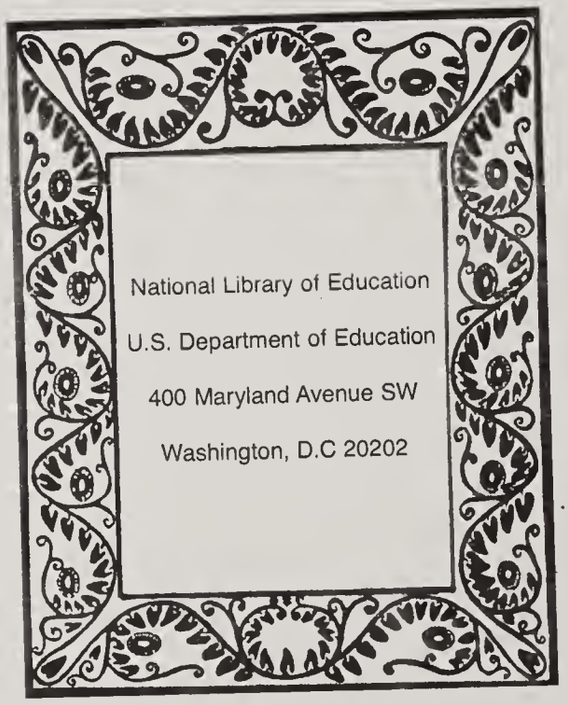

VOLUME XXXVI

October 1953 to June 1954

SCHOOL LIFE

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

Office of Education

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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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School Life

◀ U. S. A. Class of 1960

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Class Size—A Look Ahead

by Carl A. Jessen

IN THE DAYS before World War I the aim of high schools generally was to hold class size to about 20 pupils. If an occasional class, other than music and physical education, exceeded 25, it was a subject for real concern by both teachers and principal. Nearly everybody said then that classes were too large.

IN OUR DAY a principal feels fortunate if no class is over 35. An investigation into size of class reported by the Office of Education in 1949 revealed that classes in large high schools had an average registration of 29.5 pupils and that 11.2 percent of all classes exceeded 40 pupils. Then, too, classes were said to be overlarge.

WHAT of the future? Enrollments in grades 9 to 12, which for the past 10 years have remained fairly stationary at about 5.5 million, are due to rise to 6 million by 1956 and to 7 million by 1959. That is an increase of 1.5 million in 6 years. Will classes be too large in 1959? And if so, how large? Forty, perhaps? Or will improved recruiting procedures and an abiding faith on the part of the people who pay the cost provide enough teachers to hold class size to a modest 30 in 1959? The problem is complicated.

THE SOLUTIONS will probably be equally complicated. Double sessions? Correspondence study and self-teaching materials? Work experience on a greatly expanded scale? And if these and other measures are adopted to vitalize education of youth, will they tend to ease the teaching load or will they aggravate it by placing new and bewildering problems on the already overburdened teacher?

ONE SOLUTION worth more consideration than it has received is to take the teacher out of his traditional role as principal dispenser of information in the classroom. If we can develop and capitalize on *meaningful* modern teaching aids, such as still and motion pictures, daylight projection of opaque objects, disc and tape recordings, radio, television, self-correcting practice materials coupled with diagnostic tests, and the like, we should be able to relieve the teacher of being a classroom oracle and at the same time improve the quality of instruction. A teacher having such aids at hand and trained in their use can save himself and his pupils much of the wear and tear of ponderous instruction; he can save more of his energy for the vital individual and small-group assistance now too often crowded out in large classes. And classes will probably be larger in 1959.

★ ★ ★

CARL A. JESSEN is Executive Secretary of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, 1785 Massachusetts Ave. NW., Washington, D. C. Previously, he was a staff member of the Office of Education for many years, first as Specialist for Secondary Education, later as Chief of Secondary Schools. He has played a prominent role in the development of the Evaluative Criteria, 1940 and 1950 editions.

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

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Cover photograph: Courtesy of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. Photograph taken in Fort Smith, Ark.

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

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)

1895—Lee M. Thurston—1953

DR. LEE M. THURSTON, nominated by President Eisenhower as United States Commissioner of Education on June 18, 1953, suffered a heart attack on August 29. He died at Georgetown University Hospital in Washington, D. C., on September 4.

President Eisenhower's statement issued upon the death of Commissioner Thurston said, "It is with deep regret that I have learned of the death of Dr. Thurston . . . I had full confidence in his ability and held high hopes for his leadership in that important office. Dr. Thurston had a long and distinguished career as an educator, and his death is a real loss, not only to the Government, but also to the cause of American education."

Oveta Culp Hobby, Secretary of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, described the death of Dr. Thurston as "a great loss to the administration, to the Department, and to education as a whole." "I feel a deep personal sense of loss," Mrs. Hobby said, "because of the splendid outlook he had for improving the educational opportunities for the Nation's children. His personal charm, high ideals, complete devotion to duty, and steadfastness of purpose gave promise of a great career as United States Commissioner of Education. His heart and soul were in his job. Just before he died he sought to dictate a memorandum to his nurse in which he said, 'We must have more patriotic pictures in our schools.' "

Rall I. Grigsby, Acting Commissioner of Education, speaking for all staff members and personnel of the Office of Education, said, "Those of us who have known Dr. Thurston intimately and have been associated with him during the past two months in the Office of Education have lost both a friend and leader. His warm spirit and sympathetic approach to our many problems as we have worked together to promote the cause of American education will be greatly missed. Our thoughts are with Mrs. Thurston and her children in this period of sorrow."

From the Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, William G. Carr, came this statement: "Dr. Thurston's knowledge of the problems of school administration, his unusual talent for clear and forceful expression, and his skill in human relationships will be impossible to replace."

During his short term of office, Commissioner Thurston gained the respect and loyalty of all his coworkers in the Office of Education.

His intelligent grasp of problems presented by Office of Education specialists, and his leadership in organizing to work with State departments of education and local communities in helping to promote the cause of education remain indelibly in the minds and hearts of all who were associated with Dr. Thurston in his new position.

Commissioner Thurston, immediately preceding his death, was busily engaged in reviewing the Office of Education budget for the fiscal year 1955.

Dr. Thurston believed very definitely the Office of Education should do everything possible to strengthen its services to education in accordance with the original charter given by Congress in 1867. He quoted from it often to stress the basic mandate to the Office for the collection and diffusion

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of statistics and facts on the condition and progress of education, and to "promote the cause of education throughout the country."

He believed sincerely that the American people have faith in our Nation's teachers and school administrators and not only are doing more today than they have ever done to provide better schools and education for our children, but will do even more in meeting the crisis that looms ahead.

He was convinced that both the profession and the public should have more facts and information about the problems and progress of education. His firm faith in the value of communication with our Nation's citizens by means of the press, radio, and television were evidenced during the days of late July and in August. He turned down no request for interview by writer or editor. His words were recorded, broadcast, and televised by the major networks. Newspaper syndicates printed in hundreds of papers Dr. Thurston's report on school and college enrollments and major problems in American education at the beginning of this academic year.

He had made two formal public addresses as Commissioner of Education. One was before the graduating class at George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tenn. The other was made in his home State in Lansing, Mich., on August 24, at the annual Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. One of his many actions during his last busy week in office was the sending of a letter to Mr. Ralph Thornton, president of the Minnesota State Fair, commending him and members of the board for the fair for planning a special "Teacher Recognition Day" at this year's fair. He took the occasion to congratulate all teachers "throughout the Nation . . . for their contributions to the welfare of youth and our country," and concluded, "May the true spirit of teaching, which you are recognizing publicly in this manner, encourage other young people to take up this challenging profession."

As a devoted patriot, his concern was to deepen understanding of American traditions, and as he phrased it, to "cause education to play its part in the development of the American way of life." He said "it is the function of American education to make the most of each person both as an individual and as an American citizen."

With the approach of Labor Day, and another school year, he thought it advisable to issue a public statement on labor's contribution to the progress of American education. He expressed concern about the safety of the millions of children going to and from school each day in school buses, automobiles, and on foot. He wanted to suggest to the parents of the 3 million new first graders in our schools how the school and the home can cooperate in making the first school experience of children a happy one. He was worried about the 2½ million teen-agers who might not return to high school this fall unless they get a word of encouragement from a teacher or principal or the counsel of a father or mother. On the national level he was giving much thought to the proper role of the Government in its relationships to the States, local school systems, and educational institutions.

Funeral services for Dr. Thurston were held in Lansing, Mich., and interment took place on September 8 in a burial plot in the town of his birth, Central Lake, Mich.

Some of Dr. Thurston's many friends have established in his memory a Lee M. Thurston Scholarship Fund to be used for the college education of his physically handicapped daughter. Chairman of this fund is Dr. John Guy Fowlkes, dean of the College of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

State Activity in Teacher Recruitment

"An all-out effort should be made to encourage more activity on the part of top administration officers in education to become active in teacher recruitment."

This suggestion came to the Office of Education from Arthur Adams, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, in charge of teacher recruitment for the State of Illinois.

Mr. Adams makes his suggestion as a positive step toward helping solve the Nation's teacher shortage problem.

Answers to a teacher-recruitment questionnaire sent to the 48 State departments of education were also revealed to the Office of Education by Mr. Adams, for publication in SCHOOL LIFE. The questions and replies as compiled by Mr. Adams are:

Summary of the 48 States

Teacher Recruitment Questionnaire

1. Do you have some one person delegated to do teacher recruitment work? If so, please give his or her name. Yes 8 No 40.
2. Are there teacher scholarships to the tax supported institutions in your State which cover tuition and incidentals? Yes 28 No 20.
3. Do the private colleges in your State offer teacher training scholarships? Yes 18 No 30.
4. Did the 1952 teacher training graduates from 4 year colleges meet the demand? Yes 3 No 45.
5. Is your State using more emergency or substandard certificates than 1952? Yes 15 No 33.
6. Have any lay organizations or any particular line of industry sponsored scholarships for teacher training in your State? Yes 18 No 30.
7. Have any lay organizations sponsored teacher recruitment in your State? Please indicate. Yes 25 No 23.
8. Has the Parent Teacher Association of your State been active in teacher recruitment? Yes 33 No 15.
9. Has the Future Teachers Organization been influential in recruiting teachers? Yes 38 No 10.
10. Has your State published any brochures, guidance bulletins, pamphlets, or any other materials on teacher recruitment? Yes 20 No 28.
11. What have the educational organizations done in your State to actually assist in the teacher recruitment program?

Reporting the Progress of Public Education

A summary presented at the 16th International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, Switzerland

EDUCATORS throughout the world in attendance at the 1953 International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, Switzerland, heard W. Earl Armstrong, Chief for Teacher Education, Division of Higher Education, of the Office of Education, announce that three firmly held popular concepts guide public education in the United States of America.

"Rooted in historic development, they express the ideal toward which the various school systems are building," said Dr. Armstrong, reporting to the conference as the Chairman of the United States delegation.

These concepts are:

(1) At each successive level of educational advancement, everyone has an inherent right to educational opportunities consistent with his individual needs and his ability to become a productive citizen.

(2) Education is essential to the survival of personal freedom and to the maintenance of national prosperity.

(3) Education in the United States is the responsibility of the people, and its legal control is the responsibility of the State and local school authorities, not the Federal Government.

After this introduction, Dr. Armstrong reported enrollments and expenditures in American education, and then presented statements in capsule about educational administration, organization, curriculum, teaching, and other developments in schools and colleges of our country during 1952–53.

This information, drawn from all divisions of the Office of Education, is published for use by SCHOOL LIFE readers.

In addition to Dr. Armstrong, the United States delegation included Anne Maloney, elementary school teacher from Gary, Ind., and an active member of the American Federation of Teachers; and George Willis Diemer, president, Central Missouri College, Warrensburg, Mo., a member of the United States National Commission for UNESCO. The Geneva Conference was sponsored by the International Bureau of Education and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.

School Administration

School finance.—Although total education expenditures have increased notably, they have not kept pace with the 10-year rise in prices and with the rise in national income. Similarly, although teachers' salaries have increased somewhat during recent years, they have not increased proportionately with the increases of other professional groups.

Of the $6,100,000,000 spent in 1952–53 by local school districts for public elementary and secondary school operation, approximately 3 percent came from Federal sources; 42 percent from State sources, and 55 percent from local sources, chiefly from general property taxes.

School buildings.—School construction continued at a record pace during the past year. Contracts awarded for the construction of educational buildings during 1952 amounted to: $1,400 million for public elementary-secondary schools; $152 million for nonpublic elementary-secondary schools; and $248 million for colleges and universities.

Even at this rate new classrooms for the public schools barely kept pace with the increase in enrollments due to the continuing high birth rates which began during the latter part of the past decade.

School construction during the past few years has emphasized among other features the following: single-story buildings on large sites; well-lighted, well-ventilated rooms; homemaking and science laboratories; supplementary areas for library, music, lunch, health, and recreation; and central sound systems.

American colleges and universities, according to the latest survey, needed 80 percent more residential space. One-fourth of the 1,386 institutions surveyed did not maintain any form of residential housing. To relieve the shortage, the Congress has provided a $300 million loan fund at a moderate interest rate.

School Organization

Reforms or modifications introduced during the year.—There is no one organizational pattern for public education throughout the United States. The pattern in many individual States is not uniform either, and changes have been gradual rather than rapid over the years.

Public elementary education.—The Nation's 20,200,000 elementary school children go to approximately 128,225 schools of which 59,652 are one-room buildings housing several elementary grades, but enrolling only about 5 percent of the elementary school pupils.

Internally, 65 percent of American elementary schools are organized with a grade or class assigned entirely to an individual teacher who is responsible for the children's total experiences or subjects each day. Increasingly, grades 7 and 8 are becoming part of a junior high school organization in which teaching is generally departmentalized.

Public secondary education.—The Nation's 7,000,000 secondary school children are housed in approximately 24,000 schools. A steadily increasing proportion of seventh graders are going on to graduate from high school. The extremely large and the extremely small high schools are growing fewer in number while the number of middle-sized schools is increasing.

The traditional 4-year high school is being reorganized into junior, senior, and junior-senior high schools, especially in city systems.

Vocational education.—The comprehensive secondary school and the special vocational schools provide most of the less-than-college-grade vocational education. This type of program continues to grow and the growth is most rapid now in areas of less concentrated population—areas where the vocational program was not previously organized.

Adult education.—Currently, 3,165,900 adults are enrolled in some kind of vocational education program sponsored by public schools. About 3 million more adults participate in some type of evening or outside regular scheduled classes in community colleges, evening schools, adult education centers, and college extension courses. The trend is upward, both overall and in 15 particular areas which were covered by a recent National Education Association survey. The two greatest increases occur in safety and driver education—up 535 percent; and in civic and public affairs education—up 428 percent.

Parents have opportunity to enroll in study groups, observe classroom activities under guidance, participate in committee work, and attend lectures and conferences—all sponsored by elementary and secondary schools.

Higher education.—The Nation's 1,889 recognized institutions of higher education enroll 2,400,000 students, about evenly divided between public and private institutions. These institutions have a variety of organizational patterns and names. The most common type, however, is the liberal arts college offering a 4-year program leading to the bachelor's degree. The first 2 years of a liberal arts program and a program preparing students for occupations and trades requiring less than the 4-year degree are offered by the rapidly increasing community and junior colleges.

Two-thirds of all American colleges and universities are privately controlled and financed.

Changes in Curricula

During 1952–53 the American public continued its lively consideration of what should be taught in the public schools. Professional organizations published yearbooks dealing with various aspects of the curriculum problem. One, emphasizing that high-school students' needs should be the basis for secondary education, discussed these needs and suggested ways for teachers to set teaching goals for themselves. A second yearbook stressed that teachers must develop greater insight into children's needs and the needs of the society in which the children live; a third discussed the school curriculum's relation to home, community, and American culture; and a fourth was concerned with forces affecting American education. Contributors to these yearbooks for the most part advocated an educational program built upon society's ever-increasing knowledge about how children and youth develop.

Developments in Teaching Methods and Materials and Use of New Techniques

Increasing knowledge of child development has brought about two noteworthy results in American elementary schools: Subject matter is better fitted to the child's needs and better methods are used for teaching children in small subclass groups and individually. The increasing knowledge has changed high-school curricula by introducing courses that cut across traditional subject-matter lines.

Schools in the 48 States.—A 2½-year study by the Office of Education of outstanding school systems revealed many significant trends. For example, an increasing number of these schools in their day-to-day activities utilize community and regional resources. Pupils share in planning their experiences, teacher-pupil relationships are becoming more democratic, and parents and teachers work together not only through formal parent-teacher organizations, but also informally.

Foreign languages in the elementary school.—Professional educators, parents, and lay leaders are all studying the problem of how the American people can better understand other nations. To achieve this end, it is well for more Americans to learn how to communicate directly with the people of these nations. Recognizing this need, the District of Columbia and 28 States offer foreign language study in one or more public elementary schools. In some cities the practice is, for all intents and purposes, citywide. Grade level, choice of language, children included, section of teaching personnel—none of these factors falls into a uniform pattern.

A national conference attended by more than 500 leaders in this field provided an opportunity for the exchange of experiences and the exploration of new approaches.

Magnetic tape recorder as a new technique.—More than 50 separate uses for magnetic tape recording in high schools were revealed by a spot check early in 1952–53. Some of these uses were for student self-evaluation in overcoming poor inflection and faulty pronunciation in both English and foreign languages. Other uses were for teacher recordings of vocal and instrumental music instruction.

Teaching Staff

A shortage of qualified teachers was again one of the great problems during 1952–53 for the elementary schools, but no immediate dearth of teaching personnel faced the secondary schools or the colleges and universities.

The colleges and universities, which in 1952–53 had full-time and teaching staffs totaling about 200,000, should find enough qualified persons this fall. The same should be true of the secondary schools, which in 1952–53 were staffed by an estimated 375,000 supervisory and teaching personnel. The supply should be adequate despite an increased demand to meet a predicted increase in junior high school enrollment. So far, secondary school teachers have not been in short supply even though the number of persons preparing to teach at this level has been decreasing ever since 1947. During the 2 years, 1951–53, the decrease was 23 percent.

In the fall of 1953 an accentuation of the prevalent elementary teacher shortage is expected. The minimum need is for 116,000 new elementary teachers—46,000 to take care of increased enrollment (1½ million), and 70,000 to replace teachers leaving the profession. Since only some 45,700 qualified graduates for the elementary field came out of the colleges this year, the net teacher shortage in September is about 70,000. Further elementary teacher shortages will develop in the fall of 1954 and of 1955, when the enrollment is expected to increase by 1,330,000 and 1,274,000, respectively. To staff the elementary and secondary schools adequately within the next 10 years would require an addition

(*Continued on page 12*)

Future Unlimited—Student Art Project

"FUTURE UNLIMITED" is the title of a nationwide art project for school students in grades 4 through 12. The project is sponsored by the Treasury Department to start new thousands of students, and their families, on personal savings plans through United States savings stamps and bonds.

"FUTURE UNLIMITED" is not a contest—it is an educational activity to develop habits of conservation and thrift for the advancement of personal and national financial security.

Students are asked to give free rein to their creative artistic ability to portray their hopes for the years to come. Students taking part in the project will depict what they hope stamp and bond savings will provide for them and their families—perhaps material goals such as a new camera, bike, tractor, funds for art or music school, or college, for setting one's self up in business, or for a long vacation—or perhaps idealistic goals such as scientific progress, national security, or world peace.

Participating schools may begin the project any time after the opening of the Fall 1953 school semester. The artwork may be done in whatever medium the student wishes. The work may be in poster illustration, cartoon, or any other type of presentation.

It is hoped that each school will have a *community display* of the student work before any is chosen for submission to the sponsor. After the local display, each school is invited to select not more than five pieces of representative work for submission to its own State savings bonds director, by February 2, 1954. Depending on their originality, appropriateness, and dramatic influence to aid in the promotion of the savings bonds program, selections of student work will be given publicity and display by State savings bonds directors. A representative national selection will be suitably recognized by the Treasury Department in Washington, D. C.

Write to Future Unlimited Art Project, United States Savings Bonds Division, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C., for additional information.

International Education Service

Opportunity to render service to education internationally has come to three members of the Office of Education staff in recent months

W. Earl Armstrong

W. EARL ARMSTRONG, Acting Director of the Division of Higher Education, and Chief of Teacher Education, reported on "The Progress of Public Education in the United States of America, 1952–53" at the 16th International Conference on Public Education held in Geneva, Switzerland, July 6–15. This conference was jointly sponsored by the International Bureau of Education and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Rua Van Horn

RUA VAN HORN, Program Specialist in the Home Economics Education Branch of the Office of Education, was designated by the United States Department of State as one of the members of the United States delegation of 80 home economists to attend the Eighth International Congress on Home Economics in Edinburgh, Scotland, August 12–18. Thirty countries were represented at this conference. Miss Van Horn also attended the last conference of this kind held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1949.

Bess Goodykoontz

BESS GOODYKOONTZ, Director of the Comparative Education Branch, Office of Education, was recently named by President Eisenhower as alternate delegate to the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood at Montevideo, Uruguay. With Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs, chief of the International Technical Missions, Social Security Administration, Dr. Goodykoontz will serve this Institute created 26 years ago to promote the health, education, and welfare of the children of this hemisphere. All 21 American Republics now belong to the Institute.

Core Curriculum Offerings for Teachers

by Grace S. Wright, Secondary Schools Section

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS interested in initiating a core program or in extending its development have long cited as their number 1 problem the difficulty of finding qualified teachers. Successful teaching of a core class, they say, requires a special type of preparation, which thus far the colleges preparing teachers have not provided. Local inservice programs they admit are helpful, but these should be supplementary to, rather than a substitute for, preservice preparation.

Professors of education in many, perhaps most, of the larger higher education institutions—some briefly, others at length—have been discussing the core program with their classes in secondary school curriculum, high school methods, or administration for quite a few years. Until the past year or two, however, probably not more than a half-dozen institutions offered a course explicitly in core curriculum. Even fewer had a program designed for the preparation of core teachers. By and large, educators in teacher-preparing institutions have taken the view that they must prepare teachers for the kind of teaching opportunities that await them. While recognizing merits in the core program, some of them have voiced the feeling that they could do no more than help students to see its possibilities until there was a sufficient demand for core teachers to warrant a course or a program.

Continuing spread of the core program in secondary schools, and acceptance of the core idea by a large number of teachers and administrators, now seem to merit a look at the extent to which the core concept has been incorporated into education courses. Accordingly, education offerings of universities and teachers colleges which had sent their 1953 summer-session catalogs to the Office of Education were examined for references to the core program. Summer-session opportunities, rather than the regular fall-term offerings, were selected for study in order to include courses which are offered experimentally as a test of interest at a time when teachers in service may enroll.

In its annual request to the colleges for copies of current catalogs, the Office of Education does not ask specifically for summer session catalogs. Therefore these are not always received. Nevertheless, 85 (59 universities and 26 teachers colleges) of the 329 universities and teachers colleges in the United States, made their 1953 summer-session announcements available to the Office.[1] Since these 85 do not, of course, constitute a representative sample, no firm conclusions can be drawn. It is believed, however, that since most of the larger institutions in the United States were included, the totals reported were closer to the actual totals than the approximately 25-percent coverage would suggest.

Ten of these 17 institutions also offered one or more other courses which, in their descriptions, stated that the core program is emphasized or that attention is given to it. Thirteen other institutions were in this same category. Thus, in the summer sessions of 1953, at least 30 institutions (25 universities and 5 teachers colleges) in 21 States and the District of Columbia provided a total of 46 courses which dealt entirely or in large part with the core program, according to catalog announcements.

Most of the 46 courses were of a general nature with such titles as "teaching the core curriculum," or "development of core cur-

[1] In the classification of institutions for statistical purposes, a university is defined as "an institution of changing and complex organization in which several professional schools and colleges (not exclusively technical) are incorporated within the framework of the institution"; a teachers college is "an institution devoted primarily to the training of teachers."

Of the 85 summer-session catalogs examined, 17 listed a total of 21 courses and workshops in the core curriculum or in a core-type program.

Institution	*Title of Course*
University of Colorado	Core Curriculum.
George Washington University	Teaching the Core Curriculum.
Florida State University	Developing the General Education (Core) Program in Secondary Schools.
Eastern Illinois State Teachers College	Development of Core Curriculum.
Northwestern University	*Teaching Unified Studies and Core Curriculum in Secondary Schools.
University of Kansas	*Seminar in Core Curriculum.
	Core Curriculum, Special Fields of Study in Curriculum.
University of Maine	*Core curriculum in the Secondary School.
University of Maryland	Materials and Procedures for the High School Core Curriculum.
Boston University	Core Course Including Group Guidance.
Wayne University	Introduction to Core Curriculum Concept.
	Core Curriculum Concept and Its Implementation.
Columbia University	*Workshop on the Core Curriculum in Junior and Senior High Schools.
New York University	Core Curriculum in the Secondary School.
	*Science in Core Programs.
	*Teaching Language Arts in the Integrated Curriculum of the Junior and Senior High School.
Ohio State University	Teaching in the Core Program in the Secondary School.
Temple University	Unified Curriculum.
University of South Carolina	*High School Core Curriculum.
George Peabody College for Teachers	Core Curriculum.
West Virginia University	Workshop in Integrated Methods.

*Offered for the first time this summer.

riculum." When core was only a part of the course, the title may have been "curriculum of the secondary school" or "modern methods in the secondary school." Eleven courses, however, related to a subject area or to a special area which is fundamental in core teaching: 3 were social studies, 1 language arts, 2 science, 2 music, 2 guidance, and 1 community resources.

Worth noting is the fact that half of the 30 institutions stressing the core program in summer study for teachers were in States which in 1949 reported to the Office of Education 10 or fewer high schools having a core program. This may mean that professors of education are taking the initiative, believing that the program has become sufficiently well established nationally to warrant at least emphasizing it in a general course, or in some cases introducing a course devoted wholly to it.

Pertinent Information

Correspondence with professors or deans of education in the 17 institutions listed previously provides some pertinent information. In only five instances had there been an outside request for or expressed interest in such a course. On the other hand, in seven instances the core curriculum course was offered by the university solely on its own initiative in the hope of developing interest in the State—or Nation.

From available figures it is estimated that approximately 500 students were enrolled in the 21 courses of which 14 were open to graduate students only. Some of these were attended largely by leaders who are developing a core program or are interested in developing one in their schools.

Professors in several institutions volunteered comments as to reaction to the course in core curriculum. The following are examples:

Although few schools in the State have adopted a core program, the university has offered this course for several years and response to the class has been gratifying. We are hopeful for the future that we may enrich instruction in many schools through the core program or simply through expanding the use of sound teaching techniques.

* * * * *

This course, first offered in 1952, is stimulating a great deal of interest and is giving rise to efforts to find a valid solution to certain educational problems.

* * * * *

Students come out of the course feeling that the core program has a great deal of merit, but that (a) we ought to work at it longer before we can use it, or (b) it is not practical for our school as conducted at present. A small percentage usually leave with the hope of using it next year.

Learning about core in a curriculum course or in a course labeled Core Curriculum does not automatically or necessarily transform a subject teacher into a core teacher. It does at the least, however, give him some knowledge of the meaning of core, its purposes, objectives, possible types, scope, and method. If the course is conducted as a cooperative endeavor, using core methods, it can provide the student an opportunity to participate in teacher-pupil planning, to serve as a group member in developing a unit of work, and to have first-hand experience with problem-solving techniques. In other words, the student can observe and participate in a course which is conducted in accordance with procedures he will use when teaching a core class in a secondary school.

Colleges of education offering a course in core curriculum also provide other courses which obviously contribute to the preparation of the core teacher. Among these are guidance for the classroom teacher, characteristics and problems of adolescents, group guidance, group development, group discussion, using community resources, and school-community relations. Others are building resource units, organizing units of instruction, the direct applications of audiovisual methods and materials to classroom situations, pupil-activity programs in the secondary school, and measuring and evaluating pupil growth in secondary schools. Competencies in these areas, invaluable for any teacher, are essential for the core teacher.

It should not be overlooked that besides professional preparation, the prospective core teacher needs a broad background of information and skills. He is a generalist rather than a specialist. In fact, some high-school principals are less concerned with a candidate's professional preparation for core teaching than with his general-education background, his understanding of life and people, and his interest in community activities. However, the extent to which colleges of education which have a program of preparation for core teaching draw upon the subject-matter areas is beyond the scope of this study.

In summary, a look at core-program offerings in 85 of the 329 universities and teachers colleges in summer sessions of 1953 reveals that:

1. Thirty institutions offered a total of 46 courses in core or emphasized the core program in their catalog announcements.

2. These 30 institutions were located in 21 States and the District of Columbia, all but 5 of the States being east of the Mississippi River.

3. Seventeen of these institutions offered a total of 21 courses and workshops in the core curriculum.

4. Approximately 500 students were enrolled in summer-session work in the 21 core courses.

5. Of the 21 courses, 13 were for graduate students only; 7 were offered for the first time this summer; 14 are or will be regular Education offerings.

For those who see the core program as a better way of providing for the general-education needs and interests of boys and girls in the high school, the situation in the universities at least is encouraging. Seventeen institutions, 15 universities and 2 teachers colleges, is not a large number to be sure; for the full story one must add such institutions as the University of Minnesota and the University of Florida, which offer core courses during the regular school year but which listed no such offerings during the summer. One must also consider that a complete review of summer sessions offerings would show more institutions among those pioneering in this area of teacher preparation.

Other OFFICE of EDUCATION Publications Relating to the Core Curriculum

Order cost publications from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Core Curriculum in Public High Schools—An Inquiry Into Practices, 1949. Bulletin 1950, No. 5. 15 cents.

Core Curriculum Development—Problems and Practices. Bulletin 1952, No. 5. 30 cents.

The Core in Secondary Schools: A Bibliography. Circular No. 323, November 1952. Free from the Office of Education.

Supplement No. 1, 1952–53 References. Free from the Office of Education.

State Standards for Teachi

Our Nation's 5,000,000 Exceptional C

- *Thirty-two States and the District of Columbia now issue special certificates for teachers of exceptional children in one or more areas.*

- *More States require special credentials for speech correctionists than for teachers in any of the other areas of exceptionality.*

- *Next to speech correction, the areas in which the largest number of States have special teacher standards are, in order, the hard of hearing, the crippled, the mentally retarded, and the partially seeing.*

- *The areas in which the least number of States issue special certificates are for teachers of the blind, deaf, socially maladjusted, and the gifted.*

- *Only one State has a special certificate for teachers of the gifted.*

- *Sixteen States do not require special certification of teachers of exceptional children.*

▲ Through play cerebral palsied children improve muscular coordination.

◀ The teacher helps improve the speech of a child with impaired hearing.

THESE and other facts are emerging from the nation-wide study, "Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children," sponsored by the Office of Education. Approximately 2,000 people are participating in the project. Two committees serving in a general capacity in this study are the Office of Education Policy Committee, of which Dr. Galen Jones is chairman, and the National Committee, of which Miss Gwen Retherford is chairman. A number of outstanding leaders in special education are also serving as consultants on the study. They review materials and otherwise give guidance to the project. A complete list of committee members and consultants appears on page 10.

A project of this magnitude was made possible by two grants, totaling $50,500, from the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children in New York City. Dr. Leonard Mayo is the director of the Association, and Mrs. Alice Fitzgerald is associate director.

In general, the purpose of the Office of Education study is to secure information on competencies needed by teachers of exceptional children, on professional standards for special education personnel, and on curricula in colleges and universities preparing teachers of exceptional children. This is being achieved through two techniques. One is the use of statements of 13 committees who are studying the competencies needed by special education personnel. The other is through a series of inquiry forms which have been sent to State and local school systems, and to colleges and universities.

With the aid of Braille a blind boy in a public school learns to play the piano.

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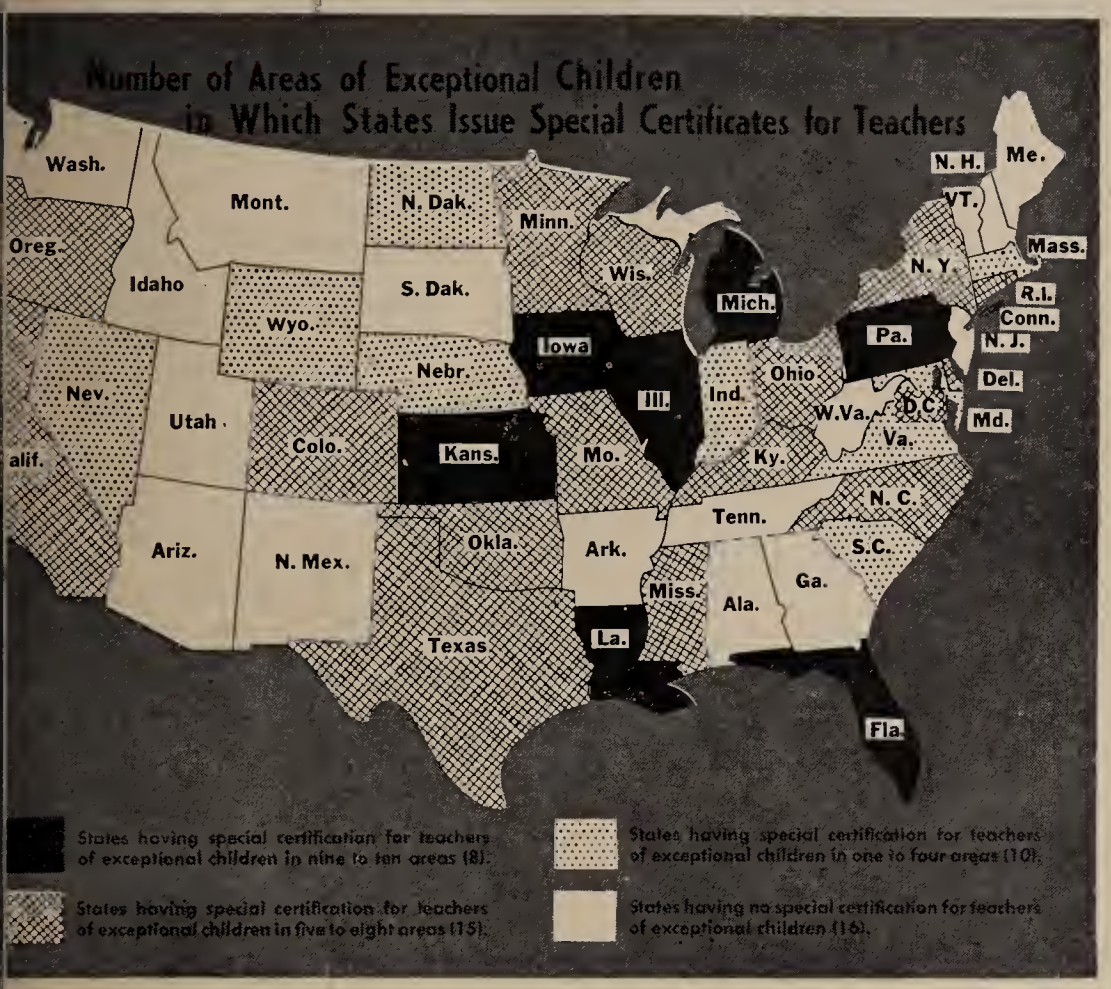
by ROMAINE P. MACKIE, *Specialist, Schools for the Physically Handicapped; and Director of the Study, "Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children, and* LLOYD M. DUNN, *Assistant to the Director of the Study*



This article is the first to report information coming from the study, "Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children." It includes a summary of the areas in which State departments of education have special certifying standards for teachers of exceptional children. A complete analysis of these standards will appear in a later publication. Examination of the map and the table indicates that two-thirds of the States now have special requirements for teachers of at least one type of exceptional child. Establishment of these standards has taken place largely within the last two decades. As recently as 1931, only 11 States had special standards for teachers of any type of exceptional child. This trend toward improving the professional qualifications of special education personnel parallels other movements to provide more and better opportunities for the 5,000,000 exceptional children in the Nation's school systems.

Comparison of these data with the statistics on exceptional children in local school systems [1] indicates that the States which have set standards for teachers tend to be the States which have extensive programs of special classes and services in local school systems. They also tend to be the States with full-time special education personnel in their State departments of education. Of the 16 States in which no special certification is required, 10 do not have a full-time State director or supervisor of special education.

[1] Office of Education. Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children, by Elise H. Martens, *et al.* Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1949. 82 p. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48, chapter V.)

Examination of the table shows marked differences in the number of areas in which special certificates are issued. By and large, the States which have set standards for special certification have gone much further in certain areas of the physically handicapped and the mentally handicapped than in the areas of the socially handicapped or the gifted. More States, 31 in all, have established a credential for teachers of speech correction than for any other area of exceptionality; 28 States have certificates for teachers of the hard of hearing; and 23 States have certification for both crippled and mentally retarded. In contrast, only eight States certify teachers especially for the socially maladjusted. Only one State, Pennsylvania, has a special credential for teachers of gifted children.

To one not familiar with trends in the education of exceptional children, comparison of the number of States issuing special certificates for teachers of the mentally retarded with those requiring special standards for teachers of the gifted may come as a surprise. One may well ask, "Does this statistic have social significance?" This condition is well supported by other data coming out of the study. Of the colleges and universities offering a sequence of preparation for teachers of exceptional children, only two have a sequence of preparation for teachers of gifted children, while 40 offer such opportunity for teachers of mentally retarded.

The material presented here shows general trends in State certification for teachers of exceptional children; it does not reflect all the efforts being put forth to secure qualified teachers for handicapped and gifted children. For example, a number of States that do not issue special certificates, such as Georgia and Tennessee, require local school systems to employ teachers with specialized preparation satisfactory to the State department of education. In

other States where no formal certificates are issued, responsibility to raise standards seems to rest with State and local directors or supervisors of special education. Many local school systems require even higher standards than those set by the States.

Private agencies have also done their share in elevating standards for special teachers. One of the important functions of these organizations is to see that standards for professional personnel in their field of specialization are high. There is a trend for these agencies, along with local school systems and teacher-education institutions, to cooperate with State departments of education in developing standards. The State departments, in turn, serve as official certifying agencies.

Quantity or Quality

All these efforts to establish special certifying standards are directed toward improving educational programs for handicapped and gifted children. In a period of acute teacher shortage throughout the Nation, we are often more concerned with teacher supply than with quality. The time has come to think about how we can insure selection and preparation of the people best qualified to teach our exceptional children. This is a matter that cannot be determined wholly by certifying standards, but the setting of proper standards helps in the process. Special certification for teachers of the various types of exceptional children is based upon the philosophy that these teachers need distinctive abilities, skills, knowledges and understandings. Fundamental to the establishment of sound standards is the compilation of data delineating these essential competencies. This is one of the chief purposes of the Office of Education study. Future publications coming from the study will report on competencies required by special education personnel, as well as on other aspects of the qualifications and preparation of such teachers. Such information should be useful in establishing certifying standards and developing teacher education programs. In turn, this should make possible expanded and improved education programs for the Nation's 5,000,000 exceptional children.

For full titles of committee members and consultants see "Teachers of Exceptional Children," *School Life*, November 1952.

Photographs by the District of Columbia Society of Crippled Children, Illinois State Department of Public Instruction, and Cincinnati, Ohio, Public Schools.

Members of the Office Policy Committee are: Dr. Galen Jones, *Chairman*, Dr. Earl Armstrong, Dr. Fred Beach, Dr. Bess Goodykoontz, Mr. Arthur Hill, and Dr. Herbert Conrad.

Members of the National Committee are: Miss Gwen Retherford, *Chairman*, Dr. William Cruickshank, Mr. Francis Doyle, Dr. Samuel Kirk, Mrs. Hazel C. McIntire, Mr. John Tenny, and Mr. Harley Wooden, *ex officio member.*

Consultants on the study are: Dr. Leo Cain, Miss Anna Engel, Dr. John Lee, Miss Mary Frances Martin, Dr. Frank J. O'Brien, Dr. Ralph Fields, and Mr. Robert H. Morrison.

These publications of the Office of Education on the education of exceptional children are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

School Housing for Physically Handicapped Children, Bulletin 1951, No. 17. 15 cents.

Some Problems in the Education of Physically Handicapped Children, Pamphlet No. 112, 1952. 15 cents.

Education of Visually Handicapped Children, Bulletin 1951, No. 20. 20 cents.

Areas in Which State Departments of Education Have Special Certifying Standards for Teachers of Exceptional Children

(States not listed in the table reported no special certificates for any kind of exceptional child)

State	Blind	Crippled	Deaf	Gifted	Hard-of-hearing	Mentally retarded	Partially seeing	Socially maladjusted	Special health problems [1]	Speech handicapped	Special credentials valid for teaching all types of exceptional children
Califarnia	X		X		X	X	X			X	
Colorada	X [5]	X	X [7]		X [7]	X	X [5]			X	
Cannecticut		X			X [2]	X	X			X [2]	
Delaware					X [2]					X [2]	X [3]
Flarida	X [5]	X [4]	X [6]		X [6]	X	X [5]		X [4]	X [6]	X
Illinais	X	X [4]	X [7]		X [7]	X	X	X	X [4]	X	
Indiana					X					X	X [3]
Iawa	X [5]	X [4]	X [7]		X [7]	X	X [5]	X	X [4]	X	X [9]
Kansas		X [8]	X		X [2]	X	X	X	X [8]	X [2]	
Kentucky		X	X		X	X	X			X	X [9]
Louisiana	X	X [8]	X		X [2]	X	X	X	X [8]	X [2]	
Maryland					X [2]					X [2]	X [9]
Massachusetts		X				X					
Michigan	X	X	X [7]		X [7]	X	X	X	X	X	
Minnesata	X [5]	X	X [7]		X [7]	X	X [5]			X	
Mississippi		X			X	X	X			X	
Missauri	X	X	X		X	X	X			X	
Nebraska			X [7]		X [7]					X [10]	
Nevada										X	
New Jersey	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
New Yark	X	X	X [7]		X [7]	X	X			X	
Narth Caralina		X			X	X	X			X	
Narth Dakata								X		X	
Ohia		X	X		X [2 11]	X	X			X [2]	
Oklahama		X	X		X	X	X			X	
Oregan		X [4]	X		X				X [4]	X	X [9]
Pennsylvania	X	X	X [7]	X	X [7]	X	X	X	X	X	
Sauth Caralina					X [2]					X [2]	
Texas		X	X [7]		X [2 7]	X	X			X [2]	X
Virginia										X	
Wiscansin	X [5]	X	X [7]		X [7]	X	X [5]			X	
Wyaming											X
District af Calumbia		X [4]			X	X	X		X [4]	X	
Tatal	13	23	19	1	28	23	22	8	10	31	9

[1] Special health prablems include cardiac conditians, epilepsy, tuberculasis and ather belaw par canditians.

[2] Combined certificate in speech and hearing.

[3] Certificate cavers teachers of the handicapped only and thus excludes teachers af the gifted.

[4] Cambined certificate far teachers af the crippled and af children with special health prablems.

[5] Cambined certificate far teachers of the blind and partially seeing.

[6] Cambined certificate far teachers af the deaf, hard-of-hearing, and speech handicapped.

[7] Cambined certificate tar teachers af the deaf and hard-af-hearing.

[8] Cambined certificate for teachers af the hamebaund children wha are crippled and wha are special health prablems.

[9] Single special educatian credential issued to averall supervisars af pragrams far exceptianal children.

[10] Speech correctionists are expected ta meet American Speech and Hearing Assaciatian standards.

[11] Ohia issues a special credential far special class teachers af the hard-af-hearing, as well as a certificate far speech and hearing specialists.

Exchange Teaching—Areas of Opportunities

If you are a teacher in an elementary school, high school, or junior college, you may wish to know about teaching opportunities in other countries.

Looking at the chart above you will see the countries which are now participating in teacher exchange under the Educational Exchange Program of the Department of State; the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and the Board of Foreign Scholarships.

The Office of Education recently prepared and published a pamphlet that is available to you. This pamphlet answers questions such as "What is the teacher exchange program?" Who supervises the program? What does the Office of Education do? What are the basic requirements for application? It gives details also on financial arrangements for various types of teacher exchanges, factors concerning terms of the awards, and when to apply.

Write for your copy of this publication, "1954–55 Exchange Teaching Opportunities". The address is: Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

WHITE indicates interchange partial travel under Fulbright Act.
GRAY means one-way exchange: Fulbright maintenance.
BLACK represents interchange, with Fulbright maintenance.
ONE STAR countries have two kinds of exchange.
TWO STAR countries have interchange—non-Fulbright.

"It is not enough that we merely know where another nation lies. It is not enough that we know something of their institutions, their history, their traditions. We must gain some understanding of those people as such * * *."

"If we, therefore, are going to progress along the lines of these understandings, we can talk about all the diplomacy that it is possible to bring to bear upon it, we can talk about all the security we may achieve by arms, and by any other arrangements, but we are never going to make real progress unless the educational people, and groups, and institutions of all countries see this problem and get into it to help."

Dwight D. Eisenhower

From remarks to the Annual Meeting of The American Council on Education at the Statler Hotel, Washington, D. C.—October 8, 1953.

Flash Reviews
—of New Office of Education Publications

These publications are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

WITH FOCUS ON FAMILY LIVING, by Muriel W. Brown, Office of Education Vocational Division Bulletin No. 249, Home Economics Education Series No. 28, 248 pages, 1953—60 cents—is the story of four experiments in community organization for family life education. These experiments, launched in 1938, at a conference in Washington, have more than fulfilled the hopes held for them so long ago. Through them, progress has been made toward finding ways in which family living can be strengthened through functional education. However, the greater value of these experiments lies in the opportunities they have afforded for gaining insight into the process of school-community interaction in one of the most important of all educational fields—the field of education for home and family living.

This new publication, which contains outstanding examples of community cooperation, should be helpful to school administrators, teachers, parents, and the many others interested in education for home and family living and in school-community cooperation.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF EDUCATION, 1949–50, by Rose Marie Smith, Office of Education Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50, Chapter 1, 52 pages, 1953—20 cents—condenses data collected by the Office of Education or other agencies from over 170,000 educational institutions, including elementary schools, secondary schools, libraries, and institutions of higher education.

Data are drawn principally from other chapters of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50. The other chapters (2 through 5) may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents for a total of $1.35.

FFA National Officers at White House

PRESIDENT DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER was invited to address the 25th anniversary national convention of the Future Farmers of America at Kansas City, Mo., this month.

Here the President is shown being invited to the 1953 FFA convention by the 1952–53 national officers of the FFA.

Left to right, the officers are Jimmy Dillon, Jones, La., president; Bill Sorem, Dundas, Minn., vice president; Jimmy Willis, Clio, S. C., student secretary; and vice presidents Fred Reed, Hindsville, Ark., Donald Travis, Fallon, Nev., and Malcolm Ellis, Mapleton, Maine.

Progress of Education

(*Continued from page 4*)

each year of the equivalent of approximately half of the number of persons graduated from colleges and universities in 1953.

During the 20-year period ending June 1952, per capita income payments to individuals in the United States increased 217 percent; while average annual salaries of teachers increased only 128 percent.

Auxiliary and Out-of-School Services

School children's physical and mental health.—Voluntary and official agencies—community, State, and national—are providing better programs and services for the physical, mental, and emotional needs of children and youth, even in the face of an overall teacher shortage. Groups meeting nationally have discussed the values and dangers of competition in sports, special problems of children in crowded areas, problems of child delinquency and maladjustment, and teacher education in health.

School lunches.—The 9,900,000 pupils served by federally aided school-lunch programs in 1952–53 were half a million more in number than those served in 1951–52 and nearly 3 times more than those served in 1944, the first year of Federal assistance for this program.

Education and general welfare of the handicapped.—Among the significant trends in the American program for handicapped children are the following: a steadily increasing number of handicapped children served by public schools; an increased number of teacher courses preparing for work with these children; greater financial support and more consultative services to local school systems from State departments of education; and increased medical, educational, sociological, and psychological research in the field.

A nationwide study (involving about 2,000 special educational leaders) is being conducted on the competencies needed by teachers of exceptional children.

Other Developments

Education for returning veterans.—Under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (which expired June 30, 1952) more than 2 million young men and women returned to school or college. Under the Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952 there were 47,767 veterans enrolled in colleges during December 1952.

Important provisions of the 1952 law are the following: A direct stipend to the veteran himself to defray tuition and living costs; an education or training period equal to 1½ times the length of the veteran's active service; Federal funds for States to establish special agencies to approve educational institutions where student veterans may study and receive the Federal stipend; opportunity for the veteran to study in foreign institutions of higher learning.

Fundamental education.—Fundamental education today has two great needs—a descriptive statement of its meaning and functions, and a program for training specialists in its field. The UNESCO Panel on Fundamental Education devoted its activities primarily to these problems. The Adult Education Association of the United States of America established a standing committee on literacy and fundamental education, and the Office of Education prepared a graphic outline, "What, How, Where, and Why of Fundamental Education."

Educational exchanges between the United States and other countries.—The Office of Education administers programs for approximately 1,000 teachers and trainees going to and coming from over 50 countries under programs sponsored by the Educational Exchange Service of the Department of State (including the Fulbright program which is under the supervision of the Board of Foreign Scholarships), the Technical Cooperation Administration, and the Mutual Security Agency. Other cooperating agencies, both Government and non-Government, administer similar programs for students, trainees, professors, leaders, and research scholars.

Something like 60,000 foreign educational personnel studied, taught, lectured, or did research in the United States during 1952–53. About half of them were students. The United Nations and UNESCO fellowship programs, the Ford Foundation, the Carnegie and Rockefeller Foundations, and other private foundations, to say nothing of hundreds of colleges and universities and civic organizations, all offered grants in varying amounts to support educational exchanges.

Educational TV.—Two hundred and forty-four TV channels are now reserved for education under the Federal Communications Commission's Sixth Report and Order of April 1952. The total number of institutions (or groups) applying for these channels has reached 49. One of the 17 groups which have received their licenses is already on the air. This is the University of Houston (Tex.) station, KUHT.

Other educational TV progress is shown in the following facts: Iowa State College has been operating Station WOI-TV on a commercial license, daily, for 3 years. Nearly 100 colleges and universities are putting on programs over nearby commercial stations. Ten institutions televise regular courses for degree credits. More than 65 school systems use TV in the classroom.

Racial differentials and developments.—Racial differentials continued to decrease as a result of voluntary actions and court decisions. Litigation this past year shifted from higher education to public-school education. The United States Supreme Court heard arguments of 5 segregation cases in the latter field originating in 4 States and the District of Columbia.

Education of girls and women.—The right of the American child to an education is not limited by sex: State compulsory education laws apply equally to boys and girls; all public elementary schools and the majority of public high schools are coeducational; and most higher educational institutions are also coeducational. In proportion to the disappearance of prejudices against their employment, young women are taking a greater variety of technical and professional courses. Today there is practically no occupation in the United States without at least a few women performing successfully.

A commission on women's education, established in January 1953 by the American Council on Education, a professional non-Government organization, is making a comprehensive study of the education of women in the United States. This study will explore women's current and long-range needs as members of families, as career women, as citizens, and as creators and perpetuators of values. It will also include women in college and faculty positions.

Conclusion

The people of the United States during 1952–53 continued to press toward the realization of their commitment to the idea of equal educational opportunity for all according to their talents. Within the framework of State and local control, the educational establishment continues to grow. In the firm belief that every individual is of incalculable worth, educators continued their efforts and, finally, the schools and colleges continued to assist youthful citizens in an understanding of world developments and of the fuller significance of their heritage of democratic freedom.

Radio-TV-Sound Guide

To advance the use of radio, television, and sound reproduction equipment in public and private schools throughout the United States, a joint United States Government-industry committee has published a report on the use of communication media in education, "Teaching with Radio, Audio, Recording, and Television Equipment."

This new booklet, published by the Radio-Television Manufacturers Association, was prepared by a joint committee of the United States Office of Education and Radio-Television Manufacturers Association.

The booklet covers five important aspects of communications equipment in education. They are: Teaching with radio programs and program recordings, program production and inschool broadcasting, teaching with sound-recording instruments, administrative and communication uses of electronic and sound equipment, and television in education.

Dr. Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television for the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, states in an explanatory foreword that "the present booklet is aimed at acquainting teachers with instructional techniques and procedures applicable to the use of all three types of equipment.

"It will serve the classroom teacher as an instructional methods guidebook," he said. "The local supervisor should find it useful, also in inservice training programs.

Source of Strength for State School Systems

by Fred F. Beach, Chief, State School Administration

TO PROVIDE the most advanced educational system for its citizens, no State may continue in educational isolation. It is, therefore, not enough for school officials to know the most desirable practices only in their own State. They need to know desirable nationwide practices. The 48 educational systems constitute extensive and important experiments in education. To most effectively improve its own system, a State needs to take advantage of the knowledge of advanced practices which prevail in the other 47. It is a saving of time and money not to duplicate costly experiments that have been successfully completed elsewhere. It is to the best interests of a State's educational program to initiate proven practices and to avoid procedures which have been found grossly unsuitable in other States.

Chief State school officers have long recognized the need for information on desirable educational practices and have continuously searched for them. At first it was only natural to take advantage of the educational experience of Europe. The trips made by Horace Mann and Henry Barnard provide evidence of the search conducted abroad for desirable practices.

The greatest source of assistance, however, was other States. Excerpts from the early reports of chief State school officers show how this assistance was procured. The annual report of the State superintendent of public instruction of Michigan for 1841 relates:

In October last, the superintendent had occasion to visit Massachusetts. While there, he devoted much of his time to a visitation of the schools, and a reexamination of the system. To the highly gifted, accomplished, and indefatigable secretary of the board of education, Hon. Horace Mann, and numerous estimable citizens of Boston, Cambridge, New Bedford, and Lexington, he is indebted for many facilities in acquiring the information he songht.

