independently of each other, studying and adapting, in their own way, curriculum material on atomic energy—in the same manner as education has traditionally flowered and grown in America. In a survey conducted among selected colleges nearly 5 years ago by the United States Office of Education, one college official reported, "We have no course in atomic energy in our institution, but I doubt that there is any course that hasn't been affected in one way or another by the advent of this new force." This is probably even more true today—particularly of the secondary schools. There may be few courses devoted solely to atomic energy, but there are probably few schools anywhere in our country that have not dealt with the subject either in the science or the social studies classroom, in their extracurricular schedules or in their community participation programs. Interest in atomic energy activities runs the gamut from the elementary school through high school. There is the little girl in the second grade in Providence, R. I., for instance, who wrote on the subject of:

*Good Atoms.*—Everything is made of atoms. When we learn more about how valuable these atoms are, people will be very happy. We will know more about mecticine (sic) to keep people well. The farmer will know how to have better crops. The business man will have machines and better things to sell. Everybody will be happier. Mary H. 2–C.

And there are countless high school students who are engaged in the construction of complicated atomic instruments and models, such as Geiger counters, scintillation counters, Van de Graaff generators, and even working models of cyclotrons. There are those others, too, who are preparing reports and themes for their English and social studies classes and editorials for their school papers on the various social, political, and economic implications of atomic energy—projects which indicate that boys and girls of all ages and all grade levels are concerning themselves with the problems of atomic energy.

The United States Atomic Energy Commission, believing that its role should be essentially advisory, has assisted, when requested, in the development and operation of dozens of workshops, seminars, and teacher institutes on atomic energy education in nearly every section of the country since 1948. These programs have been conducted, in some cases, under the auspices of schools of education, as has been the case at Harvard, the Uni-

**Students at Lincoln High School, Seattle, Wash., performing laboratory experiments with radioisotopes.** ***Photo courtesy Lincoln High School.***



**Training in fire fighting by Washington-Lee (Va.) High School students, under supervision of fire department.** ***Washington Star photo.***

knowledge of social and physical powers, and understandings of world problems. These are not restricted to any one pupil-maturity level nor to any one type of institution; they are to be found in programs involving schools in all States and all grade levels of elementary schools and high schools. Also, many liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges and professional schools have developed programs involving protective citizenship concepts and practices. Usually those are not termed "civil defense"; indeed, it may be that some of these programs are being conducted without much consideration of their protective significance. Nevertheless, every educational program which teaches any of the four points identified for emphasis *is* teaching some aspect of protective citizenship—the core of civil defense. It teaches attitudes, understandings or skills which are essential for functional competence in civil defense.

One of the more extensive studies of civil defense education activities in schools and colleges was made by the Research and Statistical Standards Section, Office of Education, in the spring of 1952. The limitations of this survey and its purposes are stated in the following excerpts from the report:

The study was restricted to a sampling of elementary and secondary schools in our larger cities and to the teachers colleges and schools of education across the Nation. It was undertaken in an effort to discover whether schools had developed civil defense education programs to any large extent and to provide the Federal Civil Defense Administration with the kind of "grass-roots" information which would assist that agency in further developing the kind of program which would better meet the needs of the schools.

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The study was actually divided into three phases—one involving a sample of elementary schools, the second, a sample of secondary schools, and the third, all teachers colleges and schools of education in universities.

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The problem of civil defense education activities in the teachers colleges and schools of education was approached in a somewhat different manner than in the case of the schools of less than college grade.

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With the higher institutions * * * the survey was more concerned with detecting the areas of interest of college officials in various phases of civil defense education.

The study of civil defense in elementary schools showed that:

On the basis of the data contained in the reports submitted by 437 elementary school principals, more than 95 percent of the schools have some form of civil defense education program.

## Atomic Energy Education

versity of Illinois, New York University, Stanford, and the University of Maryland.

Teachers colleges were the sponsors at such locations as Danbury, Conn., Geneseo, N. Y., Providence, R. I., Keene, N. H., Greeley, Colo., and in the following Pennsylvania locations: Millersville, East Stroudsburg, Edinboro, Slippery Rock, and Indiana.

Such local public school systems as those of Minneapolis, New York City, Baltimore, Chicago, and Reno have been responsible for outstanding programs on atomic energy for their teachers. The State Department of Public Instruction at Lincoln, Nebr., has published a unit, "Facing the Facts of Atomic Energy," to guide its teachers. Oregon also has issued its atomic energy curriculum aid entitled "Learning About Atomic Energy." An important contribution to the literature on atomic energy education was made by the State Department of Public Instruction at Des Moines, Iowa, which has developed a most comprehensive set of teaching guides designed for use at the elementary, secondary, college and even adult level. A valuable guide for teachers, entitled "Atomic Energy Here to Stay," was prepared as a supplement to the March 1949 issue of SCHOOL LIFE. Even though published over 4 years ago, it is still timely, in demand, and available through the Government Printing Office. And "Atomic Energy, Double-Edged Sword of Science," a teaching unit developed under the auspices of the Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (published by Charles E. Merrill Co., Inc., Columbus, Ohio), should prove a fruitful source for many a classroom exercise on atomic energy.