The first annual report of the State superintendent of public instruction of California published in 1852 carried the following passage:

By correspondence during the past year with the superintendents of public instruction and those exercising their functions in other States, there has been donated to this office a number of valuable books relating to the legislation and exposition of the school laws of the sister States. These volumes will greatly aid in the preparation of appropriate school legislation for this State, and are invaluable. . . . A familiarity with what has been written and done for popular education, is essential to be known, in order that we may avail ourselves of the experience of others in making reforms, and improving our own school system.

These excerpts from the reports of two early State superintendents identify a variety of ways by which a knowledge of current practices was obtained. Early chief State school officers in general traveled widely within their own State and over the Nation to observe and study educational practices. The manner in which they arrived at judgments of desirable practices, the methods they employed to obtain information, and the criteria they used to rationalize their decisions, were characteristic of the times in which they lived. Their search for most desirable practices was conducted by sifting the opinions and judgments of recognized authorities in other States and by observing recommended practices in operation. They formulated final determinations of what constituted desirable practices after a careful examination of the facts available. These determinations set the stage for educational advancement. These early officials also corresponded freely with their contemporaries in other States and exchanged reports, school codes, and other published material. A few of these early chief State school officers managed to publish educational journals which provided an avenue for the statewide and nationwide distribution of their findings.

Over the years the need for information on desirable practices has heightened considerably as State departments of education have been faced with new and expanding educational programs. While the methods and techniques followed by early chief State school officers to identify desirable practices are still employed, these have become increasingly inadequate to meet the newer demands. Rapid progress has been made, however, in the development of more appropriate techniques in response to the newer needs.

Currently there are two chief methods in use for determining most desirable practices in State school administration. For purposes of discussion these methods may be identified by the techniques used in each to evaluate current educational practices in the several States. These are: (1) The judgment of a single authority, and (2) the judgment of a group composed of those best qualified to know in the United States.

Crucial Step

Except in the case of scientific experimentation, four essential steps are followed in determining most desirable practices in State school administration. In every case, of course, it is understood that there exists a critical problem in State school administration for which there is a recognized need for information about most desirable practices. These steps are:

1. Gathering and compiling data on current practice from all States.

2. Analyzing the data and preparing a statement describing the current practices.

3. Evaluating the different practices.

4. Presenting the most desirable practices.

The key to the difference between the first method and the second method lies in the manner in which the evaluation is made to determine most desirable practices in the United States. In the first, it is the single authority; in the second, it is a group decision of those persons in the United States best equipped to know.

The third step is the crucial one. In the first method a single authority makes the appraisal of current practices and the determination as to which ones are most desirable. This authority may be the chief State school officer who makes the determination for his department, or it may be a member of his staff. On the other hand, the single authority may be a university or college professor, a member of the legislature, or the representative of an educational group or association. Ph. D. candidates use this method frequently when they prepare their doctoral dissertations. Their appraisal is generally based upon a careful analysis of practices supplemented by decisions arrived at through logical reasoning.

The third step in the second method is performed by a group of persons best qualified to know in the United States. The composition of the group will vary with the problems under consideration. It includes both practitioners and theorists. It includes representatives with opposing points of view and those who carry on different practices in different parts of the country. It may also include members of national associations concerned with particular phases of education. The group of specialists study the current practices revealed in the second step, evaluate the practices, and arrive at a decision. The decision constitutes the composite judgment of the group members.

The National Council of Chief State School Officers was one of the first organizations to recognize the inadequacies of the single authority method for determining most desirable practices in State school administration. It found that supposedly desirable practices which were determined by a single authority were often unsuited to practical application. Particularly was this the case when the authority was a theorist. Too often, also, the practitioner in promoting an opinion as an authority, was overly influenced by the experience he had in one or a few States. In either case, there existed a feeling that it was difficult, if not impossible, for the single authority to have the experience and the detailed knowledge of conditions essential to make valid evaluations that would apply to every State. This is a significant limitation of the single authority method. No one man could hope to resolve all the problems or to ameliorate all the differences that normally arise in any protracted evaluation of practices involving the work of many people in each of the several States. Then, too, these factors militated against the speedy implementation of the results of the single authority method.

Less Time Lag

Chief State school officers soon recognized the second method as a source of substantial assistance. It eliminated most of the drawbacks which existed in the single authority method. A group of specialists has more varied knowledge and experience to draw upon. Thus, the group is likely to arrive at decisions which are much sounder and more balanced in terms of existing conditions in the field. Such decisions will be accepted to a greater degree throughout the Nation than the decisions made by a single authority. Moreover, the persons who have the responsibility in their States for putting into practice the particular programs under consideration are usually the same persons who share in determining desirable practices. Such a situation facilitates, of course, the incorporation of these practices in the several State systems of education. The growing use of the group decision method has far-reaching implications for the decrease in the time lag that generally occurs between identification of desirable practice and its adoption and use in a State.

More Popular

Although the newer method generally requires a longer time, involves heavier costs on account of travel and conference expenses, and depends considerably for its success on the group membership representation, it is highly favored. It has already demonstrated its effectiveness as a source of strength for State school systems. The method was used advantageously in the project which culminated in the production of *Minimum Standards for School Buses*,[1] which has had far-reaching implications for pupil transportation in the United States. A project of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction which resulted in the publication entitled, *Guide for Planning School Plants*,[2] used the newer method. The Study Commission of the National Council of Chief State School Officers, in cooperation with the Office of Education, carried on a project which developed the policy document entitled, *The State Department of Education*,[3] using the newer method, and is using this method almost exclusively in its continuing schedule of studies.

The State educational records and reports project, now being carried on jointly by the State and Territorial departments of education and the Office of Education, is proceeding on the basis of decisions made by a group of those most qualified to know throughout the United States.

Rewarding

Thus far, this method has been particularly rewarding. Already, the project has developed the fundamental guide for State systems of records and reports entitled, *Handbook I, The Common Core of State Educational Information*.[4] Currently, the Office of Education is also participating in another project entitled, "Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children." First results of this project, which uses the same method and which promises to be a landmark in the education of exceptional children, are reported in this issue of School Life.

The newer method of group consideration and decision, now tested and proved, will be a strong factor in helping to improve State school administration.

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[1] National Conference on School Construction. *Minimum Standards for School Buses*. Washington, National Education Association, 1948 Revised Edition.

[2] National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, Research and Publications Committee. *Guide for Planning School Plants*. Nashville, Tenn., The Council, 1953.

[3] National Council of Chief State School Officers. *The State Department of Education: A statement of some guiding principles for its legal status, its functions, and the organization of its service areas*. Washington, The Council, 1952.

[4] U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The Common Core of State Educational Information. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953. (State Educational Records and Reports Series: Handbook I, Bulletin 1953, No. 8) 35 cents.

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.)

Bridging the Gap Between School and College. A Progress Report on Four Related Projects Supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Prepared by the Research Division of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, in cooperation with the participants. New York, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1953. 127 p. (Evaluation Report No. 1.) Free.

Developing the Secondary School Curriculum. Revised Edition. By J. Paul Leonard. New York, Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1953. 582 p. $5.50.

Education for Self-Understanding. The Role of Psychology in the High School Program. By Arthur T. Jersild, Kenneth Helfant, and Associates. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 54 p. (Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation Leaflet.) 85¢.

Elementary School Objectives. A report prepared for The Mid-Century Committee on Outcomes in Elementary Education. By Nolan C. Kearney. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1953. 189 p. $3.00.

Elementary School Transfer; Problems, Principles, and Recommended Procedures. By O. W. Kopp. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 83 p. $2.50.

Five Thousand Women College Graduates Report. Findings of a National Survey of the Social and Economic Status of Women Graduates of Liberal Arts Colleges of 1946–1949. By Robert Shosteck. Washington, D. C., B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1953. 66 p. 75¢.

Flexible Classrooms: Practical Ideas for Modern Schoolrooms. By Russell E. Wilson. Detroit, The Carter Co., 1953. 64 p. Illus. $3.75.

Handcrafts for Elementary Schools. A Handbook of Practical Suggestions for Teachers. By Frank C. Moore, Carl H. Hamburger, and Anna-Laura Kingzett. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. 316 p. Illus. $5.

Home Study Blue Book and Directory of Accredited Private Home Study Schools and Courses. Seventeenth Edition. Edited by Homer Kempfer. Washington, D. C., National Home Study Council, 1953. 32 p. Illus. (Address: National Home Study Council, 1420 New York Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.) Free to high schools, public libraries, counselors, teachers, etc.

The Law of Local Public School Administration. By Madaline Kinter Remmlein. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. 271 p. (McGraw-Hill Series in Education). $4.50.

Selected Theses on Education

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THESE THESES are on file in the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

The Adequacy of the Socio-Economic Community as the Local School District in Vermont. By Edgar W. Flinton. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 425 p. ms.

A Follow Up Study of 1948–49–50 Graduates of St. Joseph High School. By Donald F. Blunt. Master's, 1953. Western Michigan College of Education. 59 p. ms.

An Inquiry Into the Backgrounds of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted Adolescents: A Pilot Study. By Willis Mac Parkhurst. Master's, 1952. Indiana State Teachers College. 95 p. ms.

An In-Service Program for the Education of Teachers. By Royal G. Seiffert, Jr. Master's, 1953. Western Michigan College of Education. 33 p. ms.

An Investigation of Negative Social Attitudes of Elementary School Children. By Esther Eaton. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 69 p. ms.

A Job Analysis Technique Applied to Secretarial and Stenographic Positions Employing Persons Trained in Post-High-School Secretarial Curriculums to Reveal Curriculum and Guidance Implications. By Sally Berry Maybury. Doctor's, 1952. Boston University. 349 p. ms.

Legal Liability of a Teacher with Respect to Corporal Punishment. By William C. Barrett. Master's, 1953. Western Michigan College of Education. 46 p. ms.

The Prognostic Value of the ACE Psychological Examinations and the Iowa English Placement Test in Determining Student Grades in Six Courses in a Teacher-Training Institution. By Margaret E. Lavin. Master's, 1947. University of North Dakota. 103 p. ms.

The School and Personality Development. By Kenneth J. Fletcher. Master's, 1952. Indiana State Teachers College. 107 p. ms.

Statistics in the Secondary School Curriculum. By Alphonsus Lawrence O'Toole. Doctor's, 1952. Harvard University. 310 p. ms.

A Study of the Activities in Behalf of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing by the Association of the Junior Leagues of America, Inc. By Agnes Best. Master's, 1952. Gallaudet College. 70 p. ms.

A Study of the Formal and Informal Organization of a School Faculty: The Identification of the Systems of Interactions and Relationships Among the Staff Members of a School and an Analysis of the Interplay Between These Systems. By Norman J. Boyan. Doctor's, 1951. Harvard University. 406 p. ms.

A Survey and Analysis of Materials Sent to Parents of the Pre-School-Age Child Before He Enters School in September. By Henry W. DeRusha. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 92 p. ms.

A Survey and Evaluation of the Program of Industrial Arts in the Public Schools of Worcester, Massachusetts. By Edgar Leon Demers. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 149 p. ms.

Travel Experiences of Eighth Grade Students. By Walter Dana Gibson. Master's, 1950. Boston University. 59 p. ms.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1953

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

Office of Education

Bulletins and Pamphlets Related to Elementary Education. Selected References No. 2, July 1953. Free.

Children Who Speak Two Languages—A Bibliography for Teachers, 1935-48. Prepared by Effie G. Bathurst. Selected References No. 20, August 1949, Reprinted August 1953. Free.

Cooperative Education Programs in Colleges and Technical Institutes. By Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 368, April 1953. Free.

The Declaration of Independence and Its Story. May 1953. 10 cents.

Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science. Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown and Philip G. Johnson. Bulletin 1952, No. 15. 1953. 15 cents.

Exchange Teaching Abroad—Under Public Law 584, 79th Congress, The Fulbright Act. 1953. 10 cents.

Extending Special Education Through State Legislation. By Arthur S. Hill. Reprint from *School Life*, June 1953. Free.

With Focus on Family Living. By Muriel W. Brown. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 249, Home Economics Education Series No. 28, 1953. 60 cents.

Junior High Schools vs. the Traditional (8-4) High School Organization. Prepared by Walter H. Gaumnitz and J. Dan Hull. Circular No. 373, May 1953. Free.

Mathematics Education Research Studies—1952. Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown. Aids for Mathematics Education, Circular No. 377, July 1953. Free.

The Operation of a Local Program of Trade and Industrial Education. Planned, compiled, and edited by William P. Loomis. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 250, Trade and Industrial Series No. 62, 1953. 45 cents.

Report on Status of and Practices in the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Public Elementary Schools of the United States. Revised, July 1, 1953. Free.

Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-50. By Rose Marie Smith. Chapter 1, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-50. 1953. 20 cents.

Statistics of 50 Large County and Regional Libraries for 1952. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 374, May 1953. Free.

Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 50,000 to 99,999 for 1952. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 375, June 1953. Free.

Teaching Aids for Developing International Understanding—A Brief Introduction to Life in the United States. Free.

Teaching Aids for Developing International Understanding—Latin America. Free.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Books and Films on Juvenile Delinquency. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1953. Free.

The Children's Bookshelf, A Book List for Parents. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1953. 20 cents.

Helping Delinquent Children. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau Publication No. 341, 1953. 15 cents.

The National Institutes of Health Clinical Center. Public Health Service Publication No. 284, 1953. 10 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Plant Diseases—1953 Yearbook of Agriculture. Clothbound, $2.50.

United States Tree Book—A Bibliography of Tree Identification. 1952. 15 cents.

Department of Interior

Alaska, 1952-53. Presents a brief review of Alaska, including history, size, opportunities for settlers, industries, people, wildlife, and resources. 1953. 20 cents.

The White House. An 8-page folder giving early history of the White House, improvements 1830-1902, alterations 1903-48, renovations 1948-52, and a brief description of the various rooms. 1953. 5 cents each, $3.00 per 100.

Department of Labor

The Workers' Story, 1913-1953. Labor Yearbook No. 11. 45 cents.

Department of State

Centennial Celebration of the Opening of Japan, 1853-1953. 20 cents.

Library of Congress

Checklist of Philippine Government Documents, 1950. 1953. 40 cents from the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

UNITED STATES
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DIVISION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS
WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

". . . the homes of free, inquiring minds . . ."

OUR LIBRARIES serve the precious liberties of our Nation: freedom of inquiry, freedom of the spoken and the written word, freedom of exchange of ideas. Upon these clear principles democracy depends for its very life, for they are the great sources of knowledge and enlightenment. And knowledge—full, unfettered knowledge of its own heritage, of freedom's enemies, of the whole world of men and ideas—this knowledge is a free people's surest strength.

The converse is just as surely true. A democracy smugly disdainful of new ideas would be a sick democracy. A democracy chronically fearful of new ideas would be a dying democracy.

For all these reasons, we must in these times be intelligently alert not only to the fanatic cunning of Communist conspiracy, but also to the grave dangers in meeting fanaticism with ignorance. For, in order to fight totalitarians who exploit the ways of freedom to serve their own ends, there are some zealots who—with more wrath than wisdom—would adopt a strangely unintelligent course. They would try to defend freedom by denying freedom's friends the opportunity of studying communism in its entirety—its plausibilities, its falsities, its weaknesses.

But we know that freedom cannot be served by the devices of the tyrant. As it is an ancient truth that freedom cannot be legislated into existence, so it is no less obvious that freedom cannot be censored into existence. And any who act as if freedom's defenses are to be found in suppression and suspicion and fear confess a doctrine that is alien to America.

The libraries of America are and must ever remain the homes of free, inquiring minds. To them, our citizens—of all ages and races, of all creeds and political persuasions—must ever be able to turn with clear confidence that there they can freely seek the whole truth, unwarped by fashion and uncompromised by expediency. For in such whole and healthy knowledge alone are to be found and understood those majestic truths of man's nature and destiny that prove, to each succeeding generation, the validity of freedom.

Dwight D. Eisenhower

Volume 36 Number 2
NOVEMBER 1953

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School Life

◂ We Pledge Allegiance

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

"Our Whole Citizenry Is Summoned . . ."

FOR MANY YEARS Presidents of the United States have issued special statements in connection with annual observations of American Education Week.

President Eisenhower issued the following message for this year's observance, addressed "To the Patrons, Students, and Teachers of American Schools:

The celebration of American Education Week summons the thoughtful attention of every American citizen.

The youth of our Nation—who are the future of our Nation—are the hope and the test of freedom itself. In homes, farms, and factories—in the schools, senates, and churches of the next generation—the youth of today will tell by their deeds the fate of those values which, cherished by the free through centuries, have given life and dignity and purpose to our own America.

This—nothing less—is the measure of the task served by the teachers of our Nation today. Such a responsibility demands not only essential and elaborate material paraphernalia: buildings, endowments, salaries, laboratories. It demands, above all else, strength and perception of heart and of mind.

Our teachers are summoned to be patriots in the highest sense of the word: to teach the principles that bring freedom and justice to life; to make clear that enjoyment of liberties means acceptance of duties; and to impart the priceless knowledge that duty, in an age of peril, means sacrifice.

Our whole citizenry is summoned to help the teachers in their great work: not only to provide them with the resources they need, but also to guard with devoted vigilance the freedom of thought and discussion which inspire free men to teach all men how to be free."

Dwight D. Eisenhower

Special FFA Stamp

One hundred ten million of these special 25th anniversary Future Farmers of America stamps were placed on sale in Kansas City, Mo., October 13—the first day of the 1953 annual FFA convention.

This Federal Government recognition of the nationwide organization of farm boys studying vocational agriculture in public high schools throughout the United States is also a tribute to the Vocational Division of the Office of Education which has sponsored the FFA since its inception a quarter century ago.

The stamps are now on sale in all post offices throughout the country.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

CONTENTS for November 1953

Volume 36 Number 2

Cover photograph: Tom Kelley, Washington Post staff photographer, took this photograph at the Whittier School in Washington, D. C. It was appropriate to this year's observance of American Education Week and the endeavor to have school children lead community groups in pledging allegiance to the flag 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 stomps) 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 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 States. Printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget. (September 19, 1952.)

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

OVETA CULP HOBBY.....Secretary
SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL.....Commissioner of Education
JOHN H. LLOYD.....Acting Chief of Reports and Technical Services and Managing Editor of SCHOOL LIFE
ARVILLA H. SINGER.....Art Editor

Address all SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the
Chief, Reports and Technical Services, Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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)

Samuel Miller Brownell
New Commissioner of Education

DR. SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL, Connecticut scholar, educator, and administrator, was sworn in as the thirteenth Commissioner of Education on November 16. He succeeds Dr. Lee M. Thurston of Michigan, who died on September 4 after serving for less than three months.

Appointed by President Eisenhower on October 14, Dr. Brownell holds a recess appointment subject to confirmation when the Senate reconvenes in January.

The Commissioner has had a distinguished career in American education. He comes to the Office of Education from New Haven, Connecticut, where he has been professor of educational administration in the Yale Graduate School of Education since 1938 and President of New Haven State Teachers College for the past six years.

A native of Peru, Nebraska, and a graduate of the University of Nebraska (B. A. 1921), the Commissioner holds an M. A. (1924) and a Ph. D (1926) from Yale University.

Dr. Brownell spent his early professional years as teacher and principal. For two years he was principal of the demonstration high school at Peru State Teachers College and for one year a member of the faculty of the New York State College for Teachers at Albany, New York. Before going to Yale in 1938, Dr. Brownell was superintendent of schools in Grosse Pointe, Michigan, for a decade.

Commissioner Brownell has lectured on education at many institutions of higher education, including the University of Wisconsin, Cornell University, Harvard University, the University of Southern California, and the University of Michigan. His writings have appeared in leading educational journals.

His background and experience include active participation in educational affairs beyond the classroom. He has been on the staff of city school surveys in the New England States and in New Jersey and Nebraska. Dr. Brownell is a life member of the National Education Association and has been active in several of its departments and commissions including the Association for Higher Education, of which he was president in 1950–51.

Other educational organizations in which the Commissioner has membership are the American Educational Research Association, the American Association of School Administrators, the National Society of College Teachers of Education, the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, the Connecticut Education Association, and the Connecticut Super-

intendents Association. He has been chairman of the Accrediting Committee of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and since July 1953 has been a member of the NEA Legislative Commission. Dr. Brownell is a member of Phi Beta Kappa and Phi Delta Kappa.

The Commissioner grew up in an educational atmosphere. When he was born at Peru, Nebraska, in 1900, his father, Herbert Brownell, was teaching physical science in the State Teachers College at Peru. The family moved to Lincoln when the elder Brownell became professor of science at the University of Nebraska. Samuel and his younger brother Herbert (now Attorney General of the United States) had a paper route and sold milk to help out with the family budget.

Dr. Brownell is deeply concerned with the problems of American education. Major problems facing schools and colleges are the acute shortage of teachers, the need for additional school buildings, the increasing cost of school programs, the rapidly increasing school population, and other conditions that demand attention throughout the country.

Concerning the relationship between the Federal Government and local school systems he feels that the Federal Government must not interfere in educational matters which rightly belong to local and State authorities. The American system of education, he holds, has been built upon two foundation stones—State and local control, with Federal assistance and support where the national interest requires.

With regard to criticisms of teachers and educational systems, Dr. Brownell believes that constructive criticism is healthy and should be encouraged. The schools and teachers should be prepared to face such questioning boldly, eager to prove that they are capable, intelligent, honorable, alive to the responsibilities of modern education.

In an article for the NEA Journal published in 1951, he summed it up this way:

"There needs to be unified concern also that no part of our educational system be weakened under the guise of efficiency, economy, patriotism, or any other banner. Those who weaken any part weaken the whole. Of course, justifiable and constructive criticism of conditions in schools and colleges is healthy and should be made.

"We in the profession are constantly calling attention to features needing improvement and change. But this is quite different from the subtle or open attacks upon individuals and groups of educators in attempts to discredit them and thus weaken public confidence and support of the schools or colleges involved."

Believing in the principle that public questions can best be thrashed out by those who understand them best, he is an ardent promoter of close working relationship between all segments of the teaching profession in elementary, secondary, and higher education. In an address to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in 1951, Dr. Brownell said:

"* * * the kindergarten teacher, the elementary teacher, the high school teacher needs ever to be alert to spur the capable student to want to go on and to develop his abilities to the highest degree, and thus serve his own needs and those of society. The college professor and the graduate professor need equally to be alert to encourage students with the best minds to prepare for teaching in the elementary and secondary schools and in college. Only in this way can all parts of the education system be strong. To weaken any portion by failing to staff it with competent teachers is to weaken the potential effectiveness of every other portion. The problems which today face American education in general, and teachers in particular, need, therefore, to be considered and dealt with by the teaching profession as a unified group."

Soon after Dr. Brownell's appointment, and before he assumed his new duties officially, he came to Washington for a meeting with the Policy Council of the Office of Education. At this meeting he was briefed by the Acting Commissioner and the heads of the various divisions. His grasp and understanding of the Office and its operation made a deep impression on his future colleagues. Accompanying the newly designated Commissioner were his wife and two of his four children.

It has been 86 years since the first Commissioner of Education, Dr. Henry Barnard, was appointed. He, too, was from Yale University and Connecticut. From the presidency of St. John's College he came to Washington to take over the duties of the highest educational office in the nation.

The problems of American education today are very different from the problems Dr. Barnard faced in 1867. The nation has grown, the schools have grown, the needs have grown. So also have the resources and the opportunities. Dr. Brownell steps into a line of noble tradition as he takes up his new duties and faces the challenges that lie ahead.

Thirteen Commissioners of Education have directed the affairs of the Office of Education during the past 86 years

Henry Barnard, March 14, 1867, to March 15, 1870
John Eaton, March 16, 1870, to August 5, 1886
N. H. R. Dawson, August 6, 1886, to September 3, 1889
William T. Harris, September 12, 1889, to June 30, 1906
Elmer E. Brown, July 1, 1906, to June 30, 1911
Philander P. Claxton, July 8, 1911, to June 1, 1921
John James Tigert, June 2, 1921, to August 31, 1928
William John Cooper, February 11, 1929, to July 10, 1933
George F. Zook, July 11, 1933, to June 30, 1934
John W. Studebaker, October 23, 1934, to July 15, 1948
Earl James McGrath, March 18, 1949, to April 22, 1953
Lee M. Thurston, July 2, 1953, to September 4, 1953

Samuel Miller Brownell, November 16, 1953, to date

Children on Double Shifts— A State Studies the Problems

By Hazel F. Gabbard, Specialist for Extended School Services, Elementary Schools Section

AS SCHOOL DOORS opened in September 1953, more children came than were anticipated, classes were overcrowded in many schools, particularly in the primary grades, and there weren't enough teachers to go round. These problems are not new. They have been disturbing school administrators and boards of education for more than a decade now but no solution has been found to meet these problems. These conditions are disturbing because they add up to a substandard education for a vast number of American children who will, through no fault of theirs, be unable to perform their responsibilities as citizens and to participate effectively in the life of the Nation.

Although there is much written about the difficulties confronting schools in meeting these emergency conditions, created by mobility of population and rising birth rates, there is need for schools to take a long look ahead and round up the facts to get some action. Among the States taking steps to study the specific problems of crowding which seriously affect the learning of children and teacher retention, Virginia is completing a 3-year study which gives detailed facts on the Statewide picture.

During the past 3 years the Virginia State Department of Education has been collecting information to use in presenting the needs of elementary schools to the Legislature. The study, begun in 1951, has brought together comparative data each year on the pupil-teacher ratio, double or two-shift situations, and certification of teachers. Although the findings are not yet in for 1953–54, the data for the past 2 years reveal the urgency of relieving the crowded conditions, and indicate where the impacted and overcrowded schools are located.

A preliminary report in 1951 to the Legislative Commission on a Foundation Education Program for Virginia states:

"The major impediments to the most effective teaching of the fundamental tool subjects are: (*a*) lack of a sufficient number of adequately trained primary and elementary teachers, and (*b*) too heavy teacher loads." In reference to the two-shift situation, the report points out that, "This condition prevails in 44 school divisions and is not conducive to adequate teaching."

Emergency Teachers

Among the critical problems which the reports from superintendents revealed are the large number of elementary classes staffed with teachers holding emergency licenses and local permits. There were 2,957 teachers or 21.3 percent in 1951–52 who had not met the State's requirement as fully qualified elementary teachers. During 1952–53 the number of teachers increased to 3,462 or 24.1 percent with substandard preparation for the 14,356 elementary classrooms of Virginia's schools. In 10 counties and 2 cities, over 60 percent of the elementary teachers held only emergency licenses and local permits or collegiate certificates. The Statewide activity of the Citizens Committees on Teacher Recruitment is now being directed toward solving these problems.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

Another trouble spot appeared in the high pupil-teacher ratio in many elementary schools. Comparisons of the 1952–53 figures, with the previous year showed that generally schools had as many classes of 40 pupils or more as they had had the previous year. In 15 counties and 4 cities there were 59 teachers instructing classes of more than 60 pupils; there were 231 teachers with classes from 51 to 60 pupils and 1,515 teachers with classes of 40–50 pupils. There is doubt that teachers will be attracted to stay in the profession when faced with the task of "keeping school" rather than "teaching" under these conditions.

In 1952–53 Virginia had 242 schools on double or 2-shift sessions. Over the State there were 33,701 children or 7.18 percent on short-day schedules. As many as 26 counties reported double shifts for approximately 18,000 children, and 19 cities had 15,600 children on the 2-shift plan. During the previous year, 1951–52, a larger number of children, approximately 2,000 more, had been in double shift situations. Hence, the 0.6 percent drop in 1952–53 was not a very significant one. More teachers and school facilities were a "must" to secure a good school learning environment for children.

Children in the first three grades are the pupils whose education has been more seriously cut. During 1952–53, 26 counties had first grades on double shifts, 22 counties had second grades involved, and 6 reported third grades on the 2-shift plan. Fewer counties reported their fourth, fifth, and sixth grades affected, but the double shift arrangement touches all grades in the elementary schools of the State.

Along with the double shifts for children there were many instances in which teachers were teaching two shifts. At least 17 counties and 10 cities reported teachers had double assignments. One of the first recommendations of the State Department of Education was that a teacher teach only one shift a day. While this requirement reduced the time a teacher was with children to 2½ to 4½ hours it has not meant that the teacher had a shorter day.

The reports of the Division superintendents indicate teachers use the time beyond their hours with the children of their

(*Continued on page 27*)

Foreign educators examining and using American textbooks.

Demonstration of a Brazilian dance by Latin-American teachers.

International Teacher Education Program

DURING the next six months, more than 400 visiting teachers and edueators will be observing Ameriean school systems and Ameriean life in practically every State in the Union. They will share information about their eultures, customs, and history with more than one million Amerieans.

Wayne University, Iowa State Teachers College, University of Florida, Syraeuse University, and Ohio State University, among others, will be hosts to the teachers. Participation in community and eampus activities, visits to farms, faetories, courts, civic organizations, legislative bodies in session, and to private homes are also an important part of the aeademic program.

Fifty different nations are represented in this group. The largest single national group of 109 teaehers came from Germany. The Smith-Mundt Act, P. L. 402, 80th Congress, and the Fulbright Act, P. L. 584, 79th Congress, provide the grants whieh make this interehange program possible. Grants to teachers from Finland are provided from the Finnish World War I debt payments made available by P. L. 265, 81st Congress.

How Teachers Are Selected

Teaehers and school administrators are nominated by their Ministries of Education with the concurrence of the Ameriean Embassy. Final selection of grantees under the Smith-Mundt Aet is made by the Department of State upon recommendation of the Office of Education. Those receiving Fulbright travel grants are approved by the Board of Foreign Scholarships, a ten-member board appointed by the President. The visiting teaeher program is now in its 11th year during which time a total of 1,400 educators have partieipated.

Qualifications

Teaehers applying for grants are carefully selected. In addition to being a eitizen of the eountry that nominates him, an applieant must present a medical eertifieate and show evidence

A Netherlands teacher shows her country's handicraft.

Formosans in native costume and products of their homeland.

Latin-American teachers in their home country costumes.

Teachers from Burma and Hong Kong.

Educators from Nigeria, South Africa. Note headdress.

The Ceylonese group of teachers.

Teachers from Panama in native costume.

of good moral character and suitable personal qualities. Each candidate must be able to read, write, speak, and understand English; be a qualified teacher for at least three years in his own country; and occupy a position which will enable him to utilize in his own country the training he receives in the United States.

What happens after these teachers visit our schools and communities? At least three-fourths indicate changed attitudes favorable toward the United States; the remaining one-fourth indicate they were already favorably disposed and have had no change of opinion. Some teachers have shown a negative change in attitude on such subjects as racial discrimination, waste of resources, too much freedom of the child, open courting of students, and a diminishing interest in classical education. However, the overall impression is favorable as evidenced by letters received from the teachers after they have returned to their homelands. ". . . the first goal in American education, namely the demand for good citizenship, an ability to get along with each other, to develop one's own personality, is really more important than teaching of any other subject . . ." a German teacher writes. ". . . I found wherever I went constant coordiality, unfailing cooperation, and a desire to make my stay pleasant . . ." are views expressed by a Cuban teacher.

"The immediate results of teacher interchange and teacher training programs have been most encouraging," reports Thomas E. Cotner, Director, Teacher Programs Branch, Division of International Education, Office of Education. "The long-range beneficial results are yet to be seen and appraised."

During their orientation stay in Washington, D. C., this fall, the foreign educators had opportunity to examine and use textbook material furnished by the American Textbook Publishers Institute. This material has been organized for this purpose by the Division of International Education, Office of Education.

In native costume the teachers also displayed their country's handicraft, money, flags, and other symbols of their cultures. Pictures shown on these pages were taken during the orientation period.

Designing Elementary Classrooms

An approach to the problem of classroom design in relation to the school child and program

THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION has just issued a new publication, "*Designing Elementary Classrooms*," to help educators and the public in dealing with many problems pertinent to school plant design and construction in this day of peak elementary school enrollments.

The brochure was prepared cooperatively by the School Housing and Elementary Schools Sections of the Office of Education.

Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner, Division of State and Local School Systems, and E. Glenn Featherston, Director, Administration of State and Local School Systems Branch, Office of Education, agree that "planning the elementary school to meet present and future educational requirements is among the most urgent tasks facing school boards, administrators, teachers, and citizen groups."

Considerable information in the new publication came from teachers, supervisors, principals, and specialists in elementary education. SCHOOL LIFE presents a portion of the bulletin content to report what certain teachers said about classrooms. According to teachers' statements, classrooms should be:

1. Healthful and Safe

". . . One of my first reactions to working in my present environment was the ease with which the teacher and the children can keep the room neat and attractive. This is due to adequate storage places and easily-reached pinning boards. Then, as time progressed, I could see how truly important in a room are running water, a drinking fountain, and a sink 'to fit the children' both for convenience and as a time-saving element. Better lighting and glare-proof chalkboards make written work more tension-free for pupils and teachers alike . . ." MRS. VERNA LEITH, *LeConte Elementary School, Berkeley, Calif.*

". . . The Children are inspired to keep themselves and the room clean by having tile flooring and part-glazed tile walls and facilities for hand washing in the rear of the room. Proper ventilation and radiant heating add to the year-round comfort for us . . ." MRS. MAURINE MATTHEWS, *Lamar Elementary School, Amarillo, Tex.*

". . . It means that children will not be groping in a semidark room, unable to do any work at all because the day outside is a dark one, and the room poorly lighted. Children will not be squinting at their tasks and they will not damage their eyes. Our well-lighted room glows on the darkest day with 28 fluorescent lights. A modern room means also that I, as a teacher, may continue the class planning periods because we do not notice outside noises. Our room, equipped as it is, with acoustically treated panels, provides a veritable island of quiet calm in which even the most difficult problem may be efficiently considered by children . . ." MARGARET WILSON, *Stephen Knight Elementary School, Denver, Colo.*

2. Functionally Designed

". . . All books are on low shelves, easily accessible to children. There are also display shelves for books which are helpful to teachers in encouraging children to read. An adequate number of electrical outlets make it possible for teachers to use tape recorders, opaque projectors, filmstrip machines, and regular motion picture machines in the classroom . . ." MRS. J. L. PERKINS, *Baton Rouge, La.*

". . . Storage space under the back work centers is an ideal place to store building blocks, costumes, paints and other art supplies. Another large storage area is under the ledge along the south wall under the windows. Sliding doors on all storage space keep all items out of sight and protected from the dust. The ledge is used for plants and book displays. Large cabinets at the ends of the cloakroom are ample for storing all of that extra paper, supplies, and equipment as well as the teacher's wraps and personal reference materials. The cloakroom is very handy also. Pigeonholes for each child's belongings are on one side with storage space under the pigeonholes. The other wall is for children's wraps . . ." JOSIE SHACKELFORD, *Lovington School, Lovington, N. Mex.*

". . . One of the most pleasant experiences of my teaching career has been the opportunity of working in a well-equipped modern classroom. This classroom provides the proper lighting, heating, ventilation, rest rooms, and outside entrance with a terrace and flower garden which enable the children to live as a family group. To be able to have the available space to work in groups, construct, store materials, display work, arrange furniture for democratic living, and give individual guidance with-

out disturbing others has been the fulfilling of a life-long dream . . ." Mrs. Lucille Stevens, *Willowbrook School, Oak Ridge, Tenn.*

3. Flexible

". . . Working in this classroom is a real opportunity. In addition to the large floor area there is good light, ready access to the outside, acoustic plaster, and a warm, smooth floor. This kind of housing contributes to a good educational program rather than limits it. The same may be said of furniture that can be easily moved and used for multiple purposes, for the storage space accessible to the children, for the ample provision for wraps, and for the sink and drinking fountain. The freedom and flexibility in activity that we know children need are not only possible but easily achieved in this modern well-planned classroom . . ." Erma Bennett, *Wasatch School, Provo, Utah.*

". . . The desks are movable and can be placed in groups for conferences or can be placed against the wall, leaving floor space for folk dances and story circles . ." Mrs. J. L. Perkins, *Baton Rouge, La.*

4. Attractive

". . . Children who enter rooms with lovely color designing, light, and adequate space are generally more enthusiastic children at school. The response is so enthusiastic that one realizes the genuine pleasure they feel just being in such a room during the day. Just as a gloomy, drab room depresses a teacher on a gray winter day, so are her pupils quite likely to be lethargic and weary of mind. Entering a room with friendly color and brightness is almost certain to help spirits rise and brighten too . . ." Thelma Steiner, *Harmony Elementary School, Milwaukie, Oreg.*

". . . The modern, efficient design of the room, equipment, and related facilities add much to the program, increase the teacher's efficiency, and thereby contribute significantly to a wider experience and a greater acceptance on the part of the child . . ." Mrs. Gertrude Knott, *Rollingwood Elementary School, Chevy Chase, Md.*

". . . Two of the most important essentials of an ideal elementary schoolroom, childlikeness and homelikeness, are undeniably found at Van Buren. There is a conscious adaptation of arrangement, materials, and furnishings to the age level of the group occupying the room. The movable tables and chairs are scaled to size so that feet touch the floor and proper sitting posture is easily achieved. There is a low counter, sink, and drinking fountain in the workroom easily accessible to the children. The adjacent toilet facilities, also scaled to size, add to the homelike atmosphere and eliminate any regimentation of toilet procedure. There has been a conscious building up of the atmosphere which characterizes a beautiful home in the planning of this schoolroom. Space has been provided for outdoor clothing and personal belongings. This space has not been adequate during the winter months since two and sometimes three children must share one space. There is a sufficient number of low windows so that children are not shut away from the outdoors . . ." Helen Vann, *Martin Van Buren School, Oklahoma City, Okla.*

". . . Teaching and living in a room with these facilities is a most delightful experience for children, parents, and teachers. The spaciousness and the beautiful colors provide environment and opportunity for children to live and learn . . ." Elizabeth Matthews, *Park Road School, Charlotte, N. C.*

5. Economical

". . . The floor covering is both attractive and utilitarian. Spills on these highly waxed floors are not catastrophes because they clean easily and quickly. With their high polish and cleanliness, floors become excellent work space for large projects without the fear of soiling clothing. . ." Thelma Steiner, *Harmony Elementary School, Milwaukie, Oreg.*

". . . Ceiling height has been reduced to give a sense of proportion to the occupants of the room . . ." Albert P. Mathers, *Superintendent of Schools, New Canaan, Conn.*

". . . Bilateral lighting makes a light, bright room. The latest in lighting provides more than adequately for the darkest day . . ." Inez Whitney, *McKinley Elementary School, Arlington, Va.*

". . . The teacher has a built-in desk with adequate drawer space. The open shelves and a closet provide ample room for professional materials. Bilateral lighting gives an even and adequate distribution of light for each child . . ." Marguerite Rankin, *McKinley Elementary School, Arlington, Va.*

The children and young people are the greatest asset in any country. In fact, the future of this country will be in their hands. Their standing as American citizens will be in part determined by the educational opportunities provided for them. Good classrooms are economical in that they provide favorable learning situations. Pupils and teachers are encouraged by a functional, safe, and attractive environment. America can afford to buy good school facilities. It is a safe and sane investment in the future of this country.

Northside School, Levittown, Long Island, N. Y. Photo by Sigurd Fischer.

(Continued on page 30)

For Better Schools in O

Much Has Been Done—
The Job Ahead Is One

"School Bells Are Ringing for More Children Than Ever Before!" "She's Giving The Best Years of Her Life—To Your Children!" These are captions to some of the advertisements in the 1953–54 nationwide Better Schools Campaign conducted by The Advertising Council.

The Council is a nonprofit, public-service organization of the advertising industry. It draws on the best talent of the advertising world and enlists the free support of all channels of public information to promote programs that contribute to the national welfare.

Cooperating with the Council in the Better Schools Campaign is the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, another nonprofit organization. The Commission was founded in 1949 by a group of prominent laymen representing business, law, and labor, from all sections of the country, who were convinced of the urgent need for widespread understanding of American education's problems, and improvement of our public schools.

The Council and the Commission work closely in this campaign with the Office of Education, which first asked the Advertising Council in 1947 to help arouse public interest in problems facing the schools. Advertising materials on the campaign are prepared by the volunteer agency, Benton and Bowles, Inc., and issued to the Council as a public service. Space and time are given by advertisers who agree to sponsor the ads.

Among media services used in the campaign are newspaper and house organ publishers, transportation and outdoor advertising agencies, radio and television advertisers, and individual radio and television stations. These are utilized in placing advertisements urging citizens to help solve their school problems and in suggesting that letters be written to the Commission for advice and assistance. Many of the media agencies sponsor advertisements themselves as public-service projects.

Promotion kits adapted to the various media are sent to newspapers, national magazines, radio and television stations, and civic organizations. This year's kit for newspapers contains 12 advertisements and symbols. Other kits furnish graphic designs suitable for posters, car cards, or outdoor advertising; television materials, with films, slides, fact sheet, etc.; radio fact sheets and spot announcements; and other such materials.

Businesses are invited to run the advertisements "as is" or to use them as a basis for preparing their own material. Civic organizations and citizen groups are encouraged to do likewise—and thereby join in the program for better schools. It is estimated that, in each of the past four years, the Council has secured several million dollars' worth of advertising for the Better Schools Campaign.

Evidences of Success

Since the purpose of the campaign is to arouse the American people to the needs of their local schools, its success may well be measured in terms of increased public interest. Here is some of the evidence:

1. School bond issues and millage campaigns are notably more successful than ever before. The kits of newspaper advertisements, with free mats available from the Council, have been helpful in the passage of hundreds of bond issues.

2. Eight thousand communities now have committees or commissions of lay citizens, representing all segments of the community, working with their school boards and administrators on educational problems. In 1950, fewer than 1,000 such groups were known to the National Citizens Commission. About half of the committee members are men.

3. More of the great national organizations—business, labor, farm, civic, fraternal, professional, religious, veteran, and other—have live education departments and programs.

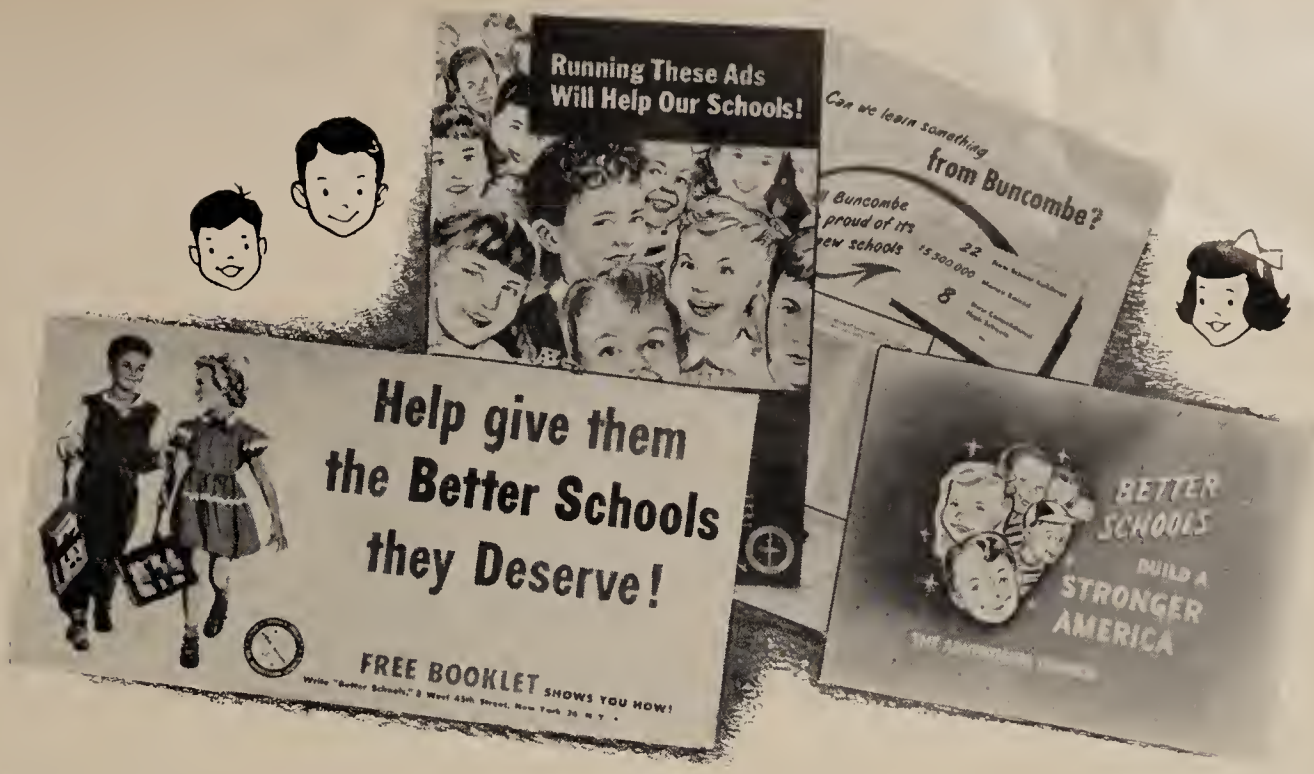
4. National magazines published more articles on public schools (222) last year than ever before.

5. Every second person who writes the Commission for assistance got the address through some news or advertising medium.

6. The symbols and slogans of the campaign are being used by citizens' committees and commercial concerns on postage meters, shopping bags, license plates, auto stickers, stationery, brochures, and in dozens of other adapted ways.

Nation

All of Us



7. Hundreds of correspondents who write the Commission about the campaign are put in touch with State and local groups which can be of direct help and with whom they can work for a common goal.

8. With the emphasis on more active interest and participation in public schools, school groups—PTA's and Home and School Associations—have twice as many members as they had in 1946, and a 60 percent rise in their male membership.

9. Some 900 newspapers had agreed to run one of the Better School advertisements on September 8 of this year.

10. About 87,000 car-card spaces on buses, trains, street cars, and subways were made available to the Council by the transportation advertising industry in August.

11. Some 7,500 Better School outdoor posters have been put up.

12. All radio stations receive the Council's *Radio Fact Sheet* and spot announcements on the campaign. It is estimated that 25,000 local programs were broadcast in 1 year. In 1 week of 1952 there were an estimated 14,398,000 home impressions made through the Better School television program. A home impression is the number of sets in use during the announcement multiplied by the number of announcements made. It is 1 message heard once in 1 television home.

There Is Work To Be Done

The American people can be proud of their accomplishments in public education. But the job ahead is one of staggering proportions. This year the schools opened their doors to the largest crop of pupils in history—about 2 million more than last year. More than 34 million youth are enrolled in schools this year, an all-time record. And it is estimated that by 1960 there will be 42 million.

The taxpayers have been making a real effort to keep up with the rapidly increasing needs of the schools. They spent $7.5 billion last year on public schools—$500 million more than the year before. In 1952–53 American communities built 50,000 new classrooms—another all-time record. Teachers' salaries were raised from an average of $3,160 to $3,400 last year.

But, in spite of all that has been done, the public schools of America face bigger problems than ever before, and the crisis is growing worse.

One of their most urgent needs is certainly the building program. This fall the United States is short 345 thousand public elementary and secondary classrooms. And many of those in use are not adequate. In school plants that are officially classified as "satisfactory" and "fair", 3 out of every 5 are overcrowded. One out of every five pupils is going to school this fall in a schoolhouse which does not meet minimum fire safety conditions.

Another challenging problem is the shortage of teachers. The elementary schools alone need 72,000 more teachers than they had last year. Until the teacher-training program is stepped up, only 2 alternatives are available and neither is good. Either teachers must be brought into the schools who are not qualified, or further over-crowding of the classrooms must be permitted.

Here is an opportunity for every citizen to do an urgently needed job. By taking an active interest in his local schools, he can help to make sure that his community provides an adequate school budget and gets the best for the money it spends.

The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools is ready to help any community stimulate interest in constructive action for better schools. Tools and know-how are available for the asking. Community groups that want guidance on problems such as teacher shortage, getting better school board members, school finances, buildings, and instructional materials, should write to the Commission's office at 2 West 45th Street, New York 36, N. Y.

Free mats for all the advertisements and radio and television material in the Better Schools Campaign will be sent on request by The Advertising Council, Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York 36, N. Y.

Let's all enlist in the Better Schools Campaign and work for the future of our country—our Nation's boys and girls and their essential education.

Mathematics a Key to Manpower

Kenneth E. Brown, Specialist for Mathematics

What is the outlook for able youth to fill the scientific demands of our Nation? The prospect is for a critical shortage in the face of increased demands.

In 1950 the number of engineers graduated in the U. S. S. R. was 28,000, and in 1953 the number had increased to 33,000. It is estimated that the number of engineering graduates in 1955 will be 50,000. Similar increases are reported in the supply of other specialized personnel, and there is evidence that the supply may be rapidly increased. What is the prospect in the United States? It is not the same.

Output of Scientific Personnel Decreasing

While the number of graduates from engineering colleges in the U. S. S. R. increased from 28,000 to 33,000, the number in the United States decreased during this period (1950–53) from 53,000 to 25,000. The estimated number of graduates in 1955 for the United States is 23,000, while in the U. S. S. R. the number is 50,000. The number of graduates of technical institutes in the United States in 1952 was approximately 1,100, but for the same year in the U. S. S. R. the number was 60,000. The annual output of scientific personnel in the United States is decreasing, while in the U. S. S. R. it is rapidly increasing.

Shortage To Continue

There is a lack of scientific personnel in the United States, and the demand for their services is rising. If the advances in medicine, the humanities, and the sciences are to continue at the present rapid rate, the supply of specialists must expand. The Office of Defense Mobilization in the Defense Manpower Policy No. 8 states "the demand (for specialized personnel) is rising rapidly and will continue at a high level indefinitely." Engineers and scientists are not available to meet even the present demand.

Number of Students Being Trained

The number of college students in the U. S. S. R. increased from 670,000 in 1946 to 1,400,000 in 1952, while in the United States during the same period the number was only slightly increased from 2,078,000 to 2,150,000. The number of students in technical institutes with 4-year curricula in the U. S. S. R. in 1952 was approximately 250,000, and in the United States for the same year the number of students in technical institutes, most of which have 2-year curricula, was only 46,417. Thus the U. S. S. R. had five times as many students as the United States in technical institutes, and in most cases the students were pursuing more extensive curricula.

In engineering colleges U. S. S. R. leads with enrollments of 266,000 students in 1952 compared to 156,000 for the United States. Evidence indicates that while the U. S. S. R. is rapidly expanding the training of specialized personnel, the college enrollments in the United States are not enough to meet our immediate future needs.

The Office of Defense Mobilization reports that the number of persons completing scientific training is declining and will continue to decline through 1954. They warn that "it will be very difficult, or impossible, to obtain a supply of specialized personnel equal to the expanded demand."

Mathematics Training Needed in High School

Technically trained men and women are needed to increase our standard of living in times of peace and safeguard our republic in times of war. Mathematics is the language of these scientific workers. If our supply of specialized personnel is to meet the Nation's demands, more able pupils must receive training in mathematics. The mathematics preparation of scientific personnel should begin before they reach college.

A look at the present high school enrollments in mathematics is not encouraging. Plane geometry is one of the high school subjects normally required for college entrance and as a prerequisite to mathematics or scientific training. A recent study [1] of mathematics education in the high schools showed that the number of pupils taking this subject is less each year. In 1934 there were 767,171 pupils enrolled in plane geometry in the high school, in 1949 the enrollment was 693,280 and in 1953 only 659,300. The total number of pupils in high school is increasing, but the enrollment in geometry is decreasing.

Our Nation needs more and more persons trained in basic mathematical understandings. The high school enrollments indicate that this is not taking place. Even in algebra—the mathematics that is basic to an

[1] Mathematics in Public High Schools, by Kenneth E. Brown. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price 20 cents.

Number and percentage of pupils in mathematics in the last 4 years of public secondary day schools, 1889–90 to 1952–53

Year	Algebra		Geometry		Trigonometry	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1890 [1]	92,150	45.4	43,294	21.3	.....	.....
1900	292,287	56.3	142,235	27.4	9,915	1.9
1910	420,207	56.9	228,170	30.9	13,812	1.9
1915	569,215	48.8	309,383	26.5	17,220	1.5
1922	865,515	40.2	488,825	22.7	32,930	1.5
1928	1,020,323	35.2	573,668	19.8	36,855	1.3
1934	1,367,210	30.4	767,171	17.1	59,858	1.3
1949	1,448,966	26.8	693,280	12.8	108,551	2.0
1953 [2]	1,475,900	24.6	659,300	11.6	107,000	1.9

[1] Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50, Chapter 5, page 107, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

[2] Estimate based on this study.

elementary consideration of quantity in any field of knowledge—the percent of pupils enrolled is smaller each year. In 1934, 30.4 percent of the high school pupils were enrolled in algebra. In 1949 there were 26.8 percent and in 1953 approximately 24.6 percent.

The number of pupils enrolled in mathematics decreases from grade to grade in high school. Data for the school year 1952–53 from 857 randomly selected high schools indicated that the number of pupils in 10th grade mathematics was equal to 34 percent of the number of pupils in that grade, while in the 11th grade it was 23 percent and in the 12th grade only 10 percent.

The need for pupils trained in mathematics—a language of modern civilization—stands out in bold relief. The enrollments in mathematics are not meeting the demand. Yet the survival of our democratic way of life may depend on our increase of technically trained personnel. The battle for the freedoms we so fondly cherish may be lost in the classroom.

Can the Manpower Supply Be Increased?

Is there no hope? The answer is there is hope if we take proper action. Capable pupils can be motivated and guided into courses that will develop their potential in mathematics. Teaching content and procedures can be improved. Many groups of teachers are restudying the mathematics curriculum, re-evaluating their teaching procedures in an attempt to stimulate more effective learning.

The interest of teachers in providing better instruction for the talented pupil was recognized in a conference held at the U. S. Office of Education, November 13–15, 1952. A group of more than 100 educators, including leaders in Government and industry, pooled their ideas of ways of identifying and providing for the student with potential in science and mathematics. Their suggestions are contained in a pamphlet which is available from the Government Printing Office.[2]

Class size can be reduced to permit more individualized instruction. A recent survey showed one geographic region in the United States with 50 percent of the mathematics classes with enrollments above 30 and many classes with 45 to 50 pupils. Teacher help to individual pupils is difficult under such conditions. We should make a special effort to provide better opportunities for the individual pupil in our schools, and, through proper guidance, prepare him to be of maximum worth to himself and society.

There is another potential source of specialized personnel that needs to be considered. For every person who graduates from college, there is a capable high school graduate who failed to even enter college. This large pool containing many potential scientists and engineers needs to be tapped. Why do these capable youth fail to go to college? Studies indicate that the foremost reason for the failure of these youth to attend college is lack of money. Another significant reason is a failure to appreciate the value of a college education. We spend millions of dollars to develop the natural resources of our Nation and at the same time fail to develop a large part of our human resources. Capable pupils who need financial assistance should be provided with scholarships. Plans should be developed to provide aid for pupils with ability. Large sums of money are readily spent to provide stockpiles of defense materials, but we are reluctant to spend a little to increase our supply of the most vital instrument of defense—scientific personnel. Is it not time to conserve our human resources and develop our capable youth?

Our supply of scientists, mathematicians, and other specialized personnel can be increased by:

1. More effective motivation and guidance in the study of mathematics in the high school.

2. The cooperation of education and industry in providing in-service training programs in which mathematics offerings can be designed that will make mathematics more meaningful and functional to the pupil

3. The provision of scholarships for any pupils who should have a college education and who need financial support.

Our supply of engineers and scientists already is getting dangerously low. There is no prospect for a rapid increase in the near future if the present trends continue. With the cooperation of industry, education, and the public, the trends can be changed, but the time for action is now.

[2] Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science, Bulletin 1952, No. 15. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., Price 15 cents.

Double Shifts—

(*Continued from page 19*)

own group for such things as working with other children in art, music, playground, or visual education activities. The teacher may also have conferences with parents, visit homes, help in work groups with principal and supervisor or use the time for planning the work with her children. A double shift situation means that since the teacher will have less time to work with her children, she must do a careful job of getting ready for each day.

The double shift situation usually cuts down on the time a child spends in school reducing it to a 2½ to 4½ hour day. Since the regular school day, as set set up by school law in Virginia is a 5 to 6½ hour session, the children are now attending school approximately one-half to one-third less time than the children in areas free of crowding.

Not only are children being deprived of their educational opportunities, the teachers, too, are overloaded with larger classes. The supervision of children's homework, which is often a means of covering more material than is possible in the limited time children are at school, is another factor adding to their classroom duties.

The chief value of the 3-year study Virginia is making of crowded conditions and the impact on children and teachers is to provide evidence on the extent their situation has shown any improvement. The facts now available indicate that conditions are becoming more acute. The State Department of Education has shown foresight in making this survey. They will have a strong case for adequate support for the schools on grounds that basic education be given to the thousands of elementary children now enrolled and a realistic approach be made to the retention of teachers.

It is possible that other States have made studies of the double shift situation in their schools. Information concerning these findings or related ones is invited for SCHOOL LIFE, in connection with a project of the Elementary Schools Section. Office of Education.

Leaving for Arlington, Va., Schools.

Johann P. Feicht asks first grade pupils about school lunches.

German Teachers Observe American Teaching Methods

A GERMAN TEACHER, after spending several months in the United States as a participant in the Educational Exchange Program of the Department of State, wrote these words:

"I should like to express how grateful and indebted I feel towards the U. S. Government for having organized this program, and for every help, generosity, and hospitality offered in this country. I shall return to Germany with the feeling that my experiences are worth more than 5 years of intensive book studying, and am besides convinced that I have a mission to do in Germany for America and for human understanding."

This teacher, 1 of a total of 408 who have come to our country under the German Teacher Education program, has learned much from her visits to American schools and universities and in her observations of educational methods that will not soon be forgotten.

This year's group of German teachers arrived in September, spent time in Washington, D. C., for orientation classes and a visit to Arlington County, Va., schools. Early in October they left in groups of 15 to 20 for 4-month stays at several universities—including the University of Illinois, University of Kentucky, University of Cincinnati, State College of Washington, Southwest Texas State Teachers College, and Oregon State College.

Later they will spend some time in various State departments of education and a month or so in local communities. They return to Germany on April 17, 1954.

Kenneth A. Bateman, Director of the German Teacher Education Program for the Office of Education, recently announced that last year's group of 111 German teachers were entertained in 4,933 American homes. They were welcomed by 140 different organizations and institutions. They made addresses to most of these organizations.

Nomination of candidates for participation in this program are made by staff members of the several American Consulates General in Germany and the Office of the High Commissioner for Germany. Final selections are made by the International Educational Exchange Service of the Department of State.

(*Continued on page 30*)

Roswitha M. Cramer visits a junior high school class with student guide.

Gretel Kamb talks with boys in a high school mechanical drawing class.

Three German teachers near the Capitol with Kenneth A. Bateman, German Teacher Program Director.

Two teachers from Germany discuss classroom use of a nature atlas.

Education and the Eighty-Third Congress First Session

By Ward W. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation

The importance which the Federal Government attaches to matters relating to education is always of nationwide interest and concern. Below is a résumé of the Acts of the Eighty-third Congress, First Session, which relate to some phase of education. These Acts are presented in the order in which they were passed and approved by the President.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

The most significant Federal development of the current year affecting education at the Federal level, which won the approval of Congress, was the creation of a new Department of Health, Education, and Welfare with Cabinet status.

On March 12 President Eisenhower transmitted to the Congress Reorganization Plan No. 1, 1953, prepared in accordance with the provisions of the Reorganization Act of 1949, as amended. The President's transmittal message declared:

"The purpose of this plan is to improve the administration of the vital health, education, and social-security functions now . . . carried on in the Federal Security Agency by giving them departmental rank. Such action is demanded by the importance and magnitude of these functions, which affect the well-being of millions of our citizens. . . .

"There should be an unremitting effort to improve those health, education and social-security programs which have proved their value. . . .

"But good intentions are not enough; all such programs depend for their success upon efficient, responsible administration. . . . Now the establishment of a new Department provided for in Plan No. 1 of 1953 will give the needed additional assurance that these matters will receive the full consideration they deserve in the whole operation of the Government."

The President's Reorganization Plan stipulated that: "There is hereby established an Executive Department, which shall be known as the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. . . . There shall be at the head of the Department a Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare . . . who shall be appointed by the President. . . . The Department shall be administered under the supervision and direction of the Secretary." By this Plan all functions of the Federal Security Agency, including those relating to education, were transferred to the new Department.

Public Law 13 (approved April 1, 1953).—By this Act Congress approved House Joint Resolution 223 which stipulated that Reorganization Plan No. 1 of March 12, 1953, aforementioned, "shall take effect 10 days after the date of the enactment of this joint resolution, and its approval by the President."

Federal Indian School Lands

Public Law 47 (approved June 4, 1953).—This act authorized the Secretary of the Interior to convey certain Indian school properties no longer needed for school purposes to State or local school districts or public agencies. Any conveyance prescribed or approved by the Secretary of the Interior shall require the property to be used for school or other public purpose and shall require the property to be available to Indians and non-Indians on the same terms, unless otherwise approved by the Secretary of the Interior.

Flag Display Regulation

Public Law 107 (approved July 9, 1953).—This act is of especial interest to public school officials and teachers. The Flag Code approved June 22, 1942, as amended (36 U. S. C., Sec. 175 (c)), was amended by adding at the end thereof the following new sentence: "No person shall display the flag of the United Nations or any other national or international flag equal, above, or in a position of superior prominence or honor to, or in place of, the flag of the United States at any place within the United States or any Territory or possession thereof: *Provided*, That nothing in this section shall make unlawful the continuance of the practice heretofore followed of displaying the flag of the United Nations in a position of superior prominence or honor, and other national flags in position of equal prominence or honor, with that of the flag of the United States at the headquarters of the United Nations."

Commission on Intergovernmental Relations

Public Law 109 (approved July 10, 1953).—This act created a Commission on Intergovernmental Relations consisting of 25 members. The work of this Commission is most likely to include a study of Federal-State educational relations.

The act directs the Commission to study and investigate all of the present activities in which Federal aid is extended to State and local governments, the interrelationships of the financing of this aid, and the sources of the financing of governmental programs; and to determine and report (1) whether there is justification for Federal aid in the various fields in which Federal aid is extended; (2) whether there are other fields in which Federal aid should be extended; (3) whether Federal control with respect to these activities should be limited, and, if so, to what extent, and (4) whether Federal aid should be limited to cases of need, and all other matters incident to such Federal aid, including the ability of the Federal Government and the States to finance activities of this nature.

The Commission is authorized to make such reports as the President may request from time to time or as the Commission deems appropriate, and it is directed to submit its final report, including recommendations for legislative action, not later than March 1, 1954, to the President for transmittal to the Congress.

Postal Rates on Films and Related Materials for Educational Purposes

Public Law 141 (approved July 20, 1953).—This act provided that the postal rates provided for books "may apply to 15-millimeter films, filmstrips, projected transparencies and slides, microfilms, sound recordings, and catalogues of such materials when sent to or from (A) schools, colleges, universities, or public libraries, and (B) religious, educational, scientific, philanthropic, agricultural, labor, veterans', or fraternal organizations or associations, not organized for profit and none of the net income of which inures to the benefit of any private stockholder or individual," when sent through the mails, except when sent to commercial theaters.

Exchange of Federal Land for School Purpose

Public Law 167 (approved July 31, 1953).—This act authorized the Secretary of the Interior to convey not more than 20 acres of land in Gettysburg National Military Park to the State of Pennsylvania for public-school purposes, and to receive in exchange non-Federal land of approximately equal value, which land shall become a part of said Park.

American University

Public Law 183 (approved August 1, 1953).—This act amended the Act of 1893 incorporating the American University by providing that (1) no person shall be elected to the board of trustees of the University unless such person has been approved by the Board of Education of the Methodist Church; (2) all property, both real and personal, of the University shall be held in perpetuity for educational purposes under the auspices of the Methodist Church; and (3) the board of trustees of the University shall not propose any amendment by the Congress to this act unless the proposal has been previously approved by the Board of Education of the Methodist Church. This act also provided that upon violation by the corporation or the board of trustees of any of these provisions, all rights, title, and interest of the corporation in and to all property, both real and personal, of the corporation shall vest in the board of education of the Methodist Church, a corporation organized under the laws of the State of Tennessee, or its successor.

Federal Assistance to School Districts Affected by Federal Activities

The Eighty-Third Congress by two acts, Public Laws 246 and 248, amended companion Laws Public Law 815 and 874 of the Eighty-First Congress, 1950. These new enactments are designed to improve the Federal assistance programs for school districts affected by Federal activities.

School Buildings (Public Law 246, approved August 8, 1953).—This act added Titles III and IV to Public Law 815 to provide "assistance for the construction of urgently needed minimum school facilities in school districts which since the school year 1951–52 have had substantial increase in school membership as a result of new or increased Federal activities." Among the principal provisions of the new law are:

The authorization of the Commissioner of Education to provide assistance to local school agencies not heretofore eligible for assistance under Public Law 815 such necessary aid as will enable them to provide minimum school facilities "upon such terms and such amounts (subject to provisions of this act) as the Commissioner may consider to be in the public interest"; and authorized an appropriation of $20,000,000 for this purpose. This provision applies principally to districts enrolling large numbers of Indian children living on tax exempt Indian lands. (Initial appropriation for this purpose contained in final Supplemental Appropriation is $8,000,000.)

There was also authorized an appropriation of $55,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1954, to pay outstanding entitlements to local educational agencies for new school construction or for reimbursements of contracts made after September 30, 1950. The maximum payments therefor to local agencies is to be computed on the basis of average per pupil cost of constructing "minimum" (rather than complete) school facilities.

Maintenance and Operation (Public Law 248, approved August 8, 1953).—This act amended Public Law 874 (Eighty-First Congress) providing maintenance and operation assistance to school districts affected by Federal activities. Among the principal changes made in Public Law 874 are:

(1) Extended Public Law 874 for 2 years from July 1, 1953.

(2) Provided for assistance on the basis of average daily attendance during the preceding, instead of the current, fiscal year; that parents' employment on Federal property be within reasonable commuting distance, or that children's parents be on active duty in the uniformed services.

(3) Provides for increased payments to an amount necessary to provide a level of education equal to that in comparable districts.

(4) Provides for a *minimum* Federal contribution rate to local districts for each Federally-connected child equal to 50 percent of the total per capita cost for educating all children in the State.

(5) Limited the Commissioner's discretion with respect to providing education by requiring that he deal only with appropriate local agency or Federal Department. Previously, where he considered local educational agency unable to provide suitable free public education he could make such arrangements therefor as he deemed necessary.

German Teachers

(*Continued from page 28*)

As Mr. Bateman points out, this program works both ways in creating mutual understanding between the citizens of our country and those of Germany. Bearing out this conclusion, one superintendent wrote of one German teacher "Mr. ——— has been an inspiration to our entire teaching staff and every child who has come in contact with him. I know that we have profited much by this experience and know that Mr. ——— will have secured a better understanding of our American way of life and the democratic principles of teaching. In addition to his fine educational philosophy, I have found him delightful company and through him have gained an appreciation of Germany's problems today."

Designing Classrooms

(*Continued from page 23*)

Designing Elementary Classrooms contains information about predesign planning steps, the points upon which good classroom design is based, designing the classroom from educational specifications, and the reactions of teachers to a good classroom environment.

The publication was prepared by James L. Taylor, Jack D. Herrington, Helen K. Mackintosh, Wilhelmina Hill, and other Office of Education staff members. Copies should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. *Price* 35 *cents.*

The Navy's Literacy Training Program

by R. M. Foster and J. F. Ballard

THE ARMED FORCES today are faced with the problem of using personnel who do not possess functional literacy.[1] As increasing demands are placed on the nation's available manpower, the military services must share the personnel pool with other essential activities requiring manpower. The purpose of this article is to tell briefly the story of the Navy's program for training the functional illiterate.

A series of articles appearing in previous issues of SCHOOL LIFE has presented the problem of functional illiteracy in terms of the extent (9½ million), its cost in usable manpower, and its challenge to the nation. When these illiterates are recruited into the Navy, part of their service time must be used to teach them "to read and understand simple instructions and to absorb military training." The realities of naval service demand this training in the Navy's self interest. While illiterates are at a disadvantage in civilian life, they may be a distinct hazard in a military situation. A man aboard ship who cannot read instructions and understand simple orders may endanger not only his own life, but the lives of his shipmates. The Navy must, therefore, conduct literacy training so long as illiterates are recruited into the naval service.

The problem for the Navy is not a new one. During the latter stages of World War II, the Navy found herself forced to accept enlisted men who were functionally illiterate. Some way had to be found to use the manpower which was available and a training program seemed to be the answer. As it turned out, the experience gained during World War II was to prove useful at a later date.

In 1951, the Office of the Secretary of Defense developed a plan whereby all of the Armed Forces would accept their proportionate share of the manpower pool based upon several intellectual levels or profiles. This is known in the Navy as the Profile Recruiting Plan.

[1] Functional literacy, as used throughout this article, means a level of achievement in reading comparable to successful completion of the fourth grade.

The Navy set about to develop a training program for those whose literacy level required improvement. At the outset, it was apparent that this special literacy training must precede the regular indoctrination period of recruit training. Otherwise, many would fail in regular recruit training. It had to be a program which would prepare the man to absorb the military subjects inherent in the indoctrination process—a kind of recruit preparatory training. At the same time, the program had to be one which would permit integration of military subjects with instruction in reading in order that maximum use could be made of the services of the individual in the shortest possible time. By directive, a maximum of 13 weeks was made available for this preparatory process.

Because illiteracy is not confined to any one region of the United States, and since funds for travel expenses are limited, special literacy training units have been established at each of the Navy's Training Centers: Bainbridge, Md., Great Lakes, Ill., and San Diego, Calif. They are officially designated as Recruit Preparatory Training Units and are operated under the control of the Recruit Training Commands at the three training centers.

Literacy training is an official, full-time program for those selected for it. Integration of military training and literacy training is accomplished by the use of reading materials built around Navy situations. Each trainee progresses at his own rate and is transferred to regular recruit training when his achievement warrants it. Average time spent in preparatory training is between 7 and 8 weeks. Classes are kept small (average size: 10–15 trainees) and instructors, for the most part, are carefully selected chief petty officers. The instructional staff is composed entirely of volunteers, who receive a basic course in instructor-training prior to assignment. Supervisors have educational backgrounds and work experience in similar programs such as remedial reading, adult education, elementary school work and psychology. Despite the fact that literacy training is a new kind of teaching situation for most of the instructors, they all possess one important asset—their knowledge of the Navy gained through years of service and their experience in petty officer leadership. These instructors counsel and guide, as well as teach reading, writing and arithmetic, never forgetting that the real goal is to develop useful sailors from the men in this illiterate group.

The materials used in this program are many and varied. The Navy Life Series, developed during World War II, is the basic guide for instruction in reading. This series consists of readers, workbooks and instructors' guides. These materials are built around a naval theme, describing life at sea and in other typical Navy situations. They use a Navy theme for motivation in much the same way as the Home and Family Life Series,[2] and others, have used family life, civilian work, etc., to arouse interest. In addition, material available from the United States Armed Forces Institute, and commercial sources, such as the *Reader's Digest* "Reading Skill Builders", are used. Many aids to teaching the basic subjects are prepared locally by the instructional staff. These include, for example,

[2] Published by Educator's Washington Dispatch, New London, Conn., and Washington 6, D. C.

Mr. Foster and Mr. Ballard are civilian employees of the Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel. Their article very appropriately follows the series on literacy education that appeared in SCHOOL LIFE during the past year. This series is now available under one "Reprint" cover from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., price 15 cents. The views expressed are those of Mr. Foster and Mr. Ballard and are not necessarily those of the Department of the Navy.

flash cards, ship models or mockups, posters showing typical safety signs found aboard ship, scrambled sentences and maps.

What is the background of the men who are receiving this training? Geographically, they come from all parts of the country: large cities, rural areas, and small towns. All of the trainees have had some degree of formal schooling. Most of those in the program have attended school for more than 4 years and a good many of them have spent some time in junior high school. However, they do not posses fifth grade reading ability when measured with standardized tests. Some never had the skill and others have lost it through disuse.

Nearly all of the men now coming into the Navy are capable of learning to read once they have been motivated to learn. Perhaps the greatest motivating factor is their desire to become good sailors. As soon as the instructor shows them how reading skill is related to that goal, their learning "block" is removed and the rest of the task is comparatively easy. These men are more likely to have personal problem "worries", etc., which interfere with learning, than the literate recruit. One source of concern is their uncertainty about what lies ahead for them in the naval service. Usually, the instructor, with his knowledge of Navy life, can answer their questions and, thus, remove problems of this kind from their minds so that they can get down to the business of learning to read.

What are the main results obtained in the program thus far? Improvement in reading achievement shows an average increase of approximately one grade, in an average time of 8 weeks. Recruits who complete recruit preparatory training successfully finish regular recruit training with equal success. Studies of their service aboard ship are in progress, but conclusive results are not available at this time.

In surveying the operation of the program to date, the writers believe it has been worth while to the Navy and of great benefit to the individuals concerned. A summary of the key factors in the success of the program is given below:

1. In planning the program, the Navy was able to draw upon civilian school experience in similar programs and to draw upon its own World War II experience.
2. Supervisors had experience in similar programs.
3. Instructors were carefully selected chief petty officers who expressed an interest in this type of training.
4. Individuals who believed they could not learn to read because of past failures have experienced early success.
5. The men possessed a desire to become useful sailors.
6. Literacy training was integrated with military factors.
7. Classes were kept small.
8. Trainees spent their full time in recruit preparatory training.
9. Preservice and inservice training programs were conducted for instructors.
10. The relationship between emotional problems and reading ability was recognized.

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)

A Bibliography of Reading Lists for Retarded Readers (revised). Compiled by Margaret Keyser Hill. Iowa City, Iowa, State University of Iowa, 1953. 12 p. (State University of Iowa Bulletin, No. 681; College of Education Series, No. 37.) 10 cents.

The Beginnings of Graduate Education in America. By Richard J. Storr. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953. 195 p. $5.

The Cultivation of Community Leaders; Up From the Grass Roots. By William W. Biddle. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953. 203 p. $3.

Developing Children's Power of Self-Expression Through Writing. New York, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1953. 171 p. Illus. (Curriculum Bulletin, 1952–53 Series, No. 2.)

Emotional Difficulties in Reading. (A Psychological Approach to Study Problems.) By Beulah Kanter Ephron. New York, The Julian Press, Inc., 1953. 289 p. $5.

A Guide to Improving Instruction in Industrial Arts. A Revision of Standards of Attainment in Industrial Arts and Improving Instruction in Industrial Arts. Washington, D. C., American Vocational Association, 1953. 119 p. $1.

How To Become a Better Reader. By Paul Witty. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 304 p. $4.16 clothbound; $3.08 paperbound.

How To Improve Classroom Testing. By C. W. Odell. Dubuque, Iowa, Wm. C. Brown Company, 1953. 156 p. Processed. $3.

How Have Our Schools Developed? Background for Action. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1953. 56 p. Single copy free from National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th St., New York 36, N. Y.

The Introduction of Selected Educational Practices Into Teachers Colleges and Their Laboratory Schools. By Thomas M. Barrington. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 112 p. (Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, Study No. 8.) $2.10.

Leadership Training in Intergroup Education; Evaluation of Workshops. By Hilda Taba. Washington, American Council on Education, 1953. 243 p. (Studies in Intergroup Relations.) $2.50.

A Nursery School Handbook for Teachers and Parents. By Marjorie M. Green and Elizabeth L. Woods. Sierra Madre, Calif., The Sierra Madre Community Nursery School Assn., 1953. 135 p. Illus. $2.

Studying Children and Training Counselors in a Community Program. By Paul H. Bowman, William J. Dieterich, Robert F. DeHaan, and Others. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953. 136 p. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 78.) $1.50.

Supervision in the Elementary School. By Edwin H. Reeder. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. 386 p. $4.

Techniques of Curriculum Making in the Chicago Public Schools. By Paul R. Pierce. Chicago, Board of Education, 1953. 47 p. Illus.

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HOW TO ORDER

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Office of Education

All Children Need Art. By Arne W. Randall. Reprint from **Junior Arts and Activities**, January 1953. Free.

Current Expenditures Per Pupil in City School Systems, 1951–52. By Lester B. Herlihy. Circular No. 371, July 1953. 25 cents.

Designing Elementary Classrooms—An Approach to the Problem of Classroom Design in Relation to the School Child and Program. Special publication No. 1, 1953. 35 cents.

Educational Change in Reorganized School Districts. By C. O. Fitzwater. Bulletin 1953, No. 4. 20 cents.

List of Instructional Materials for the Supplementary Training of Apprentices and Other "On-the-Job" Trainees. Misc. 3243 (Fifth Complete Revision), September 1953. Free.

Selected Characteristics of Reorganized School Districts. By C. O. Fitzwater. Bulletin 1953, No. 3. 20 cents.

The State Department of Education Report. Prepared by Robert F. Will. 1953. Free.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Health Manpower Source Book—Section 2, Nursing Personnel. Public Health Service Publication No. 263, May 1953. 40 cents.

Schools of Public Health. Public Health Service Publication No. 276, 1953. 35 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

The Basic Seven, Eat This Way Every Day. A colored poster showing the basic foods which are necessary for good nutrition, size 23.4 x 18.4 inches. 1953. 10 cents.

Cooperative Business Training for Farm Youth. 20 cents.

Curing Pork Country Style. Revised 1953. 5 cents.

Forestry for 4–H Clubs. 1953. 25 cents.

Lamb and Mutton on the Farm, Slaughter, Curing, Freezing, Canning. Revised 1953. 10 cents.

Roses for the Home. 1953. 15 cents.

Sheep Raising on the Farm. 1953. 10 cents.

Slidefilms of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Revised 1953. 15 cents.

Mental Health Implications in Civilian Emergencies. Public Health Service Publication No. 310. 1953. 15 cents.

Milk and Cream, Definitions and Standards under the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act. Food and Drug Administration. 1953. 5 cents.

Social Workers from Around the World Observe Social Welfare in the United States. Social Security Administration. 1953. 55 cents.

Atomic Energy Commission

Laboratory Experiments with Radioisotopes for High School Science Demonstrations. August 1953. 25 cents.

Major Activities in the Atomic Energy Programs, January-June 1953. 30 cents.

Commission of Fine Arts

Art and Government. Report to the President by the Commission of Fine Arts on the activities of the Federal Government in the field of art. 1953. $1.

Department of Agriculture

Proceedings of National Food and Nutrition Institute. 1953. 65 cents.

Department of Defense

Pocket Guide to Turkey. 1953. 30 cents.

Department of Labor

The Outlook for Women in Professional Nursing Occupations. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 203–3, Revised, 1953. 30 cents.

Women as workers . . . A Statistical Guide. Women's Bureau 1953. 50 cents.

Women's Bureau Publications in the Field of Employment Outlook for Women. A 1953 list. Leaflet No. 17. Free.

Department of State

Background—India: A Pattern for Democracy in Asia. 1953. 10 cents.

Background—Indochina: The War in Viet-Nam, Cambodia, and Laos. 1953. 5 cents.

Background—Malaya: Trouble Spot in Southeast Asia. 1953. 10 cents.

General Services Administration

United States Government Organization Manual, 1953–54. National Archives and Records Service, Federal Register Division. $1.

Government Printing Office

Helpful Hints on Home Economics—Selected Government Publications on Sewing, Cleaning, Cooking, Canning, and Repairing. A Superintendent of Documents list, 1953. Free.

House of Representatives

How Our Laws Are Made. States in outline form the various steps in our Federal lawmaking process. House Document No. 210, 1953. 15 cents.

Permit Communist-Conspirators to be Teachers? House Document No. 213, 1953. 20 cents.

Library of Congress

Catalog of the Library of Thomas Jefferson—Vol. III. This volume lists and describes some 1,300 books and pamphlets that formed Jefferson's collection on "politics." $4.75. Vol. I, $5 a copy, and vol. II, $3.75 a copy, are still available. Two more volumes will complete the **Catalog**.

Senate

Enactment of a Law, Procedure on a Senate Bill. History of the legislative proceedings of Congress in connection with the passage of a Senate bill from its introduction through the various parliamentary stages until its enactment into law. Senate Document No. 55, 1953. 5 cents.

Our American Government, What Is it? How Does It Function? 291 Questions and Answers. Senate Document No. 52, 1953. 20 cents.

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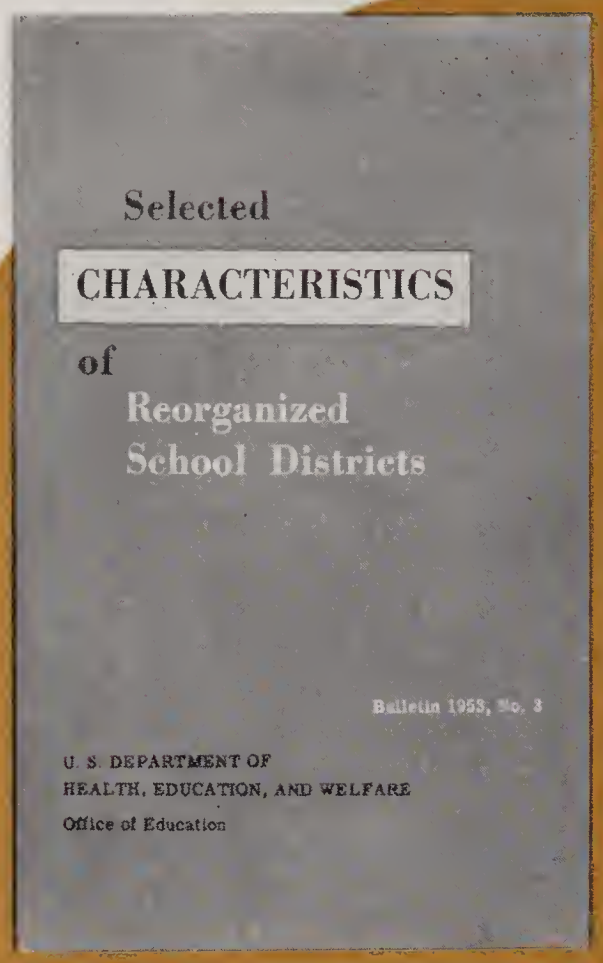

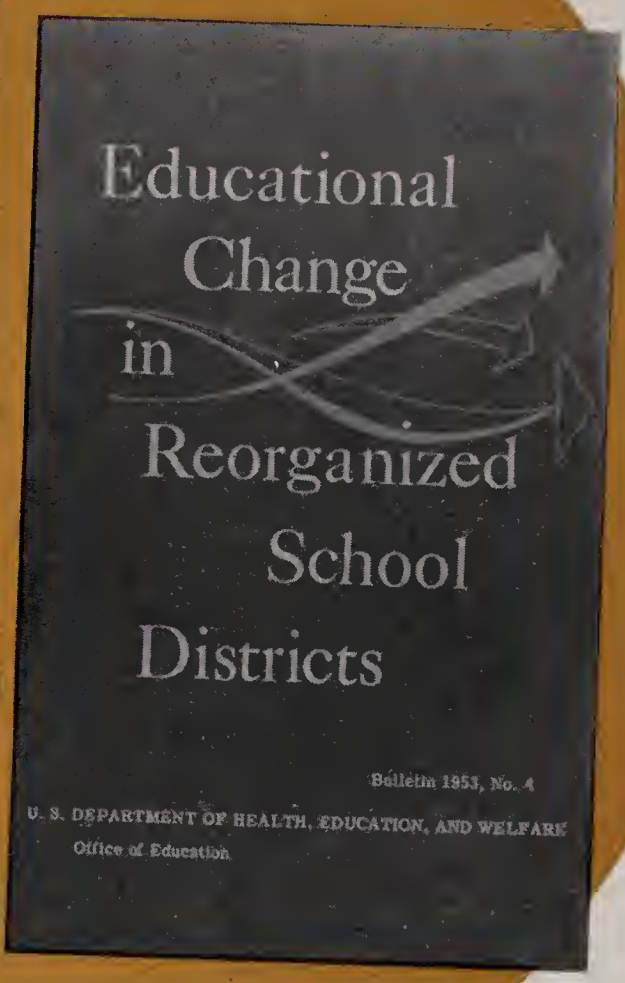

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Volume 36 Number 3
DECEMBER 1953

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School Life

◀ Wintry Mantle at Washington Monument

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Yes, Today's Schools Are Good Schools!

by Herold C. Hunt*

IT IS TO the State and local units of government and more especially to the people which these governments represent that one must turn if problems confronting the schools are to be met. Membership on State and local boards of education should universally be regarded as positions representing the most important civic trust and responsibility that a people can bestow. Of old the rabbis used to say, "The life of a nation is to be found in the breath of its children." And so it is today—a mandate, therefore, to consecrated service to youth everywhere . . .

I REGRET the necessity of listing attacks on the schools as a major problem today. I am mindful that these are by no means uncommon in the history of public education. . . .

INDEED SCHOOLS TODAY are not as they used to be and, frankly, they never were, for that matter. Because we evaluate through our own experiences, it is not difficult to understand why agitators find it relatively simple here and there to arouse public opinion. We as school people have not done as good a job as we should in interpreting the schools to parents and to taxpayers. Ours is the responsibility and obligation to acquaint all who are in any way connected with the educational process of its objectives, its purposes, and how it operates. . . .

WHILE THERE ARE truly many major problems confronting school administrators today, I can think of no time when education has ever been more challenging than now. The problems themselves make our jobs attractive.

WITH ALL OF the problems confronting us, it remains that today's schools are good schools and that they are better than the schools of yesterday. The gains made by our schools during the last half century are unmistakable.

- Today our schools do a more effective job of teaching the 3 R's.
- Today they develop pupils who are better equipped to earn a living.
- Today they invest more in our children's future. Thus, the nation-wide average expenditure per school pupil is ten times greater today than it was in 1900.
- Today they hold pupils for a longer period of time.
- Today they offer pupils a much richer and more varied program of studies and activities.
- Today they require much better education and training of teachers.
- Today they cooperate more fully with the home and community.
- Today they put a great deal more emphasis on human relations and international understanding.
- Today they develop new materials of learning continuously.
- Today they strive to shape school work to the child's ability and needs.
- Today they utilize such modern devices as motion pictures, radio, television, and recordings.
- Today they have replaced the little red schoolhouse, and other inadequate school plants of the past with large, modern, well-equipped school buildings.
- Today they provide many important special services, largely unknown at the turn of the century. Among these are health and safety instruction, vocational training, and education for the handicapped.

YES, TODAY'S SCHOOLS are good schools. Solving the problems confronting them, however, will make them better!

* * *

*FROM A PRESENTATION by Herold C. Hunt, Eliot Professor of Education, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, before the thirty-sixth Annual Meeting, American Council on Education, October 8, 1953, Washington, D. C.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph: Wintry Mantle at Washington Monument, taken by the Editor after the snowfall of November 7, 1953.

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Left to right: Herbert Brownell, United States Attorney General, Parke Banta, General Counsel, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Samuel Miller Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, and Mrs. Herbert Brownell.

First Statement of Samuel Miller Brownell As United States Commissioner of Education

SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL became the 13th United States Commissioner of Education on November 16, 1953.

Dr. Brownell, who succeeded the late Lee M. Thurston, of East Lansing, Mich., took his oath of office in the presence of Oveta Culp Hobby, Secretary of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and his brother Herbert Brownell, United States Attorney General and Mrs. Herbert Brownell.

Also present for the special installation ceremony were high officials of the Government and representatives of major educational organizations.

On the day he assumed the duties of his new position, Dr. Brownell prepared the accompanying statement for television purposes. SCHOOL LIFE *presents it as Commissioner Brownell's first report to the profession and the public from his new post in the Office of Education.*

I assume the office of Commissioner of Education fully conscious of the fact that education is a State responsibility which the States have wisely delegated in large part to the local communities. I am also very much aware that there is a national concern about this education because the effectiveness of America's greatest national resource—its young people—is dependent upon the amount, the kind, and the quality of education they receive from whatever source. The Office of Education was established to collect and diffuse information which would assist and promote the improvement of education. It is doing much in that direction. It will be my job to see that this work is continued and made ever more effective. I shall, therefore, expect to spend much time in study of what is being done, and what are the problems facing those concerned with State and community educational activities.

The need for educational facilities—buildings, equipment, and qualified teachers—is a most evident problem. The increasing number of students must be cared for. No one that I know of would want the young people of this generation to have poorer educational advantages than their parents. Yet, unless we do better than at present, that will be true in many parts of this land. We know these young people need better education because they have to meet more complex problems than the present generation. It is therefore obvious that the Office of Education needs to assist States and local communities in their efforts to provide the thousands of added teachers and classrooms to do this job. I am sure that the Office will continue to work with community and State school officials, as well as the many lay professional organizations who are helping to show what are the facts about school and teacher needs and to see that these needs are supplied. It will also help them in their efforts to make able young people see the significance of teaching, and help in those activities which will make teacher education and teaching in the communities attract and retain more such persons for the schools.

There is one other interest of mine that I am sure is shared by all in the Office of Education, by educators, and by laymen interested in education. It is the content and spirit of education. I am much more concerned about what is learned, how well it is learned, and for what it is being learned than that those who study go through the motions for any given length of time. It is my hope that the Office of Education can devote much of its energies to helping in those activities which will make education in this country develop more understanding, more devoted, and more competent citizens for the kind of American democracy that we all hope for.

What Does a School Building Cost?

by Ray L. Hamon and Nelson E. Viles
School Housing Section

THIS INFORMATION on school building unit costs was derived from Office of Education data developed from the Controlled Materials Program. These data provided information on total costs, square footage, time of starting, number of classrooms, and the amounts of critical materials used. This report, however, is limited to public elementary and secondary school building unit cost data.

Original cost estimates made at the time of application for allotments of building materials were later checked by a follow-up study after the buildings were erected or substantially completed. Of the 3,003 buildings reported herein, follow-up checks were made on 98 percent of the cases. The Office provided reporting instructions in an attempt to obtain comparable data, and spot checks indicate a fair degree of accuracy.

The original reports included data on building additions, on remodeling, and on some mixed-type construction. Because of difficulty in making valid comparisons on such building projects, however, they are not included. This report on school building unit costs is limited to new school buildings.

Types of Schools.—Data included in this report cover public elementary and secondary (junior and/or senior high) schools without indicating the grades taught in each. Information is available on separate junior high schools. In a few instances, the number of secondary school building cases in certain categories was limited; thus it seemed advisable to combine the secondary schools.

Types of Construction.—As per instructions, buildings were classified as:

Fire-resistive—Construction entirely of fire-resistive materials, or with fire-resistive bearing and partition walls, floor slabs, stairways, and ceilings.

Semifire-resistive—Fire-resistive bearing walls, corridors, and stairways, with ordinary construction otherwise.

Combustible—All frame, or fire-resistive veneer on wood frame, or fire-resistive bearing walls, and otherwise combustible construction.

COMMUNITIES throughout the Nation built approximately 50,000 new classrooms last year. The year before they built about 47,000. Another 50,000 classrooms will be constructed this year.

What classrooms cost, therefore, is of vital interest today in town and city as school administrators and teachers exert every effort to provide the kind of classroom environment all children should have.

SCHOOL LIFE presents this information in outline and summary fashion from records submitted to the Office of Education by school systems during the Korean emergency period when certain critical materials had to be safeguarded for defense purposes, but were allocated, as required, for educational construction. This is the first time that facts and statistics of this type—for the Nation as a whole, and for geographical regions—have been available.

Square Foot Areas.—Gross floor area of each building was computed as the sum of the square feet of all floors within the building perimeter at the respective floor levels.

Classrooms.—The term "classrooms" includes regular classrooms and special classrooms such as laboratories, homemaking, art, music, business education, and shops of various types. Gymnasiums, auditoriums, lunchrooms, and other general-use rooms were reported separately, and regardless of their use were not counted as classrooms.

Time of Construction.—All of the 3,003 school buildings included in this report were erected during the time of, and with materials allotted under, the Controlled Materials Program. Applications to start work came principally between July 1951 and September 1952, with a few as early as June 1951, and a few as late as November 1952. During this time there was an increase in building costs of a little over 6 percent. This difference did not seem to justify adjusting all costs to a common cost level.

Costs of Projects.—Costs are *exclusive* of land, professional fees, furniture, and equipment which is not an integral part of the building. The cost data as reported herein are, therefore, quite different from the total capital outlay expenditures for complete school plants.

Source of Data.—The original data on the number of buildings, the number of classrooms, the types of construction, the square feet of floor area, and the costs were

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Thousands of Migrant Children Not in School!

What are some States and communities doing about it?

by Paul E. Blackwood, Specialist for Elementary Education

WHEN SCHOOL started last fall thousands of children of agricultural migrant workers were not present in school. There are various reasons why they were missing. Maybe their parents thought the family would be moving soon, and they felt it wasn't worth the trouble to start. Maybe the parents did not know the children were expected to go to school. Perhaps they knew but did not feel that the children were really welcome. Maybe they wanted the children to be in school but did not have suitable clothes for them to wear. In a few instances children were probably working in the crops during school hours.*

During the months since school started many families have moved from one community to another. Some have moved several times. In many instances, the children have not enrolled in school in the new communities. The reasons may be the same as those mentioned above.

A major problem, then, of States and local school communities is how to get migrant children into school so that educational opportunities may be made available to them. Throughout the country school leaders are working on the problem.

One way of encouraging attendance is through letters prepared for distribution to all teachers and school administrators in the affected areas reminding them of the anticipated arrival of migrant children, of the responsibility of the school, and suggesting some specific ways to help the children when they attend school.

Letter to Teachers

The county superintendent of Morgan County, Colo., used a letter to teachers to good advantage. The letter follows.

To All Morgan County Teachers:

If you have taught in Morgan County, you are aware that many migrant families come in to our area in the spring. This year 1,650 workers are expected in April. This number does not include children under 14. In other years most of these children have not entered our schools. This year with the cooperation of the Great Western Sugar Company, the school administrators of the County are inviting these families to send their children to school; we are assuring them that they will be welcome. The Great Western field men are handing out our letters in Spanish giving this information.

This plan cannot succeed without your cooperation. You and your pupils in your room are the ones that will help us make this welcome sincere. Too often these children are poorly prepared or have not been to school. Let us not add to their confusion by calling attention to these deficiencies. Do not strive to teach them all they may have missed; neither do we want them to sit neglected. If these children can see that school is a happy place where they can learn, we are hoping that they will want to enter next fall at the beginning of the term. Although some may be "behind" in reading and arithmetic, remember they can contribute. They have traveled. Let them tell about places they have seen, things they have done, how they travel, etc. They often do well in music, art, and physical education.

Children should be assigned to show new pupils the locations of the lunch rooms, to explain other school routines, bus procedure, etc. Most of the children understand English. Your pupils can cooperate further by inviting children living near them to come to school even if it is almost over.

If you need desks, let me know. We have old type desks available in various sizes. Rural teachers, I have in the office review workbooks so that you may give a child something constructive to do at his level of achievement. If you see a need for clothing, call me.

Your cooperation will be much appreciated by me and by your local administrator.

Sincerely,
County Supt. of Schools.

Letter to School Officials

In Pennsylvania, the Department of Public Instruction has sent a letter to school officials to help them prepare for the reception of migrant children in school. The content of this letter is somewhat different from the superintendent's letter to teachers in Morgan County, Colo.

To School Officials in Areas Having Migratory Workers With School Children:

In certain areas of Pennsylvania there are times during the year when migratory families with children of compulsory school age arrive for the purpose of seasonal employment. The General Assembly of Pennsylvania has recognized the need for educating these children and has placed the responsibility for their education upon the school district where they are temporarily domiciled. For the convenience of school officials, we are reviewing items which are important in connection with the education of migratory children.

The law requires that the school census include migratory children. A migratory child, as defined in Section 1326 of the School Laws, is a child who is domiciled temporarily in any school district for the purpose of seasonal employment and any child accompanying his parent or guardian who is so domiciled. The law also requires

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*The employment in agriculture of migrant workers under 16 years of age during school hours is illegal according to the Amended Fair Labor Standards Act, effective in 1950.

An International Core—A Challenge to Education

by Oliver J. Caldwell, Assistant Commissioner for International Education

MY DAUGHTER is one of hundreds of thousands of young Americans who will graduate from high school this year. She expects to go on to a good college next year. She is a good student in an excellent public school. But at the age of 18 she will pass through the ceremony of commencement on to the threshold of maturity, with very little preparation for living in an international world.

Americans today have responsibilities they did not have 30 years ago; yet I can see little difference between the curriculum she has followed for more than 11 years, and will follow for at least 5 more years, and that to which my generation was exposed. The world has changed, America has changed, but in many schools the curriculum and the textbooks have not kept pace with our changing society. I realize that there are many changes in many schools, yet I wonder if in general our schools have effectively met the challenge of a changing world.

More Effective Citizens

It isn't a matter of training Americans for world citizenship. It is a matter of making young Americans more useful and effective citizens in an America which has emerged during this century from the status of a second-class power to a position of world leadership and responsibility unparalleled in history. Whether or not we succeed in fulfilling the new responsibilities we face as a nation depends in a large measure on possessing as a foundation for our foreign policy two things: an intelligent, informed, and dynamic public opinion, and an adequate number of citizens properly trained to serve at every level, and in many capacities, both in the Government and out of it, in positions related to our international relations and responsibilities.

It may be objected that our major responsibility is training good citizens within the framework of local, State, and National obligations, rather than in an international framework. But I don't think it is an "either-or" proposition. I suggest that we could do a better job of citizenship training all along the line.

One important responsibility of our public education is to develop citizens who are intelligently and accurately informed about the nature of the world in which they live, so that they may make up their own minds regarding the major world issues we face as a nation. We should also be training large numbers of people to work in the international field both here and abroad. We are not fully successful on either front, and I believe our failure is at least in part a result of a curriculum which is inadequate for this purpose.

The stage on which our children will play their parts is the whole world. Soon (in eyes of history) this stage may be Space, where our lamp, the sun, is hung. Like children we all are playing with enormous energies, the forces of creation, which are potentially capable either of destroying us or of carrying us into an age of immense and richly rewarding adventure, the like of which man has never known. Awareness of these facts is in the ground swell of our consciousness. The writers of our comic books are sometimes more perceptive, although under less public obligation, than the writers of our textbooks.

Recently I inspected a new world history designed for use in high schools. Of some 500 pages, only 20 ventured east of Suez. Of course, there were numerous casual references to Asiatic and African peoples, but generally on the basis of their impact on our ancestors. It seemed to me egocentric and a poor introduction to the modern world and its problems.

One of the reasons why more is not done to develop a more realistic kind of education for our children is the timidity created by the attacks on UNESCO. What I propose has nothing to do with world citizenship in the political sense. I am concerned by the need to strengthen our defenses, by enabling young Americans to work more effectively in the kind of world in which they find themselves.

During the Second World War the Armed Forces found it necessary to establish many special training schools which crammed a working knowledge of many languages and strange cultures into hundreds of thousands of men in uniform. This knowledge was necessary to the winning of a war, and it had not been provided by our formal educational establishment. Such knowledge is at least as important to the winning of the peace, but the mass training by the Defense Departments ended long ago, and in spite of the establishment of a few graduate schools specializing in area studies, and a few other stirrings here and there, the American profession of education has failed to grasp the challenge of the present scene.

The Big Problem

The big problem is how to get up a new head of steam. We need a basic review of the philosophy of public education in relation to our new obligation as responsible participants in the world. Out of this review should come a new concept of the function of education in developing Americans for citizenship in a rapidly changing world. The next step would be a modification of our basic curriculum at all levels to include courses and materials based on the realities of the world in which we live. Then our teacher-training institutions and our universities would need to change their

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America—Alert!

by Dana B. Roblee, School Relations Officer, Federal Civil Defense Administration

THE OPERATION, which has been designed to prevent recurrence of broadcast signals being useful as homing devices for enemy aircraft, has been given the title "CONELRAD"—an abbreviation for CONtrol of ELectromagnetic RADiation. Under the CONELRAD system, all regular AM, FM, and TV programs will be discontinued. All participating stations will lose their normal broadcasting identity; they will readjust to a low broadcast power and fixed kilocycle setting. All broadcasts will be received on AM (Standard) radio dial settings of 640 and 1240. These are the kilocycle settings agreed upon for air raid programs by the Nation's broadcasters working with the Federal Civil Defense Administration, the U. S. Air Force, and the Federal Communications Commission.

To receive programs in an emergency period, dials must be tuned to one of the designated settings. In larger cities a radio may pick up the waves from half a dozen local transmitters—as many as reach the antennae under the standard broadcast range; however, the broadcasts will be precisely synchronized so that a shift from one station to another will not interrupt continuity of the program over the receiving radio. As direction of the source is shifted from one transmitter to another, usefulness of the radio waves as navigational aids to approaching bombers is reduced to a minimum. In smaller communities listeners will hear their local station interpose radio silence between broadcasts as part of the "planned confusion" to an attacking enemy aircraft.

Not only does CONELRAD render beams useless as navigation aids to enemy aircraft; it has positive values as well. It maintains a channel of communication which helps to prevent families and occupants of air-raid shelters from feeling isolated. It enables civil defense authorities to advise and direct households and other groups on protective measures to be taken. Over their radios, listeners, under tension in homes and public air raid shelters, will receive clear unimpassioned instructions from a command post. The danger of panic engendered by solitude will be lessened. In short, listeners will find CONELRAD to be a source of responsible guidance and information in event of an attack on the American homeland.

Effectiveness of CONELRAD in withholding the navigational aid that enemy aircraft might get from radio beams is assured by the ingenious mechanics of the plan. However, its contribution to the security of our civilian population will depend in large measure on the active cooperation of the Nation's school and youth organizations. Will the American population—all ages—come to realize fully the importance of this system of radio communication in times of danger? Will knowledge of CONELRAD'S operation—its key dial settings and its planned service in disaster situations—become a common learning of *all* American people?

Consideration of the CONELRAD system brings into focus the interdependence of man and the effectiveness he realizes through group solidarity and cooperation. Resources of responsible citizens have been preorganized to carry out the CONELRAD plan. A radio warning may originate at a faraway point. The message of impending danger and directions for meeting disaster are sped over channels of communication to home radios.

Here is protective citizenship in action!

There are compelling duties—social opportunities—particularly adapted to young persons' interests and activities which will bring CONELRAD to high effectiveness in national protection. For example, how will the key points—640 and 1240—on radio dials be made ready for instant use on every radio? By flagging the points on the dials. The FCDA has designed a small sticker that may be attached to the glass or plastic coverings of radio dials. If these markers are placed on every automobile and home radio, a tremendous national service will have been performed.

In contributing to this important part of the CONELRAD program, opportunities for many educational values are brought to the fore. It is an educational resource for a wide variety of projects such as: (1) Class consideration—exploration and discussion—of conditions which have brought about development of the CONELRAD plan; (2) student's working cooperatively in a joint project with the parent-teachers organization to render the community prepared for a civil defense emergency; (3) developing social skills in getting cooperation of owners in flagging the key points on their radio dials; or (4) getting wide dissemination of information about the use of CONELRAD through all possible channels—school and community newspapers, assembly programs, posters, etc.

For older pupils, CONELRAD understandings suggest new horizons in areas of communication and air navigation. The how and whys of the system pose a challenge to the scientific minds of secondary school pupils. They want to know: (1) The mechanics of the process by which radio beams may be helpful to enemy aircraft; (2) how CONELRAD has a confusing effect on enemy bombers using radio beams for guidance; or (3) why CONELRAD provides for power and kilocycle standardization of broadcasts. In these and

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Class Size in High School English

by Arno Jewett, Specialist for Language Arts

OUR CLASSES are too large to get proper results, a high school principal declared recently. "Large classes limit the individual attention any teacher can give to student difficulties. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why many of our faculty members appear tired and worn out. I believe far more efficient work can be done with classes limited to 25."

Most of the research on effects of class size on learning was done between 1920 and 1935. Results of this research generally indicated that pupils in large classes were not handicapped in their subject-matter achievement as measured by standardized tests. Classroom teachers, however, are not convinced that large classes are as desirable as smaller classes for developing pupils' personality traits, citizenship qualities, social behavior, and even academic skills.

Most experienced high school English teachers in schools with over 500 enrolled seem to think that the ideal size for a language arts class is 25 students. This belief was reported in a study by Ellsworth Tompkins in 1949.[1] These teachers, who had median seniority in their English department in public high schools of over 500, believed that classes with more than 30 pupils were too large for efficient instruction.

However, in spite of professional opinions and controlled research on class size, no one knows how large a high school English class should be in order to obtain optimum learning by students at the lowest cost per pupil and the least wear and tear on the teacher.

There is probably no maximum class size which is equally desirable for all teachers and all schools. Energetic, healthy, intelligent teachers who know how to adjust their teaching methods and assignments according to varied pupil needs and interests may be able to instruct classes of 35 or more students, provided certain instructional resources are available. These aids include adequate classroom space, a diversity of teaching materials, and readily accessible information on the social and educational background of each child.

Besides class size, total teaching load is a factor in a teacher's ability to teach large classes effectively. Time necessary for classroom preparation, for extracurricular leadership, for routine clerical duties, and for curriculum revision is another factor. If extraclass responsibilities are heavy, if teaching materials are meager, if the teacher is inexperienced, and if a wide range of abilities and interests exists within the class, 25 students is probably a much more desirable class size than 35 students.

What are the facts concerning class size in secondary school English classes? The Educational Research Service of the American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association reported that for 1949–50 the median size of classes in 11 English departments in secondary schools in cities between 30,000 and 100,000 was 30.2 pupils in the junior high school and 27.9 pupils in senior high school. In cities between 100,000 and 500,000 the median size of English classes in junior high schools was 31.8; in senior high schools, 28.7. In cities of over 500,000 the median size of English classes in junior high schools was 35.6; in senior high schools, 31.6.[2] The Educational Research Service reports, ". . . it appears that smaller school systems generally have smaller classes at all school levels."[3]

Statistics concerning median class size in English, however, do not reveal the extent to which large classes in English are to be found in American public high schools. (In this paper a *large class* will denote one containing 30 or more students; a *small class will* denote a class with fewer than 20 students.)

[1] Ellsworth Tompkins, *What Teachers Say About Class Size,* Office of Education Circular No. 311 (Washington, 1949), pp. 3–5.

[2] National Education Association, Research Division and American Association of School Administrators, *Size of Class in 185 Public-School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population, 1949–50,* Educational Research Circular No. 6, 1950 (Washington, 1950), p. 7.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 6.