One atomic energy educational project of particular significance stems from the efforts of the science teachers of the schools of the City of New York. It has already been duplicated in several other localities. Feeling that the time was right for experimentation with radioisotopes in the high school classrooms. representatives of the science faculty of the New York City schools approached the Atomic Energy Commission for advice and assistance. The result was a 13-week, 2-hour-a-week course in 1951–52 for 300 selected biology, chemistry, and physics teachers in the handling and use of radioisotopes, that most important of all research tools of the atomic age. Since then, radioactive iodine and phosphorus in small microcurie amounts have been used by selected groups of students and teachers, and a manual, entitled "Laboratory Experiments with Radioisotopes for High School Science Demonstrations," has been developed. It is available through the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. Others have followed the pioneering effort of New York City in this specialized field of atomic education. Loyola College in Baltimore, Md., the Springfield, Mass., Public Schools, and the State Department of Education in the State of Washington, as well as the Board of Education of Glen Ridge, N. J., have conducted similar courses. As a result, in the State of Washington, 27 schools are now using radioisotopes in their high school classrooms. Others in other States are following.

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## Civil Defense

Principals of 773 secondary schools responded to the questionnaire used in the survey. Their responses showed:

The overwhelming majority of secondary schools replying to the inquiry have some form of civil defense education program. Naturally, there is some variation in these programs depending upon (1) the intensity of public interest in the problem, and (2) the stage of development of local civil defense organizations; the latter, of course, being largely a reflection of the former. . . .

The survey showed that civil defense activities were in operation in many of the 258 higher education institutions that responded in the study. These include faculty committees for civil defense (45 percent), and teaching of courses, including safety education, first aid, health and hygiene, fire fighting training, police training, community organization techniques, and other courses (63 percent).

Guides have been prepared in most States for schools' use in planning programs to build the attitudes, understandings, and skills of effective civil defense. The plans include suggested procedures for systems and individual institutions, if exposed to a natural disaster or to a bombing attack, to: (1) protect lives; (2) protect property; (3) protect educational services; and (4) protect, in cooperation with other agencies, community morale and industry.

Significant points in the State guides are illustrated in the following examples:

The foreword of "Civil Defense Manual for Georgia Schools" emphasizes organization of citizenship in the statement:

The slogan self-help, neighbor-help is the very essence of Civil Defense but in the complexity of our present-day society it becomes increasingly important that we organize ourselves in order to be able to survive any kind of disaster.

In a chapter titled, "Fundamental Principles in School Civil Defense," the Virginia State Department of Education publication, "A Guide to Organizing the School for Civil Defense," states:

It is imperative that each school continually explore the meaning of the principle: "We must love democracy enough to practice it and practice it enough to love it." Only as this principle becomes more meaningful in every classroom will boys and girls come to grips with issues in such a way that they do not become frustrated or develop the feeling of "What's the use? Who cares?"

In Wyoming, "Civil Defense Program for Wyoming Schools," expresses that State's concept of the program with the statement:

Civil Defense is protection against disaster for each person, his community, and his nation. But it is more than that. It is a new concept of citizenship. It means self-discipline in the interest of the common welfare.

The State of Connecticut outlines its State plan in "A Guide to Teaching Civil Defense in Our Schools." Guiding concepts are expressed in the following:

Our way of life, including democracy, a good standard of living, and important cherished human values can be preserved. Education can and must be geared to perform its inherent role in winning the battle for democratic ideologies as well as world understanding and international cooperation. This may be a long battle and we must be prepared for any emergency including the possibility of another world war.

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# The School and Community Face the Atomic Age

by Mattie A. Pinette, Assistant Chief, Educational Services Branch, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission

ATOMIC ENERGY EDUCATIONAL PROJECTS are by no means confined to the classrooms of the elementary or secondary schools of our country. Adult education programs sponsored by various segments of the community in cooperation with schools, colleges and universities have been mushrooming during the past few years. In the vanguard of these activities has been the National University Extension Association.

The NUEA, comprising as it does the extension divisions of some 70 colleges and universities, early saw the importance of an enlightened public opinion with regard to atomic energy and decided to do something about it. Under the acgis of its Committee on the Implications of Atomic Energy for Adult Education, it has sponsored a traveling exhibit provided by the American Museum of Atomic Energy at Oak Ridge, Tenn. This exhibit, emphasizing the peacetime role of the atom in the fields of industry, agriculture and medicine, has concluded 2 years of travel. It has been shown in 56 communities in Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New York. Nebraska, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin, and has been viewed by over 600,000 people. In each city or town it was shown under the auspices of the local extension division, and in several states financial support was forthcoming from such prominent dailies as the *Philadelphia Inquirer*, the *Minneapolis Star-Tribune*, the *Detroit News*, and the *Houston Post*. In all instances local support was sought and obtained in the furnishing of facilities and manpower necessary for the showing of the exhibit. Thus was atomic energy brought to many urban and rural sections of America, through an effective working relationship between the educational institution and the community.

The NUEA has been active in other ways. It has continued an activity started by the Special Committee on Atomic Energy Information of the American Society of Newspaper Editors in developing and promoting seminars, designed to orient members of the press and radio on atomic energy matters. Working in cooperation with the United States Atomic Energy Commission, and with the press associations of several States, effective 1- and 2-day seminars were held in a number of places. At Huntsville, Ala., under the sponsorship of the Extension Division of the University of Alabama, the representatives of the press of seven Southeastern States participated. The Extension Divisions of the Universities of Wisconsin, New Hampshire, Nebraska, and Oklahoma, the Case Institute of Technology, Penn State College, and the University of Utah College of Medicine also sponsored similar seminars.

An early community project on atomic energy, to gain deserved recognition, was the effective so-called Marengo Experiment. Conducted in Marengo, Iowa, by faculty members of nearby Iowa State University, 434 people of this small town of 2,260 population participated in an adult education program. So successful was the Marengo effort that it was duplicated elsewhere in the State, adapted to radio and TV presentations, and made the basis of a guide published by the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction on adult education and atomic energy.[1]

Cooperating with the schools and colleges of the New York City area, the Religious and Welfare Committee of the New York Committee on Atomic Energy, has explored systematically and studied critically the various social, economic, moral, and political implications of atomic energy, and has contributed greatly, through its publications, to the comprehension of the subject by lay groups. What the Committee has done is a fine example of the leadership that such lay groups can exercise in the field of education on atomic energy.

The Enoch Pratt Public Library of Baltimore, Md., has conducted several outstanding programs on atomic energy, calling upon nearby universities as well as the United States Atomic Energy Commission for assistance in securing speakers and furnishing films. Their sessions have covered all aspects of atomic energy, with particular emphasis on peacetime use and the problems of international control. Other programs by other educational institutions in Baltimore were subsequently conducted as a result of the interest stimulated.

Many, also, have been the colleges and universities which have conducted lecture series on atomic energy, or one or two day institutes and seminars. Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, held a most successful series of monthly lectures on all phases of atomic energy for the townspeople of Des Moines, as well as for its faculty and student body. An effective 2-day conference was also sponsored by the School of Engineering, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich., to which were invited executives and representatives of industry, engineers, public health and civil defense officials, the general public and teachers of engineering and science. They were typical of similar programs undertaken by the University of Southern California, the Bridgeport Engineering Institute of Bridgeport, Conn., Roosevelt College, Chicago, Ill., St. John's College, Brooklyn, N. Y., and the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio, to mention but a few. Many high schools have received the enthusiastic support of their communities in organizing Atomic Energy Weeks, featuring exhibits in the school auditorium, downtown store-window displays, perhaps a speaker or two followed by a discussion forum, the showing of films, etc.

Today countless citizens and future citizens of America together are learning to understand the atom through cooperative school-community programs. A subject which was once considered the special domain of the academician is being debated in the public square. The hard fact is that we in America have become aware that atomic energy is a controlling factor in the survival of our democratic way of life and that if the freedoms we cherish are to be preserved this new force must be understood by our people.

[1] Vol. V. The Iowa Plan for Atomic Energy Education.

# The Atomic Age Moves Forward

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## Radioisotopes in Industry

Radioisotopes are being used ever more widely in industry. One of the most interesting applications is the use of radioactive "markers" in oil pipelines to show the boundary between the various products pumped through the line. Several oil companies use this technique. Each time a pump station changes the product in the line, a small amount of radioactive antimony is injected between the products. As the junction or interface between the two products moves along the line, the tracer flows with it. With the aid of radiation instruments operators know when one product has passed the cut-off valves and when it is time to switch the new stream of gasoline or oil to the proper tank. The radiation from the radioisotopes can also be used to start or stop the pumps automatically by remote control.

Another application of radioisotopes is in piston ring and lubrication wear studies. In measuring friction a great advantage of the radioisotope method is that it makes it possible to measure the transfer of metal in amounts as low as 1/100,000 of an ounce, sample the oil while the motor is in operation, and locate the point of wear in the motor.

Radioactive calcium has been used in studying the efficiency of detergents, and radioactive strontium in studying the movement of preservatives in telephone poles. The fact that pole replacement in the United States cost $200 million a year is an indication of the importance of this new industrial application of radioisotopes.

The Weather Bureau in California uses a gage with a radiation source to measure the water content of snowfall. Accurate measurement of the water content of the snowpack on mountain slopes is a key factor in efficient use of this stored water for industrial, agricultural and other purposes.

The United States Atomic Energy program, itself an industry of tremendous size (it is bigger in plant investment than General Motors and United States Steel combined), stimulates other industries. Take the radiation instrument industry, for instance. Prior to 1947, there was not in existence any appreciable radiation instrument industry, the Manhattan Engineering District and the Atomic Energy Commission being practically the only users. In 1948, there were 45 radiation instrument companies employing 670 people and doing an estimated volume of business amounting to $4,200,000. In 1952 there were 80 companies employing 2,410 persons in a $20,000,000 business.

The mining industry, too, has felt the impact of the atom. In 1948, when the AEC began its domestic uranium procurement program there were two plants in operation in the Colorado Plateau for the production of uranium concentrates. In 1953, there are 8 such plants operating. In 1948, AEC-sponsored drilling approximated 130,000 feet. In 1952 this figure had increased to more than 1,000,000 feet.

By no means are the benefits of atomic energy limited to medicine and industry. Atomic byproducts have contributed in large measure to agricultural research.

## Radioisotopes in Agriculture

Radioisotopes have enabled scientists to trace nutrients through the soil, into roots and thence to plants, to measure the extent and speed of their movement to determine at which stage in its growing cycle the plant needs fertilizer most, to know where and how fertilizer should be placed to give the plants the maximum benefit, and to establish what kinds of fertilizers work best in the country's varied soils. American farmers spend $750 million a year for commercial fertilizer. As isotopes continue to point out ways of getting more efficient utilization of this commodity, one of the farmer's biggest operating costs will be appreciably reduced. One authority estimates that more has been learned about the use of fertilizer in the past 4 years through the use of radioisotopes than in the preceding 50 years by other means.