Table I.—Class size in English in junior high schools with over 300 enrolled, by region

Region	Total number of classes	Classes with 0–9 pupils		Classes with 10–19 pupils		Classes with 20–29 pupils		Classes with 30–39 pupils		Classes with 40–49 pupils		Classes with 50 or more pupils	
		Number	Percent	Number	Per, cent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Northeast [1]	2,426	7	0.3	92	3.8	813	33.5	1,440	59.4	74	3.0	.....	.....
North Central [2]	1,678	8	.5	66	3.9	624	37.2	943	56.2	30	1.8	7	0.4
South [3]	1,799	.....	.....	56	3.1	462	25.7	1,099	61.1	171	9.5	11	.6
West [4]	1,768	1	.1	75	4.2	337	19.1	1,293	73.1	62	3.5	.....	.....
United States	7,671	16	.2	289	3.8	2,236	29.1	4,775	62.3	337	4.4	18	.2

[1] Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania.

[2] Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas.

[3] Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas.

[4] Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, Washington, Oregon, California.

To determine the percentage of English classes of various sizes in American public secondary schools enrolling over 300 pupils, the author obtained replies from English teachers in 850 junior, senior, and 4-year regular high schools. This information was included in the responses to a detailed questionnaire "Provisions for Rapid- and Slow-Learning Pupils," which was sent to 1,200 public secondary schools enrolling over 300 pupils. Combined junior-senior high schools were not included in the study. Data on class size in a total of 16,871 English classes in high schools representative of all regions of America were obtained.

As shown in table I below, only 3.8 percent of the English classes in junior high schools of over 300 in the Northeast section of the United States range in pupil size from 10 to 19; but 59.4 percent of the classes enroll from 30 to 39 pupils. Three percent of the classes contain from 40 to 49 pupils.

Slightly lower percentages of large classes in junior high schools of over 300 were found in the North Central region than in other regions. Classes having 30 to 39 students constituted 56.2 percent of the English classes reported by schools in that region.

In the South, 61.1 percent of the junior high school English classes ranged from 30 to 39 pupils. Classes between 40 and 49 made up 9.5 percent of the classes in the sample population.

The largest percentage of classes enrolling 30 or more students in junior high school English classes was found in the West. As shown by table I, 73.1 percent of the English classes in schools over 300 were between 30 and 39 in pupil size; and 3.5 percent were between 40 and 49 in pupil size.

In 3-year senior high schools over 300, English classes were generally smaller than in other types of schools. In the Northeast and North Central regions more than half of the classes in 3-year senior high schools ranged from 20 to 29 pupils. Classes between 30 and 39 pupils constituted 26.5 percent of the English classes in the Northeast and 25.2 percent in the North Central regions. However, classes in the South and West were considerably larger. In the South the percentage of classes between 30 and 39 pupils was slightly larger than the percent of classes between 20 and 29 pupils; the percent of classes having between 40 and 49 pupils was 4.8. Again the highest percentage of large classes was found in the West, which reported 47.6 percent of its classes as enrolling 30 to 39 pupils. In the Northeast, over 16 percent of the English classes were reported as having fewer than 20 pupils. (See table II.)

Table II.—Class size in English in 3-year senior high schools with over 300 enrolled

Region	Total number of classes	Classes with 0–9 pupils		Classes with 10–19 pupils		Classes with 20–29 pupils		Classes with 30–39 pupils		Classes with 40–49 pupils		Classes with 50 or more pupils	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Northeast [1]	1,032	17	1.6	150	14.5	582	56.4	273	26.5	10	1.0	.....	.....
North Central [1]	688	13	1.9	87	12.6	415	60.3	173	25.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
South [1]	714	7	1.0	68	9.5	302	42.3	303	42.4	34	4.8	.....	.....
West [1]	349	.....	.....	36	10.3	141	40.4	166	47.6	6	1.7	.....	.....
United States	2,783	37	1.3	341	12.3	1,440	51.7	915	32.9	50	1.8	.....	.....

[1] See footnotes, table I.

In 4-year regular high schools of over 300, more English classes were large in the Northeast and North Central regions than in the 3-year senior high schools in these regions. However, the South and West reported a lower percentage of large classes in the 4-year high school than in the 3-year senior high school. In all regions except the South, small classes (below 20 pupils) made up approximately 10 percent of the total number of English classes.

In what size community are the largest English classes likely to be found? The answer is that they are much more prevalent in cities over 500,000 than in cities and towns below that size. Classes with over 30 pupils in cities over 500,000 in the Northeast are much more common than in other cities and towns in the same region. Seventy-three percent of the English classes in Northeast cities over 500,000 range in size from 30 to 39; in the North Central region, 61 percent of the English classes in cities over 500,000 range from 30 to 39. Although only 54.5 percent of the English classes in cities over 500,000 in the South were between 30 and 39, over 20 percent of the English classes contained 40 or more pupils.

In cities over 500,000 the largest percentage of English classes enrolling 30 or more students was found in the West. Almost 80 percent of the classes were 30 or more in size. Seventy-seven percent of the English classes in these cities ranged between 30 and 39.

These facts concerning class size suggest numerous questions relating to English instruction. How do classes over 30, 35, or 40 affect the learning of basic communication skills under the average teacher? How do large classes in language arts influence the teacher in the kind and amount of written assignments she gives her students? How do large classes affect the morale and health of beginning teachers, as well as experienced ones, and their willingness to remain in the profession? In a study of the supply of teachers in California, James C. Stone has reported that "A number of teachers with regular credentials and with one to three years of teaching experience are resigning each year because of the fact that beginning teachers are often given larger classes and more exacting assignments than experienced teachers." [4]

However, there seems to be little hope that English classes will become smaller during the next 5 to 10 years. Three out of every five classrooms are overcrowded. School construction is falling behind classroom needs. Holding power of the high school is increasing. And the first great wave of war-born youth is surging from the doors of the elementary school into the already overflowing rooms of the junior high schools. According to statistics released August 26, 1953, by the Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, public and private secondary schools will enroll 7,302,000 students this year. This figure represents an increase of 274,000 over last year.

There is even some evidence that fewer college students are completing professional requirements necessary to qualify themselves as high school teachers of English.

[4] James C. Stone, "Supply and Demand: Certificated Personnel in California Public Schools, 1953, With Forecast for 1958," *California Schools*, July 1953, p. 294.

(*Continued on page 46*)

Begin Wit

Many Communities Use Citizen

"What would you do if you were in charge of the public schools in your community?"

"Do you consider today's teachers well-trained?"

"Do you think children read as well as you did when you were a child?"

"Should schools prepare students for a definite job?"

In the use of a public opinion poll to determine the views of their citizens, many school systems have found a valuable tool to build more effective community information programs. A poll determines the problems that exist. It shows where the school may have been failing in its purpose, where it has succeeded, and where it may be misunderstood because it has failed to get its story across. When the school knows what the preconceived ideas and evaluations of its citizens are, it is able to base its public relations on facts rather than guesses. A factual survey not only provides information important for present administration and future school development, but also brings the school to the home and the home to the school. It stimulates community interest and cooperation in working for better schools.

A Good School

A good school is one that meets the needs of its youth as individuals and members of society. In pioneer days there was no question about the part the school played: it taught the three R's, and the close-knit community and family provided the rest. During the 19th century, the country grew, the school became less integrated with the community, and there was little in common between what was taught in the school and life in the community.

Two World Wars and enormous technological and social changes lessened the gulf between schools and community life. Citizens associations for the schools grew; school surveys were made; the schools initiated vocational training, established courses in such subjects as music appreciation and public speaking, and accepted responsibility in training youth in citizenship, discipline, honesty, family life.

Far From Perfect

However, as the daily paper points out, the picture is far from perfect. Often schools are hampered by out-of-date State laws and constitutions and by local tradition. The instability of many homes and the mobility of people in general add to their problems. Effective action on such widespread difficulties as overcrowding, teacher shortage, insufficient salaries, and civic indifference of youth, can come only through the combined and harmonious efforts of laymen and educators.

Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois, is an example of the results which can be obtained by united action. There a community of 17,000 vigorous young family people, through its citizens committee, board of education, and architect, developed and executed plans for a modern $1,600,000 high school, which was cut and tailored to its own educational philosophy. Citizens committees began the work by distributing a questionnaire to each home to find out what kind of courses, services, and facilities the school should provide. The results indicated that the people wanted a community school emphasizing practical citizenship training and broad cultural course offerings rather than vocational education.

Without finding out what the people wanted, Rich Township could not have built for the educational needs and desires of its residents so successfully. Another community might find that its families wanted additional practical courses rather than general ones. With differing goals, problems to be solved, and resources available, each town or city can best take its own educational measurements.

The initiative for surveying citizens attitudes toward their schools is not necessarily local. It may be done on a statewide basis. For example, the North Carolina State Education Commission prepared and distributed a questionnaire, "Opinions of Citizens About North Carolina Schools"; and in Michigan in 1951 the late Commissioner of Education, Lee M. Thurston, then State Superintendent of the Department of Public Instruction, distributed a questionnaire, "How Would You Answer This?" to all superintendents. This was designed by the Michigan Commission on Educational Policies to learn from the public what they would do if they were in charge of public schools of their community. The applicability of this questionnaire is evidenced by its later adoption as a sample by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools.

No Axe To Grind

The poll to find out what people want must first of all be completely impartial. It will be of little value if there is any public feeling that the questionnaire was slanted by school authorities or anyone with an axe to grind. To accomplish objectivity the undertaking may be turned over to a public opinion research agency, or a questionnaire such as that published in the National Citizens Commission guidebook, *How Can We Organize For Better Schools?* can be adapted by a citizens committee and school administration for local use.

Publicity is a most vital part of the poll—AFTER the tabulation has been made. No publicity should be given the

he People
s To Help Improve Their Schools

poll in advance. The purpose of the poll is to obtain a true expression of public opinion. Discussion and debate could result in the conditioning of opinion—especially if there were a small but vocal minority in the community.

What the Citizens Think

Whatever the form of the questionnaire, it should find out what the citizens think of their schools and what changes they think ought to be made. It should cover personal adjustment as well as the effectiveness of the acquisition of information, for example:

How good a job do you feel the schools do nowadays in developing:

	Good	*Fair*	*Poor*
Politeness			
Honesty			
A Pleasing Personality			
Good Citizenship			
Discipline (in the school)			

In your opinion, are today's youngsters who have finished grammar school as well educated as you were when you finished grammar school?

It is as important whom you ask as what you ask. The results of a poll will not reflect public opinion if the questionnaires are not widely distributed. In smaller communities, a questionnaire may be sent to each house. It has been found that the greatest percentage of return is usually obtained by sending questionnaires home with children in elementary grades to be returned in a day or so. Since about 50 percent of homes have children, a wide sampling will be obtained by sending an additional questionnaire with each child to be given a neighbor. Other methods of distribution include mailing to a list from the city directory, telephone book, or voters list; selecting the parents of every fifth child in school, or the parents in every other grade; distributing through civic groups; and on-the-spot answering after speeches by school authorities. If the poll covers the secondary school, don't forget the pupils and youth groups.

Tabulation will be done by the public opinion research agency if one is employed, or it may be an excellent project for the civics class. Some sorting—as for those who do and do not have children in school, those who do or do not own property, or those who think the schools are or are not doing a good job—is valuable in evaluating the survey.

Now the poll is ready for publicity. It cannot have too much. The findings of the poll should be well distributed and interpreted to members of the school board, school administration, community leaders, and organizations, press, and radio.

Lack of Information

Criticism of schools sometimes stems from lack of information on their operation. On the one hand an objective survey brings to light those areas in which the public may be ignorant or misinformed. Such information provides invaluable material for school publicity and speeches by educators.

On the other hand, a survey may show that there is general public agreement to do something the school board has regarded as controversial—such as the teaching of sex education or instruction in the understanding of religion. In seeking to identify problems, the board can thus avoid being misled by a minority opinion.

Finally, the poll provides educators and citizens with a blueprint for the future—a goal toward which cooperative action may be taken. In exercising the dynamic democracy of frontier days, the public may find it also recaptures the school which lives not sterilely apart from the community but vigorously meets the needs of every day living.

> Send to SCHOOL LIFE the story of your experience in the use of opinion polls in your school's program.

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Progress Report of Elementary-School Science

by Glenn O. Blough and Paul E. Blackwood, Specialists for Science

MANY THINGS point to an increased interest in the teaching of science at the elementary level. Yearbooks, bulletins, textbooks, meetings, workshops, and other educational means are being used to help teachers improve their teaching and provide assistance in curriculum building. On the State level many things are happening that may be of general interest. The following brief statements represent such information as has recently come to our attention from many States.

Alabama has a number of study groups and preschool conferences throughout the State that spend much time in the field of science. They also plan to extend the number of science workshops.

Alaska reports that a general course of study or bulletin, which will include science, is in preparation.

Arizona has prepared, through cooperative endeavor, a teaching guide in science which will be tried out in mimeographed form this year. Next year the major emphasis will be on the teaching of science.

Arkansas hopes to improve its science teaching through an in-service program that as yet is in the thought stage.

California reports two active associations composed of teachers and administrators, one in Northern California, the other in Southern California. The State department works through these associations to improve the science teaching. Workshops are held during the summer at colleges and universities. The State bulletin on *Science Education in the Elementary School* is now out of print, but there are plans to revise and reissue it.

Colorado stresses conservation in its school program, and several in-service workshops are in progress in the State.

Connecticut State Department is working with a newly formed science association (elementary and secondary) through in-service groups cooperating in producing a new elementary school guide.

Delaware plans to improve science teaching through in-service education. Science teaching suggestions are included in general elementary bulletin.

Florida has published its science bulletin separately and includes science in its overall plan for improvement of instruction.

Georgia reports that many local systems have well-planned and well-organized in-service teacher-education programs. Systems are encouraged to develop science curriculum materials at the local levels. There are science textbooks in every system. Summer workshops, consultative services, regional clinics, and science fairs are stimulated by the State department.

Hawaii reports plans to improve teaching through university courses and workshops.

Iowa reports a bulletin in the process of preparation that may be issued separately. Camping and conservation education are essential considerations in the science program.

Kansas has plans for implementing its separately published science bulletin through teachers college workshops.

Kentucky State Department indicates that it has plans for improving elementary science instruction both through publications and in-service education.

Louisiana expects to receive a new general handbook from the printer shortly; in it there is a section on science. The State department is planning a curriculum study in science which will culminate with the production of a science handbook for grades 1–12. It has plans for workshops sponsored by local school systems and the State department as well as plans for college workshops.

Maine indicates tentative plans for improving science instruction through work conferences and publications. One section of a *Primary Guide* is ready for publication.

Maryland is promoting science through local workshops, discussion, and demonstrations. Science is a part of every school's program. Bulletins are published by local systems.

Michigan reports that it has conducted workshops and conferences in all areas of the State and that science is usually one of the needs expressed by the teachers at these events. The department encourages

State Departments work with universities and colleges to give teachers experiences in "making" and "doing" in science. This workshop at the University of Indiana provides opportunity for teachers that will result in better teaching and learning for thousands of boys and girls.

science teaching throughout the elementary schools as part of the total program.

Mississippi reports plans for improving instruction in science through publications and in-service education.

Missouri will have copies of its general curriculum bulletin (of which science is a part) ready for distribution after October 15. It presents a fused program of science and social studies. About 15 pilot centers have been established in the State to plan ways of using the bulletin.

Montana reports that its colleges offer workshops during the summer and that conservation groups have made scholarships available to many teachers. Several counties are sponsoring field trips for the study of conservation.

Nebraska included science as one of the considerations at its last summer's supervisors workshop and has a separately published science bulletin.

Nevada hopes to have a science outline ready for distribution shortly. It was developed in a 1953 summer workshop. The department is also "moving slowly" toward the printing of a revised or new course of study.

New Jersey is at work on a science bulletin and hopes to make it cover kindergarten through twelfth grade. Science workshops are held in many parts of the State.

New Mexico has a separate publication on elementary science under way and has plans for increasing in-service aid to teachers. The teaching of elementary science is considered extremely important in the public schools of New Mexico and is included in the curriculum beginning in the first grade.

New Hampshire reports plans for workshops and extension courses and reevaluation plans for the Teachers College Program in elementary science offerings.

New York is revising its handbook on the teaching of elementary school science and has set the present school year as the publication date. The field service of the State department will strengthen its program through conferences, workshops, and individual assistance. Instruction in science in New York State is planned as a 13-year program. In the elementary school it is concerned with the "how and why" of the child's environment. In the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades science instruction is more comprehensive, and in the last 3 years of the secondary school it becomes a more detailed study of specific fields.

North Carolina's new elementary science bulletin is at the printers. Many teachers and other educators have been involved in its preparation, and plans are under way to introduce the publication through local workshops, discussions, professional study.

North Dakota hopes to have useful publications available to help the science program in the school and is active in in-service education.

Ohio reports use of workshops that emphasize science as part of the elementary curriculum and has a separately published science bulletin.

Oregon reports plans for improving instructions through production of guides and through an in-service program. There is a State bulletin.

Pennsylvania is in the planning stage of developing a publication that will help teachers to better understand and implement the teaching of science as part of a social living area. The social living area includes: geography, history, civics, elementary science, and social learnings. The publication will be done through a statewide

(*Continued on page 47*)

America's Great Voice

by Ward W. Keesecker*

THE YOUTH OF AMERICA, through their teachers, should hear and understand the great voice of America—and that voice is a positive one. The American people by their native genius, stimulated by their religious and political concepts of individual liberty, have produced the greatest scientific, industrial, and political power the world has ever known.

What is the great voice of America? And where may it be heard?

The great voice of America must be sought for in the ideals, principles, and faith upon which our American Republic was founded and which have made the Nation strong and great. Our ideals of religious and political freedom, more than those of any other nation, have stimulated private initiative, invention, and scientific and industrial might.

The voice of America may be heard in our schools and in our churches. Our Nation's voice and its future strength resounds from the vibrant voices of millions of young Americans in the songs they sing and in the avowed faith and words: "I pledge allegiance to the Flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands * * *." This great voice of our country is heard in the roar of its dynamos, motors, and great factories of production. It may be heard in the sizzling crash of white-hot furnaces turning out great quantities of steel for national defense and domestic development. It is heard in the hum of our atomic energy plants. It is heard from our mighty aircraft fleets. It resounds from the measured cadences of the marching feet of our army of men, and from a united people advancing under the Star-Spangled Banner in defense of our ideals and homeland and of world peace. This is the kind of voice which the Communist world and its leaders can understand. Let this great voice of America be heard in all its fullness. In the words of Abraham Lincoln, as he observed with respect to reverence for the law, "Let it be taught in the schools; in seminaries; in colleges; let it be written in primers, spelling books, and almanacs; let it be preached from the pulpit, proclaimed in legislative halls * * *. And in short, let it become the political religion of the Nation."

If education in America will imbue youth with an understanding of the great voice of America, its ideals of freedom and its industrial might, and if by policies of international good will and diplomacy and by radio and television this voice is heard and reflected among the nations of the world, we need have no fear for the future destiny of America. Communism will languish, and America will assume its rightful place in world leadership and in world peace. We may then go on, swelling again the cause of the Republic, adding peace to the world and "giving light unto the nations, liberty to man, and honor to God."

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*Dr. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation, Office of Education, is also the author of "Education in American Ideals of Freedom—The High Calling of Teachers," SCHOOL LIFE, May 1953. This statement is an appropriate companion piece of the former article.

School Building Cost

(Continued from page 34)

1. Northern New England
MAINE
NEW HAMPSHIRE
VERMONT

2. Upper Atlantic
CONNECTICUT
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW JERSEY
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
RHODE ISLAND
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

3. Middle East
KENTUCKY
NORTH CAROLINA
TENNESSEE
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA

4. Southeast
ALABAMA
FLORIDA
GEORGIA
MISSISSIPPI
SOUTH CAROLINA

5. Southwest
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS

6. East North Central
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
MICHIGAN
OHIO
WISCONSIN

7. West North Central
IOWA
KANSAS

7. West North Central—Continued
MINNESOTA
MISSOURI
NEBRASKA
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA

8. Mountain
ARIZONA
COLORADO
IDAHO
MONTANA
NEW MEXICO
UTAH
WYOMING

9. Far West
CALIFORNIA
NEVADA
OREGON
WASHINGTON

The tabulations in this report provide information on 3,003 new school buildings, with 43,339 classrooms, divided as indicated in tables 1 and 2.

Table 1.—Number of School Buildings

Type school	Fire-resistive	Semifire-resistive	Combustible	Total
Elementary	1,332	758	244	2,334
Junior High	120	25	18	163
Senior High	361	121	24	506
Total	1,813	904	286	3,003

Table 2.—Number of Classrooms

Type school	Fire-resistive	Semifire-resistive	Combustible	Total
Elementary	17,925	8,065	2,688	28,678
Junior High	3,435	516	364	4,315
Senior High	8,172	1,887	287	10,346
Total	29,532	10,468	3,339	43,339

reported directly from local school districts. Costs per square foot, costs per classroom, and building area in square feet per classroom have been derived from field data.

Regions.—Project data were tabulated by States; but, in order to obtain a reasonable sampling by type of school and type of construction, it seemed advisable to group the data from the States of contiguous geographic regions. Although this was done arbitrarily, an attempt was made to obtain the best possible groupings on the basis of construction practices and price levels as well as geography. There was some variation in unit costs among the different States in a given region. There were also substantial differences in unit costs within each State, especially between urban and rural areas. This report makes

(Continued on page 46)

Children Not in School

(Continued from page 35)

that a certificate of vaccination be presented before admitting any child to school. For numerous other reasons it is also advisable to have the official record of the date of birth presented as soon as possible.

Immediately upon withdrawal of the pupil from school the new Transfer Card, Form PICA–23TC, with the attached Receipt, Form PICA–23TCR, should be mailed to the next school which the child expects to attend, when such information is known; otherwise, it should be given to the parent for transmittal. Immediately when a migrant child arrives at a school, the teacher or principal should fill in the "Receipt of Transfer and Request for Health and School Records" and return same to the school where the pupil last attended, so that the records may be forwarded promptly. This procedure will make it possible for the essential records to follow these children. It would be very desirable if the school could provide portfolios for certain records such as the official record of the date of birth, vaccination certificate, report card, and any other incidental information which might be helpful to the new teacher. Such records could thus be kept intact and carried from place to place by the parent to be presented to each new teacher.

These families can make an important contribution to the local educational program, as a result of their experience and travel in connection with seasonal employment. In order that every opportunity may be given migrant children to use the educational facilities in Pennsylvania and in order that our children may profit from the experience of these transitory children, the attached suggested letter of welcome and instruction has been prepared for distribution to these seasonal workers. Will you be kind enough to make arrangements for the distribution of this letter.

Sincerely yours,
Department of Public Instruction.

A second way of getting better attendance is through letters prepared for distribution to migrant parents inviting them to send their children to school.

Letters to Migrant Workers

In Morgan County, Colo., a special letter was prepared for local school superintend-

ents to distribute to growers in their area. It was written in Spanish. Following is a translation of the letter. It was addressed to migrant agricultural workers and given to the workers by sugar company representatives at the time workers were hired.

To New Agricultural Workers in Morgan County

Welcome:

The schools of Morgan County welcome you and your family to Colorado.

We invite you to send your children to school. The ranch owner for whom you work can tell you to what school you should send your children. We want you to know that your children will be welcome to our schools although they remain only a few weeks of this school term. Send them to the school although they may not have attended regularly anywhere else.

They can wear everyday clothes. Our children here use jeans or clothes that can be washed.

We hope your children will like our schools so that you will send them again to begin the next term, that is, in September.

If you have questions see any one of the superintendents whose names are printed at the bottom of this letter.

(Signed by all the superintendents of the schools involved.)

The Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction has likewise prepared a letter for distribution by local school superintendents to migrant families.

To Workers Located in Pennsylvania During the Planting and Harvesting Seasons and Who Have Children of School Age:

Welcome to the Schools of Pennsylvania:

Each year there are many families who come to Pennsylvania to help plant and harvest crops such as peas, beans, tomatoes, potatoes, apples, peaches, and grapes. Without your help, many of these crops could not be planted and harvested. While you are in Pennsylvania we welcome you to our schools. Your children with their wide travel experience and knowledge of crop raising in various parts of the country can be of help to the children in our local schools and at the same time your children will benefit from attending our schools.

The School Laws of Pennsylvania offer your children free public school education. It is your duty and privilege to send them to school and it is the duty of the schools to accept them.

Your children should have the following records with them in order to enter school in Pennsylvania.

(1) Official record of the date of birth

(2) Vaccination certificate

Also, it would help the Pennsylvania school to serve your children better if it had the following records:

(1) Transfer card

(2) Health and dental record

(3) Personal health history

(4) Other available school records

Maybe you have brought these with you. If you have not, have your children come to school anyway and we will help you get the necessary records. We are sure that you will help our schools to get these records.

If you do not have a folder for these records, ask the teacher or principal in the first school your child enters in Pennsylvania to give you one. When you move, these records must either be mailed by the teacher to the next school or given to you to give to the teacher in the next school. Take these records with you wherever you go, so that your children can make the change from one school to another without any trouble or delay.

Sincerely yours,

(Signed by local School Superintendents.)

The use of letters to teachers, to school officials, and to parents of migrant children is of course only one aspect of a broader program for getting migrant children in school. Since, however, it is an important aspect it has been highlighted in this article. Perhaps the letters may be adapted for use in other communities where migrant children are present.

International Core

(Continued from page 36)

current intellectual diet to include materials now almost totally lacking. There should be a revival of interest in languages, and such languages should be taught as early in the school program as experiments indicate to be practicable in our culture. The variety of languages could also be broadened on all levels.

Basically, there should be an international core in every level, from the elementary grades through the 16th year of formal schooling. In grades 1 to 6 I would suggest that this could be achieved generally without much change in the curriculum, but through textbooks and teaching aids, and experiences which bring the children more authentic impressions and information about the world outside America and Western Europe. Experiments in language teaching in elementary schools are now in progress in many cities, including Washington, D. C. These will help us learn how early our schools can profitably begin the teaching of languages.

I would suggest that in junior and senior high school languages should receive a greater emphasis, that literature classes include more great literature in translation, that the social sciences be oriented towards introducing the student to the world as a whole rather than to a part of the world. There might be courses in world geography and elementary anthropology, and the history courses should pay more attention to the Far East, the Arabic nations, South Asia, and South America.

In college, I suggest the development of a solid international core which would be required of all undergraduates, perhaps 16 semester hours in geography, anthropology, world history, comparative government, linguistics, and literature and philosophy in translation.

We should not face another great military crisis as poorly prepared as we were in 1941 to live and to fight in remote regions most Americans will never see. We should be better prepared than we are to accept our responsibility in peacetime in a world in transition. Education has a major responsibility to prepare our young people to live and to work effectively in a world in constant change.

What America has achieved she owes in a large measure to her schools. Our educational system, from the early cross-roads school to the land-grant university, has been functional. As each new social challenge has appeared, educational statesmen have developed solutions and have met the challenge.

Today, in the time of our greatest national crisis, our educational statesmen face their greatest opportunity to serve the American people.

America—Alert!

(*Continued from page 37*)

myriad of other ways, youth will search out the scientific aspects of disaster radio broadcasting.

Studies of outcome from CONELRAD techniques are appropriate for more mature school, college, and graduate school students. For example: (1) An investigation might be made of the beneficial results obtained by maintaining one-way communication with persons who are safely outside of danger; (2) research might be conducted to determine emotional effect of particular broadcast voices; (3) studies might be made of the effectiveness of selected spoken scripts, or of various musical renditions in dissipating listeners' tensions; or (4) scholarly consideration might be given to the social implications in the CONELRAD plan and the methods by which it may be put into action.

CONELRAD provides interesting resources for discovering and teaching constructive social attitudes and skills at all levels of maturity. It offers to education a facet of protective citizenship in action and an opportunity to perform a tangible service for national security.

Class Size

(*Continued from page 39*)

In California 29.5 percent fewer candidates completed their teacher training with a major in English in 1953 than in 1952. Furthermore, nearly half of the graduates who qualify for teaching in some States do not enter the profession.[5]

There is no easy way out of the class size and teacher load predicament. More facts, especially in local schools and communities, need to be obtained and studied in relation to teaching effectiveness. These facts need to be considered by the school administration and parents of children in school. Future gains in enrollment need to be predicted and plans made to care for them. Finally, since high school English classes are likely to remain large or become even larger, a new emphasis seems desirable in the preservice and inservice training of English teachers. That emphasis is the development of professional competencies in teachers so that they will be able to instruct large classes of pupils efficiently and effectively.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 289–291.

To order copies of the 1953 special issue of SCHOOL LIFE, Citizenship for an Atomic Age or the 1949 supplement "Atomic Energy Here to Stay", send your request to the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. (25 percent discount on 100 copies or more sent to one address.) Single copy price of 1949 supplement, 10 cents. Price of the supplement, "Citizenship for an Atomic Age," is 15 cents. Enclose check or money order with your request.

School Building Cost

(*Continued from page 44*)

no attempt to show these variations, but indicates only the *average* unit costs for the regions by type of school and type of construction. In some regions the more extensive construction programs in 1 or 2 States were important factors in determining regional averages, hence the averages by regions cannot be presumed to reflect accurately the unit costs in any specific State. The regions used for compiling data for this report are shown below.

Tables 3, 4, and 5 show a summary of the number of school buildings included in this report, the number of classrooms, the average cost per square foot, the average cost of total building per classroom, and the average building gross floor area per classroom. These are divided on the bases of types of construction, types of schools, and regional location.

For the schools reported in these tables, the secondary school building costs per classroom are higher than those for elementary schools. This was not necessarily true for costs per square foot. The secondary schools included in this report have 40 to 50 percent more gross area per classroom than do the elementary schools. The number of combustible secondary school buildings probably was insufficient to provide valid averages.

Table 3.—Fire-Resistive Construction

Region	Number of buildings	Number of classrooms	Average cost per square foot	Average cost per classroom	Building gross floor area (average square feet per classroom)
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	6	45	$12.22	$21,444	1,754
2	338	5,513	18.79	43,164	2,295
3	135	1,757	11.45	23,441	2,046
4	133	1,920	8.77	15,825	1,803
5	121	1,728	11.71	20,292	1,732
6	322	3,826	15.71	32,863	2,089
7	140	1,448	13.59	31,247	2,368
8	65	735	12.55	24,129	1,922
9	72	953	16.65	36,071	2,166
All	1,332	17,925	15.12	31,720	2,097
	JUNIOR AND/OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	1	12	$6.81	$17,583	2,583
2	103	3,391	17.58	55,328	3,151
3	88	1,842	11.36	30,027	2,643
4	51	1,123	9.24	21,503	2,323
5	62	1,353	11.77	29,759	2,528
6	84	2,031	15.89	47,383	2,981
7	34	698	13.76	45,873	3,333
8	24	533	12.85	34,037	2,693
9	34	624	16.68	53,453	3,202
All	481	11,607	14.58	41,992	2,879

Table 4.—Semifire-Resistive Construction

Region	Number of buildings	Number of classrooms	Average cost per square foot	Average cost per classroom	Building gross floor area (average square feet per classroom)
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	6	67	$10.73	$18,179	1,698
2	112	1,335	17.67	36,127	2,043
3	31	275	8.84	16,404	1,858
4	24	265	7.91	13,758	1,739
5	100	1,105	10.16	16,670	1,639
6	106	961	13.63	25,614	1,878
7	64	632	11.70	21,587	1,830
8	46	526	12.63	24,311	1,931
9	269	2,879	13.61	30,800	2,008
All	758	8,065	14.02	26,833	1,913
	JUNIOR AND/OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	2	49	$11.21	$24,877	2,204
2	4	98	16.31	45,030	2,766
3	10	171	9.85	20,597	2,083
4	15	241	9.03	20,742	2,336
5	30	446	9.81	19,666	2,004
6	14	249	13.48	39,576	2,934
7	15	149	10.66	24,478	2,284
8	18	262	11.22	28,221	2,513
9	38	738	14.70	44,131	3,001
All	146	2,403	12.43	31,885	2,562

Table 5.—Combustible Construction

	Number of buildings	Number of classrooms	Average cost per square foot	Average cost per classroom	Building gross floor area (average square feet per classroom)
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	3	29	$9.74	$19,241	1,976
2	13	130	16.45	29,361	1,784
3	5	54	10.07	17,352	1,720
4	2	28	10.57	22,107	2,091
5	10	165	9.03	14,036	1,541
6	4	34	9.00	21,441	1,864
7	3	33	10.34	16,757	1,619
8	8	161	10.56	20,055	1,898
9	196	2,054	14.80	28,427	1,910
All	244	2,688	14.05	26,469	1,883
	JUNIOR AND/OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS				
1	1	15	$11.49	$20,266	1,630
2	1	27	14.63	43,444	2,969
3	3	29	8.44	14,448	1,712
4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
5	10	137	7.90	12,839	1,624
6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
8	2	13	7.87	28,000	3,400
9	25	430	15.06	40,734	2,703
All	42	651	13.56	33,076	2,439

Elementary Science

(*Continued from page 43*)

production committee. Curriculum improvement centers will be established.

South Carolina has a new bulletin in science in the planning stage. Next summer it intends to hold a workshop.

South Dakota says its science is carried on in connection with the social studies course, and uses in-service conferences to improve the teaching.

Tennessee has published a curriculum framework for grades 1–12. It was cooperatively developed. All schools have in-service programs.

Texas encourages local schools to write their own curriculum guides. A large number of places are giving particular emphasis to the area of social studies and science. The State department is building a file of material on science in the central office which is available on loan to schools.

Utah has a separately published bulletin on science teaching in the elementary school.

Vermont reports extension courses from teachers colleges are serving to improve their elementary science teaching.

Washington State indicates that it has sponsored workshops in the area of atomic energy and conservation and has published bulletins in both of these areas.

West Virginia contemplates work on improvement of science instruction and is placing a growing emphasis on relating science to everyday living. In-service education is emphasized.

Wisconsin has a statewide curriculum group at work on preparation of material. There are several local committees.

Wyoming has a bulletin on elementary science in preparation. The bulletin will be studied by teachers at in-service meetings throughout the State. Their monthly bulletin contains frequent articles on science.

New Section for Guidance and Pupil Personnel

Establishment of a new Guidance and Pupil-Personnel Section in the Office of Education was recently announced.

This new unit's program will include studies and research in the techniques of guidance and pupil-personnel work. It will give attention to the important new

rclationships between such work and the development of modern curriculums. The pupil-personnel phase will include coopcration with such disciplines as those of social work, medicine, and psychology, so as to bring about the most effective integration in these related fields.

On all matters of guidance and pupil personnel for elementary and secondary schools, this section's staff will work with relevant personnel in State departments of education, institutions engaged in counselor preparation, and professional organizations. The section will cooperate also with other Federal and State agencies which have elements in their programs related to its field of work and responsibility.

Chief of the new section is Harry A. Jager. Other Office of Education specialists assigned to the section are Leonard M. Miller and David A. Segel. The section is a part of the Division of Statc and Local School Systems directed by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner.

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)

Bibliography on Personality and Social Development of the Child, Compiled by Christoph Heinicke and *Selected Ethnographic Sources on Child Training*, Compiled by Beatrice Blyth Whiting. New York, Social Science Research Council, 1953. 130 p. (Social Science Research Council, Pamphlet 10.) $1.

Counseling and Guidance. By The Junior Council of the Ohio State University. Columbus, The Ohio State University, 1951. 41. p.

Current Books: Senior Booklist of the Secondary Education Board. Milton, Mass., Secondary Education Board, 1951. 42 p. Illus. $0.25.

Diagnosing Human Relations Needs. By Hilda Taba, Elizabeth Hall Brady, John T. Robinson, and William E. Vickery. Washington, American Council on Education, 1951. 153 p. (Studies in Intergroup Relations.) $1.75.

Guiding Children in School and Out. Articles from 1952–53 Issues Childhood Education, Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1953. 36 p. Illus. (Reprint Service Bulletin, No. 25.) 50 cents.

Helping Children Develop Moral Values. By Ashley Montagu. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 49 p. Illus. (Better Living Booklets.) 40 cents.

New Hope for the Retarded; Enriching the Lives of Exceptional Children. By Morris P. and Miriam Pollock. Boston, Porter Sargent, 1953. 176 p. Illus. $3.50.

Off-Campus Student Teaching. 1951 Yearbook of The Association for Student Teaching. Prepared by the Yearbook Committee. Edited by Morton S. Malter and Troy L. Stearns. Lock Haven, Pa., The Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College, 1951. 205 p. $2.00. (Order from: Allen D. Patterson, Executive Secretary of the Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania.)

Opportunities for Education in the Next Decade. Proceedings of the Co-operative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Northwestern University—The University of Chicago, 1951. Compiled by and edited by E. T. McSwain and Jack R. Childress. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1951. 112 p. $3.25.

Practical Guidance Methods for Counselors, Teachers and Administrators. By Robert H. Knapp. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953. 320 p. $4.25.

Promotion Ideas For Public Libraries. Written and Illustrated by Sarah Leslie Wallace. Chicago, American Library Association, 1953. 82 p. $1.50.

Recreation in the American Community. By Howard G. Danford. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953. 464 p. $5.

School Health Services . . . A Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association with the Cooperation of Contributors and Consultants. Charles C. Wilson, Editor. Washington, D. C. National Education Association and American Medical Association, 1953. 486 p. Illus. $5.

They Found a Way. Report of National Conference on Safety Education in Elementary Schools, Indiana University, August 18–22, 1952. Washington, D. C., National Commission on Safety Education, National Education Association, 1953. 32 p. Illus. 35 cents.

Thoughts Along the Way. By Walter E. Myer. Washington, D. C., Hugh Birch-Horace Mann Fund, The National Education Association of the United States, 1953. 222 p. $2.

University Extension in the United States. A Study by the National University Extension Association, Made with the Assistance of a Grant from the Fund for Adult Education. John R. Morton, Director. Birmingham, University of Alabama Press, 1953. 144 p. Cloth $2.25. Paper $1.

You Can Teach Music, A Handbook for the Classroom Teacher. By Paul Wentworth Mathews. New York, E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1953. 178 p. Illus. $3.75.

Your School Clubs, A Complete Guide to 500 Activities for Group Leaders and Members. By Nellie Zetta Thompson. New York, E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1953. 317 p. $3.50.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1954

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

Office of Education

Art Education. Prepared by Arne W. Randall. Selected References No. 24, June 1951 (Reprinted June 1953). Free.

Home, School, and Community Experiences in the Homemaking Program. By Druzilla Kent. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 252, Home Economics Education Series No. 29. 1953. 25 cents.

How Children Learn to Write. By Helen K. Mackintosh and Wilhelmina Hill. Bulletin 1953, No. 2. 15 cents.

Information About Publications and Leaders in General Education. Loose Leaf Circular No. 1, October 1, 1953. Free.

Librarians as Teachers. By Nora E. Beust. Reprint from *School Life*, March 1953. Free.

Mathematics in Public High Schools. By Kenneth E. Brown. Bulletin 1953, No. 5. 20 cents.

Professional Literature for Teachers of Elementary Science. Prepared by Glenn O. Blough and Paul E. Blackwood. Selected References No. 3, Revised June 1951. Free.

Science Education Research Studies—1951. Prepared by Philip G. Johnson. Selected Science Services, Circular No. 334-III, February 1952. Free.

Science Education Research Studies—1952. Prepared by Philip G. Johnson. Selected Science Services, Circular No. 334-IV, June 1953. Free.

A Selected List of School Plant Literature. June 1, 1953. Free.

Selected References and Briefs Related to Elementary Education. Selected References No. 8, July 1953. Free.

Selected References to Extraclass Activities, 1950-53. By Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Circular No. 340, Revised June 1953. Free.

Selected References to the Junior High School. By Walter H. Gaumnitz and Gertrude M. Lewis. Circular No. 369, April 1953. Free.

Selected References to Student Councils, 1947-53. Prepared by Ellsworth Tompkins. Circular No. 341, Revised June 1953. Free.

Teaching Aids for Developing International Understanding—Scandinavia. Free.

Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1952. Prepared by Maude Farr and Robert C. Story. Bulletin 1953, No. 1. 20 cents.

Suggestions Relating to Home and Correspondence Study. By Walter H. Gaumnitz. Circular No. 309, Revised June 1953. Free.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education, Supplement No: 6. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 251, Agricultural Series No. 63, 1953. 30 cents.

Teaching Aids for Developing International Understanding—Bibliography of Spanish Books for Children. By Delia Goetz. Free.

Testing High School Students for College. By Walter G. Daniel. Reprint from *School Life*, June 1953. Free.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Poliomyelitis (Infantile Paralysis). Public Health Service. Health Information Series No. 8, Revised 1953. 5 cents.

Some Facts About Juvenile Delinquency. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau Publication No. 340. 1953. Free.

What's Happening to Delinquent Children in Your Town? Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau Publication No. 342, 1953. 15 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Defense

The Arctic Bibliography. Lists and summarizes the contents of 20,000 of the more important publications on the region, which are available in principal libraries of the United States and Canada. 1953. Clothbound, $12.75 per set of 3 volumes.

Department of the Interior

Alaska's Fish and Wildlife. 1953. 25 cents.

Department of Labor

Family Income, Expenditures, and Savings in 1950. 1953. 35 cents.

Department of State

Where to Go for UN Information. Revised 1953. 15 cents.

Government Printing Office

34 Government Publications on Civil Aviation. A Superintendent of Documents Price List. Free.

U. S. House of Representatives

Organized Communism in the United States. Prepared and released by the Committee on Un-American Activities. 1953. 35 cents.

United States Senate

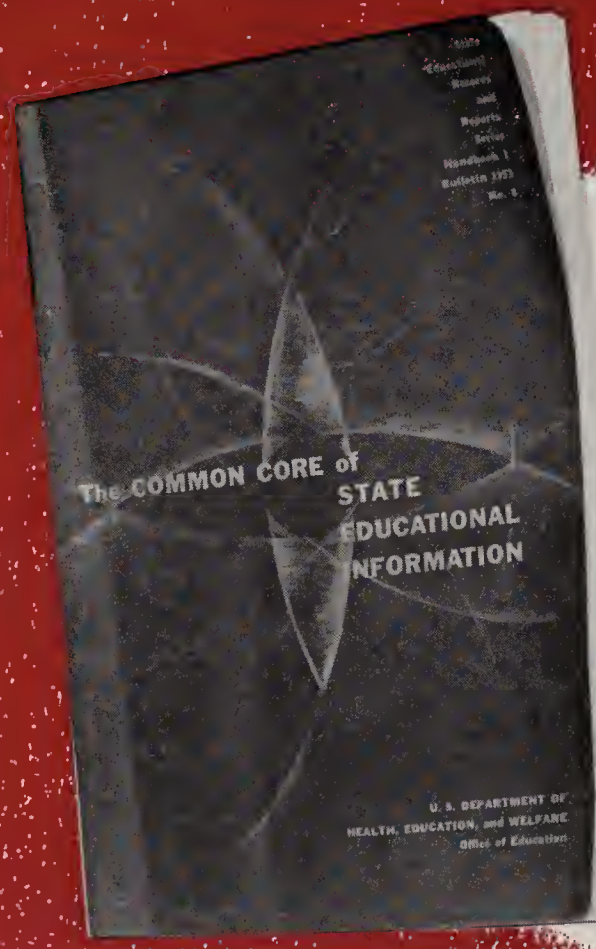
Our Capitol, Factual Information Pertaining to Our Capitol and Places of Historic Interest in the National Capital. A description with illustrations of the Capitol, Senate Chamber, House of Representatives Chamber, Library of Congress, U. S. Supreme Court, White House, Washington Monument, Lincoln Memorial, Jefferson Memorial, Lee Mansion, Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, Arlington Cemetery, and Mount Vernon. Senate Document No. 72. 1953. 25 cents.

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
DIVISION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS
WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

What Educational Terminology Means

A New Guide For School Administrators



In writing, identify as Bulletin 1953, No. 8

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A HANDBOOK developed by State Department of Education representatives and national leaders in public and non-public education to provide common definitions for basic terms used by schools and colleges throughout the United States.

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Bulletin 1953, No. 8

Compiled by Paul L. Reason, Emery M. Foster, and Robert F. Will of the U. S. Office of Education, under the direction of Fred F. Beach, Division of State and Local School Systems.

Volume 36 Number 4
JANUARY 1954

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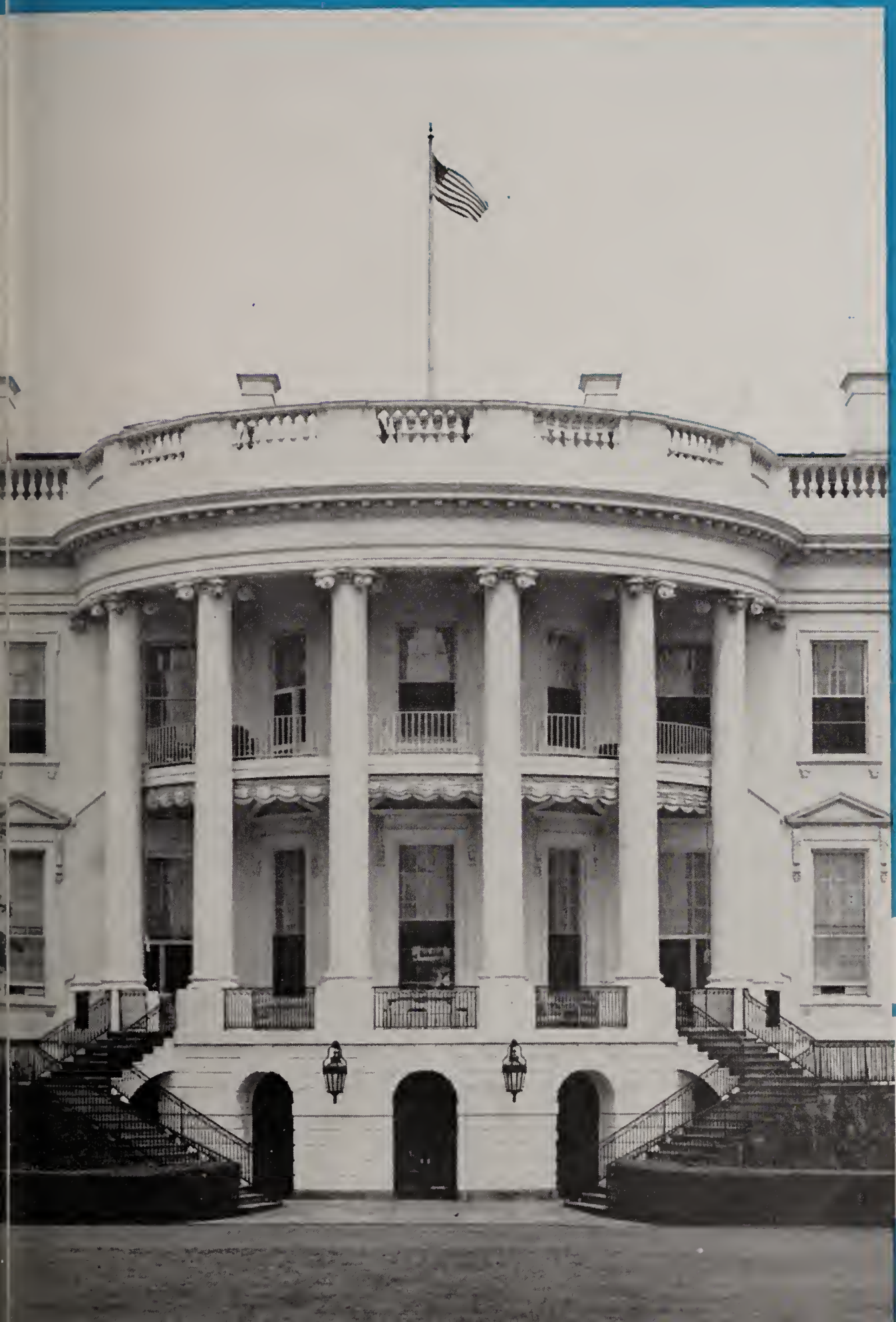
School Life



◀ The White House

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Rules To Live By

IN ADDITION TO THE THREE R's, school children today are learning in their classrooms the rules of good manners, fair play, and good citizenship. Some months ago, several District of Columbia schools (at the suggestion of Associate Superintendent Carl Hansen) asked all pupils to think about their conduct and even write down a set of rules on how to be good boys and girls.

Some of the parents read these rules and liked them. The idea set them to thinking--perhaps they should have a code of conduct to help them to be good parents. The following are the codes of conduct which were compiled by the children and the parents of Shepherd Elementary School (Washington, D. C.), through their Student Council and the PTA.

Children's Code

We, the children of Shepherd School, in order to become better citizens and to show our appreciation for our many privileges, set up for ourselves the following responsibilities:

1. Do my best at all times.
2. Listen courteously and learn all I can.
3. Be courteous at all times.
4. Keep my mind and body healthy and clean.
5. Be prompt and use my time wisely.
6. Be trustworthy in little things as well as in big things.
7. Be cheerful and help others to be happy.
8. Play fairly and honestly and with good sportsmanship.
9. Share willingly and generously with those in need.
10. Treat others as I would like to be treated.
11. Help others by fulfilling my responsibilities faithfully.
12. Respect my parents, teachers, patrols, and the many other people who help me.
13. Obey the rules of my home, my school, my city, and the United States of America.
14. Take good care of the property of others, as well as my own.
15. Keep my home, school, and community beautiful.
16. Settle differences peacefully by talking them over.
17. Remember to be forgiving and that I may not always be right.
18. Live up to the promises that I make when I pledge allegiance to my flag.
19. Follow my religion faithfully and respect the beliefs of others.
20. Do all the good things I know a citizen should do every day so that I may become a finer and better person.

These are the qualities I should have to be a good citizen of the United States of America.

(Parent's Code on page 51)

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

CONTENTS for January 1954

Volume 36 Number 4

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.)

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)

President Eisenhower Speaks on Education[1] At Defiance College

I AM HERE because of my ultimate faith in education, as the hope of the world: Christian religious education, man's free access to knowledge, his right to use it. I believe that unless all negotiations between nations are based upon a growing understanding between the peoples of those nations, there is no validity and no permanence to whatever arrangements may be made.

And so I think that the function of the school commands the presence of anyone in the United States, when there is a significant occasion in any one of our important schools, and that person can find it proper to attend.

I am here because I want to pay tribute to one of the greatest States in the United States—in its 150th year. I deem it a signal honor that I may be here in order to say "Long Live Ohio," not merely for 150 years but on down through the ages—one of the prize jewels of that great crown they call America.

And long may this library here stand to serve the needs of Defiance College. May it help assure to all her students free access to knowledge, just as the teachers of this institution will help them make intelligent use of that knowledge.

Now, for me, today's ceremony means more than physical participation in the laying of a cornerstone. This community and this college have a deeper significance than anything done or any words that can be spoken here this noon. On this spot we are close to landmarks in American history, and with us on this campus are thousands of young people who are tomorrow's builders of a greater and better America. What we see is the past and the future joining with the present in this ritual of dedication.

At one spot in this town, I have been told, a stone marks the site of the first French mission on the Maumee River, established more than 300 years ago. At another, the earthworks of Fort Defiance remind us that 160 years ago the forward command post of the American Nation was here. Other landmarks are canal locks and monuments and buildings that recall the mighty expansion of the American economy from an agricultural society to the first place among the world's industrial powers.

Consequently, in Defiance, whose roots are deep in the American past, it is fitting that I humbly salute the generations of men and women, the builders of Ohio, in this, the sesquicentennial year of their State. They were explorers and trappers and missionaries, traders and farmers, and teachers, diggers of waterways, and skilled operators of an industrial empire. Above all else, however, in the story of their achievements, they helped construct a way of life—the American way of life, of which the cornerstone is an indestructible faith in man's dignity as a child of God.

We today live in communities across this land, enjoying justice, opportunity, and freedom, because from the beginning of our history until this very day those generations labored and fought and sacrificed so that justice and opportunity and freedom might be every American's birthright.

In their foremost ranks stood one whose name will live in reverent memory so long as the Republic lives. Senator Robert Taft dedicated his life to the service of his State and his country. To every task he brought an informed mind, an insatiable hunger for the full truth, a zeal in the cause of justice and opportunity and freedom for all his fellow citizens. He stands out in his age as one of the great builders of the American way that is our heritage. This heritage is our most precious possession. What we do individually to conserve it, to strengthen it, to enrich it, is the only true measure of our devotion to it. More than this, it is the only true measure of the claims we can possibly have on posterity's memory. The wealth we may accumulate, the public prestige we may enjoy, the social position we may obtain, are all meaningless in the long vista of time, unless all are made to serve the cause of human dignity and freedom. What value dollars, or acclaim, or position in a world where justice, opportunity, and freedom are lost to us by force, by subversion, or by our own neglect?

A chief bulwark of our heritage against any such decay has been, and is and will be the American school system—from the one-room, red-brick building at a country crossroads to the largest of our universities.

In the days of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, Thomas Jefferson wrote to a friend these words: "No other sure foundation," he said of education, "can be devised for the preservation of freedom and happiness." Then, with the fervor of a lifetime devoted to the increase of liberty and happiness among men, he added, "Preach a crusade against ignorance."

The crusade was preached and was waged successfully. Impelled by it, our forebears added the school—the community school to the home that was the center of man's life as a family being, and to the church that was the fountain of his faith as a religious being. They were intent on providing an armory of knowledge where Americans might gird themselves for the obligations and the challenges that those founding fathers knew would be inescapable in a system of representative government.

The results are written across the history of our country. By every step taken to

[1] Excerpts from the President's address at the laying of the cornerstone of a new library building at Defiance College, Defiance, Ohio, Octoher 15, 1953.

banish ignorance, we have increased our hold on liberty. By every measure taken to enlarge our comprehension of the world in which we live, we have amplified the possibilities for human happiness. We possess in our land a largeness of justice and freedom beyond our forefathers' dreams, because the education of our youth has been a primary goal of this Nation.

Our school system is more important than it was before, because the job of being an American citizen is more complex than ever before in our history. Knowledge and understanding and wisdom, beyond the demands of yesterday, are required of tomorrow's citizens. Our schools—all our schools—in consequence, must have a continuing priority in our concern for community and national welfare.

In our school system, an important place is filled by the small, often church-related, liberal arts colleges. These institutions, for generations in the van of higher education, have covered our land. They have brought the advantages of college training to thousands upon thousands who, except for the existence of these institutions, could never have enjoyed this privilege.

Now we are caught in a squeeze between temporary decreased enrollments and high costs. But the great traditions they bring to today's students of their own intellectual leaders and fervent patriots of the past must not be lost. The importance of the place they occupy in American life needs not fewer but more of them. Indeed, I firmly believe more extensive education than that obtainable in high schools must be brought to every community and every locality in such a way that every young person regardless of his means, or his lack of means, can go to school for a minimum of 2 additional years.

Now, today, each of these small, almost neighborhood colleges is striving to fit itself better to serve its students, its community, and its country. Each of them shares—as does every typical American home, and every church—in the American inspiration, the American purpose, and American goals.

On this campus, typical of the small liberal arts college, I deem it a privilege, indeed I consider it a duty, to pay my tribute to these schools. Already they have contributed much to the American way. Their potential contributions to the country's future are beyond calculation. So we participating in the dedication of this library are expressing our support of this kind of education, of this kind of school. Thus, we are performing one of the duties of citizens in a free nation. Thus we symbolize our continuing faith in man's ability, under God, to govern himself intelligently. Thus we hope to assure the future strength and the eternal freedom of America. My friends, to each of you who has come out this morning and has done me the courtesy of listening to the thoughts I have expressed, my warm thanks. I am grateful to you.

Teaching Taxes in Our High Schools

OUT IN CHICAGO, two 12-year-old youngsters from the West Side paired up as a street dancing team. In the vernacular of show business, "they were naturals and they clicked." Money poured into their little pockets.

Somewhere, somehow, they learned that their new-found fortune carried with it a tax obligation. They got the necessary forms, filled them out themselves, and paid their tax. In due time, their returns were checked by the Internal Revenue Service. They were accurate!

Perhaps that doesn't surprise you. It will, though, if you stop to realize that 25 percent of all the American adults who fill out tax forms do so incorrectly.

Filling out the income-tax forms properly, honestly, and accurately is not really much of a job—those children proved that and so have other youngsters.

Just think what this 25-percent error costs the country—auditing; investigating; conferring with taxpayers; correcting; issuing deficiency notices; and handling correspondence, interest payments, fines, and all the other details brought into play when an inaccurate return is filed.

For one thing, history, with its negative tax experience, warns us to be wary, to look with a jaundiced eye on taxes or anything related to them. Despite the part we, as citizens, now play in our self-assessment and voluntary declaration of our tax obligation, it is difficult for us to remove the psychological wall that history has created. There are also certain complexities in the American system of taxation, although these exist only because of an earnest attempt at equity. These complexities add to the mental barrier. This attitude is costly to you as the taxpayer. The Internal Revenue Service believes this fear is needless and thinks it can be cured.

The Office of Education is pleased to present this timely article to educators in cooperation with the Public Information Division of the Internal Revenue Service. The Office also cooperated this year, as in the past, with the Service in making available the TAX TEACHING KIT to schools.

Commissioner of Internal Revenue T. Coleman Andrews has said:

Today and in tomorrow's tomorrow, the American tax dollar is and will be the axis on which the world revolves. What then can be more important than a generation of tax-educated citizens who can and will prepare the proper tax forms correctly and pay the proper tax?

The Internal Revenue Service spends little on the processing of honest, correct tax returns. The terrific cost to all of us as taxpayers is that 25 percent error factor. Millions upon millions of dollars are spent in correcting errors. If tax education is made a part of the high school curriculum year after year, I know that this costly error factor will decrease. Each year one million new names join the existing millions of American taxpayers. These new taxpayers are or were recently high school students.

As the head of your Revenue Service, I promise you this: Give me a tax-wise student as a new taxpayer and I will release the money so saved into productive rather than nonproductive channels. With his return free of error, I can invest the man-hours released into front-line enforcement—to ferret out the hidden tax dollar—that hidden dollar that goes into the pockets of the unscrupulous few and out of the pockets of the honest many.

The result of such reasoning was that last year the service distributed a modest tax instruction kit to the Nation's high schools. The results far exceeded expectations.

A scientifically selected cross-section of the tax returns prepared by American high-school students in this plan was carefully audited—and the error factor was less than 2 percent, far below the normal national average of 25 percent. Can you ask for better proof that tax education at the high-school level is desirable?

With this experience behind it, the Internal Revenue Service expanded its Tax Teaching Kit for this school year. The present edition includes a teacher's manual, with answers in the back; small duplicates of the form 1040 and the withholding forms, so that the students actually may work them out themselves during classroom instruction; and blowups of the forms, which the teacher can thumbtack to the blackboard for demonstration purposes.

These kits are available to high schools, more than 20,000 of which already have requested and received them. Requests for kits from other high schools will be filled as quickly as possible, as will requests for additional copies of any of the parts of the kit. Such requests should be sent to the Public Information Division, Internal Revenue Service, Washington 25, D. C.

In addition, the Regional Commissioners and the District Directors of the Internal Revenue Service have been asked to make themselves and their key officials available, within time and duty limitations, to schools for personal appearances in connection with the teaching of taxes.

The aim of the Internal Revenue Service is to serve Americans better and at lower cost. The High School Tax Teaching Kit is felt to be one major step toward this goal, a step which can be taken successfully only through the patriotic and positive cooperation of the high-school superintendents, principals, and teachers.

High school students learn to prepare income tax returns.

Parents' Code

(Continued from page 2 of cover)

We, the parents of Shepherd School children, realize that what we think, do, and say is reflected in our children, and have compiled the following responsibilities. Therefore our goals are:

1. To promote family unity by creating a happy home environment for work and play.
2. To recognize our child's limitations as well as his abilities.
3. To stress the importance of honesty to ourselves and our fellow men as a basic virtue.
4. To encourage mutual love, respect, and courtesy between parent and child.
5. To stimulate participation in group activities to promote social achievement.
6. To treat each child with dignity and consideration, allowing him to participate in family decisions.
7. To assure our family's interest in the church or synagogue of our choice by active participation.
8. To show the meaning of God in everyday happenings; to stress the spiritual as opposed to material values.
9. To respect and understand the religions, beliefs, and customs of others.
10. To be charitable, tolerant, and understanding.
11. To learn to express ourselves without the use of profanity.
12. To develop a wholesome teacher-child relationship, stressing promptness, respect, and consideration.
13. To encourage and stimulate our child's interest in learning.
14. To keep open minds on new methods in education: to be cognizant of school activities.
15. To participate in citizens groups for the promotion of recreational, educational, and civic needs.
16. To work together on problems that influence young people of all ages.
17. To teach consideration for common property through respect for own and others property.
18. To keep community and personal property clean and attractive.
19. To realize that with our democratic privileges, we also have certain definite obligations.
20. To teach democracy as a way of life.
21. To give wholehearted support and protection to the Constitution of the United States.

Delinquency—An Important Problem in Education

by Samuel Miller Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education

THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION, according to its organic law of 1867, has the responsibility to collect and provide educational information and otherwise promote the cause of education. The operation of schools is a State responsibility which is largely delegated to the local communities. To me, this means that the Office shall provide leadership, without coercion, in any good cause related to education. Education means more than mere schooling, although it is the school's responsibility in education that is the major focus of the activities of the Office of Education.

We are interested in delinquency because it is an important problem in education. The existence of delinquency proves that education in its broad sense has not been fully successful, that the combination of home, school, church, and other factors of environment have been unable to prevent the child from doing things which make us consider him a delinquent.

Schools want to detect potential juvenile delinquents. They try to discover the influences which are causing delinquency. They seek to prevent and cure delinquency.

In this brief discussion, I wish to outline the main problem of delinquency first. Secondly, I want to show the relation of schools to delinquency. Finally, I wish to propose four recommendations.

As this committee knows, the problem of delinquency is grave.

It is estimated that "legally delinquent" children (i. e., those who have broken the laws and have been referred to the juvenile courts) amounted to 385,000 in 1952. This is approximately 2 percent of the 18,676,000 children in the 10 to 17 age group. The actual number of children who have broken the law but whose cases may have been disposed of without court action probably approaches 1 million. This overall figure is between 5 and 6 percent of the 10 to 17 age group. However, we should interpret these figures with caution. Dr. Fritz Redl, discussing this problem recently, warned against an easy classification of many children as delinquents. He pointed out that children often break the law under some sudden stimulus or in special circumstances. They do not repeat as lawbreakers. The comparison between adults on the loose at a convention and these youths is appropriate.

To summarize, the total number of juvenile delinquents hovers somewhere between the 385,000 legally entangled (many of whom, however, probably bear this stigma unnecessarily) and the larger number of 1 million some authorities suggest. Expressed in percentages, 95 to 98 percent of our children are normally law abiding. Nevertheless, we are striving to make these percentages still higher.

Let's look more closely at schools and delinquency. The home, the church, the neighborhood, and the school each influences children. The school, by law, has children under its control from about age 5 or 6 to 14 to 16—roughly 5½ hours a day for 8 or 9 months a year, minus the short vacations, or less than one-fifth of the waking hours of a child during a 10- or 12-year period. The home and neighborhood control his activities entirely during the formative preschool age and more than four-fifths of the time during his school years. Schools, therefore, have definite limitations as well as challenges in considering what they can do to strengthen good family and neighborhood influences and to offset poor ones.

Exhibit A shows that, using 1952 tables of delinquency, approximately 95 percent of delinquent 17-year-olds are out of school; 85 percent of delinquent 16-year-olds are out of school and 50 percent of delinquent 15-year-olds are out of school. Furthermore, 31,990 delinquents 14 years of age or younger are not enrolled in school. Thus 61 percent of the group of delinquents 8 to 17 years old in 1952 were not enrolled in school as against 39 percent who were. The question is: Were these youngsters out of school because the school failed to keep them interested or were they out of school because they were delinquent?

The relationship between the schools and delinquency has been pointed out by an eminent group of scholars.[1] In 1948 these decided that "The school is related to juvenile delinquency in three ways: It may produce delinquency; it may help to prevent delinquency; it may deal with delinquent behavior that is encountered within its walls."

The most startling of these three statements is that the school may produce delinquency. Studies show that a bad home or a bad neighborhood produces delinquency more often than a poor school and for different reasons, but a poor school must share the blame.

If you ask how schools contribute to delinquency, I would say that some school conditions frustrate some pupils or set up situations causing delinquency; others fail to supply an interest, a release of tension, or a sense of security or satisfaction children need. These failures may result in delinquency as surely as failure to supply reading opportunities results in many children being unable to read.

Some of the factors which make schools ineffective in handling children are these:

Some teachers are not properly prepared

This statement was made by Dr. Brownell before the Senate Subcommittee on the Study of Juvenile Delinquency in the United States on January 16, 1954.

[1] Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education entitled "Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools."

to detect the needs of pupils who should have special attention or to meet these needs.

Many teachers are not given time to know pupils as individuals.

Many teachers are not given special assistance to deal with problems which they recognize but do not know how to treat. They feel as I did as a young principal during a mumps epidemic. I could agree with pupils whose glands were swelling that they had the mumps. But the only thing I knew to do was to get them away from the other pupils. I had neither the knowledge nor the facilities to nurse and help the sick.

We need careful research studies to help determine what school conditions contribute most to building or reducing the tensions, security, interests, and satisfactions which frequently cause or avoid delinquency. I hope to see the Office of Education participate in such basic research studies.

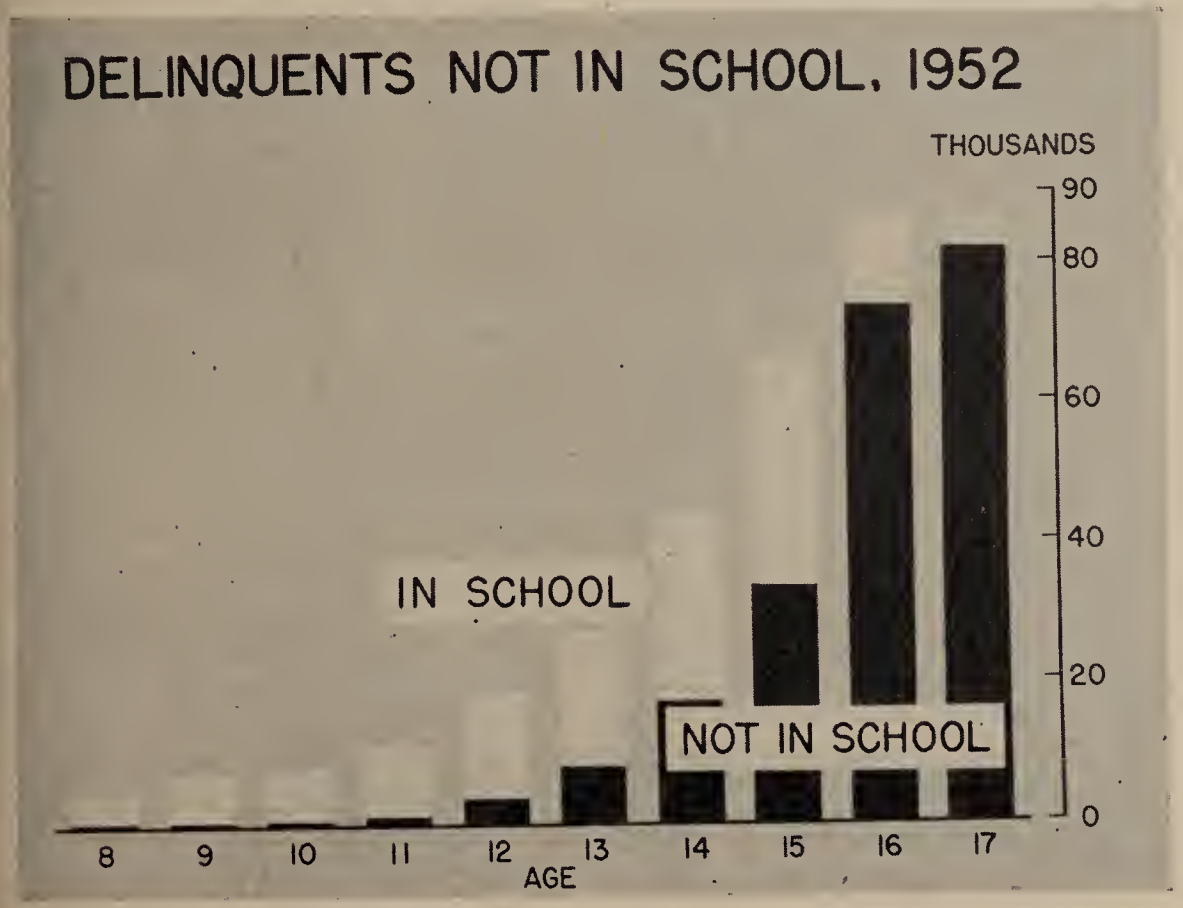
Although some school conditions may help to produce delinquency, it is also true that schools may prevent it. The prevention of delinquency will come from schools which try to educate all children by teaching each child on the basis of setting tasks and recognizing progress according to his own abilities. Such schools find out what kind of person each pupil is and use the information about each child so that all who deal with him may act on it. They maintain close contacts with homes and neighborhoods. They try to make up for lacks, and supply resources otherwise absent. When children are clearly victims of their own or of family personality difficulties, these schools use appropriate family, church, psychological, medical, and social services. In short, they strive to keep children in school, and to keep them successfully in school. This all takes time, staff, and money. Above all, it takes a desire to see that every child is treated as an important human being, not just as an additional number in the school enrollment.

Besides having a challenge to prevent delinquency, schools also have to deal with it. To treat children before and, if necessary, after legal action, calls for cooperation of the home, the school, and the various services described above, working with the courts, with probation officers, and with institutions where the delinquent may have been committed.

Having in mind these relationships between the schools and delinquency, we can see the difficulties and challenges facing American teachers.

The job of the schools must be chiefly prevention and prevention carried out as part of the present staggering load of the schools.

The measures I recommend are four in number. Their object is to give school people a chance to deal with children as individuals, for children or adults who have some feeling of success and happiness don't need to exhibit bizarre behavior nor do they need to gain temporary attention by defying the adult world by delinquent behavior. Statistics show that successful children in school provide by far the smallest proportion of delinquents. Children who have dropped out or who are badly retarded provide far more than their share of delinquents. I can't say that these statistics represent cause and effect, but we feel that if children can be kept in schools which foster their success and adjustment, one of the springs supplying the stream of delinquency will tend to dry up.



The first measure I propose to curb delinquency is to give each teacher a group of students small enough so that she can know and teach them as individuals. Today nearly 70 percent of our classes number more than 30 students per class. About 30 percent of the classes have more than 35 pupils per class. With such numbers, teachers cannot give real individual attention to students.

The second measure is to provide adequately prepared teachers—persons who understand how to work with children and youth, who are interested in working with and helping them, and who have demonstrated their ability to work constructively with children. With half of the Nation's teachers receiving less than $3,400, the incentive is not great for teachers to secure this adequate preparation.

A third measure is to provide some specialized staff to help teachers with the special problems involved in learning, recording, and interpreting the characteristics of each pupil, and his home and neighborhood. Psychological, medical, and social services to deal clinically or otherwise with youngsters needing care beyond that which the teacher and principal can provide are also needed.

My fourth proposal is that parents and school leaders unite in support of school programs and procedures which seek to solve the problems of delinquency at their roots. They are in a strategic position to help the public understand the importance of school programs which make adaptations for differences in needs between fast and slow learners; between the shy and the aggressive; and so on. Communities may unwittingly continue schools which breed

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School Problems Near Large Federal Installations

by B. Alden Lillywhite, Associate Director for Federally Affected Areas

AMONG THE MANY current public school problems those confronting districts located near large Federal installations are particularly difficult to solve. In prosecuting its domestic programs for the general welfare, the Federal Government does many things. It acquires large areas of land for development and preservation of forest resources; it builds dams for reclamation of arid lands, control of floods, and development of electric power. It maintains bird and other game sanctuaries for preservation of wildlife; builds, owns, and operates veterans hospitals; operates a border patrol; and conducts experiments in agriculture, atomic energy, and public health problems, to mention only a few. These domestic activities are small in comparison to the number, size, and scope of Federal activities in time of war or threat of war.

During World War II approximately 16,000,000 men and women were in the armed services. The United States built and operated army posts, airfields, and naval bases to train this personnel to fight a global war. It built and operated plants and factories to manufacture the material needed to fight this all-out war, and constructed ships and planes to transport these materials and men to all parts of the world. In centers of military training and defense production, it built, operated, and still owns hundreds of thousands of housing units for military personnel, warworkers, and their families. The Korean conflict and the Nation's commitments elsewhere have necessitated a continued high level of military strength since the end of World War II.

Thus, for almost 12 years Uncle Sam has been a landlord, an industrialist, and a businessman on a very large scale in a substantial number of communities in the Nation, but has not paid taxes as private business does, because property under Federal ownership and control is not subject to State or local taxes. Often these large Federal projects are located in rural areas where there is room for expansion, but where community financial resources are limited.

The burden of a greatly increased school enrollment coupled with loss of tax base is too great for most of the communities adjacent to these Federal projects to meet with their limited resources. Frequent changes in level of employment of many Federal activities, sometimes marked by very large and sudden increases or decreases, have aggravated the problem.

During World War II, Federal assistance for construction and operation of community facilities, including schools, was provided under the Lanham Act. The primary purpose of this program was to aid in prosecution of the war effort; consequently, after the cessation of hostilities it was discontinued or greatly curtailed. Congress continued, on a temporary year-to-year basis, a small program of assistance for maintenance and operation of schools in certain areas where the need was greatest. However, as the cost of this temporary program began to increase, the House Committee on Education and Labor made a detailed investigation of the problems in these areas. As a result of these investigations Congress passed two bills in September 1950; one provided assistance for construction of school facilities (Public Law 815) and the other (Public Law 874) provided assistance in the maintenance and operation of schools in Federal impact areas.

The policy of the Federal Government in enacting this legislation is stated in one of the acts as follows:

"In recognition of the responsibility of the United States for the impact which certain Federal activities have on the local educational agencies in the areas in which such activities are carried on, the Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance (as set forth in the following sections of this act) for those local educational agencies upon which the United States has placed financial burdens by reason of the fact that—

"1. The revenues available to such agencies from local sources have been reduced as the result of the acquisition of real property by the United States; or 2. Such agencies provide education for children residing on Federal property; or 3. Such agencies provide education for children whose parents are employed on Federal property; or 4. There has been a sudden and substantial increase in school attendance as the result of Federal activities."

The acts related Federal payments to the portion of the cost of education provided from local revenue sources in terms of the loss of tax base by or the increased costs to local school agencies by reason of Federal activities. They did not provide for payments to States for State aid paid on account of these Federal impacts because it was felt that a State could impose certain taxes on the residents of Federal property which could not be imposed by local communities. They further were based on the assumption that generally throughout the Nation about half of the local tax income to finance construction and current operating expenses of schools comes from taxes on places where people live, and the other half from taxes on places where people work. Specific formulas were developed for determining when a school district was eligible for assistance and how much it was entitled to receive. A district was determined to be eligible when it was shown that the Federal impact constituted a distinct financial burden, and the amount of assistance equaled as nearly as possible the financial burden this impact created. All assistance was channeled through the Office of Education,

and any interference or control of any aspect of the local educational program by any Federal agency was prohibited.

The school construction program had an effective period of 2 years. It was intended that the current expenses program be permanent, but an expiration date of June 30, 1954, was set in order to allow a review of the act by Congress so that desirable changes might be made.

The Construction Program

During the life of the construction program a total of $341,500,000 was appropriated to meet requirements amounting to over $440,000,000, leaving about $99,000,000 in entitlements unpaid. As of October 15, 1953, $293,844,373 has been allotted to 750 local educational agencies for 1,221 construction projects, and $44,316,388 has been allotted to construct 20 temporary schools and 96 schools on Federal property.

Of these 1,337 projects, over 600 are essentially completed and in use, and the remainder are under construction. They will provide approximately 14,500 classrooms and auxiliary facilities and will house approximately 440,000 children. Allotments were restricted to amounts sufficient to house only the "unhoused" children in minimum school facilities. Practically all funds appropriated under this act have been allotted to projects.

The Current Operating Expenses Program

Appropriations are made each year under Public Law 874 to pay the amounts eligible school districts are entitled to receive for current operating expenses. In 1951, 1,287 districts were eligible for assistance in the amount of $29,908,293, of which sum only 96 percent was paid because appropriations were not sufficient to meet the full costs. In 1952, 1,746 school districts were eligible for approximately $48,000,000 and were paid 100 percent. In 1953, 2,200 districts were eligible for approximately $55,000,000, and funds were available to pay the full entitlement. These districts had about 4,450,000 children in average daily attendance of whom about 825,000, or 18 percent, were there as a result of Federal activities. Federal payments constituted on the average about 6 percent of the total current operating expenses of the eligible districts. It is estimated that 2,600 districts will be eligible in 1954 with total entitlements substantially exceeding the $66,500,000 available.

A social science class uses the excellent library facilities of the Clover Park Junior High School, Takoma, Wash.

The new Jefferson Davis School serves the junior high school students of North Little Rock, Ark.

Each year approximately $2,900,000 in Federal funds have been used to provide an educational program for about 11,000 children living on 30 to 36 Federal installations where no local educational agencies were able to provide the educational program. In these cases the Commissioner of Education has made arrangements for the free public education of the children involved. The increase in the size of this program each year it has been in operation corresponds roughly to the increase in expenditures made by the Federal Government for defense and security in the same period.

Federally Owned Property

Information on the value and extent of federally owned or controlled property was obtained in the administration of these programs. In school districts eligible for assistance during 1953, there was a total of 2,034 different Federal properties which contained an estimated 62.2 million acres and had an estimated tax value based on local assessment rates of $19.7 billion. Of all entitlements computed for Public Law 815 approximately 81.5 percent were on account of pupils who either live on, or live with a parent employed on, nontaxable Federal property. For maintenance and operation it was about 90 percent.

Total entitlements under Public Law 874 for 1953 were just under $59,000,000. An average tax of only 3.0 mills on the estimated valuation of the federally owned property would provide this amount. The typical school district receiving this assistance levied a tax of 15.6 mills for current operating expenses. Thus, the average local taxpayer is contributing about 5 times as much on his privately owned property through local taxation as the Federal Government is contributing through Public Law 874. If a tax were levied on the federally owned property at the same average rate as was levied on private property, the yield would be over $300,000,000 a year.

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Dedication of Rich Township High School

By Oveta Culp Hobby, Secretary, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

IT IS a great pleasure to join with you in the dedication of Rich Township High School here in Park Forest.

Almost every day that has passed since I became the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare has brought to my desk some problem of education. Many of these have involved the overcrowding of our classrooms or the shortage of teachers.

This school and the thrilling story of its building testify to our belief as a people that, when citizens are concerned about their schools, they will secure better schools for their children.

You were fortunate to have Superintendent Baber, and the other men and women serving on your citizen committees, with the knowledge and the ability—and above all, the vision—to guide you in solving your problems.

Working with your leaders were you citizens of Park Forest.

Some of you worked on the planning committees. Some of you tabulated the questionnaires that showed what kind of school your community wanted. Some of you visited other community schools, talked with students, teachers, and educational consultants.

All of you gave your devotion and loyal support.

That is what I call real community interest. And that is why today you have this modern school plant—this educational, civic, and cultural center.

You have combined the initiative and interest of early America with the knowledge and experience of modern America, to build a school that will serve the future of your children's America.

Your efforts are in the American pioneer tradition. The men and women who settled in the West were used to taking care of themselves. What they needed as a community, they built as a community. And often the schoolhouse was the first public building erected.

The neighbors pitched in, and a log schoolhouse was put up, with one door, an oilpaper window, and split-log benches along the walls.

To this meager schoolhouse came the children of the pioneers. The summit of their education was usually a knowledge of the elementary rules of reading, writing, and cyphering. Terms were short, schoolbooks were scarce, and the teacher's pay was small.

But poor as most of those schools were, many a faithful teacher succeeded in inspiring his pupils with a thirst for knowledge. And by his presence in the frontier homes as he "boarded around," he exercised an influence far beyond the schoolroom.

It may well be that we have lost some of the sense of personal responsibility for the schools that was so obviously felt by the pioneers. Many Americans have perhaps taken their schools for granted. Certainly, we have allowed the teacher shortage to grow, the educational wage scale to lag, and many of our school buildings to become obsolete.

A few days ago, I received a letter from a dismayed parent in a large American city. This is what she said:

"Can't you do something about young parents concerning themselves about voting and such.

"Last Saturday we held an election to decide whether to increase our city taxes from $1 to $1.10 in badly needed support of the schools. Every newspaper in the city had urged the public to vote for this increase. I worked at the polls all day . . . the younger people who have the children to be educated did not turn out.

"There were 72 votes cast in our box—in contrast to the several thousand votes cast during the last presidential election. And ours is a neighborhood of young marrieds."

In that election, she went on to tell me, the increased school taxes were passed, but by a slim margin. Only 4 of the 7 new school-board members had really endorsed the tax raise, the 3-man minority had frankly said they preferred cutting down

*An address delivered at Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Ill., December 6, 1953.

on the public-school services—though it is a school system which does not begin to be comprehensive in its program.

This worried parent had written to ask a Federal officer to do something. That is understandable in the face of such community apathy—an apathy exhibited by those who should have felt most strongly about schools, and an apathy unmoved by the vigorous appeals of the press.

No wonder she felt a despair which made her turn to a national official.

But she cannot be answered from Washington alone.

Our public schools began in our local communities. They must stay there.

Dr. Brownell, our new Commissioner of Education, and I both feel very strongly that the Federal Government must not interfere in educational matters which rightly belong to the local and State authorities.

In America, we work on the principle that public questions can best be threshed out by those who understand them best.

In educational matters, this means that local school districts must tackle their own problems—just as you have done here with such splendid success. If a problem crosses local boundaries or defies local resources, the State may step in. And if neither local nor State authorities can handle a situation, they may turn to the Federal Government for assistance.

When the Office of Education was established in the Federal Government by Congress in 1867, it was charged with three principal duties—research, collection and dissemination of information, and promotion of education throughout the country. These are still major functions of the Office.

Advisory Committee

To these, however, have been added such other responsibilities as administration of Federal grants-in-aid for land-grant colleges and promotion of vocational education; for allocation of critical materials for school and library construction during the Korean emergency; and administration of Federal financial assistance to provide urgently needed school buildings in communities adjacent to defense and military areas.

The Office of Education, therefore, is in general a service agency. It assists the progress of education by providing advice, leadership, and technical aid. It works with States and their local communities and with voluntary educational organizations. It provides educational information, and focuses upon educational needs and aims.

Interior view of Rich Township High School.

Let us not lose sight of the fundamental purposes for which the Office of Education was established. Let us continue the planned partnership of local, State, and national efforts to identify the weaknesses in our educational programs and to provide the leadership needed to insure the most effective education possible for our greatest national resource—America's young people. As we strengthen education for our youth, we give them the tools to maintain and promote freedom and enlightenment so necessary in today's world.

Today, the Office of Education is devoting much time to helping States and localities meet two urgent needs of our schools—the need for more teachers and the need for adequate accommodations.

You are aware of the teacher shortage in our elementary and secondary schools. The elementary schools alone need 72,000 more teachers than they had last year.

And that need will increase. In the next 2 years, the crop of public-school pupils will jump by more than 2¾ million. By 1960 it is estimated there will be 10 million more students in our Nation's schools and colleges than there were last spring.

These needs can be met only by attracting more of our able young people into the teaching profession. To do this, we must pay them better salaries, provide teacher education institutions that compete in attractiveness with other professional institutions, and see that the life of teachers makes them enthusiastic about remaining in teaching and encouraging others to join with them.

In spite of a record 50,000 new classrooms built last year, school construction still lags far behind the need. This fall,

Group of Rich Township High School students strolling in front of new building.

the United States was short 345,000 public elementary and secondary classrooms.

Taking increased enrollments, building deterioration, and obsolescence into account, we will probably need 425,000 additional classrooms by 1960.

Few Americans realize how many children go to schools which are overcrowded and unsafe. The State departments of education have reported to us that many classrooms are overcrowded. One of every five pupils in our country goes to school this year in a schoolhouse that does not meet minimum fire safety conditions.

Here is an opportunity for every citizen to do an urgently needed job. By taking an active interest in our local schools, he can help to make sure that his community provides an adequate school budget and gets the best for the money it spends.

The fact that Americans are showing an increasing interest in their schools is one of the brightest spots today and for the future. What an upsurge of activity there has been among citizen groups in the last few years! What a remarkable job they are doing!

Today our parent-teacher organizations have about 8 million members—twice as many as they had in 1946. Approximately 8,000 citizen groups are now working on educational problems with their school boards and administrators. In 1950 fewer than 1,000 such groups were known. Dozens of great national organizations—farm, fraternal, religious, veteran, business and professional, and others—are working hard for educational progress.

Responding to these efforts, the American people are voting increasingly larger sums for education. Last year, communities and States taxed themselves approximately $500 million more than the year before for schools. They spent 7½ billion dollars to build and operate primary and secondary schools. Teachers' salaries were increased from an average of about $3,240 to $3,400.

All of us realize, of course, that dollars—necessary as they are—don't add up to education. Actually, of course, it is the individual teacher in each classroom, teaching your son and my daughter, who is indispensable. The dedicated men and women who teach our youngsters are truly the greatest glory of American education.

Good teachers make good schools, and good schools are fundamental to the American way of life. The Nation's free schools are preeminent among the free institutions on which our way of life depends. They deserve the full and undivided support of all Americans.

President Madison once summed it up this way: "Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."

I congratulate you for the contribution you are making in this community to the advance of education in America.

International Education Service

Opportunity to render service to education internationally has come to two additional members of the Office of Education staff in recent months.

DR. GALEN JONES, Director of Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, State and Local School Systems, was designated by the Department of State as a member of the United States National Commission for UNESCO. This citizen group acts as liaison between the Government and the people in relations with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.

Galen Jones.

The National Commission is composed of 40 persons selected by the Secretary of State and 60 persons who are designated by national organizations for appointment by the Secretary.

Dr. Jones received direct appointment by the Secretary. As a member of the National Commission, he will represent the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

The United States National Commission for UNESCO was created by act of Congress in 1946. In addition to its responsibilities as an advisory group to the Government, it serves as liaison between UNESCO, which has its headquarters in Paris, and the American people. The 100 members of the National Commission serve without compensation.

RALPH C. M. FLYNT, Director of the General and Liberal Education Branch, Division of Higher Education, headed the United States delegation to the Second International Study Conference on the Atlantic Community which was held in Copenhagen, Denmark, August 29–September 5, 1953. Representatives of the fourteen member states of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization formed the Second Study Conference, the first of which was convened at the request of Lord Ismay, Secretary-General of NATO, and held at Oxford University, England, in September of 1952. Mr. Flynt who is Vice Chairman of the American Council on NATO was also a member of the United States delegation at Oxford University.

Ralph C. M. Flynt.

Selected Highlights in American Education—1953

With the help of Office of Education staff specialists, SCHOOL LIFE takes this opportunity of reviewing certain highlights in education during 1953.

PROBABLY the most significant single event in American education in 1953 was the creation of a new Federal Department of Health, Education, and Welfare with Cabinet status. In transferring the functions of the Federal Security Agency to the new Department, and elevating its Administrator, Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby, to the status of Secretary, President Eisenhower insured greater recognition of the national leadership of the Office of Education. Further recognition was given to the field of education within this reorganization by providing in the Reorganization Act, as signed by the President on April 1, that legislative authority could continue to be given direct to the Commissioner of Education within the Department.

In his message transmitting his reorganization plan to Congress—although not as a part of the plan itself—The President included a recommendation for the establishment, by statute, of a special advisory body to the Secretary on problems of education. Said the President:

"There should be in the Department an Advisory Committee on Education, made up of persons chosen by the Secretary from outside the Federal Government, which would advise the Secretary with respect to the educational programs of the Department. I recommend the enactment of legislation authorizing the defrayal of the expenses of this Committee. The creation of such a Committee as an advisory body to the Secretary will help insure the maintenance of responsibility for the public educational system in State and local governments while preserving the national interest in education through appropriate Federal action."

Legislative proposals for the establishment of the Advisory Committee on Education have been introduced by the Eighty-third Congress, second session.

On July 10, 1953, Public Law 109 created a Commission on Intergovernmental Relations to study the proper role of the Federal Government in relation to the States and their political subdivisions in all fields involving intergovernmental relations, including the field of education. The 25-member Commission is required to submit a report and recommendations to the President and the Congress, not later than March 1, 1954, concerning the allocation of governmental functions to their proper jurisdiction and the adjustment of intergovernmental fiscal relations among the various levels of government. In view of the importance of local-State-Federal relations in educational matters, particularly in the educational grant-in-aid programs, the work of this Commission is potentially of great significance to American education.

For the first time in its history, three commissioners served the Office of Education in 1 year. Earl James McGrath resigned on April 22; Lee M. Thurston died in office September 4, after serving less than 3 months; and on November 16, Samuel Miller Brownell was sworn in as the 13th Commissioner of Education.

Information on educational progress and problems received wide circulation during 1953. There were more articles on the public schools in national magazines than ever before—a total of 222—and the Office of Education answered more than half a million inquiries and distributed more than a million copies of its publications.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

The year saw both the greatest crop of pupils in the Nation's history and the greatest upsurge of parent interest in their schools. The schools opened their doors to 37 million pupils—2 million more than in 1952. Distribution of this number is estimated as follows: public and private elementary schools, 27 million (an increase of more than 1.5 million); public and private secondary schools, 7.3 million (an increase of approximately 200,000); colleges and universities, 2.5 million (an increase of 100,000 over 1952).

In their record number of school-age youth, parents evidenced an increasingly active civic interest by taxing themselves more than ever before for education—a total of 7.5 billion dollars—500 million dollars more than in 1952—and by participating in various school activities. Citizens in the number of 7,953,000 were members of the parent-teacher associations, doubling the membership of 1946. They attended "visiting days," and cooperated in teacher-parent conferences, school surveys, and opinion polls for the improvement of school programs and development of individual pupils.

The Office of Education, the Advertising Council, and the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools worked together in the Better Schools Campaign to stimulate community interest in the problems of the public schools. The fact that Americans have been showing an increasing interest in their schools is one of the brightest signs today and for the future. As of August 1953 there were 8,000 lay citizen committees working on educational prob-

lems with local school boards and administrators in as many towns. In 1950 there were fewer than 1,000 lay citizen groups of this kind known to the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools.

Major credit for these gains rests with the thousands of local communities and the millions of interested citizens who, in accordance with the long-established tradition of State and local control of education, carried the principal responsibility for the management of their local schools. The vigor and vitality of this tradition is a source of continuing strength to mid-twentieth century America.

SCHOOL SHORTAGES

Although American communities built 50,000 new classrooms—an all-time record—there remained a serious shortage of classrooms and related facilities. The Nation was short 341,000 classrooms in August 1953. This meant that 3 classrooms out of every 5 were overcrowded. In addition, 1 out of every 5 pupils attended a school which did not meet minimum fire safety conditions.

The present rate of school construction is less than one-half the annual construction figure needed to meet current needs, to take care of normal replacements and to reach the goal of an estimated 450,000 classrooms needed by 1960, in addition to the current backlog. The new schools completed and now under construction reveal substantial progress in functional planning and more attractive school environment than found in schools erected prior to World War II. Increasingly, grades 7 and 8 have become part of a junior high school organization in which teaching is departmentalized. Slightly over 57 percent of the public secondary schools are now so divided; and only 25 percent of pupils attended the traditional 8 elementary grades and 4 high-school years.

FEDERAL ASSISTANCE

In certain critical areas, school shortages have been alleviated by Federal aid. In amending and extending Public Laws 815 and 874 for 2 additional years beyond their scheduled termination dates, the Eighty-third Congress reaffirmed the position that the Federal Government would continue to assist school districts which had suffered financial hardship as a result of Federal activities. This principle was established as a nonpartisan measure during the Eighty-first Congress and was reaffirmed by the Eighty-third Congress.

Under Public Law 874, Federal assistance was given to 2,200 school districts for approximately 825,000 federally connected school children to assist in continuing or maintaining an educational level in these federally affected areas comparable to similar communities in the same States.

Under Public Law 815, approximately 800 projects for construction of school facilities were placed under construction to house increases in school enrollment brought to those communities by activities of the Federal Government.

EXPANDING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

During the year 1953, several States took steps aimed at providing educational opportunities for Negro children on the same basis as those for white children.

There were many evidences of concern in 1953 for education of the gifted as well as normal and slow learners. This concern for the Nation's 5,000,000 handicapped and gifted children is illustrated by Ford Foundation projects as well as the initiation of an Office of Education investigation into the procedures being used with fast and slow learners. The growth in special education services and programs in State and local school systems has caused a corresponding shortage of teachers qualified to provide the unique services needed by exceptional children. The Office of Education's nationwide study (with the aid of a private grant from the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children of New York City) was undertaken as one step to improve the situation by studying the qualifications and preparation of teachers of exceptional children. The study involves about 2,500 leaders in special education including State and local supervisors, college and university professors, and special teachers.

STATE STATUTORY IMPROVEMENTS

The movement of improving State structures for education was accelerated throughout the Nation in 1953. A number of States made fundamental constitutional or legislative changes. Ohio and Nebraska, for instance, improved their State organization for education through constitutional amendments providing for State boards of education that would appoint the chief State school officer. South Dakota and Iowa made fundamental legislative changes by creating State boards of education where none had existed before. Widespread progress was also made in the establishment of larger and more effective local school districts. The gains made during the past year represent the continuation of a trend, beginning about 1945, in local school district reorganization programs in which the local people most directly concerned are given responsibility for improving their school districts. These newly established school districts appear to be greatly improving the scope and quality of educational opportunities for rural children and youth.

TEACHER SHORTAGE

The shortage of qualified teachers—especially for the elementary grades—continued in 1953. The total shortage of qualified elementary school teachers when the schools opened in September was about 72,000. This deficiency could only be overcome by further overcrowding, double sessions, etc., and by recruiting into the elementary schools teachers whose qualifications fell short of desirable standards. Some long-range progress was made during the year in the recruitment of able students for teacher education and improvement of teacher education curriculum to make training programs meet the needs of modern schools. Another encouraging development was the raising by the American people of the average classroom teacher's annual salary from $3,200 to $3,400.

DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHING METHODS AND MATERIALS

One of the most noteworthy developments in school curricula has been the teaching of foreign languages in elementary schools. In 1953, foreign language study was given in one or more public elementary schools by 34 States and the District of Columbia. In some cities the practice was citywide; but there was no uniform pattern as to grade level, choice of language, selection of teaching personnel, and children included. In a world which becomes smaller every year, it is well indeed for more Americans to learn how to communicate directly with the people of other nations.

A national conference of more than 350

educators from all over the Nation met in Washington during January to consider the problems of language teaching and study in public elementary schools. This opportunity to exchange experiences and explore new approaches was the outgrowth of a proposal by Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, who 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 children are to acquire language skills, our school system must provide opportunity beginning in the early grades for many children to study other tongues."

Other significant developments included an increasing utilization of community and regional resources, more democratic teacher-pupil relationships, and the use of visual aids and tape recorders. Tape recordings were used for student self-evaluation in overcoming poor inflection and faulty pronunciation in both English and foreign languages and for teacher recordings of vocal and instrumental music instruction.

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

Probably the most significant development in television education during 1953 was the decision of the Federal Communications Commission to continue indefinitely all the 242 channel reservations for education. In addition, it added another 3 channel assignments for educational TV broadcasting, bringing the total available to 245.

Two States—Oklahoma and Alabama—enacted legislation aimed at creating statewide educational TV networks; two others—New Jersey and Wisconsin—have authorized experimental operation of educational TV "pilot" stations, preparatory to later development of statewide networks; and 15 others enacted legislation authorizing creation of special commissions to study the needs for educational TV station development.

Educationally owned TV broadcast stations were in operation in Houston, Los Angeles, and Ames, Iowa (Iowa State College); 20 construction permits for noncommercial educational TV stations were granted by the Federal Communications Commission; and another 46 construction permit applications from educational institutions were on file as of July 1, 1953, awaiting Federal Communications Commission action.

In addition, 5 cities—San Francisco, St. Louis, East Lansing, Pittsburgh, and Madison—expect to have educational TV stations in operation in the spring of 1954; and 20 others expect to have such stations in operation by the end of 1954.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

At least 20,000 students, teachers, educators, specialists, and technicians studied or observed under Federal programs in the United States in 1953. Through the Office of Education, all 48 States cooperated in the training of visiting teachers brought here under technical assistance and/or exchange of persons programs. These visiting teachers have not only broadened their own experience, but have contributed materially to American school programs and to international understanding and good will through this new kind of peoples-to-peoples diplomacy.

The year saw the development of a sound, effective, and economical program of technical assistance in education under the Point IV program. There was a growing realization among the countries with which the United States cooperated in technical assistance programs that education is an essential foundation for the raising of the standard of living of people in underdeveloped areas.

It is clear that the year 1954 is no time for complacency. Many States and local communities are struggling with educational problems which extend far beyond their boundaries or beyond their available resources, but which still require prompt and workable solutions. Experience indicates that educational problems which are unsolved or imperfectly solved in the States and local communities have a way of becoming national problems as the national interest itself becomes imperiled.

It is not the act of making a New Year's resolution that will continue what is good in American education and improve what is imperfect. It is the daily carrying out of the firm resolve to provide better schools for America's youth. It is the united effort of people working together—parents and teachers, laymen and school boards, Federal and city officials, State superintendents and county governments.

Federal Installations

(Continued from page 55)

Amendments to Public Laws 815 and 874

Because of the continued high expenditures for military activities President Eisenhower recommended in his first State of the Union message that the Congress consider extension of Public Laws 815 and 874. After extensive hearings the Congress amended and extended both acts; it extended Public Law 874 for 2 years, until June 30, 1956. The Congress considered making it permanent, but approved a 2-year extension pending recommendations of the new Commission on Intergovernmental Relations.

The new construction program provided financial assistance in school housing to districts with increases in the number of children federally connected from June 30, 1952, to June 30, 1954. A new title was added to provide specifically for school districts which are educating substantial numbers of children living on Federal property, but which have had no increases in school enrollment during the years concerned. These are mostly districts educating Indian children living on tax-exempt Indian lands. The estimated total costs of this new construction program is $137,000,000. Shortly before adjournment of the first session, the Eighty-third Congress appropriated $70,000,000 for this program.

These programs are of considerable size and importance. They have assisted school districts, overwhelmed by Federal activities, to provide necessary school buildings and current operating expenses during a most difficult period.

Further information on the administration of Public Laws 874 and 815 is contained in the new Office of Education Report, Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815, Third Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1953. Copies should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price $1.00.

Should Your Child Be a Teacher?

by William F. Russell, President, Teachers College, Columbia University, as told to Llewellyn Miller[1]

I WAS 18 YEARS OLD and ending my sophomore year in college when I went to my father for advice with a problem I had not been able to solve.

"What career do you think I should choose?" I asked.

My father was then head of Teachers College at Columbia University. He was a great and wise teacher. He proved it with his answer.

"That you must decide for yourself," he said: "The important thing is to take a good long look—from the inside. Then make up your mind."

The next day he gave me a handful of letters of introduction. During that summer I talked with many leaders in various professions—a doctor, a lawyer, the head of a big New York department store, a banker, a broker, and the editor of a powerful newspaper. Each was enthusiastic about the rewards of his own career because each had chosen the work for which he was best suited.

I also talked with men on my father's staff.

At the end of the summer my way was clear. I knew beyond a shadow of doubt that I wanted to be a teacher.

It is a choice I never have regretted.

To me, teaching is the most challenging, exciting, rewarding career a young man or woman can choose, and its satisfactions are many.

It brings dignity of position in the community.

It often gives the security of steady employment and of pension.

It provides more than a comfortable income for the ambitious student who plans a career in education, with the care and determination demanded for success in any profession.

It brings another and very important reward—the sense of doing a job that is meaningful and important.

That our teachers are of vital importance to our way of life, no one can deny.

Society needs some kind of social cement to hold it together. Some nations pound their people into line with soldiers and police. In this country, instead of using force and fear to make our adults behave, we use our teachers to guide our children to be decent, trustworthy people, capable of working with others and also of taking the individual responsibility that is the very foundation of our democratic way of life.

In doing this, teachers guide our national destiny just as importantly as does any statesman.

When we hear "teacher," too many of us get the quick mental picture of an underpaid schoolmarm dusting blackboards in a little red schoolhouse, with small opportunity for advancement.

Nothing could be farther from the facts of a teacher's prospects today.

If your child has the qualifications of a good teacher, there is no special interest he cannot explore, no talent he cannot develop.

Is your child interested in science? In sports? Mathematics? Art? Music? Mechanics? Public Service? History? Languages? Literature? Travel? Our vast school system offers a chance to make a living by specializing in any subject that appeals.

This was brought clearly to mind last spring when I was on a lecture tour of colleges in South America. In half a dozen cities I found American teachers holding important posts. Teaching had given them the chance to satisfy curiosities about other countries and ways of life—and to make a good living as they did so.

On the flight across the Andes my mind went back over a long list of students I had known and the many doors that teaching had opened to them.

Some were holding jobs in Germany. Some had gone to Japan. One adventuresome young woman was having a thrilling time in Alaska. She was all over that booming frontier country, on dog sleds and skis, a vital part of her community.

I thought of the many men and women with marked executive ability who had started as elementary-school teachers and had gone on to become deans and principals and superintendents.

I thought of other students who had specialized in all kinds of fascinating research, like one girl who had chosen to teach the blind. Out of her classroom work she developed an improvement of Braille. Her influence is now felt all over the world.

I thought of countless others who were exploring new techniques in education itself, in psychological guidance, in reading habits, in aptitude testing—the list is endless.

I wondered how anyone could think of teaching as lacking in opportunity for personal satisfaction, as well as professional achievement.

What does it cost to train your child to be a teacher?

Fees at State teachers colleges are low. Four years of college (a B. S. in Education) is enough to make your child self-supporting. After that the young teacher can pay out of his own earnings for what additional schooling his ambition prompts him to take. A great advantage is that his career affords him time to advance himself. If he cannot take an extra year in college for his master's

[1] This article by Dr. Russell was prepared especially for New York Life Insurance Co. It is reprinted in SCHOOL LIFE by special permission.

degree, he can win it and higher degrees during his free summers, and so qualify for the bigger salaries of high school and college posts.

What are your child's financial prospects as a teacher?

The person who goes into teaching for money, only, is in the wrong business, though there are financial prizes to be won at the top of the profession. The estimated average income for classroom teachers last year is $3,045 for 9 months' work. This, admittedly, is not much as money goes today, especially when you remember that 20 percent of those teachers made less than $2,500. On the other hand, thousands of teachers are in a comfortable $5,000 to $10,000 bracket. The superintendent of schools in one of our larger cities earns $32,500 a year.

Do men have a better chance at the bigger jobs than women?

Let's put it this way: Men who choose teaching seem to hit harder for the prizes at the top. Sex is no ban to the biggest jobs, however. The superintendent of schools of the State of Washington is a woman, and there are thousands of women principals. It is talent, merit, and ambition that decide how far your child will go in teaching, just as in any profession.

Is the field overcrowded?

No. Teachers are one of the most severe manpower shortages we have. In 1952 there were about 1,043,000 public school teachers. National Education Association figures show that we shall need 160,000 more by the fall of 1953—and that we shall have only 30,000 newly prepared ones. Any student qualified to teach can make a wide choice among jobs.

How can you tell if your child will be a happy and successful teacher?

1. Does he like to study? A good teacher does not stand still. He has a natural curiosity and scholarship that make him keep pace with all aspects of our changing world, as well as those of his own specialty.

2. Is he interested in other people, particularly in young people? If he is, association with the wonderful zest of the young will keep him young all his life. Too many people go into teaching in a negative way because it is the line of least resistance for them. These become the misfits who give the least and get the least, like the teacher who never married, "Because I loathe kids, and they loathe me." If your child is strongly egocentric, teaching is not for him.

3. Is he adaptable? Does he know how to play on a team? A good teacher must be able to work with others. He must have tact and imagination and a strong sense of fair play, in order to be useful to pupils from all levels of society and to take his own important place in the adult life of his community.

4. Does your child have strong health and nerves? Teaching is a complicated, demanding process. It takes great skill, concentration, and self-discipline. It is not for the physically or emotionally weak.

5. Has your child good character, morals, and manners? Remember that a teacher deals not only with reading, writing, and arithmetic. He sets standards. He forms tastes. He needs to be a moral, decent, thoroughly trustworthy person, himself, if he is to be trusted with the guidance of the young.

6. Does your child believe in the brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God? Without these two beliefs, he will miss the truest satisfaction of teaching. Every good teacher has a sense of "cause" and of service. It is a little more than ordinary public spirit. It is rather more a faith in human perfectibility. For instance, the Nazis were enormously effective teachers, but I would not call them good teachers—because they lacked those two faiths.

If your child has these qualifications, teaching will bring him a comfortable, secure, endlessly interesting life, an assured place in his community and, best of all, the knowledge that his time on earth has been turned to useful account beyond the power of any man to estimate.

In the words of Henry Adams, "A teacher affects eternity. He can never tell where his influence stops."

Fellowship Program for High-School Teachers

THE FUND for the Advancement of Education, established by the Ford Foundation, is announcing a new program of fellowships for approximately 300 public secondary school teachers for the academic year 1954–55. This program is designed to permit the recipients to devote a year away from the classroom to activities that will extend their liberal education, improve their teaching ability, and increase their effectiveness as members of their school systems and communities.

The Fund believes that such an opportunity afforded to teachers of demonstrated ability will substantially contribute to the improvement of secondary teaching throughout this country.

The responsibility for designing the year's activity rests primarily upon the candidate. Because this fellowship program is concerned chiefly with the broadening of the individual, it does not include the same types of specialized activity as teachers have traditionally engaged in during summer months or sabbatical leaves. In other words, Fund fellowships are not to be used for just another year of graduate work or toward a graduate degree in teacher training. The candidate should plan the most stimulating year he can imagine for the enrichment of his life as a teacher.

The amount of the fellowship award will generally be equivalent to the regular salary the teacher would receive during the school year (excluding summer, night school, or other "extra" work), but no less than $3,000. Reasonable allotments will also be added for necessary transportation expenses or for tuition in case the teacher registers at an institution for additional work. Only costs of transportation within the continental limits of the United States may be covered by the grant, though a fellowship recipient is free to undertake foreign travel at his own expense.

During the past 2 years the National Committee on High School Teacher Fellowships has conducted this program for the Fund on an experimental basis, limited to teachers in a selected number of school systems. Building upon this experience, the committee is now ready to offer *all* teachers in public secondary schools the opportunity to compete for these fellowships.