Fungi and insects inflict $6 billion of damage a year, and weeds are a further source of loss. Experiments are under way to control these pests, such as the parasitic leaf blight fungus of peanut plants, wild onion and Canada thistle which smother fields of soybeans, beans and oats, and quack grass which stifle flax, clover and alfalfa.

Each year California fruit growers lose a sizeable proportion of their orange, grapefruit and lemon crops to the citrus thrip, red aphids and red mites and other sucking insects. Radioisotopes are peculiarly useful in determining the efficiency of pest-killing preparations because insecticides and weed-killers are ordinarily used at such low concentration that detecting them by other means is difficult or impossible.

In the fields of biochemistry, physiology and nutrition, radioisotopes are being used as a major tool in at least 65 percent of the institutions carrying on significant research in these fields. Radioactive minerals are being used to learn how animals, especially poultry, hogs and cattle, absorb certain elements, build them into bone and muscle, utilize them in reproduction functions and put them into eggs and milk.

Improved strains of various crops have been produced from experiments in plant genetics.

An example is a mutation produced at AEC's Brookhaven laboratories. The mutant is a shorter plant with a higher proportion of grain to stalk. In these experiments the plants are exposed to radiation, and mutations, which otherwise might not appear for centuries, are forced within short periods.

And many other experiments have produced results important to the farmer, and therefore, to all of us. In a short period of years, the use of radioisotopes has progressed from an unusual laboratory technique to a method that is an integral part of many agronomic research programs. Over 30 State experiment stations, United States Department of Agriculture, various foreign countries and many private organizations are using radioisotopes in agronomic research.

Still other current research holds out the hope that man, through atomic energy, may learn the secret of the now-mysterious process by which nature produces food and fuel from sunlight, air and water, the process of photosynthesis.

All of this is progress recorded in a little more than one decade. It is without parallel in history. It is breathtaking, and it is undeniably a part of American culture. We cannot dissociate ourselves from it simply because we dislike its frightening aspects. While we have constantly before us the perils inherent in the atomic arms race into which we have been forced, we must not

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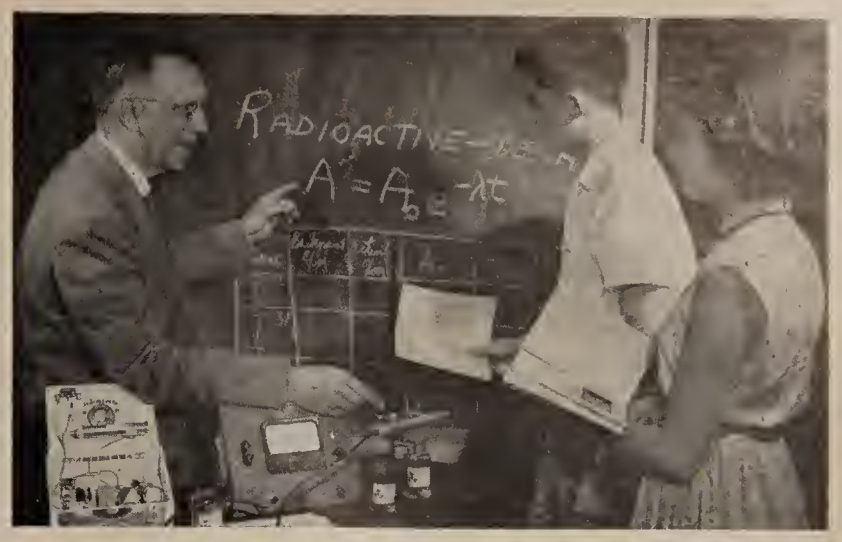
# Curriculum Adaptation to Changing Needs

by Ryland W. Crary, Chief, Schools Branch,
Federal Civil Defense Administration




Science students at Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., being briefed on laboratory experiment to determine half life of radioactive materials.

RAPIDLY SHIFTING CURRENTS of political, economic, and social life present educational opportunity.

To be sure, schoolmen harassed by the insistences of dozens of curriculum pressures may think that opportunity is spelled h-e-a-d-a-c-h-e in this case.

But curriculum adaptation does not mean that the school program should be a weathervane responding to the ever-changing winds of the contemporary scene.

Continuing adaptation of the curriculum is actually the only way to insure stability of educational experience. Stability is not insured by static program. Wherever elements of a static program become nonfunctional, they produce spotty, irregular learning situations, frustrating to the learner and damaging to his security. Our objectives may be more constant, and vital, if we are continually evaluating our program in terms of its effect on the learners.

## The Key Relationship

Of course, adaptation of the curriculum involves method. Let us not for a minute make an either/or choice between method and content. Generally speaking, one can assess the probabilities in favor of responsiveness of the curriculum to changing needs by a survey of methods utilized in a school to achieve program change. The presence of these operational factors in a school system makes it reasonable to predict a fair degree of program responsiveness to social needs:

(*a*) Program coordination is a recognized, well-staffed professional function.

(*b*) Faculty involvement in curriculum development is encouraged and effectively institutionalized.

(*c*) Classroom experimentation in student-teacher planning and cooperative procedures is at a healthy level.

(*d*) Faculty and staff are deeply involved in professional educational life, through organization membership; summer school, workshop and travel experience; community life; inservice training programs; and professional reading.

(*e*) School-community relations are in a state of ready two-way communication, so that community support for program change is a constant, rather than a sporadic—and unpredictable—factor.