Any classroom teacher in a junior and senior high school who has the necessary

qualifications may enter the local competition. Eligibility for a fellowship is limited to teachers (1) who have taught at least 3 years and have devoted at least half time to classroom teaching in each of the past three academic years, and (2) who will not be more than 50 years of age on April 15, 1954.

Forms for both individual applicants and for local nominating committees are being distributed to superintendents in all high school districts throughout the country. A limited number of additional forms may be obtained from the National Committee on High School Teacher Fellowships, 575 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

Individual applicants should not apply to the Fund for the Advancement of Education but only to their superintendent of schools or local nominating committee.

The recommendations of the local committees should reach the offices of the National Committee on High School Teacher Fellowships no later than March 1, 1954. Final announcement of all fellowship awards will be made on or about April 15, 1954.

Juvenile Delinquency

(*Continued from page 53*)

delinquency unless parents and teachers help them to understand the needs of children and spend the money to make sure these children do not become delinquent through a false sense of economy.

These proposals sound general, I know. They also sound as if I were passing the buck. The fact is: Only individual communities can take action; the Office of Education can and does help by collecting facts and making them available so that local schools can take action. So does the Children's Bureau.

The Office of Education will continue to devote its energies and resources to furthering the long-term measures just outlined. It is ready and eager to use its leadership toward securing a nationwide response from State and local school systems should this hearing and subsequent developments lead to proposals which require specific cooperation of schools with other agencies in tackling one or another phase of this problem. The Office is ready to supply, as it has many times in the past, a channel for the use of funds on State and local levels should appropriations for certain of the more needed services for the delinquent or potentially delinquent be made available.

In any case, this Office of Education statement reflects a recognition generally accepted by the schools of this Nation, I am sure, that they must accept their share of the burden of preventing juvenile delinquency and of caring for delinquents. All the evidence seems to show that juvenile delinquents are not born, but made. The schools have an important share in what must be a cooperative and continuous activity of home, school, and the many social institutions and activities we call "neighborhood." It is our task to help the schools increase their effectiveness in doing their share of the job.

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*)

Adventuring in Literature with Children. Constance Carr, Editor. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1953. (Bulletin No. 92 of the Association for Childhood Education International.) Portfolio of 12 leaflets. 75 cents.

The Administration of the Modern Secondary School. Fourth Edition. By James B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1953. 614 p. $5.

College Board Scores: Their Use and Interpretation. By Henry S. Dyer. New York, N. Y., College Entrance Examination Board, 1953. 70 p. (College Board Scores, No. 1.) 75 cents. (Order from: Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592, Princeton, N. J.)

Developmental Guidance in Secondary School. By Wilson Little and A. L. Chapman. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953. 324 p. $4.50.

The Gifted Child in the Regular Classroom. By Marian Scheifele. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 84 p. (Practical Suggestions for Teaching No. 12.) 95 cents.

How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers? A Guidebook. Limited Edition. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1953. 91 p. (Working Guide No. 6.) Single copies of final edition available free of charge.

How to Take a Test. By Joseph C. Heston. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 47 p. (Life Adjustment Booklet.) 40 cents.

Mathematics For All High School Youth. Report of Basic Skills Conference-Clinics in Mathematics. Albany, N. Y., Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, The State Education Department, 1953. 108 p.

School District Liability. Washington, D. C., American Association of School Administrators, 1953. 23 p. 50 cents.

The Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Elementary School. By Theodore Andersson. Preliminary Edition. Boston. D. C. Heath and Co., 1953. 119 p. $1.25.

Television and Radio in American Life. Edited by Herbert L. Marx, Jr. New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1953. 198 p. (The Reference Shelf, vol. 25, no. 2.) $1.75.

The Use of Pictures to Enrich School Resources: A Guide for Teachers. By Etta Schneider Ress. Mankato, Minn., Creative Educational Society, Inc., 1953. 32 p. $1.

Sports in American Life. By Frederick W. Cozens and Florence Scovil Stumpf. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953. 366 p. $5.

The Work of the Counselor. By Leona E. Tyler. New York Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953. 323 p. $3.

U S GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1954

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HOW TO ORDER

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Office of Education 1953 Publications

Bulletins

1. **Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1952.** 20 cents.

2. **How Children Learn to Write.** 15 cents.

3. **Selected Characteristics of Reorganized School Districts.** 20 cents.

4. **Educational Change in Reorganized School Districts.** 20 cents.

5. **Mathematics in Public High Schools.** 20 cents.

6. **How Children Use the Community for Learning.** 20 cents.

7. **A Directory of 2,660 16 mm. Film Libraries.** 50 cents.

8. **The Common Core of State Educational Information.** 35 cents.

9. **Public Library Statistics.** In press.

Circulars

356. **Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs.** 15 cents.

357. **Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born.** 15 cents.

358. **Faculty Salaries in Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, 1951–52.** 15 cents.

360. **Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1951–52.** 60 cents.

363. **Pupil Appraisal Practices in Secondary Schools.** 50 cents.

366. **Three Dimensional Teaching Aids for Trade and Industrial Instruction.** 45 cents.

371. **Current Expenditures Per Pupil in City School Systems, 1951–52.** 25 cents.

376. **Literacy Education—National Statistics and Other Related Data.** 15 cents.

Miscellaneous Bulletin

18. **Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury.** 65 cents.

Special Publication

1. **Designing Elementary Classrooms.** 35 cents.

Vocational Division Bulletins

249. **With Focus on Family Living.** 60 cents.

250. **The Operation of a Local Program of Trade and Industrial Education.** 45 cents.

251. **Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education, Supplement No. 6.** 30 cents.

252. **Home, School, and Community Experiences in the Homemaking Program.** 25 cents.

Miscellaneous

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.

The Declaration of Independence and Its Story. 10 cents.

Directory of Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. $1.00.

Exchange Teaching Abroad—Under Public Law 584, 79th Congress, The Fulbright Act. 10 cents.

Report of the Status Phase of the School Facilities Survey. 70 cents.

Second Progress Report—School Facilities Survey. 35 cents.

New Free Publications

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1952–53—Summary Report. By Mabel C. Rice and Neva A. Carlson. Circular No. 380a, December 1953.

1952–53 References on the Core in Secondary Schools. Prepared by Grace S. Wright. Circular No. 323, Supplement No. 1, November 1953.

The School Comes to the Home-Bound Child. Prepared by Romaine P. Mackie. Education Briefs No. 13, August 1948 (Re-run October 1953).

Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. By Mabel C. Rice. Statistical Circular No. 379, December 1953.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Accident Frequency, Place of Occurrence, and Relation to Chronic Disease. Public Health Service Publication No. 249, Monograph No. 14, 1953. 35 cents.

Health Manpower Source Book—Section 2, Nursing Personnel. Public Health Service Publication No. 263, May 1953. 40 cents.

Records and Reports of Local Health Departments. Public Health Service Publication No. 285, Monograph No. 15, 1953. 45 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Defense

Pocket Guide to Anywhere. A guide to conduct and good manners for anyone who intends visiting a foreign country. 1953. 20 cents.

Department of State

Your Department of State. Tells how the Department of State serves the national interest, presents the foreign policy goals of the Department, and facts about the Department. 1953. 5 cents.

Post Office Department

Postage Stamps of the United States, 1847–1953. A comprehensive review of all United States postage stamps from the first adhesive stamp, issued in 1847, through the new 6-cent airmail stamp commemorating the 50th anniversary of powered flight and others in circulation as of June 30, 1953. 65 cents.

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OFFICIAL BUSINESS

American Education Week

GOOD SCHOOLS Are Your RESPONSIBILITY

November 7–13, 1954

SUNDAY, NOV. 7
Ideals to Live By

MONDAY, NOV. 8
Teachers for Tomorrow

TUESDAY, NOV. 9
Investing in Good Schools

WEDNESDAY, NOV. 10
Working Together for Good Schools

THURSDAY, NOV. 11
Effective Citizenship

FRIDAY, NOV. 12
Teaching Fundamentals Today

SATURDAY, NOV. 13
How Good Are Your Schools?

With the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Legion, and the National Education Association, the Office of Education, DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE actively sponsors American Education Week.

For materials, write to the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

Volume 36 Number 5
FEBRUARY 1954

Route to

School Life

◂ Making Polio Virus

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

A Continuing Priority

by Oveta Culp Hobby

SECRETARY OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

The President called attention to certain of the problems facing American education in his State of the Union Message.

Among these problems are the need for more teachers and for additional school buildings to keep pace with our rapidly growing population.

In his message the President reaffirmed the principle, traditional in our national life, that the control and direction of public education is a local and State responsibility.

The two education bills introduced Monday (January 18), by Senator H. Alexander Smith of New Jersey embody two of the Administration's proposals in the field of education.

The President's recommendation, calling for a series of State conferences on education, to be followed by a national conference, represents that concept transformed into affirmative action.

These State conferences, with assistance in planning and financing by the Federal Government, would bring together professional educators and other citizens, and would provide the basis for the White House Conference on Education.

The White House Conference on Education would review and utilize the results of these State meetings, concentrating on the national implications of educational problems.

In addition to these proposals of the President, there are plans for continuous attention to be given fundamental educational problems at the national level.

It is proposed that nine leading citizens, with 3-year overlapping terms, be appointed to serve in an advisory capacity to the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This group, to be known as the National Advisory Committee on Education, would meet at least 3 times a year. It would consider educational problems of broad national scope and would recommend the study of such problems by task forces.

The Committee would make specific recommendations to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, on the basis of the reports of these task forces, and from time to time would advise her as to the progress being made on its recommendations. The Commissioner of Education would serve as an ex officio nonvoting member of the Advisory Committee.

These proposals are important steps to be taken in a far-reaching program for the improvement of American education. They would make the fullest possible use of local and State resources, buttressed by the best information that can be supplied from well-organized and available research. They recognize that to meet America's educational problems there must be systematic and sustained effort.

(Continued on page 66)

School ★ Life

Official Journal of the Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

CONTENTS for February 1954

The cover photograph, taken at the Virus Research Laboratory, School of Medicine of the University of Pittsburgh, shows roller drums used to incubate culture tubes for the propagation of the polio virus. For story see page 69.

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

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)

From the

President's Messages

State of the Union

"Youth—our greatest resource—is being seriously neglected in a vital respect. The Nation as a whole is not preparing teachers or building schools fast enough to keep up with the increase in our population.

"The preparation of teachers as, indeed, the control and direction of public education policy, is a state and local responsibility. However, the Federal Government should stand ready to assist States which demonstrably cannot provide sufficient school buildings. In order to appraise the needs, I hope that this year a conference on education will be held in each State, culminating in a national conference. From these conferences on education, every level of government—from the Federal Government to each local school board—should gain the information with which to attack this serious problem."

Budget

Education and General Research

"The citizen in a democracy has the opportunity and the obligation to participate constructively in the affairs of his community and his Nation. To the extent that the educational system provides our citizens with the opportunity for study and learning, the wiser will their decisions be, and the more they can contribute to our way of life.

"I do not underestimate the difficulties facing the States and communities in attempting to solve the problems created by the great increase in the number of children of school age, the shortage of qualified teachers, and the overcrowding of classrooms. The effort to overcome these difficulties strains the taxable resources of many communities. At the same time, I do not accept the simple remedy of Federal intervention.

"It is my intention to call a national conference on education, composed of educators and interested citizens, to be held after preparatory conferences in the States. This conference will study the facts about the Nation's educational problems and recommend sensible solutions. We can then proceed with confidence on a constructive and effective long-range program. Pending the outcome of these conferences and the development of our educational program, the Federal Government is providing assistance to those communities where school needs have been greatly increased by the activities of the Federal Government.

"Budget expenditures for education and general research activities in the fiscal year 1955 are estimated at 223 million dollars. This figure does not include amounts spent for education and research in connection with the military, veterans', atomic energy, and certain other programs—which are classified in other sections of the budget. * * *

"Sixty-two percent of the expenditures for education and general research in the fiscal year 1955 will be for grants to those local school districts that have been burdened by Federal activities. Another 13 percent will be for grants to States to help support their vocational education programs and their land-grant colleges. The Federal Government also assists Howard University and educational institutions for the deaf and blind, and it maintains major library and museum services at the National Capital. Expenditures shown for general-purpose research are for programs of the Census Bureau, the National Bureau of Standards, and the National Science Foundation.

"*Promotion of education.*—Responsibility for education in the United States belongs to the State and local governments. The Federal Government has for many years provided financial assistance for land-grant colleges and some other educational activities. The Office of Education also disseminates information on educational trends and good practices. In recent years, the problems of education have been increasing in severity while this service has been reduced. My budget recommendations provide for an expansion of this basic activity.

"The proposed national conference and preparatory State Conferences will be most important steps toward obtaining effective nationwide recognition of these problems and toward recommending the best solutions and remedies. I recommend

immediate enactment of the authorizing legislation and appropriations so that preparations for the individual State conferences as well as the national conference can begin at once.

"Within the appropriation recommended for the Office of Education in this budget is provision to expand the studies and consultations through which it promotes better practices in education. One problem to which particular attention will be given is the meager education received by children of migrant agricultural workers. Because these children move with their parents from State to State, the problem of providing for their education can be solved only through special effort on a cooperative interstate basis.

"In addition, I recommend that legislation be enacted which will enable the Office of Education to join its resources with those of State and local agencies, universities, and other educational organizations for the conduct of cooperative research, surveys, and demonstration projects. Legislation is necessary to make this cooperative effort effective.

"An advisory committee on education in the Office of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare should be established by law. This recommendation carries forward an objective of the reorganization plan under which the Department was created last year. This committee, composed of lay citizens, would identify educational problems of national concern to be studied by the Office of Education or by experts outside the Government, and would advise on action needed in the light of these studies.

"For these new activities directed toward the improvement and strengthening of our basic educational services, I am including 300,000 dollars in the 1955 budget and recommending a 1954 supplemental appropriation of 2 million dollars.

"The last session of the Congress enacted legislation to extend temporarily the laws under which assistance has been provided to local school districts burdened by Federal activities, and to improve the original laws so that they will provide the aid economically and to the areas most acutely affected. As a result of these improvements, the recommended appropriation of 59 million dollars for school-operating assistance in the fiscal year 1955 is 14 million dollars below the amount for 1954. This assistance is provided to more than 2,000 school districts, with enrollments of almost 5 million children, of whom almost 1 million qualify for assistance because their presence is related to Federal activities.

"The appropriation of 40 million dollars for school construction recommended for 1955, together with the 1954 appropriation of 70 million dollars, will provide for the most urgent classroom needs of the school districts eligible for this aid under the extended program. These funds are being used to help build almost 5,000 classrooms to serve 140,000 children.

"*Aid to special groups.*—A construction program now under way at Howard University will provide facilities for double the enrollment in the schools of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and related health fields. This budget includes funds for the construction of the preclinical medical building, the last unit necessary to make this expanded enrollment possible. Although the university is not limited to any group, it serves as an important center of higher education for Negroes. The expanded enrollment, therefore, will help to alleviate the shortage of doctors, particularly Negro doctors.

"Enrollment at the Columbia Institution for the Deaf has been increasing in recent years. Steps now being taken to enable the college to reach an accredited status in the near future include the provision of additional teachers and funds for the construction of a library-classroom building. One-third the cost of this building is being provided by contributions, primarily from former students.

"*General research.*—The National Science Foundation was created by the Congress in recognition of the need to formulate an adequate scientific research policy for the Nation. It is now engaged in intensive studies to that end, and is giving particular attention to the size and composition of the research activities of the Federal Government.

"The Congress, at its last session, amended the basic act of the Foundation, removing the ceiling on appropriations to this agency in order to permit steps toward increasing the responsibility of the Foundation for the general-purpose basic research of the Federal Government. Approximately one-half of the 6-million-dollar increase I am recommending in the appropriation for the Foundation for the fiscal year 1955 is in reality a transfer of the responsibility and the financing for certain basic research programs from the Department of Defense to the National Science Foundation. The remainder of the increase is needed to expand basic research.

"Within the appropriation for the National Bureau of Standards, there is also provision for an increase in basic research.

"Additional basic research is needed to build up the fund of knowledge on which will be based the development of new crops for agriculture, new methods of safeguarding health, new tools for industry, and new weapons. A further important result is the training which basic research projects provide for graduate students in our universities. The number of trained scientists graduating each year falls short of the needs of our growing economy and is still declining. Enlargement of the research program and the related fellowship program will help counteract this trend.

"Funds are requested for the fiscal year 1955 to permit the Census Bureau to conduct a sample census of agriculture. This census will provide essential data for current needs."

"*College housing.*—Under the Housing Act of 1950, the Housing Administrator makes direct loans repayable over 40 years to finance student and faculty housing at colleges and universities. Net expenditures for such loans in 1955 will rise to 58 million dollars, largely under commitments made in prior years. By June 30, 1955, over 200 loans will have been approved. These will finance construction of housing accommodations for about 50,000 students and faculty members. Wherever possible, private financing of these loans will be encouraged."

A Continuing Priority

(*Continued from page 2 cover*)

The proposals of the President were made with the deep conviction that the problems of the Nation's schools can and will be solved cooperatively by the local community, the State, and the Federal Government. The Federal Government must come into the picture only where the national interest requires national leadership and action.

In the words of President Eisenhower, I agree that "Our schools—all our schools * * * must have a continuing priority in our concern for community and national welfare."

Better Education for All Our Children

by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems

EDUCATION has been a major factor in making America a great Nation. Education has made its people critical, inquiring, and resourceful. Since the pioneers provided publicly supported schools in Massachusetts in 1647, Americans' thirst for education has never been quenched. It spread quickly to all national and ethnic groups who came to our shores.

This thirst for knowledge still exists—perhaps more strongly in some of our minority groups than in the population at large. This intellectual desire was symbolized for me last year when I visited a stimulating book exhibit, to observe National Book Week. Hundreds of new volumes for children and adolescents filled the exhibit racks. Book jackets of cowboy, Indian, nature, rocket, and science fiction were as gay and thrilling as a circus parade. Children from the public schools were avidly scanning the contents of these books. There were no chairs in the exhibit rooms because book exhibits were everywhere. Therefore, everyone was standing while looking through the books. As I put a book back in place, one bright-eyed boy rushed up to me with a book titled "Rockets to the Moon" and said, "Say, mister, do you know where I can sit down so I can read this book through to the end?"

Since this incident I have wondered what will happen to this boy—and thousands like him. Will his teachers, parents, and other adults stimulate and enlarge his interests in science? Will they encourage him to stay in high school and make sacrifices of time and money so that he can study engineering or science in college? Today America has a serious shortage of engineers and scientists. As soon as atomic energy is more widely used for peacetime purposes, the demand for scientists and engineers will increase tremendously—not only in America but throughout the world.

This article is an adaptation of an address originally made by Dr. Reed before the Annual Convention of Alpha Kappa Sorority at St. Louis, Missouri, December 27, 1953. Because of the length of the address, it will be presented in two parts for School Life readers. This is the first part of his interesting presentation.

We are aware of the fact that in the mid-twentieth century our national safety and liberty—and perhaps our survival—will depend to a large degree upon an educated citizenry. We no longer outnumber our enemies. We cannot afford to plow under any brainpower—instead we must cultivate it so that its fruits will contribute to the good of all. Yet the statistics show that the numbers of students who are dropped from the rolls of elementary and secondary schools are large. Office of Education statistics show that of every 1,000 children enrolled in the fifth grade in 1942–43, only 505 were graduated from high school in 1949–50. National commissions have estimated that 50 percent or more of the gifted children born in families of below average income do not attend institutions of higher learning, and it is needless to point out here that as many gifted children are found among the low-income groups as among any others. One local research study (by Helen B. Goetsch) found that only 20 percent of the superior high school graduates from lower-income groups were attending college.

This problem of drop-outs cuts across all national and ethnic groups—although we know that it is especially severe among certain minority groups. Several years ago, the Office of Education worked with representatives of State and local school systems on the problem "Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School, and What Can We Do About It?" As a result of work conferences, the bulletin *Improving School Holding Power: Some Research Proposals* was published in 1951 by the Office of Education. Since then hundreds of schools in this country have studied the number of drop-outs, the reasons for students' dropping out, and ways to improve educational programs.

Report of Study

One of these studies was reported this year by Dillard University, New Orleans, La., in a publication called *Holding Power and the Secondary School.* It is part of a principals' research program called "The High School in the Changing Social Order: A Five-Year Study of Problems and Opportunities Confronting Negro Youth." The schools in the study were located in 9 Southern States and included a total of 10,903 ninth-grade students for the school year 1951–52. During that year a total of 588 students withdrew from school involuntarily; and a total of 771 dropped out voluntarily. Involuntary withdrawals included youth who moved, were drafted, died, or whose whereabouts was unknown. Voluntary withdrawals included boys and girls who got jobs, enlisted, married, or withdrew because of their inability to adjust in school. Thus, there was a total of 1,359 voluntary and involuntary withdrawals out of a beginning ninth-grade enrollment of less than 11,000. Reasons for this high rate of drop-outs were analyzed for clues to curriculum revision. The analysis suggested these basic problems: (1) How can the ninth-grade program be vitalized so youth will want to remain in school? (2) How can teachers be made sensitive to needs of boys and girls in a changing society? (3) How can the school help underprivileged youth to feel secure and adjusted

so they will want to remain in school? (4) What responsibility does the school have in helping youth to seek part-time employment so they may remain in school? (5) What can the school do to prepare youth for a prolonged period of military activity requiring their induction? (6) How can the school reduce the cost of a high school education to youth?

Experimental Solutions

After identifying their problems, the principals worked out practical, experimental solutions. They are particularly interesting to me because they are related to a recent conference of 25 educational leaders held in the Office of Education on the subject of major problems and movements in American education. The purpose of the conference was to identify major problems of education across the nation, to analyze major movements and trends in education, and to discover the principles and forces that bring about educational improvement.

First and foremost in their discussion was this principle: In order to improve the education of children we must involve in the process the persons who are to be affected by the change which leads to improvement. In other words, if we want a good community school—one which will serve the families in the community—we must involve the people in school activities. The bulletin *Holding Power and the Secondary School*, shows how this principle of involvement can be implemented in respect to drop-outs. It shows the importance of parent-teacher cooperation, of home visits of teachers having absentees, and of good human relations among the administration, pupil, and family.

Community Responsibility

As you know, education under our government is primarily the responsibility of local communities, subject to legislative control by the State concerned. We want this freedom for our local schools. It permits differences, variations, experimentation, and growth. Villages, towns, and cities in America vary tremendously in many respects, such as quality of family life, social cooperativeness, public spirit, and financial resources. Schools also vary greatly in many ways such as type of housing, faculty, instructional matreials, and most important—quality of instruction.

In my present position, and as a former State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Nebraska, I have visited hundreds of schools—both here and abroad. One thing stands out in my mind: the quality and effectiveness of an elementary or high school are based primarily on the willingness of the citizens—and not just the parents—in the community to inform themselves about what their school is trying to do, how it is carrying on, and the results it is producing. This interest in the local schools by our citizens must include representatives from *all* income levels and *all* vocational and professional groups.

I know of one small nation with meager natural resources where the people have developed community schools which have enriched—both materially and spiritually—the whole population. I can think of another nation, rich in silver and other natural resources, where the people have not had as a primary goal the development of a forward looking education program. Their standard of living is among the lowest in the world. Also, I can think of many schools in America which have added to the income and happiness of the total community because the people sought the values of education. They were willing to work with the board of education, the superintendent, the principal, the teachers, and students in order to make the school program better. These people were not carping critics but hardy helpers!

Some Exceptions

Although there are exceptions, urban communities with low-level incomes frequently have more difficulty in enlisting general cooperation from adults than other types of communities. Also, communities having minority groups of one type or other often find an unwillingness or a reticence of these groups to participate in community action programs. This reticence to help is not a selfish attitude. Instead it is frequently based on a feeling of insecurity or inadequacy because the problem situation is strange and unfamiliar. All of us have had similar reactions in new situations.

Those of you who are teaching, or have taught, know how difficult it is to reach the parents of the failing or delinquent child. They don't visit the school, they don't want to talk with the teacher, and sometimes they don't want their adolescent boys and girls to be in school. These are the parents who need help in orienting themselves to the values of education, the aims of our schools, and the subject areas available to their children. Also, they need to become involved in helping to make their schools better. When these persons, and the critics of the schools, become involved, they frequently are astounded by the magnitude of the problems and work hardest to overcome them.

Progress Stressed

The contributions which the American people have made and are making to educational progress was stressed last summer by the late Dr. Lee M. Thurston, then Commissioner of Education. He stated that individual citizens and those people who are members of such organizations as parent-teacher associations and lay citizen groups should be credited with the tremendous progress being made in American education. To quote Dr. Thurston: "PTA's throughout the country now have 7,953,000 members. This is double their membership of 1946. Also *today* in 8,000 communities there are lay citizen committees working on educational problems with local school boards and administrators. In 1950, there were *fewer* than 1,000 lay citizen groups of this kind known to the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools."

(To be concluded in the next issue)

High Tribute to Teachers

"No group in society has contributed more to America than those who give their lives to the cause of education. It is about time we do public honor to the teaching profession. They get too little recognition. Too often they get unjust criticism."

CHIEF JUSTICE EARL WARREN, *U. S. Supreme Court, before the George Washington University Alumni, National Press Club, Washington, D. C.*

Polio Vaccine Tests in the Schools

In the Hope of Ending Polio

by Hart E. Van Riper, M. D.,

Medical Director of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, in charge of the polio vaccine tests

IN THE coming weeks schools in some 200 communities of the country will take part in a scientific project unique in the annals of medicine. The purpose is to test on school children the effectiveness of a vaccine in preventing the paralysis that frequently results after infection with poliomyelitis virus. Prospects are bright that this trial vaccine may become the answer to polio control.

The vaccine was developed by Dr. Jonas E. Salk of the University of Pittsburgh, under a grant from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis (March of Dimes). It has already been tested for safety and effectiveness, first in studies with laboratory animals and then with nearly 700 individuals. The inoculation of another 5,000 children and adults in the Pittsburgh area will be completed by Dr. Salk before the mass trials with hundreds of thousands of school children begin. The trials will start in late March or early April and will be completed by June 1, 1954, before the usual rise in polio incidence. Results will not be known until sometime in 1955.

The field trials and inoculations will be conducted by State, county, and community health officials for the National Foundation, with the cooperation of school officials and volunteer workers in the areas involved. Local physicians, volunteering through county medical societies, will administer the inoculations, assisted by nurses volunteering in a similar manner. The test areas, not yet announced, are being selected upon recommendation of the individual State health officers, based on scientific criteria.

Only children in the first, second, and third grades will take part, upon the written request of their parents. This group falls within the age bracket most susceptible to polio. Not all of these children will receive the vaccine; many will serve as controls. In some schools first-, second-, and third-grade children will be inoculated, but only half of them with the trial vaccine. The other 50 percent will receive an innocuous fluid, similar in appearance but completely ineffective. In this way polio incidence in the two groups can be compared after the epidemic season in the summer and fall is over. No one at the trials will know which substance each child receives. Careful records will be kept on each child, but the code will not be broken until scientists are ready to begin the evaluation.

In other areas, only second-grade children will be inoculated, and they will receive the trial polio vaccine. However, incidence records will be kept on all three grades, so that children in the first and third grades may serve as controls. It can then be determined whether children who received the vaccine actually were protected when polio came to their neighborhood and they were exposed to the virus.

All three types of the polio virus are used in making the trial vaccine. The virus is grown in tissue cultures of monkey kidney, killed by exposure to formalin, and prepared in a watery solution. For maximum protection, three injections of 1 cc. each are necessary. The first two doses are given a week apart, the third booster dose 4 weeks after the second. Both for the benefit of the children and for the accuracy of the tests, it is especially important that every child in the injected groups receive all three doses.

Although the safety of the vaccine has been clearly demonstrated in preliminary studies by Dr. Salk, each batch used in the mass trials will be subjected to three rigid safety tests. The tests will be performed by Dr. Salk's laboratory at the University of Pittsburgh, by the commercial manufacturer, and by the Laboratory of Biologics Control of the National Institutes of Health, a branch of the Public Health Service, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

It has been shown that the vaccine can

stimulate the production of antibodies in the blood serum which are specific against all three types of polio virus, indicating active immunity against paralytic polio. If the virus can be stopped in the bloodstream before it penetrates to the central nervous system, paralysis may be prevented. Sufficient level of antibodies, thus produced, should make an individual resistant to the paralytic effects of polio for a long period. Whether the vaccine is highly effective, moderately effective, or ineffective will be proved conclusively through the forthcoming mass tests with children.

Most of the virus for the vaccine is being grown at the Connaught Medical Research Laboratories of the University of Toronto, where the tissue-culture process has been studied since 1949 under a grant from the National Foundation. Five leading pharmaceutical companies are currently producing the vaccine on a nonprofit basis for the tests only. The National Foundation has allocated $7,500,000 in March of Dimes funds for the operation. There will be no cost to parents of children participating in the trials.

Dr. Thomas Francis, Jr., chairman of the Department of Epidemiology in the University of Michigan School of Public Health and one of the nation's leading authorities on epidemics, will direct an independent evaluation study of the trials, financed by a National Foundation grant. An evaluation center will be established at the University of Michigan, and the University's Survey Research Center will assist in collecting data and preparing statistical analyses.

In the meantime, everyone must wait with patience for the results of the tests. The situation will not be very much changed in 1954. Again we shall have to turn to stopgap measures to stem the rise of polio incidence. There will be at least three times as much gamma globulin available this summer as last, largely through March of Dimes purchases amounting to $19,000,000. While the 1954 method of allocation has not yet been announced, GG will undoubtedly be used for *mass* prophylaxis in communities where an epidemic appears imminent. It must be remembered that GG is only a *temporary* preventive and can be expected to be effective only when administered at the right time and in the right amount.

Even with increased amounts, there will not be enough GG to protect everyone. Parents must rely again on the precautions which have been advocated every year when polio comes: Keep children away from crowds and new contacts; avoid fatigue and chilling; keep clean; report symptoms of illness promptly to your doctor.

If these tests to prove that immunization against polio is possible are to be completely successful, they must have the cooperation of the whole community. Thorough orientation of school administrators and teachers in the facts about the vaccine trials will go far toward convincing parents of the safety and importance of this great scientific project. Nor can the educational experience for the children be discounted. Even very young children can understand something about this effort—on a community basis—to free them from a dreaded disease.

The help of the schools is especially needed in carrying on the educational phase of the operation. Special materials will be provided for the information and instruction of parents and the community, and for the use of the teacher in the classroom. Local chapters of the National Foundation will organize volunteer assistants to help with the tests and to give out information. Their services will be available to the schools.

Flash Reviews —of New Office of Education Publications

These publications are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

MATHEMATICS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, by Kenneth E. Brown, Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 5, 47 pages—20 cents—discusses such questions as:

Are enough pupils taking mathematics in high school so our national supply of scientists and engineers can continue to increase? Are there as many pupils enrolled in mathematics in the secondary public schools as there were ten years ago? What mathematics, if any, is required of the pupils in the public high schools? Are field trips a major part of the work in mathematics in the present curriculum?

HOW CHILDREN LEARN TO WRITE, by Helen K. Mackintosh and Wilhelmina Hill, Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 2, 24 pages—15 cents—shows that the *development of written expression is a continuous process which has a simple beginning with young children. During each year of their elementary school lives, children add new skills and further develop those they already possess. In this bulletin the illustrations stress the close relationship of spelling, handwriting, and the expression of ideas in written form.*

This new publication discusses six of the most important questions that teachers and parents ask about how children learn to express themselves in writing.

This is another in a series of bulletins on the place of subjects in the elementary school curriculum. The overall publication, The Place of Subjects in the Curriculum, Bulletin 1949, No. 12, showed how subject matter is introduced into the program in a modern school. As a follow-up, a series of bulletins was planned with six in that series now completed. They are How Children Use Arithmetic, Bulletin 1951, No. 7; How Children Learn About Human Rights, Bulletin 1951, No. 9; How Children Learn To Think, Bulletin 1951, No. 10; How Children Learn To Read, Bulletin 1952, No. 7; How Children and Teacher Work Together, Bulletin 1952, No. 14; and How Children Learn To Write. All bulletins in the series are 15 cents each.

HOME, SCHOOL, AND COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES IN THE HOMEMAKING PROGRAM, by Druzilla Kent, Margaret Alexander, and Mary Laxson, Office of Education Vocational Division Bulletin No. 252, Home Economics Education Series No. 29, 69 pages, 1953—25 cents—was prepared to show teachers some ways that learning experiences carried on at school, in the home, and in the community can be integrated into a *total* program focused on overall homemaking education goals.

Building a close relationship between school experiences and home experiences has been a characteristic part of homemaking instruction ever since Federal funds were first made available for the development of vocational education programs in homemaking.

Preparation for home and family living is more and more being considered one of the important goals of education in the modern school.

Safety in Pupil Transportation

by E. Glenn Featherston, Director, Administration of State and Local School Systems Branch

SAFEGUARDING the child has been one of the primary considerations in pupil transportation since it was first provided at public expense approximately 80 years ago. In the days when the horse and wagon traveled roads relatively free of motor traffic the safety measures that were needed were fairly simple. A sturdy vehicle with some protection against the weather, a gentle team, and a responsible neighbor constituted most of the safety precautions a half or three-quarters of a century ago. Even 25 years ago school busses did not find it necessary to combat such traffic and travel such distances as are common today. We now use more than 130,000 vehicles to transport more than 8,000,000 children to and from school daily. Many of these vehicles may travel from 40 to 100 miles in a day. They may carry as many as 100 to 150 children sometime during the day. They often travel on heavily loaded transcontinental highways or almost equally heavily traveled State roads. They are out in all kinds of weather and at all times of the day. Safety of the transported child is much more complicated than ever before, and it challenges the best thinking of State and local school administrators.

Many things about the transportation program contribute to its safety. On a few of these we have made great progress; on others some progress has been made; and on still others progress is very slow. Providing a safe vehicle is one important step toward safe transportation. There are two aspects of the problem of providing a safe vehicle. The first is the procurement of a vehicle which meets reasonable construction standards, and the second is maintaining this vehicle in a safe operating condition. On the first probably more progress has been made than on any single aspect of pupil transportation. In 1939 a national conference consisting of representatives of the 48 State departments of education and consultants met for a week and developed recommendations on national standards for school busses. Subsequent national conferences met in 1945 and 1948 to revise these recommendations in the light of experience and new technical developments in the automotive industry. A fourth such conference is now planned for 1954. These recommendations, of course, do not have the force of law until they are adopted by the States. However, approximately 44 States have adopted regulations which are in substantial agreement with or exceed those recommended by the national conference, and the other 4 States recommended them. The machinery for enforcing these regulations ranges from very little in some States to the requirement that the vehicle pass inspection before it is put in service in other States. The problem of obtaining a safe vehicle is no longer a major one.

The task of satisfactorily maintaining school busses is one which cannot well be dramatized by a national conference or any other such device. It is just a day-by-day never-ending job. Some States have cooperatively developed standards for and procedures of maintenance; they have had statewide meetings; they have given courses of instruction; and they have continuously supplied consultative service. Even with all this encouragement there are in most States some rather poor programs of maintenance. By and large, those States which have local units large enough to operate fleets of 15 to 100 busses usually have fairly effective maintenance programs. It is in those which have units operating from 1 to 5 busses that preventive maintenance is least frequently found in effective operation. Some States have attempted to see that busses are kept in safe operating condition by requiring annual or semiannual official inspection. While such inspections undoubtedly have a beneficial effect, they do not and cannot replace regular and thorough maintenance inspections. Since preventive maintenance has an economic as well as a safety aspect, it is difficult to see why it should not receive more emphasis at both State and local levels.

A second aspect of pupil transportation which has a close relation to safety is that of operating procedures. This probably requires less in the way of national action than school bus standards. However, some operating practices require uniform application in all States. The recommendation of a stop law was one of the actions of the 1948 National Conference on Pupil Transportation. This stop law was subsequently incorporated as a part of the Uniform Vehicle Code developed by a national committee. This recommendation was enacted into law in substantially the recommended form by 40 States, and some variation of it has been enacted by the other 8 States. However, further uniformity is needed in the type, location, and use of signaling devices and in the handling of children before they board busses or after they have alighted from them. These points must be studied and agreements should be reached at future national conferences. Perhaps other related points must receive similar attention.

A capable, well-trained and conscientious school bus driver is by long odds the best insurance against school bus accidents. Of course, there are accidents which no driver could have avoided, but there are also many which might have been foreseen by an alert driver. Good school bus drivers do not just happen. They do not happen in many cases even after they have been systematically sought. There are many obstacles to be overcome. One of the chief ones is low pay for part-time work. This will always be present to some degree, but careful planning usually makes it possible to use some full-time employees for this service. However, many States and local units have not done all that can be done to obtain fairly able and competent drivers under present conditions. Several things can be done.

First, the process for selecting school bus drivers should be as systematic as that for selecting other employees of the school system. In some local units it may still be a patronage job. In others the idea may prevail that any handyman will make a good school bus driver. All applicants or possible bus drivers should be considered on the basis of qualifications, and the administrator should make his recommendations on the basis of his evaluation. The school

(*Continued on page 80*)

What's Ahead for Educational Television?

by Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television

EDUCATIONAL television is on the march. Although 242 television channels were set aside exclusively for the use of education by the FCC and made permanent in June 1953, 3 more station areas have, of necessity, already been added—one at Amherst, Mass., center for University of Massachusetts and Amherst College; another at North Adams, Mass., for the Williams College area; and a third at Bowling Green, Ohio, where the Bowling Green State University is located. There are now 45 applications filed with the FCC for educational channels, covering all areas of the United States. Of these, 29 construction permits have been granted and 4 stations are already on the air.

Stations now in operation are: WOI–TV, Iowa State College, Ames; KUHT, the University of Houston, Texas, with the Houston School District; KTHE, the Allan Hancock Foundation at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles; and WKAR–TV, Michigan State College, Lansing. The first two are in the VHF band; the second two are in the UHF band and are therefore limited to reception by new-type receivers or UHF adapters. Although this may appear to be a disadvantage at first glance, it may easily prove to be a blessing, since both schools and individuals now finding attractive programs available for their use will equip with the best and most modern sets while programs can be beamed especially for them.

Stations planning to open this spring are: KETC, St. Louis Educational TV Commission; KQED, Bay Area Television Association at San Francisco; WHA–TV, at the University of Wisconsin, Madison; WCET, Greater Cincinnati TV Foundation, Ohio; WQED, Metropolitan Pittsburgh TV Station, Pennsylvania; KUOW, University of Washington, Seattle; and WOSU–TV, Ohio State University, Columbus.

Stations planning to begin operation in the fall and winter of 1954 are located at Washington, D. C., Boston, Chicago, Memphis, Nashville, Birmingham Sacramento, San Diego, Denver, Jacksonville, Miami, Atlanta, Savannah, Athens, Manhattan (Kansas), Ann Arbor, New Brunswick (N. J.), Chapel Hill, Raleigh, and Greensboro (N. C.), Oklahoma City and Norman, Providence, San Antonio, Milwaukee, and San Juan.

This is a happy picture for educational television, but it does not represent adequate facilities for nationwide use of television in the classroom nor even for adult education. All the 245 channels assigned, and possibly more, will be needed to accomplish the objective. Already more than 100 of our universities are putting TV programs on the air, and 79 school systems are preparing programs which are received daily in the schools from standard commercial stations. More than half of all the programs originating from schools in 1953 were to show the public what was happening in their schools. The number will not diminish in 1954 but will rather be supplemented by many more teacher programs to be viewed both in the classroom and in the home.

Great growth of educational stations will occur in 1954, but even greater growth should take place in programing for essential needs. The standard commercial TV networks have sensed this and are adding many new programs of high quality for adult listening and viewing of wide general interest in the fields of art, science, the literature of the drama, news comment, forum discussions, and direct adult education. Programs include performances like *Hedda Gabler, Richard II* (2 hours' duration with Maurice Evans in the title role), and the dramatization of Dreiser's *An American Tragedy* under the title *A Place in the Sun.* The dramatizations of history, such as the *Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*, the *Trial of Marie Antoinette*, the *Ordeal of Tom Paine*, are all to be found on "You Are There!" (Sunday evening series on CBS). The Alfred P. Sloan Foundation's *American Inventory* is an inventory of what is hap-

pening in our country in the field of general culture. *Adventure*, a natural history series from the Museum of Natural History, New York, presents programs for both young and old, on Sunday afternoons. *Excursion*, another youth program of the Ford Foundation on NBC with Burgess Meredith as guide, comes earlier in the afternoon, followed by *Omnibus*, the Ford Foundation "Cultural variety show" on CBS. Education is spoofed by *Mr. Peepers* and *Our Miss Brooks*, complicated by *Meet Mr. McNutley* on Thursday evenings, and soon to be dignified again with *Halls of Ivy*, where Ronald Colcman plays a lovable college "prexy." *Johns Hopkins Science Review*, now heard and seen on Wednesday evenings, Bishop *Fulton J. Sheen* on Tuesdays, *Robert Montgomery Presents* on Mondays along with *Studio One*, *See It Now* with Edward R. Murrow on Tuesdays, and another clever Murrow program *Person to Person* on Fridays leave Saturday night the only night free of intentional education for everyone's enjoyment of *Your Show of Shows*. The "brainy Sunday afternoon" is available rain or shine on television with programs described.

In California, a series by Professor Frank Baxter on Shakespeare has developed an outstanding audience at 11:00 a. m. Saturday mornings, and in Chicago, *Zoo Parade* and *Mr. Wizard* hold vast TV audience appeal, almost as great as *Ding Dong School* holds for preschool youngsters and their mothers every week-day morning. These, then, are the principal educational programs already available to the public that has now purchased nearly 30 million TV receivers.

Educational TV stations opening this year will bring many new different programs to the viewer. In the first place, many *Telecourses* in university extension either for credit toward a degree or for certification in the field of psychology, philosophy, art, music, history, economics, anthropology, languages, and literature have been added.

The four educational stations now on the air show a trend toward the practical type of program which meets the needs of its audience. Although there are 16 telecourses on KUHT, Houston, Texas, there are also programs of news "in focus," portrait photography, household chemistry, and music understanding. An eperimental theatre and a university forum are also included. WOI–TV at Amcs, Iowa, does a complete series of daily programs for in-school viewing called *Schooltime* as well as special programs in agricultural helps, home economics, and health and welfare. KTHE, Los Angeles, has startled the community with a remarkable children's participation program called *Let's Play Like*, to develop creative and dramatic skills in youngsters. WKAR–TV, in a 6-hour daily schedule, presents a new idea in interpretive reporting of the general news, including a program on campus news highlights for the benefit of the "extended" campus audience. There are also programs for the farmer, for the businessman, for the housewife, for the youthful audience, for the art and music lover, and for the "gadgeteer," who loves to improve his home, develop his hobbies, and continue his education. The trend, then, is definitely toward the practical in the public service type of program. This requires constant vigilance in gauging public needs and evaluating response. Thomas Wolfe, when he was a professor at New York University, called this "utility culture," but later on, admitted its value.

The trend in school programing is definitely toward a close tie-up with the curriculum. In San Diego, for example, the school programs are all planned to fit curriculum needs and are worked out under the supervision of Robert Burgert, the director of instructional aids, as director and coordinator of all programs reaching pupils in the schools. The 3-way lesson of 1) preparation, 2) viewing, 3) follow-up is a prescribed practice taken over from the radio and motion-picture lesson techniques. Subjects in *Iowa Schooltime* include health (junior high), science (elementary), social studies (grades 5, 6, 7) guidance (high school), Iowa history (grades 5–8), and art (elementary).

A philosophy of approach and practice is slowly being evolved by educational television. This past summer there were two national meetings, one at Lincoln Lodge, Wis., and the other at Gunflint Lodge, Minn., to help develop such thinking. Both conferences were sponsored by the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, with the cooperation of the Joint Committee on Educational Television. However, "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," and ideas must be translated into live programs. The $88,000 in subvention of funds through the Educational TV and Radio Program Center at Ann Arbor for the production of programs is only the beginning of help which must be given to bring ideas into programs. The NAEB, through its *Jefferson Heritage* and *Ways of Mankind* series for radio, has demonstrated that it can do this job well, and so much is expected in tailor-made programs.

What's ahead for educational television? Great growth and wide public acceptance of programs made to fit the needs of viewers.

KUHT, University of Houston, presents an agricultural program on the value of coastal grasses heretofore largely disregarded as a natural feed crop.

EDUCATION OF NEGROES

Segregation Issue Before the Supreme Court

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner

One of the most far-reaching and significant issues before the Supreme Court is whether or not the Constitution permits State and local school systems to segregate white and Negro pupils. Because of the possible impact which the cases will have on American education, and because they are of particular concern to students and educators, **School Life** *herewith presents the first of a series of factual articles on the issues now before the Court.*

FOR the benefit of persons who may not be familiar with the circumstances surrounding and leading up to the problem of school segregation now before the Supreme Court, a few historical facts are presented here.

In 17 States [1] and the District of Columbia, school segregation of Negroes and white persons has been required by State law. Segregation has been the general pattern in practically every phase of life since the close of the Civil War. In certain other States [2] partial segregation has been practiced under the protection of permissive legislation.

Segregation was an important issue even in the early beginning of the education of Negroes. Because of the tense feelings during and immediately following Reconstruction, and because of the educational limitations of Negroes, many persons believed that the only way their education could be assured was in separate schools.

The Freedmen's Bureau, established by Congress in 1866, considered education of Negroes to be one of its major responsibilities. What it did in establishing free public schools for them later served as a foundation for the public school systems established in the South by the Reconstruction governments. During this period free education was not popular for anyone, and many whites opposed the education of Negroes because of the political implications, their dislike of the sponsoring Bureau, their disbelief in the educability of Negroes, the poverty of the States, and other attitudes engendered by the slave system. In spite of these hindrances, Negroes had achieved a semblance of educational equality by the end of Reconstruction in 1875. There was even considerable sentiment for mixed schools, and they actually existed for a short time in a few places. Even at that early date, the theory of "separate but equal" was challenged.

"SEPARATE BUT EQUAL" THEORY

Litigation challenging segregation and discrimination started soon after the Civil War and has continued intermittently until the present time. One writer [3] has calculated that there were 44 cases reported between 1865 and 1935 which challenged segregation; and 28 cases were brought to remedy specific inequalities. Until the present cases, however, most of the litigation, while suggesting interest in the eradication of segregation, has concentrated on the elimination of discrimination under the doctrine of "separate but equal." This doctrine was enunciated by the U. S. Supreme Court in 1896, in the famous case of *Plessy* v. *Ferguson.*

Counsel for the plaintiffs in the present cases, as well as the Attorney General, contend that the pattern of discrimination prevailing during the last half century was set by the sanction which the Supreme Court gave to the policy of segregation through the *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* (163 U. S. 537) decision, and by the continual acceptance by the Court of the interpretations of "equality" between the races given by the local school officials.

CONCEPT OF EQUALITY CHANGES

The way was prepared for this attack when the Supreme Court began to define the personal character of the relief sought. In reference to this, the Attorney General's brief in the instant cases said that:

"The judicial inquiry * * * is not simply to determine whether there is equality as between schools: the Constitution requires that there be equality as between *persons.* The Fourteenth Amendment [4] compels a State to grant the benefits of public education to all its people equally, without regard to differences of race or color. This has not always been as clear as it is today." [5] This principle was set forth in 1938 in *Missouri ex rel. Gaines* v. *Canada,* 305 U. S. 337. Three other cases in which

[1] Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.

[2] Arizona, Illinois, Indiana, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

[3] Leflar, Robert A., *and* Davis, Wylie H., "Public School Segregation," *Harvard Law Review,* January 1954, Vol. 67, No. 3, p. 418.

[4] "Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

[5] U. S. Department of Justice, Supplemental Brief for the U. S. on Reargument, in the Supreme Court of the United States, October Term, 1953, p. 143.

the Court affirmed this principle, with certain variations followed: *Sipuel* v. *Board of Regents*, 332 U. S. 631; *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, 339 U. S. 629; and *McLaurin* v. *Oklahoma State Regents*, 339 U. S. 637.

The five cases now pending before the Court purport to present squarely the issue whether segregation in public schools constitutes a denial to Negroes (as persons) the equal protection of the laws. These cases, which were argued before the Supreme Court in December 1952 and reargued in December 1953, are:

No. 1 (8)[6] *Oliver Brown, et al., Appellants* v. *Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas, et al.*

No. 2 (101) *Harry Briggs, Jr., et al., Appellants* v. *R. W. Elliott, et al.*

No. 4 (191) *Dorothy E. Davis, et al., Appellants* v. *County School Board of Prince Edward County, Virginia, et al.*

No. 8 (413) *Spottswood Thomas Bolling, et al., Petitioners* v. *C. Melvin Sharpe, et al.*

No. 10 (448) *Francis B. Gebhart, et al., Petitioners* v. *Ethel Louise Belton, et al.*

SUPREME COURT ORDERS CASES RESTORED TO DOCKET

The 1953 reargument were in response to questions asked by the Court in its order of June 1953, which follow:

"Each of these cases is ordered restored to the docket and is assigned for reargument on Monday, October 12, next. In their briefs and on oral argument counsel are requested to discuss particularly the following questions insofar as they are relevant to the respective cases:

1. What evidence is there that the Congress which submitted and the State legislatures and conventions which ratified the Fourteenth Amendment contemplated or did not contemplate, understood or did not understand, that it would aholish segregation in public schools?

2. If neither the Congress in submitting nor the States in ratifying the Fourteenth Amendment understood that compliance with it would require the immediate abolition of segregation in public schools, was it nevertheless the understanding of the framers of the Amendment

(a) that future Congresses might, in the exercise of their power under Sec. 5 of the Amendment, abolish such segregation, or

(b) that it would be within the judicial power, in light of future conditions, to construe the Amendment as abolishing such segregation of its own force?

3. On the assumption that the answers to questions 2 (a) and (b) do not dispose of the issue, is it within the judicial power, in construing the Amendment, to abolish segregation in public schools?

4. Assuming it is decided that segregation in public schools violates the Fourteenth Amendment,

(a) would a decree necessarily follow providing that, within the limits set by normal geographic school districting, Negro children should forthwith be admitted to schools of their choice, or

(b) may this Court, in the exercise of its equity powers, permit an effective gradual adjustment to be brought about from existing segregated systems to a system not based on color distinctions?

5. On the assumption on which questions 4 (a) and (b) are based, and assuming further that this Court will exercise its equity powers to the end described in question 4 (b),

(a) should this Court formulate detailed decrees in these cases;

(b) if so what specific issues should the decrees reach;

(c) should this Court appoint a special master to hear evidence with a view to recommending specific terms for such decrees;

(d) should this Court remand to the courts of first instance with directions to frame decrees in these cases, and if so, what general directions should the decrees of this Court include and what procedures should the courts of first instance follow in arriving at the specific terms of more detailed decrees.

The Attorney General of the United States is invited to take part in the oral argument and to file an additional brief if he so desires."

Answers to questions 1 and 2

(1) "The Congressional history of the Fourteenth Amendment shows that the Amendment was proposed and debated as part of a broad and continuing program to establish full freedom and legal equality for Negroes. Many in the Congress which considered the Thirteenth Amendment understood it to abolish not only slavery but also its concomitant legal discriminations. This understanding rested on a belief that that Amendment had made the Negro an indistinguishable part of the population and hence entitled to the same rights and privileges under the laws as all others. The enactment of the Black Codes in the Southern states made it obvious, however, that additional protection by the national government was required.

" * * * While the legislative history does not conclusively establish that the Congress which proposed the Fourteenth Amendment specifically understood that it would abolish racial segregation in the public schools, there is ample evidence that it did understand that the Amendment established the broad constitutional principle of full and complete equality of all persons under the law, and that it forbade all legal distinctions based on race or color. Concerned as they were with securing to the Negro freedmen these fundamental rights of liberty and equality, the members of Congress did not pause to enumerate in detail all the specific applications of the basic principle which the Amendment incorporated into the Constitution. There is some evidence that this broad principle was understood to apply to racial discriminations in education, and that it might have the additional effect of invalidating state laws providing for racial segregation in the public schools.

(2) "There is a paucity of available evidence as to the understanding of the State legislatures which ratified the Amendment, in part because of the almost complete absence of records of debates, in part perhaps because their function was to accept or reject a proposal rather than to draft one.

". . . The available materials are too sparse, and the specific references to education too few, to justify any definite conclusion that the State legislatures which ratified the Fourteenth Amendment understood either that it permitted or that it prohibited separate schools.

(3) "There is no direct evidence at the time of the adoption of the Amendment that its framers understood specifically that future Congresses might, in the exercise of their power under section 5, abolish segregation in the public schools. They clearly understood, however, that Congress would have the power to enforce the broad guarantees of the Amendment, and the Amendment

[6] Numbers in parentheses refer to the number of the case in 1952.

was deliberately framed so as to assure that the rights protected by section 1 could not be withdrawn or restricted by future Congresses.

"Elsewhere in this brief we have quoted at length from the opinions of this Court, extending over a period of more than three-quarters of a century, which show a consistent recognition that the Fourteenth Amendment is to be construed liberally so as to carry out the great and pervading purpose of its framers to establish complete equality for Negroes in the enjoyment of fundamental human rights and to secure those rights against enforcement of legal distinctions based on race or color."

Answer to question 3

"IT IS WITHIN THE JUDICIAL POWER, IN CONSTRUING THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT, TO DECIDE THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL.