This checklist of operational factors, however oversimplified, indicates where the realistic starting point for curriculum adaptation lies. To both administrators and citizens eager for curriculum change, it suggests that only the school professionally organized in terms of modern educational principles is likely to be adaptable to the demands of our times.

Sound methods will scarcely prove themselves in a vacuum, it may be insisted. That is just the point—or rather it is just *not* the point: the pattern of operational factors stated briefly heretofore, is not a vacuum context—it exists only because there is a rich and fertile field of experience—professional and social—in which it takes root and thrives.

## Opportunity in New Problems

The term "atomic age" is shorthand for a fascinating complex of postwar developments, among them: amazing scientific and technological developments; striking changes of politics and empire; sociological shifts and economic upheavals; a struggle to establish new institutions of world order; cold war.

It is doubtful that even the most sheltered of academies, the most rigid of curriculums, have remained immune from the impact of these shattering circumstances.

It is certain that the stability of the programs of modern schools—directed in our society toward such constant educational values as developing "rich and many-sided personalities" and "making the world meaningful" and "building good citizenship"—owes much to adaptations which derive from the modern school's deep roots in its social environment.

Among the adaptations that have been developing, and are still developing, are many which affect peculiarly "Citizenship for an Atomic Age." These may be stated as "emerging understandings," or a "developing consensus" for our time of stress and crisis. As they are stated here, they are to be read, not as a bill of particulars, certainly not as a blue print—but more as a summary of experience to date. Insofar as they are a valid summary of experience they may constitute worthwhile guidelines for consideration or as working hypotheses around which to build certain educational experiences for today's youth.

These may be suggested as representative of such understandings:

(*a*) The postwar world developed as a paradox of hope and fear—of affirmation and negation. On the one hand, the achievements of the United Nations in our struggle to establish institutions of world order; on the other, the cold war and the aggressions and obstructions of the stubborn Soviet bloc.

(*Continued on page 160*)

# Laboratory Practice in Protective Skills

by Ron W. Davis,* Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University

NOT LONG AGO, a busy civil defense officer sat talking with a student committee that had come to him to find out how high school students could contribute to the local civil defense program. What could students do? He had often thought students could help in many ways. Now they were asking him about it, and even suggesting things they could do.

The students were from a school participating in the citizenship education project (CEP). The ideas they were recommending were developed by CEP in cooperation with the Federal Civil Defense Administration and the American Red Cross, and published as part of CEP's laboratory practice materials.

In this particular community, the students, their teacher and CD officers ran through CEP's laboratory practice suggestions and used the ideas that were practical in their local situation. For example, students organized an air-ground observer team, published a local CD newsletter, and operated a civil defense information center. If the community had been in a critical target area, they might have carried out such laboratory practices as encouraging citizens to build home shelters and helping conduct field surveys and make block maps.

The CD officer, like a great many other Americans who are interested in how public schools are teaching citizenship, began by asking questions. What is a laboratory practice? How does it develop citizenship skills and attitudes? How does the CEP program contribute to citizenship in an atomic age?

A Laboratory Practice teaches students citizenship concepts and helps them develop civic skills by giving them the opportunity for real citizenship action. They collect information firsthand and do something about a problem or some particular situation in their own community. It is fairly common for students to hold a mock court trial or visit their local court to observe how the rights of citizens in a democracy are safeguarded. These can be good learning experiences, but unlike a laboratory practice they do not deal with real situations about which students take related actions. How can laboratory practices be used in studying the judicial branch of our Government? In one community students visited a local court and, after talking with municipal judges and the court clerk, they canvassed the town to encourage citizens to volunteer for jury duty. In this way they not only learned about our democratic rights, but developed citizenship skills by taking action to help protect and strengthen these rights. Learning citizenship by taking action as citizens is the prime emphasis of a laboratory practice.

Recently CEP, in cooperation with the Federal Civil Defense Administration and the American Red Cross, developed a number of laboratory practice suggestions in the areas of national emergency and disaster preparedness. Here are brief digests of three of these practices.

*Making a plan for using school facilities during a local disaster.*—In this practice students, cooperating with school officials and local CD officers, survey local school buildings to see how the existing school facilities could help the community deal with a disaster or major emergency, such as an atomic attack, flood, or earthquake. For example, they find to what extent these facilities can provide temporary shelter, medical aid, meals, and centers for effectively using these facilities.

*Organizing an air-ground observer team.*—This suggests that students can organize an air-ground observer team, study plane-spotting techniques, and serve as air-ground observers with other CD volunteers. One class might take over responsibility for manning a particular observation post during certain hours of each day. A rotating schedule would allow each class member to participate in actually manning the post.

*Informing the community about the need for disaster preparedness.*—An unsolved problem in many communities is how to get citizens to prepare for disasters before they strike. In this practice students work with groups which are active during local disasters. They help plan and carry out a campaign to tell the community what is needed in the way of a disaster preparedness program, and encourage local citizens to cooperate in putting such a program into action.

Other practice descriptions in these areas suggest how a teacher and his students might go about:

*Organizing and conducting disaster drills in the school.*

*Helping take a civil defense block census.*

*Forming a civil defense medical aide team.*

*Planning an emergency child-care center.*

*Helping recruit and organize a disaster rescue team.*

The laboratory practices outlined above are only a part of CEP's attempt to help schools do a more effective job of teaching what freedom means, and to train students in the "know-how" required to remain free. In addition to national defense, there are practice suggestions that cover many other aspects of our social, political and economic life. Many other kinds of materials, as well as the services of trained regional representatives, help administrators and teachers in all parts of the nation plan positive programs of citizenship education. CEP

*Chairman, Laboratory Practice Development.

## A Challenge to American Education

WHAT the young men and women in our schools and colleges learn, how they are trained to think, what moral principles they embrace, and what attitudes guide their actions, will determine the future of this Nation and to a great extent the course of world history. They must be given every assistance within our power to prepare themselves for this challenge. The responsibility rests heavily upon those who man our educational institutions; but in the last analysis, it must be borne by all the people. On the timeliness and wisdom of the people's decisions depend the safety of America and the prospects of peace in the world.

*—Education and National Security, Educational Policies Commission and The American Council on Education, 1951*

aims to develop in students that deep and active interest in public affairs, both local and national, which alone can guarantee our free way of life.

The beginning of CEP goes back scarcely 3 years. When General Eisenhower became president of Columbia University, Dr. William F. Russell, president of Teachers College, discussed with him the offer of the Carnegie Corporation to support a program which would realistically tackle the problem of improving the teaching of citizenship. The result was the citizenship education project, which today is working with 527 school systems in 37 States and Hawaii, with 970 individual schools, 1,857 teachers, and approximately 55,000 boys and girls of junior and senior high-school age.

In all parts of the Nation, CEP is helping boys and girls get citizenship training by acting in real life situations. Citizenship in an atomic age calls for well educated, clear thinking citizens. Even more, it calls for citizens who know and cherish their rights, who cheerfully discharge their citizenship responsibilities, and who know how to act in a citizenship capacity when action is called for.

## Atomic Energy Education

(*Continued from page 154*)

These are but a few examples of what the schools are doing and they tell only a partial story of what is going on in this new and broad field of education in atomic energy. Space does not permit the telling of the story that is contained in the thousands of letters received each year by the Educational Services Branch of the United States Atomic Energy Commission. These letters come from every State and from young people of all ages and grades. They ask for advice, assistance and information on various phases of atomic energy—its medical implications, such as what progress is being made in cancer research, what is going on in the field of agricultural research, what about power development, and the design and development of nuclear reactors for submarine and surface vessels, what of the possibilities for international control of atomic energy, or requests for information on the latest tests in Nevada or in Eniwetok. They are letters which show a general understanding of the facts and problems of atomic energy and they show a desire on the part of school children, educators and adults to try to learn more in order to adjust to this

> ***Democracy's way of life is on trial in our homes, in our schools, in our communities, in all free nations. Democracy is on trial today in the near and the far places of earth.***
>
> ***We have for use in these days of trial all the strength and the promise that democracy has given us from earlier days. We know how to help the individual to help himself; to work with others in identifying common needs and in finding ways of meeting these needs; to share in the making of decisions by which he will be affected.***
>
> ***Growing Up in an Anxious Age, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1952 Yearbook.***

atomic age. Perhaps the letter from an eighth grade student in California might be considered typical of the interest and concern exhibited by the young people of this generation. He writes in answer to receipt of material requested by him:

> Before I received your publications I never thought that the field of atomic energy was so vast. But now I see there is a never ending possibility of putting atomic energy to work for us.

As has been emphasized, the United States Atomic Energy Commission feels that education on atomic energy is the business of educators and that it is not the job of the Commission to develop course outlines or other curriculum materials. It does feel that it should offer advice and assistance on atomic energy subjects, when so requested, and this it has done over the past few years, and will continue to do. It has cooperated in the development of school and teacher programs on atomic energy. It has helped in the securing of speakers for atomic energy meetings. It has loaned films. It has also made available literature on nearly every phase of atomic energy progress and development. It is the job of the schools to mold these source materials into teaching materials. This the schools are doing, with satisfying and encouraging results.

## Civil Defense

(*Continued from page 154*)

In New Mexico, the "Manual for Civilian Defense in the Schools" quotes from the edited consolidation of reports prepared by a committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and a committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals and states that:

> Whatever is done in curriculum modification should be developed by local school personnel in harmony with the imperative needs of youth.

The State Department of Public Instruction, Iowa, has developed a program involving all grade levels and providing flexibility to meet varying needs of different communities and of changing circumstances. The bulletin, "A Program for Civil Defense in the Schools of Iowa," was prepared by a production committee in accordance with recommendations of a Central Planning Committee of Iowa educators. The following excerpt from the foreword suggests the comprehensive pattern of civil defense in the Iowa school planning:

> In this pamphlet the term *civil defense* is given broad interpretation. It will include defense against fire, flood, tornadoes, and epidemics, defense against internal subversive groups, as well as defense against enemy warfare. . . .
>
> First and foremost is the prevention of fear in the minds of children by teaching them the best things to do in any and all emergencies. . . .

Chapter One of "Design for Defense—The Role of Utah's Schools," gives some insights into the relationship of civil defense to the school curriculum in that State. It states, in part:

> Civil defense concepts will and should have some impact on school curriculum. If the schools are providing the kinds of opportunities and experiences which will help children and youth to grow up and to accept and take part in the democratic way of life, then civil defense must be a part of that training.

Thus, schools and colleges recognize that Civil Defense is an educational resource and many already have modified their programs through supplementary and integrational offerings so as to draw out the social values of this newly identified dimension of American life-protective citizenship.