"The judicial function here is not to review the wisdom of a state's policy favoring segregation in education but rather to determine its constitutional power to adopt such a policy. Such a task clearly falls within the traditional authority and competence of this Court.

"[In] *Euclid* v. *Amber Realty Co.*, 272 U. S. 365, 387, where the Court observed that the application of constitutional guarantees 'must expand or contract to meet the new and different conditions which are constantly coming within the field of their operation. In a changing world, it is impossible that it should be otherwise.'

"The question now before the Court is not whether conditions existing when these separate school systems began may have justified them, practically and legally. The question, rather, is whether under the far different conditions existing today, a legal requirement that colored children must attend public schools where they are segregated solely because of their color deprives them of their constitutional right to equality in the enjoyment of public educational advantages and opportunities."

Answers to question 4

"IF THE COURT HOLDS THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL, IT HAS POWER TO DIRECT SUCH RELIEF AS IN ITS JUDGMENT WILL BEST SERVE THE INTERESTS OF JUSTICE IN THE CIRCUMSTANCES.

"The shaping of relief in the present cases involves reference to three fundamental principles governing the granting of judicial remedies, each of which is to some degree applicable here: (1) One whose legal rights have been and continue to be violated is entitled to relief which will be effective to redress the wrong. If a court finds that certain conduct is unlawful, it normally enters a decree enjoining the continuation of such conduct. (2) A court of equity is not inflexibly bound to direct any particular form of relief. It has full power to fashion a remedy which will best serve the ends of justice in the particular circumstances. (3) In framing its judgment a court must take into account not only the rights of the parties but the public interest as well. The needs of the public, and the effect of proposed decrees on the general welfare, are always of relevant, if not paramount, concern to a court of justice.

"The principal problem here, as so often in the law, is to find a wise accommodation of these principles as applied to the facts presented. 'The essential consideration is that the remedy shall be as effective and fair as possible in preventing continued or future violations of the (law) in the light of the facts of the particular case.' *United States* v. *National Lead Co.*, 332 U. S. 319, 335. But, whatever the difficulties of determining what remedy would be most effective and fair in redressing the violation of constitutional right presented in these cases, we believe there can be no doubt of the Court's power to grant such remedy as it finds to be most consonant with the interests of justice.

"'* * * For these plaintiffs the remedy of immediate admission to nonsegregated schools is an indispensable corollary of the constitutional right, for to recognize a litigant's right without affording him an adequate remedy for its violation is to nullify the value of the right.

"On the other hand, it is also true that the constitutional issues presented to the Court transcend the particular cases and complainants at bar, and in shaping its decrees the Court may take into account such public considerations as the administrative obstacles involved in making a general transition throughout the country from existing segregated school systems to ones not based on color distinctions. If the Court should hold in these cases that racial segregation *per se* violates the Constitution, the immediate consequence would be to invalidate the laws of many States which have been based on the contrary assumption. Racial segregation in public schools is not an isolated phenomenon limited to the areas involved in the cases at bar, and it would be reasonable and in accord with its historic practices for the Court in fashioning the relief in these cases to consider the broad implications and consequences of its ruling."

Answers to question 5

"IF THE COURT HOLDS THAT RACIAL SEGREGATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL, IT SHOULD REMAND THESE CASES TO THE LOWER COURTS WITH DIRECTIONS TO CARRY OUT THIS COURT'S DECISION AS SPEEDILY AS THE PARTICULAR CIRCUMSTANCES PERMIT.

"This question is predicated on three assumptions: (1) that the Court will hold that racial segregation in public schools is unconstitutional; (2) that it can permit an effective gradual adjustment to be brought about from existing segregated school systems to ones not based on color distinctions; and (3) that the Court will exercise its equity powers to that end. The question which remains to be considered, therefore, is how the decrees in the present cases should be framed so as to give effective force to the Court's ruling on the constitutional question and at the same time to permit orderly solution of the problems which may arise in eliminating existing racial segregation in public schools.

"A. *Obstacles to Integration.* In carrying out an adjustment from existing segregated school systems to new ones not based on color distinctions, the difficulties likely to be encountered fall into two groups: (1) those of an administrative nature; (2) those deriving from the fact that racial segregation in public schools has been in existence for many years in a large part of the country.

"B. *The Decrees.* On the basis of the foregoing, the considerations which appear to be relevant to the framing of the decrees in the present cases may briefly be summarized as follows:

"1. The constitutional right involved in these cases is 'personal and present.'

(*Continued on page 78*)

Trends in Public High School Reorganization[1]

by Walter H. Gaumnitz, Specialist for Small and Rural High Schools

SECONDARY EDUCATION in the United States is rapidly changing in many ways. One of the most significant reasons for change is the number of youth of high school age to be served. In 1920 only about 2 million of the youth of high school age were attending these schools; by 1952 this number had increased to well over 7½ million. In 1920 only about 30 percent of the youth (14–17) were in high school; by 1950 this percentage had increased to 75.

One of the changes which has accompanied this growth in the number of youth attending high school is the shift from the 8–4 plan of organization to reorganized high schools including some form of junior high school. This change is graphically shown in figures 1 and 2. The former shows the number of regularly and reorganized high schools at various intervals from 1920 to 1952; the latter depicts this change by enrollments in various types of high schools—separately organized junior high schools, separately organized senior high schools, junior-senior or undivided high schools, and regularly organized (4 year) high schools.

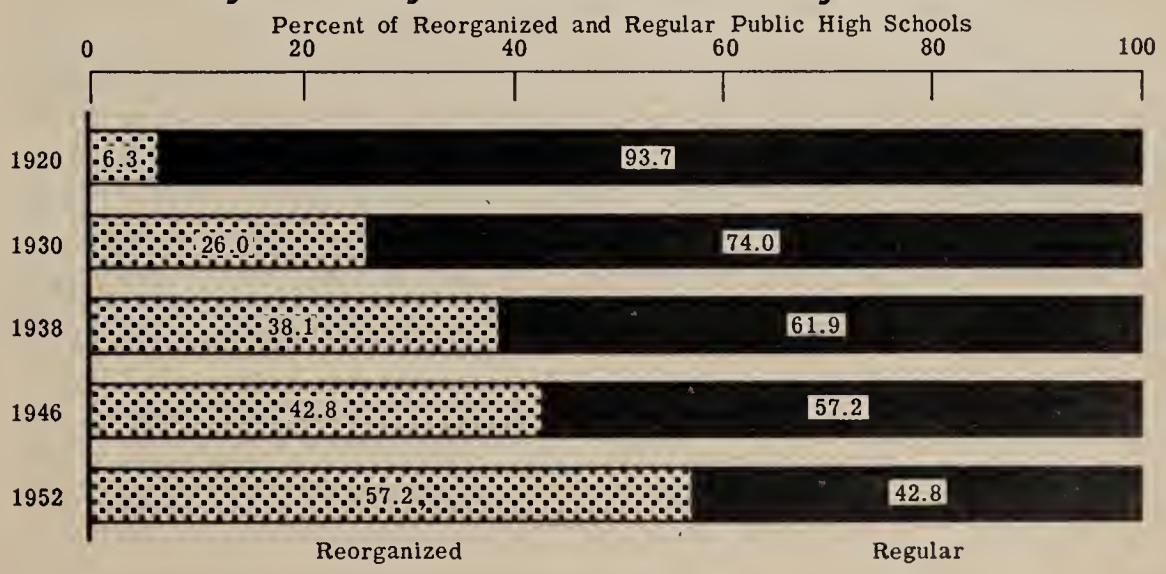
In 1920 over 90 percent of all public high schools were the regular 4-year type, following a 7-year or an 8-year elementary school (figure 1). In that year high schools designated "regular" enrolled more than four-fifths (83.4 percent) of all the pupils attending public day high schools (figure 2). Gradually the proportion of 4-year regular high schools has decreased until in 1952 a little more than 3 out of 7 (42.8 percent) were of this type; the enrollments decreased to about one-fourth (25.2 percent) of all secondary school pupils.

Separately organized "reorganized" schools

The number of pupils enrolled in separately organized junior high schools which was below 40,000 in 1920 rose to over 1,400,000 pupils in 1938. By 1946 this number had dropped slightly to 1,275,000, but by 1952 the number had risen to well above 1½ million. Of all the pupils attending public secondary schools, the separately organized junior high schools enrolled the following percentages (figure 2): 1.0 in 1920, 18.6 in 1946, and 19.8 in 1952. The separately organized senior high school rose steadily from fewer than 20,000 pupils (0.9 percent) in 1920 to more than 1½ million pupils (19.9 percent) in 1952. But the greatest gains in the number of pupils attending the reorganized high schools are shown by the junior-senior or undivided type of high school. In these the enrollment rose from about 276,000 (13.8 percent) in 1920 to about 1,800,000 in 1938 and 1946 (24.4 and 26.1 percent). During the last 10 years the enrollment in this type of high school has risen by nearly another million, and now (1952) stands at 2,700,000 (35.1 percent). Of course if the numbers of pupils enrolled in the separately organized junior high schools and senior high are combined, the total exceeds 3 million. These companion schools, therefore, serve more youth (39.7 percent) than either the 4-year high schools or the junior-senior high schools.

The statistics show that large increases have taken place in all types of reorganized high schools over the 32-year period and that decreases have occurred in the regularly organized high schools. This has been true both of the number of schools and the pupils enrolled in them. The greatest growth in the reorganization of the public secondary schools has come since 1946. In that year nearly 3 out of 5 (57.2 percent) of the schools were organized as regular 4-year high schools. By 1952 only 42.8 percent of the schools were of this type. If all the reorganized high schools were compared with the regular 4-year high schools, the percentages would be exactly reversed during this 6-year period. In terms of pupils attending the reorganized high schools, the halfway mark was reached more than 20 years earlier.

Figure 1. Reorganization Trends—Public High Schools



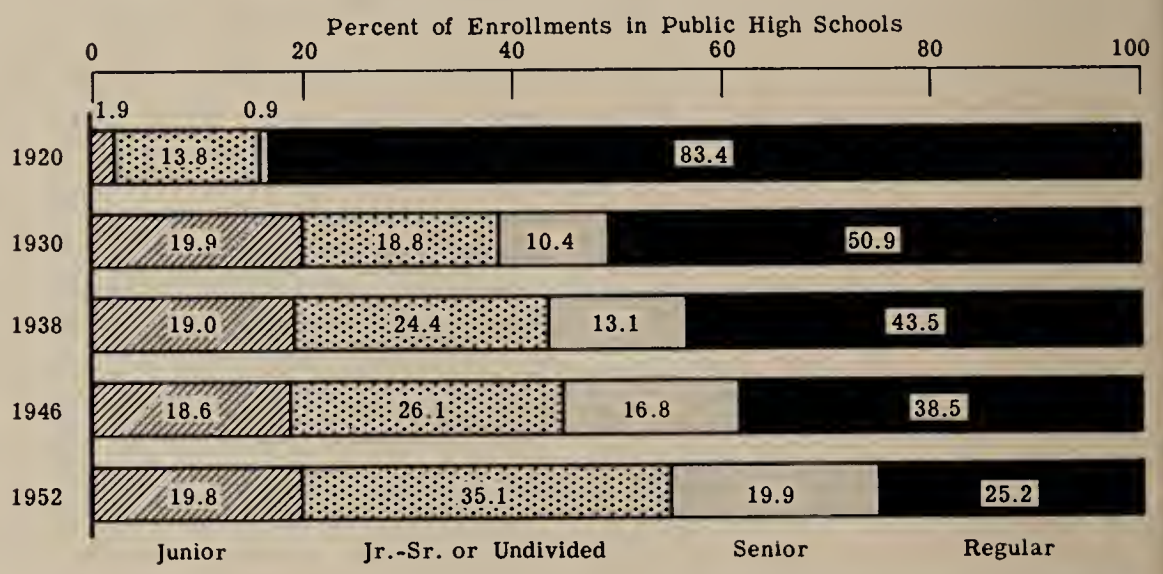
[1] Detailed data by States available from "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52," Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, 1950–52, Chapter V, and from Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Hull, J. Dan, "Junior High School Versus the Traditional (8–4) High School Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 38: 112–121, March 1954.

Closer study of the recent statistics published by the Office of Education reveals that the reorganization of the secondary schools has been much more popular in the larger population centers than in rural areas. Of the 15,975 public secondary schools located in centers under 2,500 in 1952, 53 percent were of the 4-year type and 47 percent were reorganized: of those in centers of 10,000 or more, only 15 percent were of the 4-year type and 85 percent reorganized. For the smaller urban centers, the percentages were 29.6 and 70.4 respectively. Of the 2,517,033 pupils attending the secondary schools located in rural centers, 37.2 percent were in the regular 4-year schools and 62.8 percent in the reorganized high schools; of those in the secondary schools of cities above 10,000, 17.1 percent attended 4-year schools and 82.9 percent attended reorganized schools.

In tracing the enrollment shifts from the regularly organized to the reorganized high schools, the reader should bear in mind that a good many of the pupils now in grades 7 and 8 of the reorganized high schools were formerly bracketed with 7th and 8th grade pupils of the elementary schools organized as parts of the 8–4 plan. Statistics show that in 1920, 95.2 percent of all 7th and 8th graders attended the elementary schools as parts of the 8–4 plan; by 1952 this percentage had been reduced to 46.1 of all 7th and 8th grade pupils. The data for reorganized high schools show that in 1920 only 4.8 percent of the pupils in these grades attended some form of junior-high school; the percentage attending such schools rose rapidly to 38.2 in 1938 and to 53.9 in 1952.

Whatever may be the causes for the rapid shift now apparently taking place from the regular 4-year high school to the reorganized high schools, and regardless of whether the outcome is good or bad, this change in American public secondary education must be recognized as a fact. What is more important this change should challenge the leaders to devise programs, administrative procedures, and staffs which will provide better instruction for young adolescents than have thus far been developed. This challenge must stimulate sound research and experimentation. In short, it must bring about real improvement in secondary education rather than a mere change in organization.

Figure 2. Reorganization Trends—Enrollments in Public High Schools



Education of Negroes

(Continued from page 76)

"2. On the other hand, the effects of a decision holding school segregation to be unconstitutional would not be limited to the areas and parties involved in the cases at bar.

"3. In some places (such as the District of Columbia, Kansas, and Delaware) change-over to a nonsegregated system should be a relatively simple matter, requiring perhaps only a few months to accomplish.

"4. Despite a decision by this Court that racial segregation in public schools is unconstitutional, there will still remain many areas in which, as a practical matter, the schools will be attended by at least a preponderance of children of one color.

"5. There is no single formula or blueprint which can be uniformly applied in all areas where existing school segregation must be ended.

"6. The burden of (a) showing that, in the particular circumstances, a decree requiring the immediate admission of the plaintiffs to nonsegregated schools would be impracticable or inequitable, and, in that event, of (b) proposing, for the court's approval, an effective program for accomplishing transition to a nonsegregated system as soon as practicable, should rest on the defendants."

CONCLUSION

"In response to the questions stated in the Court's order directing reargument of these cases, the United States respectfully submits (1) that the primary and pervasive purpose of the Fourteenth Amendment, as is shown by its history and as has repeatedly been declared by this Court, was to secure for Negroes full and complete equality before the law and to abolish all legal distinctions based on race or color; (2) that the legislative history of the Amendment in Congress is not conclusive; (3) that the available materials relating to the ratification proceedings in the various state legislatures are too scanty and incomplete, and the specific references to school segregation too few and scattered, to justify any definite conclusion as to the existence of a general understanding in such legislatures as to the effect which the Amendment would have on school segregation; (4) that it is within the judicial power to direct such relief as will be effective and just in eliminating existing segregated school systems; and (5) that if the Court holds that laws providing for separate public schools for white and colored children are unconstitutional, it should remand the instant cases to the lower courts with directions to carry out the Court's decision as expeditiously as the particular circumstances permit. * * *"

Both lawyers and laymen have attempted to conjecture what kind of decision or decisions the Court will hand down. Whatever it is, there will be many questions and problems that must be faced, not only by school people but also by citizens generally. Some of these questions and problems will be considered in subsequent articles in this series.

Educational Partners: Turkey and America

by Ellsworth Tompkins, Specialist for Large High Schools

A GROWING Turkish-American partnership in education is indieated by the recent arrival of ten Turkish high school principals and teachers in Washington. They were on their way to the University of Illinois to study secondary edneation for 1 year. At Urbana they will have seminars with professors of the College of Education; they will visit schools in various part of the country. In addition, they will attend and take part in State and national educational meetings during their visit.

Commissioner of Education Samuel Miller Brownell greeted them at an Offiee of Education reception and spoke of the need for educational cooperation betwcen nations. He pointed out the essential characteristics of school organization in America, in which control of schools and their programs is developed at the loeal and State level. Dr. Fehmi Nuza, Counselor of the Turkish Embassy in Washington, responded to the Commissioner's greeting and expressed the gratitude of the Turkish Government for the educators' visit.

The Ford Foundation has appropriated about $40,000 for the travel and study expense of the group, and the Government of Turkey is contributing approximately $18.-000 for their daily expenses. The project is not eosting the American taxpayer any money at all.

The Ministry of Education of Turkey plans to establish pilot or experimental high schools in Istanbul, Ankara, or Izmir after the group has observed American secondary education at first hand, using the members of the group as teachers and consultants in the new-type schools. It is antiei-pated that a similar group of principals and teachers will come to America in September 1954 and that the pilot schools will be established for an 8-year period beginning in September 1955.

Closer educational cooperation between Turkey and America is a natural outgrowth of the close friendship developing between the two nations in economic, agrieultural, and military affairs. Previously, Turkey has concentrated its international edueational efforts to the sending of Turkish university students to this country for collegiate and advanced study. During 1952–53 approximately 900 Turkish young men and women were enrolled in American universities in various fields of study, and almost all of them were maintained at the expense of the Government of Turkey. Even though this policy will be continued, the new emphasis of team study by experienced elementary and secondary school leaders will be gradually increased. Last year 25 rural elementary teaehers from Turkey studied elementary education at the University of Florida under the direction of Dr. Kate Wofford, who had spent 1951–52 in surveying rural schools in Turkey.

Secondary schools in Turkey comprise junior high or middle schools (orta), senior high schools (lise), girls' technieal schools, and boys' trade schools. In that country it is compulsory for children to attend elementary but not secondary schools. As a rcsult, the enrollment in high schools represents only a small part of all youth of high school age.

The ratio of elementary school enrollment to secondary school enrollment in Turkey is in the neighborhood of 17 to 1; in the United States the ratio is a little more than 4 to 1. Thc total Turkish secondary school enrollment (orta and lise only) is about 91,000 as against the total American enrollment of about 7 million. Of coursc, the total population of Turkey is about 22 million compared with our 161 million. If a similar proportion of boys and girls were enrolled in Turkish high schools as are enrolled in American high schools, Turkey would have about one million youth in junior and senior high schools. These statistics emphasize one facet of Turkey's problem in secondary education: the need for extending it to a greater proportion of normal youth of high school age.

Left to right—Huseyin Goksel, Principal, Odemis, Izmir; Kemal Ozinonu, Teacher, Gaziantep; Ellsworth Tompkins, Office of Education; Yildiz Ugurtas, Teacher, Eskisehir; Commissioner Brownell; Fehmi Nuza, Counselor, Turkish Embassy, Washington, D. C.; Macit Kiliceri, Principal, Corum; Hasene Oksuzoglu, Teacher, Istanbul; Thomas E. Benner, University of Illinois, project coordinator; Lamia Ozsoy, Teacher and translator, Ankara; Omer Bayin, Principal, Trabzon; Nihat Ali Ucuncu, Chief, Turkish Economic Mission, Washington, D. C.; Ibrahim Paro, Professor, Ankara. Ibrahim Ozgentas, Teacher, Koyna, and Ahmet Galfas, Assistant Principal, Malatya, are not shown here.

Another and equally difficult problem concerns curriculum. Patterned after the French middle school and lycée, the curriculum is rigid. With a minor exception, all pupils are required to take the same subjects in junior and senior high school. As a result, the failure rate of students is excessive, sometimes running up to 40 percent of a class. It is recognized that rigid curriculums and high retardation go together, but the retardation can hardly be diminished until the curriculum acquires some degree of flexibility, that is, unless there is some attempt to match more elective subjects, still to be provided, with the capacities and preferences of students.

A third general problem relates to teaching methods. The writer visited 99 schools in many cities in Turkey and sat in on hundreds of classes in the subjects offered. He observed classes taught by the methods that might be termed functional, demonstration, or workshop. Sometimes classes were divided into small groups with selected students serving as teacher's helpers; on occasion students performed demonstrations, or served as chairmen for the class. On the whole, however, the majority of teachers lectured from the book and used little variety in teaching method. Consequently, the spotlight frequently focused on the teacher rather than on the student. A reason for this condition may be that high school teachers are prepared in the University of Ankara or the University of Istanbul without ever having had an adequate course in methods or practice-experience in teaching under an experienced teacher. Because of the sameness of teaching method in a great many classes, students were frequently stimulated to memorization of facts rather than active learning.

The Ministry of Education in Turkey is well aware of these and other pressing problems in secondary education. And it is determined to do something about them as soon as it can. That is why Resat Tardu, former Undersecretary of the National Ministry, and his successor Osman Faruk Verimer desire to establish a close working relationship with American educators. By visits to schools in this country and study of educational conditions here, Turkish high school principals and teachers may be able to develop their own suggestions for diversifying the curriculums, enriching teaching methods, increasing high school enrollment, and decreasing the failure rate of students. The Ministry is also eager to have the study groups look into the possibilities for establishing comprehensive junior high schools by combining the program of boys' technical schools with that of the academic junior high schools.

One factor in favor of desired functional change in Turkish secondary schools is the enthusiastic attitude of practically all Turks toward America and Americans. There probably are numerous reasons why the Turkish people like Americans, but it is not necessary at this point to analyze them. They exist; that is sufficient. Despite the fact that Turkish secondary schools for years have mirrored the traditional French lycée, there is increasing belief that exchange of educational personnel between Turkey and the United States will point the way to improvements in Turkish schools. A number of American educational specialists have visited Turkey in an attempt to understand better the school program there, and practically all of them have consulted with officials of the Turkish Ministry of Education and other school personnel. This has resulted in greater American understanding of Turkish schools and greater Turkish understanding of American schools. Actual visits by teams of teachers is the further step now being taken.

The Turkish educators, like the Turkish people in general, have a spirit of advancement in their blood. They want to try new and better things; they are determined to make Turkey one of the world's foremost nations in education as in other fields. The great glory of the Turkey that once was is being restored not through power alone but through enlightenment. One cannot visit Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, Adana, Konya, Samsun, and other great cities without sensing this determination of the Turkish people and their government to forge ahead.

One sees in the eyes of the Turkish high school students a seriousness of purpose that is thrilling. They want education. The majority of teachers are as devoted a group as one may find anywhere. They too want an education for youth. The parents are equally devoted to the idea of education for their children. Many of them are members of PTA's and actively engage in seeking adequate educational services for youth.

There is no question that Turkish secondary education has a long way to go. That's true of many American high schools, too. But a first long step toward a better kind of high school has been taken with the initial visit of the team of ten Turkish high school principals and teachers to America. Next year more will come. In 1955 the Ministry of Education plans to begin some pilot secondary schools in which newer curriculums, newer teaching methods, newer teaching materials can be tested, accepted, retested, or discarded. Meanwhile, Turkey and America, thousands of miles apart, nourish an educational partnership that promises great things in the years ahead.

Pupil Transportation

(*Continued from page 71*)

board should employ on the basis of his recommendations. Second, there must be defensible standards for the position of school bus driver. Obviously, they cannot be so high as to rule out almost all probable applicants. They should be as high as they can be set to make the supply meet the demand. Less than one-third of the States now require an annual or more frequent physical examination of school bus drivers and probably few local units require it when the State does not. This kind of requirement, which certainly would constitute one kind of safeguard for the pupils, is not likely to affect very much the supply of school bus drivers. A third step in providing reliable school bus drivers is giving them essential training, which does not necessarily mean formal courses of training. It is obvious that the driver must know State and local laws, regulations, and ordinances which are related to his work. He must also know his responsibilities and what his relationships with pupils, parents, and school authorities are to be. It is also obvious that if he is to gain such knowledge without years of experience there must be some systematic method of providing it. There has been great activity in at least half of the States in the last 10 years in organizing school bus driver training activities. It is a recognized need, and they are moving as rapidly as possible. Finally, there must be constructive supervision of school bus drivers. This has been almost nonexistent in thousands of local units. States can help with effective leadership, but here again the chief responsibility falls ultimately on the local unit.

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Office of Education

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Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education—Supplement No. 7. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 253, Agricultural Series No. 64. 1954. 30 cents.

A 1952 Survey of Passenger Vehicles in Institutions of Higher Education. By Granville K. Thompson. Circular No. 385, December 1953. Free.

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815—Third Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1953. $1.00.

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.

The Children's Bookshelf, A Book List for Parents. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1953. 20 cents.

Dental, Eye, and Preventive Medical Services. Public Health Service Publication No. 290, Monograph No. 16, 1953. 20 cents.

Health Manpower Source Book—Section 3, Medical Social Workers. Public Health Service Publication No. 263, August 1953. 40 cents.

Multiple Sclerosis. Produced by National Multiple Sclerosis Society in cooperation with the National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Blindness, National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service. Free.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

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Department of Defense

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Better Schools Build a Stronger America

MARCH 1954

Route to

School Life

Voice of Democracy Winners

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

"The Ideals We Live By"*

"Ideals, the system of values by which men live, are of supreme importance in the life of the individual and in the life of the nation. Ideals are practical. Woven into the personality structure of the individual citizen, they give him a map of life, a sense of direction, a standard by which he may judge his inner impulses and his overt behavior. The terms of human association, the worth and dignity and respect men accord one another, the sense of justice they entertain, their willingness to cooperate and sacrifice for the common good—all these are rooted in and grow out of the ideals that lie at the base of a particular way of life.

"But ideals do more than give the individual a guide to his own personal behavior, they do more than define the terms upon which he will meet and mingle and work with others; they equip the individual citizen with a measure of men and institutions, a measure he can apply to those seeking positions of leadership, to proposals of public policy, to the workings of the whole complex pattern of social arrangements and institutions.

"For the individual, then, it is his system of values that gives life meaning, that equips him for effective and fruitful living in home and community, that makes it possible for him to share in the work of improving conditions under which men live in his own society and throughout the world.

"Ideals are no less important in the life of a society than they are in the lives of the individuals composing it. A society is possible only because the individuals that form it have a common sense of reality and are bound together by common loyalties. It is this body of core values, this wide community of ideas and ideals that gives a society its basic pattern, that holds it together and prevents it from becoming a mere aggregation of individuals without purpose and without goal.

"More important still, systems of social relationships attain the status of social institutions only when they are accepted as being in conformity with the essential value premises of society. In other words, social institutions—the family, the community, the church, the state, the economy, the school—are merely the carriers and implementers of the ideals which men entertain.

"All this is but to say that it is the ideals that men live by that determine the quality of their individual lives and of the civilization they achieve. Ideals are the measure of a man and they are the measure of a civilization."

*Except from *Education for American Citizenship*, the Thirty-Second Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, 1201 16th St. NW., Washington 6, D. C., 1954. $5.

School Life ★ Official Journal of the Office of Education
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

The cover photograph shows the four winners of the Voice of Democracy Contest on the steps of the Capitol in Washington, D. C. From left, they are Joel H. Cyprus, Wichita Falls, Tex.; Elizabeth Evans, Akron, Ohio; Philip M. McCoy, Kansas City, Kans.; and Joseph H. Gerdes, Jr., Harrisburg, Pa. A Julian King Photo. For story, see page 81.

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Published each month of the school year, October through June

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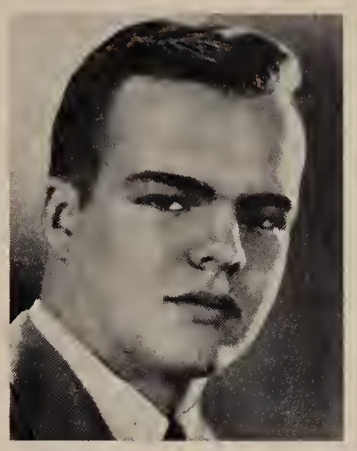
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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)

Joseph H. Gerdes, Jr.



Philip M. McCoy

Joel H. Cyprus

Elizabeth E. Evans

"I Speak For Democracy"

The 1953-54 Voice of Democracy Contest

MORE than a million young Americans in the 48 States, the District of Columbia, and Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico took part in the 1953–54 Voice of Democracy contest. This is the third consecutive year in which the total number of entries from the Nation's public, private, and parochial high schools has passed the million mark.

In this contest there are no losers. All the contestants gain by the experience of considering their democratic form of government and defining the ideals on which this country was founded. All the schools and communities, all the States and Territories, and the Nation as a whole profit by the participation of these young people.

The contest was begun 7 years ago. It was designed to encourage high school boys and girls in the study of their government and the expression of its philosophy, and to further the use of radio and television broadcasting for such expression. Since the contest began, approximately 5 million students have taken part.

In addition to the 5 million contestants, many other students have been stimulated by the contest to think about the meaning of freedom, to clarify their ideas, and to recognize their part in government. They have thus acquired a deeper appreciation of democracy.

Four contestants, a girl and three boys, received tangible awards as in the past. These four were chosen the national winners. Each contestant submitted a 5-minute speech on the subject "I Speak for Democracy." What the winners said has been judged best at the classroom, school, community, State, and national level.

As one of the prizes all the winners received a free trip to Washington, D. C., where they were guests of the cosponsors—the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, the Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers Association, and the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce. At the special awards luncheon in Washington, Dr. Samuel Miller Brownell, United States Commissioner of Education, presided. The Honorable Charles E. Potter, United States Senator from Michigan, presented the awards. Each winner received a $500 scholarship, a trophy and certificate of merit, and a television set.

While the students were in Washington, they visited the White House, where they were received by President Eisenhower, the Congress, and the Supreme Court.

The 1954 national award winners were Elizabeth E. Evans, 16-year-old junior at the John R. Buchtel High School, Akron, Ohio; Philip M. McCoy, 16-year-old junior at the Argentine High School, Kansas City, Kans.; Joseph H. Gerdes, Jr., 17-year-old senior at Catholic High School, Harrisburg, Pa.; and Joel H. Cyprus, 17-year-old senior at the Senior High School, Wichita Falls, Tex.

Judges in the contest were: Richard L. Bowditch, President, Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Dwight Clark, Jr., National Winner, 1951–52 Voice of Democracy Contest; William A. Early, President, National Education Association; Honorable Joseph W. Martin, Jr., Speaker, United States House of Representatives; Glen McDaniel, President, Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers Association; Judge Justin Miller, Chairman of the Board and General Counsel, National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters; Thomas F. O'Neil, President, Mutual Broadcasting System; Honorable Ivy Baker Priest, Treasurer of the United States; Ed Sullivan, Master of Ceremonies, CBS television show "Toast of the Town"; Honorable Harold E. Talbott, Secretary of the U. S. Air Force; Mrs. Charles W. Tobey; and Mrs. Charles L. Williams, President, National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers.

The winning speeches are quoted below.

Elizabeth E. Evans,

John R. Buchtel High School, Akron, Ohio

I AM AN AMERICAN. Listen to my words, Fascist, Communist. Listen well, for my country is a strong country, and my message is a strong message.

I am an American, and I speak for democracy.

My ancestors have left their blood on the green at Lexington and the snow at Valley Forge—on the walls of Fort Sumter and the fields at Gettysburg—on the waters of the River Marne and in the shadows of the Argonne Forest—on the beachheads of Salerno and Normandy and the sands of Okinawa—on the bare, bleak hills called Pork Chop and Old Baldy and Heartbreak Ridge. A million and more of my countrymen have died for freedom.

For my country is their eternal monument. They live on in the laughter of a small boy as he watches a circus clown's antics—and in the sweet, delicious coldness of the first bit of peppermint ice cream on the Fourth of July—in the little tenseness of a baseball crowd as the umpire calls, "batter up!"—and in the high school band's rendition of "Stars and Stripes Forever" in the Memorial Day parade—in the clear, sharp ring of a school bell on a fall morning—and in the triumph of a 6-year-old as he reads aloud for the first time. They live on in the eyes of an Ohio farmer surveying his acres of corn and potatoes and pasture—and in the brilliant gold of hundreds of acres of wheat stretching across the flat miles of Kansas—in the milling of cattle in the stockyards of Chicago—in the precision of an assembly line in an automobile factory in Detroit—and in the perpetual red glow of the nocturnal skylines of Pittsburgh and Birmingham and Gary.

They live on in the voice of a young Jewish boy saying the sacred words from the Torah: "Hear O Israel: the Lord our God, the Lord is One. Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart and with all thy soul and with all thy might,"—and in the voice of a Catholic girl praying: "Hail, Mary, full of grace, the Lord is with Thee * * *,"—and in the voice of a Protestant boy singing "A mighty Fortress is our God, A bulwark never failing * * *."

An American named Carl Sandburg wrote these words:

"I know a Jew fishcrier down on Maxwell Street—With a voice like a north wind blowing over corn stubble in January * * * His face is that of a man terribly glad to be selling fish, Terribly glad that God made fish, and customers to whom he may call his wares from a pushcart."

There is a voice in the soul of every human being that cries out to be free. America has answered that voice. America has offered freedom and opportunity such as no land before her has ever known, to a Jew fishcrier down on Maxwell Street with the face of a man terribly glad to be selling fish. She had given him the right to own his pushcart, to sell his herring on Maxwell Street—she has given him an education for his children, and a tremendous faith in the nation that has made these things his.

Multiply that fishcrier by 160,000,000—160,000,000 mechanics and farmers and housewives and coal miners and truck drivers and chemists and lawyers and plumbers and priests—all glad, terribly glad to be what they are, terribly glad to be free to work and eat and sleep and speak and love and pray and live as they desire, as they believe!

And those 160,000,000 Americans—those 160,000,000 free Americans—have more roast beef and mashed potatoes—the yield of American labor and land; more automobiles and telephones, more safety razors and bathtubs, more orlon sweaters and aureomycin, the fruits of American initiative and enterprise; more public schools and life insurance policies, the symbols of American security and faith in the future; more laughter and song—than any other people on earth!

This is my answer, Fascist, Communist! Show me a country greater than our country, show me a people more energetic, creative, progressive—bigger-hearted and happier than our people, not until then will I consider your way of life. For I am an American, and I speak for democracy.

Joseph H. Gerdes, Jr.,

Harrisburg Catholic High School, Harrisburg, Pa.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN uttered more than a mere phrase at Gettysburg, when he spoke those now famous words, "government of the people, by the people, and for the people." For, every loyal American recognizes that phrase as Lincoln's definition of Democracy.

When he said, "of the people," Lincoln meant that people have the right to govern themselves. In other words, he meant that democratic governments come out "of the people." It is this principle which has made America the "Citadel of Freedom," a place where men willingly cooperate with the law and where the law itself is felt to be in the classic words of Justice Holmes, "the witness and external deposit of our moral life." In America, thank God, we are "citizens," not "subjects."

So, the essence of the American Republic is a recognition of the dignity of manhood in all men. In its foundation this government was an act of supreme confidence in man, a concession, such as never before had been given to human dignity. Its creation was, indeed, a bold experiment, the bravest political act recorded in history. In fact, liberty had never really been understood until it was caught up in a human embrace and embodied in a great and abiding nation.

In the second portion of his definition Lincoln said, "by the people." It was the conviction of the Founding Fathers that all power comes from the Creator through the people, and their desire to safeguard the exercise of that power, not directly by the people in their confused and scattered individualism, but through representatives seated in calm thought and timely research.

(*Continued on page 92*)

The Nation's School Facilities Survey

by Ray L. Hamon, Chief of the School Housing Section

THE 81st CONGRESS authorized a nationwide survey of public elementary and secondary school facilities pursuant to Title I of Public Law 815. The School Facilities Survey being conducted under this authority is, in fact, a series of State surveys by the State educational agencies in cooperation with the Office of Education and coordinated at the Federal level by the School Housing Section.

To facilitate the gathering of information from the States, the survey was divided into two phases: (1) the first or status phase, and (2) the second or long-range planning phase. Two progress reports on the status phase were published in 1952. The First Progress Report was based on an inventory of public-school facilities in 25 States. The Second Progress Report was based on the needs for additional school facilities in 37 States as of September 1952 and State and local resources available for meeting those needs. The *Report of the Status Phase of the School Facilities Survey,** issued in December 1953, is based on reports from 43 States. This report absorbs the two progress reports previously published and constitutes a final report on the schoolhousing situation in the United States as revealed by the first or status phase of the School Facilities Survey.

The States are continuing the second or long-range phase of the survey to determine the needs for public elementary and secondary school facilities through the school year 1959–60 which are expected to result from such factors as enrollment increases, shifting population, school district reorganization, and normal replacements. The Office of Education contemplates the publication of a summary report on the second or long-range phase of the School Facilities Survey in the fall of 1954.

**Report of the Status Phase of the School Facilities Survey,* Authorized by Title 1, Public Law 815, 81st Congress. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953. Illus, 140 p. Price 70 cents.

When the data reported by 43 States are projected for all States and Territories on the basis of relative public-school enrollments, the 1952 nationwide school plant needs include 312,000 instruction rooms (classrooms, laboratories, and shops) to house 8,881,360 pupils at a cost of $10.6 billion. Of this amount, $5.9 billion could be provided from applicable resources, leaving a nationwide deficit of $4.7 billion.

Unless the tempo of school construction is materially increased, the needs for additional school facilities will continue to grow because of future increases in enrollment. It is obvious that financing practices will have to be improved and that new and substantial resources will have to be tapped on a broadened tax base if American boys and girls are to be provided with adequate school facilities.

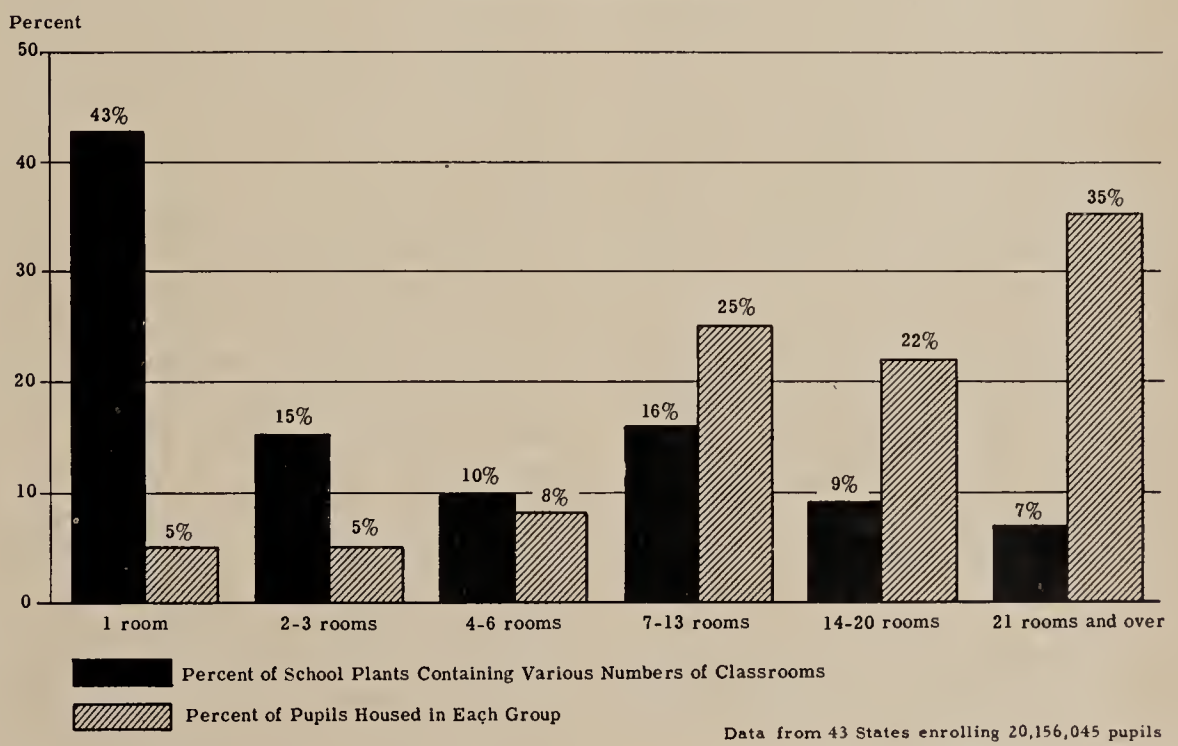
Thousands of local school districts are now unable to finance urgently needed school construction. There are, however, ways in which the situation could be improved in some States at the local level by State and/or local action. Even with improvements in the local financing of capital outlay, the provision of adequate schoolhousing will require that States attack the problem on a statewide basis and that a substantial portion of the funds be provided from State sources.

The income payments back of each pupil enrolled in the public schools provide a comparable measure of State ability. The relative ability of the States, thus measured, varies in the ratio of 1 to 5. In 1951, 4 States had income payments of less than $5,000 per pupil enrolled, as compared to 5 States which had income payments of more than $13,000 per pupil enrolled.

The chart shown below is reprinted from the Report. It graphically reveals one phase of the current school situation.

The School Facilities Survey will give the Congress and the American people some basic information which is needed if an objective appraisal is to be made of the problem of providing adequate public-school facilities.

Size of School Plants



Research in the Office of Education

by Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education*

THE FUNCTIONS of the United States Office have expanded considerably since its establishment in 1867. Today, it administers grants, it facilitates the international exchange of teachers, and it even answers a lot of the President's mail (received from pupils all over the country). But the basic responsibilities laid on it by the original enabling act of 1867 still hold; and one of these purposes is educational *research*.

The Office of Education can nowise be characterized as holding any particular dogma concerning research method. It could not, in the face of the wide variety of problems it attacks. To illustrate, let me cite some studies either just concluded, or at present under way, or contemplated for the immediate future.

Statistics

In the field of statistics, it has such familiar reports as the *Statistics of State School Systems*, which biennially answers questions on how many pupils there are enrolled; how many teachers are employed; how many basic administrative units there are; the annual expenditure per pupil in the various States; and expenditures for capital outlay, sources of income, and so on. A similar biennial report is available, devoted to city school systems; and still another to higher education.

Annually a detailed report is issued on the number of students enrolled in engineering, and the number of engineering degrees conferred. A special study is being completed this year of the number of Korean veterans studying in higher educational institutions under Public Law 550 (the Korean GI Bill), and their distribution among the different institutions. And there are other similar statistical reports, too numerous for me to mention at this time.

Administration

In the field of State school administration, a report—prepared cooperatively with the National Council of Chief State School Officers and the Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada—has been issued which defines all the items (organizational, personnel, financial, and property) that constitute *The Common Core of State Educational Information*. The State departments have agreed that annually each State should collect data on all of the items in this "Common Core."

Another study in school administration relates to the experience of 17 States in the reorganization of small local school districts into larger units. There are still at least 50,000 small school districts in the United States (mainly in certain States of the Middle West), as you know, and reorganization remains a persistent problem.

Finance

In the field of finance, a monumental report entitled *Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury* has just appeared. This report—prepared with the generous assistance of State departments of education and a volunteer advisory board—shows graphically the variations which exist from one district to another within each State with respect to expenditure per classroom unit, as well as the differences among the States. It appears that the quality of a child's education varies considerably, depending on the town or State in which his parents live. This study should prove of great assistance to the States in the evaluation and improvement of their plans for financing education.

A typical project in the field of school law is the comprehensive analysis of legislative enactment designed to affect statewide reorganization of local school administrative units.

The field of school construction is a critical one nowadays. Recently, the School Housing Section of the Office published its report to Congress on the *School Facilities Survey*, financed partly by the Federal Government and partly by the States. This report is a basic reference work on such matters as the age of school buildings in the various States, the types of school construction, the extent of overcrowding, and the prospective needs for new buildings. Two other studies are: an analysis of fund-raising procedures and State and local tax limitations; and an analysis of the body dimensions of school children, an exact knowledge of which is desired by the manufacturers of school furniture.

Elementary Education

In elementary education, a comprehensive descriptive study is being made of social studies textbooks. Another study is inquiring into the practices of teacher-training institutions. The first phase of this study is a follow-up study of graduates.

In secondary education, a major study is nearing completion on the subject of the adaptation of school administration and instruction to rapid and slow learners. The extent to which desirable practices are, or are not, being followed will be ascertained; and, if resources prove adequate, a detailed study of exceptionally satisfactory schools will be undertaken.

Secondary School Curriculum

In the field of secondary curriculum, two studies have been made of the "core curric-

*Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C., before the meeting of the American Educational Research Association at Atlantic City, N. J., February 15, 1954.

ulum": how many schools use it, where these schools are, and the administrative problems of establishing and continuing a successful core program. A curriculum study in the field of high school mathematics has also been completed.

Also in the field of secondary education, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation is cooperating with the Office of Education in a study of enrollment and teacher-training curriculums in the field of health, education, and recreation.

I am afraid that this long list of research in progress may begin to bore you, but several other important projects should also be mentioned.

Effectiveness of TV

An interesting experimental study is being conducted through Station KUHT, at Houston, Texas, to determine the comparative effectiveness of television versus regular classes in teaching practical nursing for the home. The National Red Cross, the University of Texas, the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N. J., and the Office of Education are all cooperating in this effort.

In the field of visual education, a descriptive analytic study is being made of the services available to schools through the audio-visual sections of State departments of education.

For Exceptional Children

Thanks to the interest and generosity of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, an excellent study is being conducted, with the aid of the Office, on the qualifications and preparation of teachers of exceptional children. The participation of cooperating agencies in this study has been so cordial and active that eventual practical application of the findings from the study seems assured.

The Guidance and Pupil-Personnel Section of the Office has two studies under way: one on the content and method of university preparation of school counselors; the other, on the extent and causation of high-school dropouts.

The Division of Vocational Education in the Office of Education also conducts some research. For example, careful track is kept of the supply and demand for vocational agriculture teachers (at present, the supply is short). The Home Economics Branch is developing evaluative instruments for use in appraising college and secondary school programs in home economics. The Trade and Industry Branch is making a survey of trade school graduates in the Middle West during the 5-year period that ended in 1952.

The Division of International Education has just completed a study of education in Pakistan. Another inquiry by this Division of the Office seeks to identify the colleges and universities in the United States which give courses in comparative education and in the new field known as area studies.

The Division of Higher Education has numerous research projects under way. One is a study of the costs that students incur in going to college. Another is a study of cooperative, or work-study, education in the United States. Still another study will determine at what stages in their careers students drop out of college, and some of the factors related to their withdrawal.

General Education

With respect to general education, a continuous supply of information is being collected regarding new developments in this field. The current role of liberal education in professional curriculums for pharmacy, engineering, architecture, and forestry is being pictured in a series of bulletins. An entire volume on professional education in the United States, covering all the recognized professions, is nearing completion.

Consultative Services

In many of the fields that I have mentioned, bibliographies of recent studies have been prepared by staff members of the Office. Advisory and consultative services are also extended, on request, to school systems and organizations interested in research.

If you will think back on the variety of projects that I have mentioned, you will recall that the studies range from elementary school through graduate professional training. The fields which are covered include statistics, administration, school finance, school housing, school law, curriculum, teacher preparation, teaching methods, special education, guidance, vocational education, international education, and higher education. All of these studies involve, to some extent, research. The kind, the level, and the amount of research involved vary greatly. The bulk of it is fact collection, organization, and interpretation.

Fact Research

This is in keeping with the mandate of the act establishing the Office of Education for—among other things—the purpose of collecting "such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories * * *."

Some of you may question whether fact-finding *per se* is in fact research. Research, of course, can be variously defined. I think of research as involving the recognition of a problem area; the definition of the problem; the design of procedures giving promise of clues or final answers to the problem; the collection of information (by observation, experimentation, interviews, tests, questionnaires, records, or whatever method); the compilation and analysis of the data; the interpretation of the data; and then the rigid checking and testing of these interpretations to be certain of their validity, reliability, and overall soundness. (Parenthetically, it is in this last checking that I fear researchers are frequently lax. It is always a problem in the Office of Education, where the pressure is great, to get studies released.)

Understanding and Solution

Of course, there are all sorts of fact-finding, from counting the hairs on a head to making a crucial measurement in a physical experiment. As you know, the problems are complex in experimental research in the social sciences. Essential to such research is fact-finding. It is pertinent and basic to the understanding and solution of many problems in American education.

Now, as to the research methods employed at the Office of Education. Of course, such usual techniques are used as questionnaires, field observation, interviews, case studies, historical and legal research, and occasionally, when the subject matter or opportunity is appropriate, actual experimentation.

The Conference

One outstanding feature is emphasis on the understanding and cooperation of other organizations and governmental units. This

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Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION AT THE MIDCENTURY,* a new Office of Education report, reveals extreme variations in the amount, and perhaps the quality of the schooling the children of the United States receive. Educators, superintendents, members of boards of education, citizen committees, and legislators alike will find a wealth of information to aid in evaluating and improving the effectiveness of State and local plans for financing education.

Every 10 Years

This report adheres to the Office plan of publishing information on average expenditures per classroom unit at 10-year intervals. Such a plan appeared advisable in view of the usefulness of the two previous reports, which showed expenditures for the years 1929–30 and 1939–40. The 1949–50 study was conducted and the report prepared by Clayton D. Hutchins, Office of Education specialist in school finance, and Albert R. Munse, research assistant. Dr. Eugene S. Lawler, professor of education at Florida State University, was engaged as consultant, and a 6-member Advisory Committee included persons associated with the previous studies.

From figures submitted by State departments of education, the report presents what is believed to be a complete coverage of current expenditures per classroom unit for all of the 63,277 school districts that employed teachers during the 1949–50 school year. Also included are data for each of the 125 operating school districts in the outlying parts of the United States. The report presents a profile chart for the United States and for each State and outlying part of the United States to show the numbers of classroom units supported at various expenditure levels.

*Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953. Misc. No. 18. 136 p., including 79 charts and 35 tables. Price 65 cents.

The United States in 1949–50 spent a total of $4,143,857,951 for its current expenses applying to classrooms. This is an impressive figure, yet *Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury* reports that more than $600,000,000 in additional expenditure would have been required to raise all low classrooms up to the national median level of $4,391 per classroom unit.

Expenditures varied from State to State and within each State. The State median expenditures ranged from $1,451 for Mississippi to $7,627 for New York. Some boards of education were able to expend 40 times as much as others. These differences are especially significant when interpreted in association with the presumption that there is a substantial relationship between expenditures for education and the amount and quality of educational services.

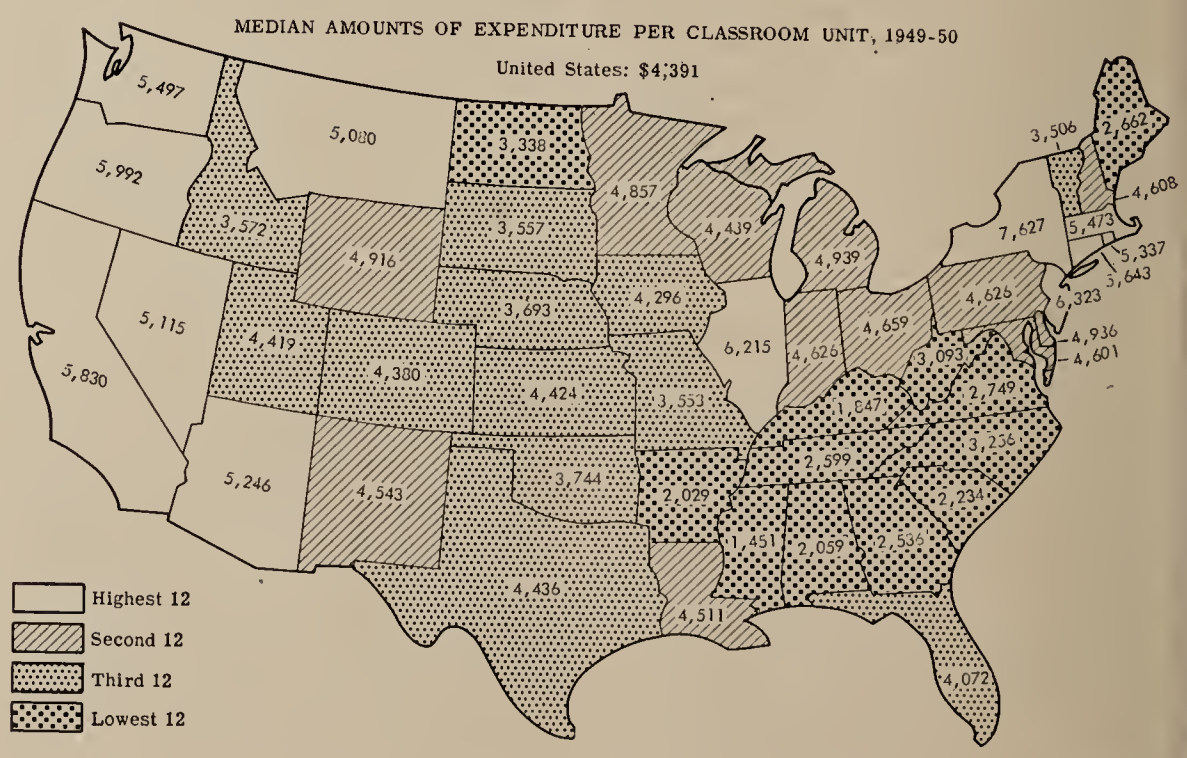
Why Expenditures Vary

Many States have so-called "Foundation Programs" for the support of public education, which define a basic level of expenditure assured for every child or classroom. Although these programs have been operating for some years, the profile charts show that many classrooms in 1949–50 were still supported at indefensibly low levels.