## The Atomic Age Moves Forward

(*Continued from page 156*)

become so preoccupied with the destructiveness of atomic energy that we overlook its wondrous benefits. To a large degree the educators of this country are the ones who can see to it that a healthy outlook upon the developing atomic age is developed among the youth of America. Along with those who govern us we must never cease to work for peace and understanding among peoples so that the concern with national self-preservation can some day give way to a desire for universal well-being as the motive force of atomic progress.

## Small High Schools

(*Continued from page 147*)

visitors were led to another location where three of our girls explained the use of isotopes in medicine, agriculture and industry. Here "hot atoms" were pictured by colorful charts. The next station displayed the working tools of the atomic scientist including several electroscopes, a spinthariscope, Geiger counter, supersniffer, dosimeter and model cloud chamber. The last "punch line" of the show was our new 200,000 volt Van de Graaff electrostatic generator. This splendid piece of equipment shot a crackling 5-inch spark, and while it made the youngsters who got too close do a new style of oriental dance, it was nevertheless quite harmless.

Except for two purchased pieces, our entire display has cost us very little. The help of our art and shop teachers combined with kid imagination and enthusiasm, made up for the lack of funds.

In 1949, our boys with the help of the sheet metal shop in town, built a 6-foot working model of the Van de Graaff atom smasher after the specifications of Professor Regalbuto of Columbia University. We still get requests from clubs all over America for the details of construction.

Perhaps the high point in this year's activities was the trip to the National Atomic Energy Laboratory at Brookhaven, Long Island. As guests of the AEC for the day, our 36 wide-eyed junior scientists saw the Cosmotron (the newest and largest atomic accelerator in the world), the 60-inch cyclotron, the "hot laboratory" where highly radioactive materials are chemically processed, the meteorology installation, and a scale model of the huge atomic reactor. This field trip served well as a grand windup of our year's work.

It is customary at the last meeting of the year for each member to write a short paper on how he thinks we can improve our program for the following year. Many cross currents of opinion come out of these reports, but it seems to me worthy of note that quite a few of the seniors felt that the "conducted tour" type of show was so successful that it should be taken right into other schools in our town. In their opinion, no fortune teller has a crystal ball big enough to list all of the blessings to which man will fall heir, and with just a little encouragement from us they know they can harness this smallest thing in the universe, which has suddenly become the largest thing, to the greater good of mankind.

HERE then is a call to action for educational statesmanship in this perilous period of our history. How well we meet this challenge will determine whether we shall keep and expand our freedoms in peace and prosperity or whether we shall be compelled to yield to enemies both within and without. In the struggle the youth of America constitute our best resource and our greatest hope. The responsibilty is overwhelming to nurture them in body, mind, and spirit, and to give them faith.

This age brings democracy great opportunities as well as dangers. The same lines of attack will promote the one and curtail the other, provided educational leadership will keep open the channels of learning and enlightenment for American youth. . . .

*—American School Curriculum, Thirty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators*

## Curriculum Adaptation to Changing Needs

(*Continued from page 157*)

(*b*) The problem posed by the dilemma of conflict between science and morality continues. Scientific advancement—atomic research, jet propulsion, electronics—remains neutral as to its ultimate effect on humanity. It remains a matter of choice—moral choice—whether man is to elect to emancipate or exterminate himself through his sciences.

(*c*) The problems of the postwar world have placed new obligations on citizenship. With democracy on trial, and in severest issue with mortal enemy, the citizen's obligation to know, value, and protect his way of life is extended. Civic responsibility assumes new dimensions from the immediate problems of the neighborhood to the arena of responsible judgments on world affairs.

(*d*) The hazards of the changed world have become known to America. These hazards are simply the conditions of life in the twentieth century. They will be adequately met through education neither by hysteria nor by avoidance. But they are an educational responsibility: to counteract fear, emotional security must be developed; to build civic responsibility, deep-rooted "whys and wherefores" must be established; to lend ability to cope with emergency in any form, skills must be developed; to create enduring morale, education must pursue its great constants, its quest for the meaning of truth and beauty and the good life.

*To live in this kind of world—and this is the only kind of world in which today's children have the option of living—to live in this kind of world calls for knowing a great many things which yesterday's children did not know, could not know, had no need to know. These, too, must now be learned. And where are they to be learned if not in the schools?*

*Life Adjustment Education in the American Culture. Circular No. 335, United States Office of Education, 1951.*





U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1953

# Atomic Energy and Civil Defense TEACHING AIDS

## Atomic Energy

**The Atom at Work.** By Jacob Sacks. New York, Ronald Press, 1951. 327 p. $4.

**The Effects of Atomic Weapons.** Prepared under the direction of the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory for and in cooperation with the United States Department of Defense and the United States Atomic Energy Commission. Washington, D. C. 456 p. $1.25.

**Explaining the Atom.** By Selig Hecht, New York, Viking, 1947. 205 p. $3.

**A General Account of the Development of Methods of Using Atomic Energy for Military Purposes Under the Auspices of the U. S. Government 1940–45.** By H. D. Smyth, Washington, D. C., 1945. 182 p. 40 cents.

**Laboratory Experiments With Radioisotopes for High School Science Demonstrations.** Washington, D. C., 1953. Edited by Supervisor of Science, High School Division, Board of Education of New York City and the Atomic Energy Commission. 53 p. 25 cents.

A series of 20 simple experiments developed by six New York City high school science teachers.

**Nucleonics—What Everybody Should Know About Atomic Physics.** Based on official material prepared under auspices of U. S. Navy Department. Published in cooperation with Public Affairs Press. 1946. 38 p. $1.

**The Seventh (Atomic Energy and the Physical Sciences) and Eleventh (Some Applications of Atomic Energy in Plant Science) Semiannual Reports of the Atomic Energy Commission to the Congress.** Washington, D. C. 7th Report, 228 p. 50 cents. †11th Report, 211 p. 50 cents.

## Civil Defense

**Civil Defense in Schools.** Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington. D. C. 1952. 32 p. 15 cents.

**Emergency Action to Save Lives.** Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington, D. C. 1951. 32 p. 5 cents.

**Fire Fighting for Householders.** Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington, D. C. 1951. 31 p. 5 cents.

**Survival Under Atomic Attack.** Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington, D. C. 1950. 31 p. 10 cents.

†Other semiannual reports of the Commission useful for those who wish to follow progress of atomic energy developments.

**Civil Defense Supplement to the American Red Cross First Aid Textbook.** American National Red Cross. Philadelphia. The Blakiston Company, 1951. 47 p. 10 cents.

**For INSTRUCTIONAL AND RESOURCE UNITS see listings in Bibliographies.**

## Bibliographies

**Annotated Civil Defense Bibliography for Teachers.** Federal Civil Defense Administration. Washington, D. C. 1951. 28 p. 20 cents.

**Selected Readings on Atomic Energy.** Atomic Energy Commission, Washington, D. C. 1951. 23 p. 15 cents.

## Films

***A Is for Atom—1953.** Produced by General Electric Co. 15 minutes, 16 mm. sound; in color. Available on loan from the General Electric Company, Schenectady, N. Y.

An animated cartoon film explaining atomic structure and nuclear fission.

***The Atom and Agriculture—1953.** Produced by Encyclopaedia Britannica, Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill. 10 min, 16 mm. sound. $50.

Explains areas in which radioactivity (including radioisotopes) can be used in agriculture.

***The Atom and Industry—1953.** 10 minutes, 16 mm. sound. $50. Produced by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.

Uses of radioisotope in industrial processes.

***The Atom and You**—16 minutes, 16 mm. sound. Produced by Paramount News, Inc., 44 West 43d Street, New York, N. Y. Price $50.

A series of 3 news reels, (consolidated into 1) covering the use of radioisotopes in biology and medicine, agriculture and industry.

***Atomic Energy Can Be a Blessing—1953.** Produced by Jack Denove Productions, Hollywood, Calif., for The Christophers. 25 minutes, 16 mm. sound. Cost $30. Source: The Christophers, 18 East 48th Street, New York 17, N. Y.

Emphasizes peaceful atom and career opportunities.

***Atomic Physics.** Produced by the J. Arthur Rank Organization, Ltd., and released in the United States by the United World Films, Inc.—90 minutes, 16 mm. sound; cost, unknown; source: United World Films, Inc., 445 Park Avenue, New York 22. N. Y.

An authoritative film on the history and development of atomic energy. The film is in five parts.

**Fire Fighting for Householders—1951.** 11 minutes, black and white, sound. $17.50 (Purchase) United World Films, 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, N. Y.

**Operation Doorstep—1953.** Produced and owned by Byron, Inc., 1226 Wisconsin Avenue NW., Washington, D. C., with the cooperation of Federal Civil Defense Administration; 16 mm. sound. $27. 10 minutes. On loan from any Federal Civil Defense Administration Regional Office.

Based on the civil defense atomic test conducted at the AEC Nevada Proving Grounds on March 17, 1953.

**Survival Under Atomic Attack—1951.** 9 minutes, black and white, sound. $17.50 (Purchase) United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, N. Y.

Scenes of devastated Hiroshima illustrate blast, heat, and radiation effects of atomic bombing. Six basic rules of survival are discussed.

**What You Should Know About Biological Warfare—1951.** 10 minutes, black and white; sound. $17.50 (Purchase) United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, N. Y.

## Filmstrips

**The Atom**—Life filmstrip in color. 55 frames with reprint of Life's article in the May 16, 1949, issue, included as lecture notes. $4.50. Address: Life Filmstrips, Time and Life Building, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

**Atomic Physics**—Based on the J. Arthur Rank film of the same name. There are 5 filmstrips in the series, costing $3.00 a filmstrip; or $12.50 if all 5 filmstrips are purchased. Available from United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, N. Y.

**Making Atomic Energy Help Mankind**—Produced by Popular Science Publishing Co., Audio Visual Division, 353 4th Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. 39 frames, depicting use of radioisotopes in biology and medicine.

**Your Atomic World**—Produced by The Council on Atomic Implications, Inc. Distributed by Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 West Diversey Ave., Chicago 14, Ill. $12 for set of 2.

Part I—Let's Look at the Atom—53 frames in full color. Emphasis on scientific principles of atomic structure and nuclear fission.

Part II—The Atom at Work—52 frames, full color. Emphasis on uses of atomic energy.

*Available on loan from AEC.

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Dear Sir,

I am a student at Nicholas Blackwell High School at Bartlett Tenn.

My science class is doing some research work, and I have chosen Atomic Energy and Radioactive Isotopes as my topic.

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I am a student in De Witt Clinton High School, and upon my graduation I would like to make my career in Atomic Energy. While I am still in high school can you advise me in what subject I should take to qualify for some job in the Atomic research.