There are several reasons for the great variations in these expenditures. The three most important appear to be differences in the educational load, in the supply of funds for the support of schools, and in the interests and efforts of the people in planning and financing local educational services.

Those States which have a high birthrate, many small school districts, sparsely populated areas with relatively few children, or a firm compulsory attendance law have the greatest educational load when measured in terms of classroom units. In States with greater densities of population, the corresponding measure of educational load appears lighter. This same analysis might be applied at the local district level. For over half of the Nation's children who were attending schools during 1949–50 in large

(*Continued on page 95*)



Education of Negroes: Progress and Present Status in the Segregated Pattern

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner, and Emery M. Foster, Head, Reports and Analysis

Education for Salvation and Freedom

During the early days of slavery in America, Christian missionaries were influential in starting the custom of teaching the slaves to read and write. This was particularly true among the French, Spanish, and German settlers. Their main purpose was the propagation of the gospel among the heathen of the new world.

The education of slaves of the English settlers did not advance as rapidly as among other settlers. The reason was an "unwritten law that no Christian could be held a slave," according to the Special Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education (1871, p. 352). The dilemma was resolved by "provincial statutes and formal declarations by the Bishop of London to the effect that conversion did not work manumission." Systematic efforts to enlighten the slaves began as early as 1695. By about the middle of the 18th century, it is reported that in Accomack County, Va., "as many as 400 or 500 families were instructing their slaves at home and had their children catechized on Sunday."

Of all the sects interested in enlightening the Negroes, the Quakers were the most effective and earnest. It was they who first registered protest against slavery in Protestant America. They also extended their concept of education to include preparation for citizenship as well as Christianity. Their aggressiveness in implementing this concept, particularly in the northern colonies, coupled with a few slave uprisings in the southern colonies, culminated in the enactment of laws in several States against the teaching of Negroes, either slaves or freedmen.

However, another force which was gathering strength and momentum was destined not only to clash with the opponents of slave enlightenment, but also to challenge the entire slave system; this was the spirit of freedom which resulted in the American Revolution and finally in the emancipation of the slaves. Many of the Founding Fathers and their associates, including Adams, Wythe, Mason, Washington, Jefferson, Jay, Swan, Hopkins, and Franklin, favored a policy not only of suppressing the slave trade and emancipating the slaves, but also of educating them for a life of freedom.

Some of the revolutionary literature, both in America and from Europe fell into the hands of the slaves and freedmen who had learned to read. In addition, abolitionist literature grew in amount and intensity in its attack on slavery. It was inevitable that the ideas thus disseminated should be eagerly grasped by Negroes, and that literacy—the channel of communicating the ideas—should be eagerly sought. Thus, in spite of laws making the education of Negroes a crime, punishable by the severest penalties, many of them succeeded in securing the rudiments of knowledge. Much of this was accomplished by stealth and cunning, with the aid of those who had managed to learn, and sometimes with the connivance of white persons, including some slaveholders. So, by the time of Emancipation, it is estimated that about 5 percent of the Negroes were literate.

The first article of this series[1] *attempted to set forth the present posture of the school segregation issue. In this article, we shall give a brief review of the progress of Negro education from the pre-Civil-War days to the present, with suggestions of its relation to the issue of segregation.*

[1] Caliver, Ambrose, "Education of Negroes, Segregation Issue Before the Supreme Court," School Life, vol. 36 (February 1954).

Educational Ups and Downs

The beginning of the Civil War was the signal for unleashing the pent-up desire of Negroes for education. Schools followed in the wake of the Union Armies. Northern missionary zeal, enlightened determination of army officers, and eagerness of Negroes to learn, brought about the organization of schools almost immediately after the Union forces established themselves in any territory. The Freedmen's Bureau, established by Congress in 1866, considered education to be one of its major functions. As indicated in the previous article, what the Bureau did with respect to the education of Negroes largely served as a foundation for the public school systems later established in the South.

Public education at that time was not popular even for the whites. It should also be kept in mind that the war had brought poverty, suffering, and disorganization to the entire southern region. The Bureau, therefore, provided a kind of protection and an atmosphere of security, as well as financial assistance for those attempting to enlighten the Negroes. Negroes themselves played an important role in this educational activity and in bringing about the gains achieved. Five States had Negro State superintendents of education.

The report of the Superintendent of the Freedmen's Bureau in 1867 showed that the freedmen were appreciating the value of education and willing, when able, to pay for it; and that in this, as in other matters, they were making rapid strides toward entire self-support.

A sizable group of "moderate" southerners and large plantation owners accepted the facts of the new order. They realized the value of some education for Negroes not only that they might make a more reliable labor force, but also that they might

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How To Obtain U. S.

by Seerley Reid, Chief, Visual Education Service, Office

The following chart explains how to borrow, rent, and purchase those motion pictures and filmstrips of the U. S. Government w

U. S. Government Agency	Kind of Films[1]	How to Borrow or Rent Films[2]	How to Purchose Films	For Further Information Write to
Department of Agriculture	300 motion pictures and 160 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 Departmcnt. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 191 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. Dcpartment of Agriculture, Office of Information, Motion Picture Scrvice, 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 69 motion pictures and 30 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defer Office of Public Informatic Washington 25, D. C.
Department of the Army	725 motion pictures and 90 filmstrips—65 public information, 250 medical, and 500 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 442 motion pictures and 43 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defen Office of Public Informatic Washington 25, D. C.
Civil Aeronautics Administration (Department of Commerce)	7 motion pictures and 3 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 film not for sale.	U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington 25, D. C.
Coast Guard (Department of the Treasury)	40 motion pictures and 45 filmstrips—15 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 29 motion pictures and all filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Coast Guard, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
Department of Defense	50 motion pictures—about the Armed Forces.	Borrow from the Army, Navy, and Air Force film libraries.	Purchase 34 films from UWF.	U. S. Department of Defens Office of Public Informatio Washington 25, D. C.
Office of Education (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare)	484 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 Healtl Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.
Corps of Engineers (Department of the Army)	80 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 Arr 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. Apply to FWS to buy other films.	U. S. Department of the Inte Fish and Wildlife Service, P. O. Box 128, College Park, Md.
Bureau of Indian Affairs (Department of the Interior)	20 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 Inte Bureau of Indian Affairs, 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 Pr Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 70 cents.

vernment Films, 1954

tion, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

available for public use in the United States on January 1, 1954. Agencies with fewer than 10 such films have been omitted.

U. S. Government Agency	Kind of Films[1]	How to Borrow or Rent Films[2]	How to Purchose Films	For Further Information Write to
titute of Inter-Ameri-n Affairs (Foreign Oper-ons Administration)	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.
ffice of Inter-American fairs (terminated in 46)	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. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
arine Corps (Depart-ent of the Navy)	25 motion pictures—for public information and recruiting.	Borrow from Marine Corps district offices.	Purchase 7 films from UWF.	U. S. Marine Corps, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
reau of Mines (Depart-ent of the 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.
reign Operations dministration	40 motion pictures—about U. S. aid to Europe and economic recovery in European countries.	Borrow from FOA film depositories.	Not for sale.	Foreign Operations Administration, Audio-Visual Branch, Washington 25, D. C.
partment of the Navy	565 motion pictures and 200 filmstrips—45 public information and 720 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 532 motion pictures and 161 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
tional Advisory Com-ttee for Aeronautics	20 motion pictures—on technical aeronautical subjects.	Borrow from NACA.	Obtain authorization from NACA.	National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Washington 25, D. C.
blic Health Service epartment of Health, ucation, and Welfare)	130 motion pictures and 150 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 78 motion pictures and 57 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington 25, D. C.
S. Information Agency	45 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. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
terans Administration	60 motion pictures and 6 filmstrips—mostly on medical subjects, some on VA activities and programs.	Borrow from VA.	Purchase 39 motion pictures from UWF. Other films not for sale.	Veterans Administration, VA Central Film Library, Washington 25, D. C.
ffice of War Information, mestic Branch rminated in 1945)	32 motion pictures—on World War II activities.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints.	Purchase 30 films from UWF.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.
ffice of War Information, verseas Branch rminated in 1945)	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. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.

[2] See "A Directory of 2,660 16-mm Film Libraries," Bulletin 1953; No. 7, compiled by the USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing ice, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 50 cents.

Research in the Office of Education

(*Continued from page 85*)

is so that the studies undertaken will be directed to their needs and that besides "picking their brains" the results will be used by these groups. The most common means toward attaining this understanding and cooperation is the conference.

To the extent that educational organizations, like the NEA and the AERA, have their headquarters in Washington, such conferences can be held at little cost. Usually, however, it is necessary to call in representatives from all parts of the United States.

When all is said and done, the U. S. Office of Education is a small organization. Its budget for salaries and expenses comes to about $2,000,000. That is less than sixteen one-thousandths of 1 percent of what is currently being spent for education in the United States; and much of this small budget, of course, is devoted to the administration of grants, as well as to research.

Basic Principles

With such limited resources, it has been necessary systematically to restrict the range of research. Thus in the selection of research projects for the Office, the following principles are considered basic:

1. The Office must first of all carry out the mandates of Congress. Some of these mandates are specific. Title I of Public Law 815 specifically required the Office to cooperate with the States in a School Facilities Survey. Some of the mandates are moderately specific. The enabling act of 1867 requires the collection and diffusion of "such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories." Some of the mandates are quite broad; for example, the mandate to "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." Naturally, the specific mandates have a certain priority over the general or broad, other things being equal.

2. As a second principle, it seems clear that priority should be given to those fields of studies where the Office can make a unique, or almost unique, contribution. Nationwide statistical fact-gathering is one such field. Fact-finding research relating to national educational legislation is another. The organization of national conferences on research problems is still another.

3. As a third principle, the Office of Education should, in general, emphasize studies of *national* significance and coverage.

4. As a fourth principle, the Office should engage in research which provides or facilitates appropriate comparisons among the different States, cities, school districts, colleges, etc. Some one has said that "comparison is the method of science." It is also fundamental to intelligent legislation and administration.

5. The U. S. Office, through its central position at the National Capital and its freedom from local bias or predilections, is in a unique position to call conferences at which research coordination and cooperation can be effected. The conference method has been used in connection with a study of dropouts in high schools in 20 large cities, and in connection with a study of the costs of going to college—to mention only two.

6. Finally, of course, there is the problem of selecting those research subjects that are of greatest importance, that hold the most promise of solution, and which also fit the available staff and resources of the Office. It is a goal of the Office to achieve a systematic, sustained program addressed to national problems in the field of education, with sufficient flexibility of program to permit adaptations to emerging needs and problems.

Educational research, as we conceive it at the Office of Education, does not consist merely in "running an experiment" or "doing a survey" and publishing the results. A good deal of social responsibility is involved, in the first instance, in deciding whether to apply the limited resources to, say, a study of the salaries of beginning teachers versus a study of the educational handicaps of migrant children. After the choice of a problem and suitable delimitation—a matter of judgment and often a matter of compromise as well—the organizational and personal aspects have to be tackled and ironed out as best one can.

Education, as we know, is blessed with many organizations (and I literally mean "blessed"). Wherever practical, we try to elicit the interest and support of all appropriate organizations, so that they may contribute toward the development of a sound and feasible research pattern, stimulate the cooperation of their members, and then help use the results of research.

In addition to relations with the educational associations, we must also consider relations with other governmental units: the State departments of education; interested city school systems; and other Federal agencies, such as the Department of Agriculture (in rural education), the Children's Bureau (in work on delinquency), and the Bureau of the Census (regarding certain statistics).

Need for Leadership

For the most part these working relationships are constructive and helpful, but like all other human affairs, they require care and consideration on both sides. The same applies to the selection of staff to conduct the research. Since little of the research at the Office of Education is strictly a one-man affair, the best results require a high order of leadership as well as the loyalty and cooperation of a team. This combination of qualities is not always easy to attain.

Assume that a research project has been successfully conducted and a report prepared. Is the Office through? Certainly not. The next step is to make sure that the report reaches its proper audience. The emphasis in OE research has advisedly been toward securing information that has some immediate practical implications.

Practical Value

In the Office of Education, the authors of research have an important advisory and consultative responsibility in helping to put their research to work in practical educational situations. Great resourcefulness and patience may be required to persuade the public of the desirability of the application, special efforts may be needed to raise the necessary funds, a keen instinct for "timing" may be called for, and inexhaustible administrative energy may be needed to eliminate unforeseen practical "bugs." These are tasks for the administrator, not the researcher.

But the researcher should help interpret the meaning and adaptability of his research findings to the administrator. In

general, I think it essential that the research team not merely "remain available" for advice and consultation, but that some energy and thought be devoted to the problem of making sure that advice and consultation will be *called for* when and where it is needed.

This will be salutary not only for the administrators, but also for the researchers, who will doubtless observe certain unforeseen limitations of their research when it is put to the test of operating reality.

What I am saying, briefly, is that research of an agency such as OE must not end with a report. It should end in *actual contact* with the problems to which it is addressed, in *actual service* in application. I cannot, of course, say that research at the Office of Education has always achieved this contact or service. I can say, however, that it appreciates the need for this kind of follow-through, and the sequence of educational research of the OE is not considered complete until this last step has been taken.

Impact on Education

I wish that I could give you, at this time, a neat and precise résumé of the impact that the research of the Office of Education has had upon American education, but this is impossible. Education is a complex social institution, subject to manifold influences.

We do know, to be sure, that its reports are in demand, that some of them receive thoughtful consideration by many State, local, and higher-education authorities. We know that one of the studies moved a foundation to supply funds for faculty fellowships, at a time when higher educational enrollments were dropping and there were prospects, at some institutions, of some serious reductions in the number of faculty members.

We do know that proposed changes in educational benefits under Public Law 550 are awaiting final returns from a survey launched by the Office at the end of last October. We do know that there is keen interest among leaders in special education in a study on the qualifications and preparation of teachers of special education. And we do know that when one of the regular or recurring studies is for some reason delayed, we receive inquiries about and rebukes for the delay. We cannot doubt, in short, that research at the Office of Education is having its impact.

Yet I want to admit some gaps and shortcomings, too. Perhaps the most common complaint about the studies of the Office is that they are slow in completion. This has been true in the past. It is less true now, though slowness continues to be one of our main problems. In part, however, slowness is the price we must pay for adequacy of response and completeness of inquiry. It would be relatively easy, for example, to issue a postcard inquiry to State departments of education and to publish results as soon as returns were received from, say, the first 30 States. Instead, the State departments are given a 24- or 30-page questionnaire, and we try to insist on returns from *all* the States. Not all the States are prompt; and sometimes, truth to tell, conditions at the Office do not always permit *it* to be prompt. The Office has registered some successes in this matter of speed, as well as failures.

As I have surveyed the educational needs of the country in relation to the program of the OE (in the short time that I have been there), it has seemed to me that the strengthening of educational research in and by the Office is one of the important contributions that is proper and possible. It is my considered judgment that unless we, as a country, devote money and talent to research in education in a significant way, we cannot hope to have education keep pace with the demands of society which is spending huge sums on research in health and medicine, science, agriculture, business procedures and technology, war and defense, and thereby is improving its processes and products at a prodigious rate. This research in education—one of the Nation's greatest enterprises—calls for the expenditure of public funds for it. It cannot be solely dependent on foundation grants or fringe resources from professional organizations. Nor do I think that we will make very great strides by limiting research to the collection, analysis, and dissemination of the fact type which largely, of necessity, characterizes most of the OE research. Looking at the situation then, it seems to me that a number of things can be done by the OE to be a more constructive force in educational research for the Nation. As a result, we have taken some steps.

The first is to request funds to provide technical and personnel assistance to process data more rapidly and thereby make more of the fact-finding research of the Office contemporary and less of it historical.

The second is to stimulate more research on problems of national significance where the great research resources lie—the colleges, universities, city and State school systems, and other nonprofit agencies interested in education, through the matching fund type of cooperative research. This will, we hope, not only make national funds available but stimulate State and local funds for educational research.

Task Force Studies

The third is to propose inaugurating a systematic program of task force studies of major problems of national significance to education. Presumably one such study would be undertaken each year and would take from 2 to 3 years. These studies would presumably pull together the many contributory research findings available, add new research findings, and synthesize them on each study. This continuous, systematic attack on such problems would mean that as the years progressed there would be made available to educators and laymen a series of significant and authoritative research studies, interpreting research, and undoubtedly suggesting further research on these problems. As proposed, a lay advisory board would recommend the studies they considered most important to be undertaken; the task force would be professional educators and research personnel. The lay board would also have continuity so as to recommend appropriate follow-up on study reports.

Much important, significant, and needed research in education cannot and should not be done by or under the direction of the U. S. Office of Education because it would or might interfere with local and State functions. But much more can be done and needs to be done by the Office to be of service to all 48 States and their localities.

Gibraltar of Education

I regard research as the Gibraltar of education—as an essential basis for sound progress. I feel sure that the members of this association share my feelings in this respect.

If the Office moves ahead to serve American education as we all hope it will, its research activities and relationships will be increasingly important. The leadership and cooperation of this organization also will be a large factor in how successful the Office is in this respect.

"I Speak for Democracy"

(*Continued from page 82*)

The masses are not experts in the solution of complicated problems. But, they can delegate their problems to lawmakers of their choice, men in whose qualities and experience they have confidence. And, Americans know that if they don't like a particular law, in due course they can change it. That is the privilege of the American people, they can change their laws and their government without ever meaning to change the republic.

In concluding his definition Lincoln said, "for the people." Well, certainly American Democracy has produced better results than any other form of government in history. Our high standards of living and education, our medical care, our freedoms are the envy of every nation on the face of this globe. At the same time the United States has become the most powerful country in the world, more powerful than the realm of any Caesar or Czar, ancient or modern, while remaining at the same time a community, preserving the neighborly qualities of its origin.

While the greatness of America is her democracy, the peril of America is also her democracy, for danger can come from the misuse of freedom. Democracy must not, therefore, be permitted to struggle alone for its existence; it needs the best that men can give it.

May our hearts beat with a love for our Republic; our tongues chant its praises with eloquence; may our hands be ready to work for it and defend it; and may we never forget the legend engraved on the base of the Statue of Liberty:

"Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free, the wretched refuse of your teeming shore. Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me; I lift my lamp beside the golden door."

That, my friends, is the "Voice of Democracy."

Philip M. McCoy,

Argentine High School,
Kansas City, Kans.

I am democracy.

I was planted as a seed in the minds of men by God himself.

I blossomed forth into a world of tyranny and unhappiness.

In the minds of some, I was just a passing fancy, but in others I became a dream, an obsession.

I was tried in Athens, speculated upon by Plato and Aristotle, obliterated by the Caesars and crushed by feudal lords and kings during the Middle Ages.

In the 18th century I became an actuality in a struggling, youthful country where men sought true freedom.

For 175 years this country has been my home.

I have lived in magnificent buildings in Washington, D. C., and in tiny houseboats along the Mississippi. I have flourished in every classroom in the Nation. I have dwelt in beautiful green parks where families are free to rest and play as they wish. I have lived in newspaper offices where editors prepare daily editorials. I have lived in the voting polls where men choose their leaders.

I have not been contained within the covers of musty books nor held on a faded parchment beneath an air-tight glass case.

Wherever there are men who seek me, there must I be.

Unless I am a part of the very lives of those whom I serve, I shall become a useless word.

Every day men throughout the world make great sacrifices for me. Many times men have given their lives that I might live.

How it hurts to see men die for my sake. How small and useless I feel as I watch those who love me prepare arms for war because of this love.

There are many things which make me realize how great a task lies ahead—an overcrowded school, an empty church, a broken home.

I shudder when I see a sign "Whites Only" or a family Bible covered with dust.

Then I wonder—how can I make the people see that I cannot be worn as a glove on a cold hand, that I cannot be turned off and on like an electric light; but that I can exist only as long as men have a sincere de-

The Words of Two Americans

Excerpts from remarks of Samuel Miller Brownell, United States Commissioner of Education, at the luncheon honoring the four high school winners of the Seventh Annual Voice of Democracy Contest in Washington, D. C., February 24, 1954.

I should like to quote the words of two Americans. One, a naturalized American and one proud to be one of us in the United States, said these words just about a year ago:

"*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 * * *.*"

The other American said recently:

"*The wealth we may accumulate, the public prestige we may enjoy, the social position we may obtain, are all meaningless in the long vista of time, unless all are made to serve the cause of human dignity and freedom. What value dollars, or acclaim, or position in a world where justice, opportunity, and freedom are lost to us by force, by subversion, or by our own neglect?*"

The first American I have quoted was 14-year-old Adelaide Nacamu, of Peekskill, New York, who was born in Milan, Italy. Her words are from Adelaide's "Voice of Democracy" presentation which made her a national winner last year. They are words, like those you will hear from this year's national winners, that represent the true voice of democracy and of American youth.

The second American I have quoted is President Eisenhower. His words, taken from a recent address delivered at Defiance College, also have deep significance for us today. They represent the thinking and leadership of an American whose words stand as the symbolic "voice of democracy" and the hope for all freedom-loving peoples throughout the world.

sire to live happily and peacefully with their neighbors.

Yet, how often I am filled with joy and gladness.

Millions of youth stand and pledge their loyalty to flag, to country and to God.

On street corners, in barbershops, over back fences, people in two's and three's discuss freely their views on politics and government.

Sixty-one million persons go to the polls and vote according to their own ideas and opinions.

Then I realize that all is not lost. I see that the future is not a black cloud hanging over the earth. I know that men will live together in peace and prosperity, that some day the world will indeed be one world.

For I have become a part of the very beings of men, and as long as men have hearts and minds and souls, I shall live. For I am Democracy!

Joel H. Cyprus

Wichita Falls Senior High School, Wichita Falls, Tex.

WHO ARE YOU? Yes, you. I am but a voice, but you are a living person, a human being. And you can answer me. You have no fear; you are not ashamed. You hold your head up high and say proudly, "I am Bill Smith. I am a Catholic."

Or your neighbor may say, "I am Saul Greenburg. I am a Jew." The couple down the street may answer, "We're the Robinsons. We are Christians."

And here I, the voice, begin to wonder. What is this? I speak into a microphone and ask a simple question like "Who are you?" and get back three completely different answers from three neighbors. How can this be? People as different as they are cannot function as a unit. And yet I see that an entire nation is formed of these diverse people. Indeed, I have good cause for wondering.

I ask another question: "Which political party do you favor?" And again, I receive answers like "the Democratic," "the Republican," "any reform party," "the party with the best ideas, no matter which one it may be." Again, too, I wonder. This is also impossible. Such opposing political views cannot live together in a single nation. Yet I look around and see that they can and do.

I try a third question: "How much money do you earn?" And for the third time each answer is different. They range from "$20 per week" to "$250 million a year." I can see no sense, yet I can see a nation.

Again in my quest of knowledge I try a question: "Where were you born?" "England," "Texas," "Germany," "Outer Mongolia," "Brooklyn," "Timbuktu," "South Africa . . ." The answers stream on and on. A nation with people from all over the world? Impossible! But an impossibility come true.

I continue my search, asking question after question. I seek something that holds this Nation together. And then, suddenly, it comes . . . the key to the whole affair: Quite innocently, I ask the question, "What are you?" And instead of a great deluge of answers come just one.

"I am an American. I believe in Democracy. I am satisfied to let the opinion of the majority of the people govern my actions."

At last, I find my answer. Finally, I know. There is a simple explanation. Or is it so simple?

Two men hold opposing religious, political, and financial views. Yet these same two men are willing to work together to sponsor the homecoming dance for the local football team. These same two men meet casually on the street, and greet each other as closest friends. One of these men has his house burn down, and the other offers to help shelter his family until they find a new place to live. They cooperate to the fullest measure, and then we say that the answer is simply, "They are Americans."

And we are right!

It is their idea of principles and their idea of majority rule that makes America succeed. They believe that if the other fellow is down, he should be helped back up; and they believe that regardless of their views, if the majority involved favor something, it must be carried out.

My first question was all wrong. Rather than "Who are you?", I should have asked, "What are you?" I would have gotten my answer immediately, for I would have heard a unanimous uproar, "We are America."

Oh, yes, just one more thing. You may be wondering. "Who am I?" I am the intangible. I have been flattering myself with my little quest for knowledge. For you see, I . . . I AM THE VOICE OF DEMOCRACY.

Education for Negroes

(*Continued from page 87*)

be better prepared for their new status as freedmen and for the duties of citizenship. The combination of all these groups and forces, in addition to the aid of northern missionaries and politicians, helped tremendously to advance the education of Negroes. By 1880 Negro enrollment had reached over 700,000. By 1900 over a million and a half Negro children were enrolled in public elementary schools, and 5,000 in public high schools. Private schools enrolled 22,000 Negro elementary and 13,000 high school pupils.

By the beginning of the Civil War, it is estimated that about 66 Negroes had graduated from college. During the next 20 years the number graduating from college is estimated at 313; and during the next decade, 738.

This encouraging progress may be attributed not only to the great desire of Negroes for education, but also to the fact that the Reconstruction legislatures had established the principle of equal distribution of school funds between the two races. After the conservative whites of the South regained power, the trend toward equality began to be reversed. "Despite the rapid increase in enrollment (of both Negroes and whites), the educational funds available were strictly limited * * * by the conservative legislatures immediately after Reconstruction. * * * The first result was an actual decrease in educational revenue and a consequent decrease in school enrollment." [2] Since the limited school funds were inadequate for the hordes of children (white and colored) clamoring for an education, according to Bond, the first solution was to divert school funds from Negro to white children.[3]

By 1900 the pattern had been firmly set. School statistics show that the pattern of discrimination continued for nearly a half century. In 1896, the Supreme Court handed down its historic decision in the *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* railroad accommoda-

[2] Bond, Horace Mann, *The Education of the Negro in the American Social Order*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934, p. 89.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 92.

tions case. The theory underlying this decision that separate but equal facilities did not violate the Constitution gave the highest governmental sanction to the pattern of segregation, which is now challenged before the Court.

Philanthropy Aids the South

Many persons contended that the discriminatory school practices which prevailed under this governmental sanction of "separate but equal" would inevitably result in inferior education for Negroes. The low cultural level on which Negroes have lived has definitely been related to the kind of education they have received. In spite of their tremendous social and economic progress, the masses are still far behind the rest of the population. Their lack of civic effectiveness, the high proportion of their workers who are unskilled, their high sickness and death rates, the instability of their homes, and their shorter life span are all closely connected with their inadequate educational opportunities. Although there has been a miraculous growth in literacy among them, nearly a third of the Negro adult population is still functionally illiterate (that is, they have not advanced beyond the fourth grade).

Many elements in the South were disturbed by the plight of the Negroes just described. But try as hard as they might, the Negroes could not lift themselves by their own bootstraps. Outside help and stimulation were needed. That help started in 1898 with the Conference for Education in the South. The General Education Board, organized in 1902, stimulated and supported the State supervisors of Negro schools. In 1908 the Jeanes Fund started a system of supervisory aid for Negro rural schools. The Slater Fund assisted the organization and improvement of Negro rural high schools. The Julius Rosenwald Fund helped to build schoolhouses; and the Carnegie Corporation assisted in the development of libraries and the preparation of teachers. Among the more significant things done by the Phelps-Stokes Fund was the financing of the comprehensive survey made by Thomas Jesse Jones in 1915 and 1916 under the supervision of the then U. S. Bureau of Education.

The Gap Begins To Close

Table I shows the progress made in the education of Negroes in eight States in

***Table I.*—Percent that average salaries of white teachers exceed those of Negro teachers**

State	1911	1936	1940	1950
Alabama	124	116	113.1	16.5
Florida	81	109	96.2	15.6
Georgia	167	151	128.7	23.8
Kentucky	4	32	63.4	.....
Louisiana	231	131	135.2	29.6
North Carolina	66	49	39.3	−1.7
South Carolina	202	173	156.9	41.8
Virginia	87	73	63.1	.....

Source: Data for 1911 are from Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 38, 1916, by Thomas Jesse Jones. Data for 1936 are from U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 13, 1938, by Blose and Caliver; data for 1940 and 1950 from Statistics of State School Systems, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, Chapter 2, 1950.

teachers' salaries. The trend toward closing the gap between Negroes and whites will be noted. As pointed out in the preceding article, this trend appeared after the beginning of litigation in the midthirties to equalize opportunities.

In a study [4] now available important progress is indicated in the equalization of expenditures per classroom unit. For example, in 1939–40, the median classroom expenditure for whites in the 17 States was 145 percent greater than that for Negroes. However, in 1949–50, the corresponding percentage had been reduced to 72 (12 States only).

Table II summarizes the comparative status of education among Negroes and whites at the midcentury. Data presented in these tables give some indication of what it would cost to provide real equality on a "separate but equal" basis, details of which will be discussed in a subsequent article.

In the educational trends now becoming apparent, one can see the beginning of the end of physical inequalities. The attitudes of citizens and officials generally are changing for the better. They are more and more recognizing the importance of respecting the rights of every human being, of providing that equality of opportunity which such recognition implies, and of implementing our democratic principles of freedom, justice, and equality.

Practically every State is considering one or more aspects of this matter. Most of them are seriously attempting to bring about physical and quantitative equality. All but four States have admitted Negroes to some phase of graduate or professional study in their publicly supported colleges and universities.

The appellants in the cases now before

[4] Hutchins, Clayton D. and Albert Munse, *The Supplement—Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury*, Washington: Office of Education, 1954.

***Table II.*—Summary of facts, by race, for 1949–50 in 17 States and the District of Columbia**

Item	Negro	White
Percent of school population enrolled (5–17) [1]	79.4	81.0
Percent of enrolled pupils attending	85.3	88.6
Number of days attended per year	147.9	157.0
Percent of total enrollment in first 4 grades	53.6	44.6
Average length of school term, in days	173.4	177.1
Percent of total enrollment in high school	14.1	21.0
High school enrollment, number	338,032	1,558,685
Percent of youth of high school age in school (14–17) [1]	74.2	79.0
Number of high school graduates	45,291	277,192
Pupil-teacher ratio in elementary schools	32.1	27.3
Average annual salaries of teachers	$2,143	$2,713
Percent increase of teachers salaries over 1946	102.7	70.8
Current expense per pupil in ADA	$95.31	$154.69
Percent increase of current expense over 1946	65.6	47.8
Value of school property per pupil enrolled	$85	$335
Percent one-teacher schools of total elementary schools	43.5	32.3
Number of pupils transported (12 States)	445,711	2,393,019
Percent of pupils transported (12 States)	21.1	45.5

[1] U. S. Census 1950 (white and nonwhite for 16 States and the District of Columbia. No data by race for Delaware).

Source: These data were supplied by the Research and Statistical Standards Section of the Office of Education.

the Supreme Court are attempting two things. First, they are trying to extend the principle of desegregation downward to the public secondary and elementary schools. And second, they are attempting to have the Court define the components of equality. They are asking the question, Does the provision of physical equality in separate schools square with the democratic principles of freedom, justice, and equality underlying our way of life?

Personnel News

A. LACHLAN REED, Wayzata, Minn., has joined the staff of the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Dr. Reed will become Special Assistant to the Commissioner of Education S. M. Brownell.

Dr. Reed has served as high school teacher at Silver Lake, Minn.; as instructor in English at Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.; as headmaster of Northrop Collegiate School, Minneapolis, Minn.; as research fellow at the Bureau of Institutional Research, University of Minnesota, and as an official of the Minneapolis-Honeywell Co., Minneapolis, Minn., in the field of sales, advertising, and editing.

From November 1941 to October 1945, Dr. Reed served as an officer in the United States Navy.

A graduate of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., Dr. Reed received his A. B. from Yale. He received his M. A. at Yale in English and a Ph. D. from the University of Minnesota in English language and literature. He has also done work in educational administration and supervision at Minnesota.

He holds membership in the Minneapolis Association of Principals, the Minneapolis Education Association, and the National Educational Association. He was the winner of the Marcia Henson Prize in American Literature at Yale, was elected member of Phi Beta Kappa, and was also the winner of the Clare Fellowship for two years' study at Clare College, Cambridge, England.

W. EARL ARMSTRONG, Acting Head, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, will become the first executive director of the newly organized National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education on April 1. S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, has granted Dr. Armstrong a leave of absence from the Office of Education to accept this position.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education assumes responsibility on July 1 for establishing and approving teacher education standards for the Nation's 1,200 colleges and universities that prepare teachers for United States schools. Since 1927 these functions have been performed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

In announcing Dr. Armstrong's departure from the Office of Education, Commissioner Brownell said, "In the years immediately ahead our Nation will need the best qualified teachers possible. A strong program of accreditation will help to improve the quality of teacher education provided by our colleges and universities. Dr. Armstrong's experience and leadership in this field will be a great asset to the National Council as it undertakes all teacher education accreditation in the United States."

Dr. Armstrong joined the Office of Education staff in 1949. He served with the American Council on Education in a 5-year study of teacher education, and was Dean of the School of Education, University of Delaware, immediately before coming to Washington. He has conducted teacher education surveys in Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Kentucky, and has served as a consultant on teacher education and professional standards to the States of Maryland, Virginia, and Arkansas. In earlier years he filled educational positions in Oklahoma, California, and Utah.

Expenditures

(*Continued from page 86*)

city districts, these districts were able to provide proportionately more for classroom services than the smaller districts with fewer children could provide.

Variations in citizen interest and effort undoubtedly affect the amount of school expenditures, but the major factor appears to be the varying financial abilities of the States and school districts. For the Nation there was an average of $196,106 of personal income back of each classroom. States ranged from a high of about $344,000 to a low of $63,000 per classroom unit. This agrees very well with the more than 5 to 1 variation in median expenditure levels between the high and low States.

Discussion of the equalization of education has permeated school administration literature for the past several years. The new report discusses existing situations in the States with regard to equalization, and it also supplies evidence of progress in equalizing education during the past 10 years.

For this study, special attention has been directed toward increasing financial support for the low-expenditure classrooms. The extent to which numbers of classrooms are supported at levels below the median is the chief concern of equalization efforts, and the report discusses the effectiveness of equalizing factors as well as the change in the equalization situation within the States. Some States are shown to have as many as one-third of the classrooms supported at levels below 70 percent of the State median.

These States have made insufficient progress toward equalization, which suggests a need for greater efforts toward a more effectively equalized program.

Total expenditures for elementary and secondary education were about 2.28 percent of the personal income for the 1949–50 school year. Proportions for the individual States ranged from 3.51 percent down to 1.76 percent. These percentages for 1949–50 were slightly lower than for 1939–40.

The median expenditure level for education in the United States increased from $1,649 per classroom unit in 1939–40 to $4,391 in 1949–50. As these two values are compared, it appears that the new level is 2.66 times as high as that for the period 10 years earlier. However, this increase must be interpreted in relation to other evidence on inflationary conditions.

Corresponding ratios of increase for the consumer's price index, income per capita, personal income per child of school age, and income per classroom unit are 1.70; 2.46; 2.67; and 2.92, respectively. These ratios imply that increases in expenditures for education were inadequate to represent more than a response to inflationary changes.

In total, *Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury* is the report of a status study which reveals levels of expenditure for education and inadequacies of plans for supporting the schools and suggests points at which State and local finance programs can be improved.

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)

Administering the Elementary School; A Cooperative Educational Enterprise. By William C. Reavis, Paul R. Pierce, Edward H. Stullken, and Bertrand L. Smith. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. 631 p. Illus. $5.

Blueprint for Delinquency Prevention. New York State Youth Commission, Lee C. Dowling, Chairman. Albany, New York State Youth Commission, 1953. 30 p. Illus.

Citizenship for Boys and Girls. By Stanley E. Dimond. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 40 p. Illus. (Junior Life Adjustment Booklet Series.) 40 cents.

CPEA Reports to the Profession on a Developing Concept of the Superintendency of Education. By Daniel R. Davies. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 40 p. $1 single copy.

A Guide for Vision Screening of School Children in the Public Schools of California. Recommendations of California State Department of Public Health and California State Department of Education. Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1953. 26 p.

Have Fun . . . Get Well! By Maryelle Dodds. New York, American Heart Association and its Affiliates, 1953. 39 p. Illus. (Copies may be obtained from American Heart Association and its Affiliates, 44 East 23d St., New York 10, N. Y.)

Health and Safety Plays and Programs. By Aileen Fisher. Boston, Plays, Inc., 1953. 267 p. $3.50.

Health Teaching In Schools; For Teachers in Elementary and Secondary Schools; Second Edition. By Ruth E. Grout. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1953. 353 p. Illus. $4.25.

Introduction to Experimental Method for Psychology and Social Sciences. By John C. Townsend. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. 220 p. $4.

Opportunities in Physical Education, Health, and Recreation. By Jay B. Nash. Revised edition. New York, Vocational Guidance Manuals, Inc., 1953. 128 p. $1.

Research Studies in Education. A Subject Index of Doctoral Dissertations, Reports, and Field Studies, 1941–51; a Looseleaf File With Annual Supplements. By Mary Louise Lyda and Stanley B. Brown. Published by the compilers with a grant from campus chapters of Phi Delta Kappa. Boulder, Colo., 1953. 1 v. Processed. (Address: Librarian, Education Library, University of Colorado Libraries, Boulder, Colo.)

Recommended Equipment and Supplies for Nursery, Kindergarten, Primary and Intermediate Schools. Compiled by the Committee on Equipment and Supplies, Alida H. Hisle, Staff Editor. 1953 Revision. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1953. 80 p. Illus. (Bulletin No. 39.) $1.00.

Reorganizing The High-School Curriculum, Revised Edition. By Harold Alberty. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1953. 560 p. Illus. $5.25.

Rural Social Systems and Adult Education; a Committee Report. Charles P. Loomis, Chairman; J. Allan Beegle, Editor. Resulting from a study sponsored by the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities and The Fund for Adult Education established by the Ford Foundation. East Lansing, Mich., The Michigan State College Press, 1953. 392 p. $5.

The Student Teacher in the Secondary School. By Paul R. Grim, John U. Michaelis and Others. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. 484 p. Illus. $6.35.

Studies in Rural Education. By Clifford P. Archer, edited by Helen A. Strand. Minneapolis, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Minnesota, 1953. 44 p.

Study Your Way Through School. By C. d'A. Gerken. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. 47 p. (A Life Adjustment Booklet.) 40 cents.

Successful Teaching; Its Psychological Principles. By James L. Mursell. Second Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. 321 p. $4.25.

Supplement A (1951–53) to Educational Reading Guide for the Partially Seeing. Compiled by Lorraine Galisdorfer. Buffalo, N. Y., Foster and Stewart Publishing Corp., 1953. 15 p.

Teaching Reading. By Arthur Gates. Washington, D. C., Department of Classroom Teachers, American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1953. 33 p. Illus. (What Research Says to the Teacher, 1.) 25 cents, single copy.

The Washington Pocket Guide. By Randle Bond Truett. New York, Hastings House, 1953. 72 p. Illus. Single copy 50 cents plus 10 cents postage. (Order from: Truett Publications, 1622 North Harrison St., Arlington 5, Va.)

The Arithmetic Teacher. A new journal for the improvement of mathematics teaching in the elementary school. To be issued October, December, February, and April. First issue February 1954. $1.50 a year to individuals and $2.50 a year to schools, libraries, and other institutions. (Address: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D. C.)

The Mathematics Student Journal. A new journal for high school mathematics students containing enrichment and recreational material. To be issued October, December, February, and April. First issue February 1954. 20 cents a year or 15 cents a semester. To be mailed in bundles of five or more; teachers should submit group orders for students, all covering same period. (Address: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D. C.)

Youth Discussion on Television. Middletown, Conn., The Junior Town Meeting League, 1953. 32 p. Illus. (Copies available from The Junior Town Meeting League, 356 Washington St., Middletown, Conn.)

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Office of Education

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815—Third Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1953. $1.

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 3, Higher Education. Prepared by Theresa Wilkins. 55 cents.

Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury. By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. Misc. No. 18, 1953. 65 cents.

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FREE copies are still available of the following Office of Education publications issued in recent years:

Agricultural Education—Organization and Administration. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 13, Revised 1939.

Atomic Energy Here to Stay. Supplement to **School Life**, March 1949.

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Requirements and High School Students' Programs. Circular No. 300, February 1949.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Social Security in the United States. Describes background of the social security program, place of social security in American life, programs under the Social Security Act, and other programs relating to social security. Revised 1953. 30 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

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Department of Commerce

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United States Senate

Review of the United Nations Charter. Senate Document No. 87, 83d Cong., 2d Sess. 1954. $2.50.

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Volume 36 Number 7
APRIL 1954

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School Life

◀ For Progress and Peace

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Should I Go To College?

by S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education

Are you one of the more than a million students who will graduate from high school this year? If so, you have probably asked yourself that question, "Should I go to college?"

About 46 percent of you have already made up your minds about college. But the majority of you still are not quite sure whether you *want* to go, or *need* to go, or *can* go. Perhaps I can suggest a few of the factors that ought to go into that decision.

Let's consider whether you *want* to go. Will you like college? Will you find it a stimulating and satisfying experience? You must have discovered in high school whether or not you are a good enough student to tackle college work. You may not excel in any course, but if you have a creditable record, you are probably ready to try something more difficult. If you will put your best efforts into your college courses, you should find them wonderfully rewarding—the gateway to a whole new world. In college you can have a chance to explore the full span of mankind's experience—in literature and history and science and social understanding. By using the tools of knowledge, you will improve your ability to think. and you will probably enjoy it.

And now, do you *need* to go to college? Look at it this way. Our Nation is a country of technicians and specialists, be they farmers, teachers, engineers, government workers, or businessmen. The complexities of our society make life highly competitive. And that is very significant in terms of education. It means that some form of specialized training is essential for advancement in almost every field of endeavor. You should ask yourself: Will a college education significantly help in my life's work?

That leaves the third question—*can* you go, in other words can you afford to go? I know that to many of you that seems like the only question. But I find it the easiest one to answer. For I believe that if you are a promising student, healthy and ambitious, you can find a way to finance a college education. Ask your high school counselor about scholarships and loan funds, about colleges where you can work part-time as you go to school.

I want to add one last thought, chiefly because I am anxious not to be misunderstood. When I say, "Yes, you should go to college," I do not mean that college is the *only* place where you can find all these values I have mentioned. Certainly not. There are many other forms of extended education—night or correspondence schools, on-the-job or apprenticeship training, vocational schools, the specialized training offered by the military services, and systematic study on your own. What is best for one may not be for another.

The question of going to college must be settled on an individual basis—is it the right step for you? Talk it over with your parents, your teachers, your school advisers, all the people who know your abilities and your ambitions. I am sure you will find the right answer.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph: President Eisenhower speaking on "The Atom for Progress and Peace" before the General Assembly of the United Nations, New York, Dec. 8, 1953.

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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.)

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)

Educational Efforts and Educational Needs

By Walter Lippmann

WHAT I am going to say is the result of a prolonged exposure to the continuing crisis of our western society—to the crisis of the democratic governments and of free institutions during the wars and revolutions of the 20th century.

Now it does not come easily to anyone who—like me—has breathed the soft air of the world before the wars that began in 1914—who has known a world that was not divided and frightened and full of hate—it does not come easily to such a man to see clearly and to measure coolly the times we live in. The scale and scope and the complexity of our needs is without any precedent in our experience, and indeed—we may fairly say—in all human experience.

In 1900, men everywhere on earth acknowledged, even when they resented, the leadership of the western nations. It was taken for granted that the liberal democracies were showing the way towards the good life in the good society, and few had any doubts of the eventual, but certain, progress of all mankind towards more democracy and a wider freedom.

The only question was when—the question was never whether—the less fortunate and the more backward peoples of the world would have learned to use not only the technology of the West but also the political institutions of the West. All would soon be learning to decide the issues which divided them by free and open and rational discussion; they would soon learn how to conduct free and honest elections, to administer justice. Mankind would come to accept and comprehend the idea that all men are equally under the laws and all men must have the equal protection of the laws.

At the beginning of this century the acknowledged model of a new government, even in Russia, was a liberal democracy in the British or the French or the American style. Think what has happened to the Western world and to its ideas and ideals during the 40 years since the world wars began. The hopes that men then took for granted are no longer taken for granted. The institutions and the way of life which we have inherited, and which we cherish, have lost their paramount, their almost undisputed, hold upon the allegiance and the affections and the hopes of the peoples of the earth. They are no longer universally accepted as being the right way towards the good life on this earth. They are fiercely challenged abroad. They are widely doubted and they are dangerously violated even here at home.

During this half-century the power of the western democratic nations has been declining. Their influence upon the destiny of the great masses of mankind has been shrinking. We are the heirs of the proudest tradition of government in the history of mankind. Yet we no longer find ourselves talking now—as we did before the First World War—about the progress of liberal democracy among the awakening multitudes of mankind. We are talking now about the defense and the survival of liberal democracy in its contracted area.

We are living in an age of disorder and upheaval. Though the United States has grown powerful and rich, we know in our hearts that we have become, at the same time, insecure and anxious. Our people enjoy an abundance of material things, such as no large community of men have ever known. But our people are not happy about their position or confident about their future. For we are not sure whether our responsibilities are not greater than our power and our wisdom.

We have been raised to the first place in the leadership of the Western society at a time when the general civilization of the West has suffered a spectacular decline and is gravely threatened. We, who have become so suddenly the protecting and the leading power of that civilization, are not clear and united among ourselves about where we are going and how we should deal with our unforeseen responsibilities, our unwanted mission, our unexpected duties.

It is an awe-inspiring burden that we find ourselves compelled to bear. We have suddenly acquired responsibilities for which we were not prepared—for which we are not now prepared—for which, I am very much afraid, we are not now preparing ourselves.

We have had, and probably we must expect for a long time to have, dangerous

Mr. Walter Lippmann is widely known as a distinguished writer and scholar. This article is excerpted from his address before the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools at its Fifth Annual Dinner held recently in San Francisco, Calif. Mr. Lippmann in this timely address presents facts about the educational deficit and the national crisis in American education. Through the courtesy of Mr. Lippmann, we are pleased to publish his remarks for SCHOOL LIFE readers.

and implacable enemies. But if we are to revive and recover, and are to go forward again, we must not look for the root of the trouble in our adversaries. We must look for it in ourselves. We must rid ourselves of the poison of self-pity. We must have done with the falsehood that all would be well were it not that we are the victims of wicked and designing men.

In 1914, when the decline of the West began, no one had heard of Lenin, Trotsky, Mussolini, Hitler, Stalin, and Mao Tse-Tung. We have not fallen from our pre-eminence because we have been attacked. It would be much truer to say, and it is nobler to say it, that we have been attacked because our capacity to cope with our tasks had begun to decline.

We shall never have the spirit to revive and to recover so long as we try to console ourselves by shutting our eyes, and by wringing our hands and beating our breasts and filling the air with complaints that we have been weakened because we were attacked, and that we have been making mistakes because we were betrayed.

We must take the manly view, which is that the failure of the western democracies during this catastrophic half of the 20th Century is due to the failings of the democratic peoples. They have been attacked and brought down from their pre-eminence because they have lacked the clarity of purpose and the resolution of mind and of heart to cope with the accumulating disasters and disorders. They have lacked the clarity of purpose and the resolution of mind and of heart to prevent the wars that have ruined the West, to prepare for these wars they could not prevent, and, having won them at last after exorbitant sacrifice and at a ruinous cost, to settle those wars and to restore law and order upon the face of the globe.

Educational Efforts

I have said all this because it is only in the context of our era that we can truly conceive the problem of educating the American democracy. When we do that, we must, I believe, come to see that the effort we are making to educate ourselves as a people is not nearly equal to our needs and to our responsibilities.

If we compare our total effort—in public and private schools, and from kindergarten through college—with what it was 50 years ago, the quantitative increase is impressive. We are offering much more schooling of a more expensive kind to very many more pupils. By every statistical measure, the United States has made striking quantitative progress during the past century towards the democratic goal of universal education. The typical young American is spending more years in school than his father or grandfather; a much higher proportion of young people are going to high school and beyond; and more dollars—even discounting the depreciation of the dollar—are being spent for each person's education.

Now, if it were no more difficult to live in the United States today than it was fifty years ago, that is to say if life were as simple as it was then—if the problems of private and community life were as easily understood—if the task of governing the United States at home, and of conducting its foreign relations abroad, were as uncomplicated and no more dangerous than it was 50 years ago—then we could celebrate, we could be happy, we could be congratulating ourselves that we are making great progress in the task of educating ourselves as a democracy.

But we cannot make that comforting comparison without deceiving ourselves seriously. We cannot measure the demands upon our people in the second half of the 20th Century—the demands in terms of trained intelligence, moral discipline, knowledge, and, not least, the wisdom of great affairs—by what was demanded of them at the beginning of the first half of this century. The burden of living in America today and of governing America today is very much heavier than it was 50 years ago, and the crucial question is whether the increase of our effort in education is keeping up with the increase in the burden.

When we use this standard of comparison, we must find, I submit, that the increase in our effort to educate ourselves is of a quite different—and of a very much smaller—order of magnitude than is the increase in what is demanded of us in this divided and dangerous world. Our educational effort and our educational needs are not now anywhere nearly in balance. The supply is not nearly keeping up with the demand. The burden of the task is very much heavier than is the strength of the effort. There is a very serious and dangerous deficit between the output of education and our private and public need to be educated.

How can we measure this discrepancy? I am sorry to say that I shall have to use a few figures, trusting that none of you will think that when I use them, I am implying that all things can be measured in dollars and cents. I am using the figures because there is no other way to illustrate concretely the difference in the two orders of magnitude—the difference between what we do to educate ourselves, on the one hand, and on the other hand, what the kind of world we live in demands of us.

Educational Deficit

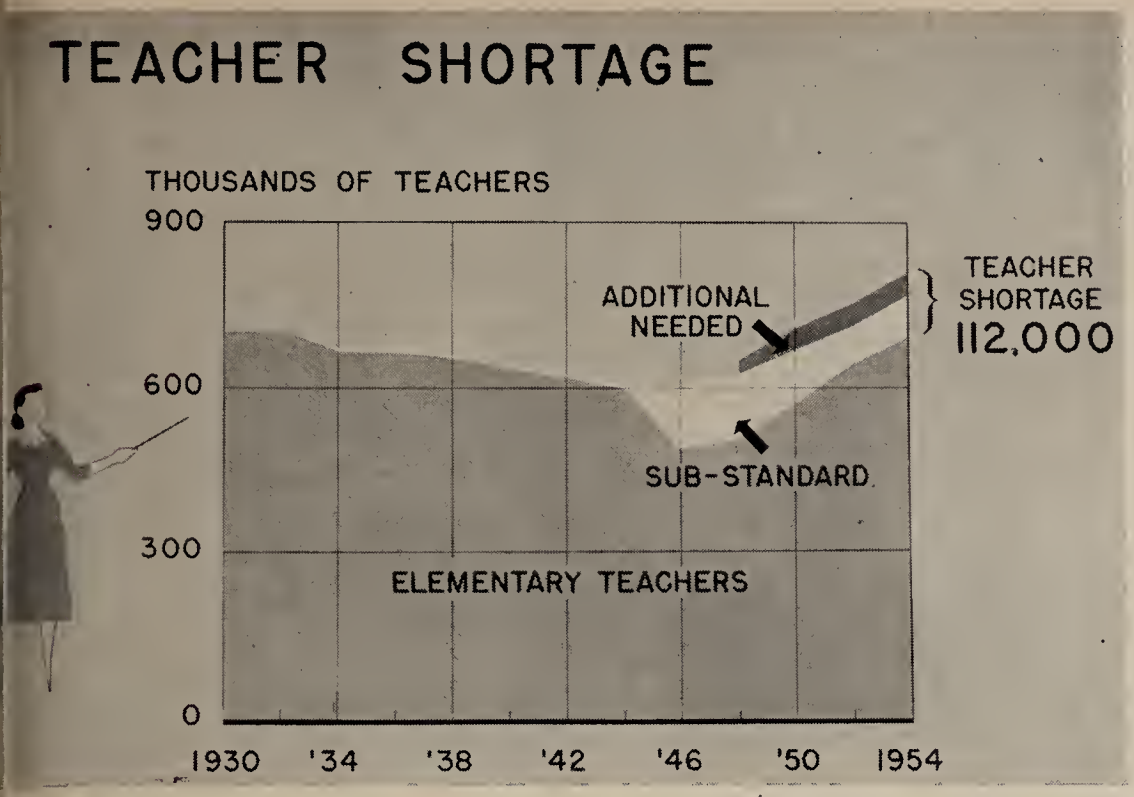
What shall we use as a measure of our educational effort? For the purpose of the comparison, I think we may take the total expenditure per capita, first in 1900, and then about half a century later, in 1953, on public and private schools from kindergarten through college.

And as a measure of the burden of our task—of the responsibilities and of the commitments to which education has now to be addressed—we might take federal expenditures per capita, first in 1900, and then in our time, half a century later.

We differ among ourselves, of course, as to whether we are spending too much, too little, or the right amount, on defense, and on the public services. But these differences do not seriously affect the argument. For all of us—or nearly all of us—are agreed on the general size and the scope of the necessary tasks of the modern federal government, both in military defense and for civilian purposes. Between the highest and the lowest proposals of responsible and informed men, I doubt that the difference is as much as 20 percent. That is not a great enough difference to affect the point I am making. That point is that the size of the public expenditure reflects—roughly, of course, but nevertheless, fundamentally—the scale and scope of what we are impelled and compelled to do. It registers our judgment on the problems which we must cope with.

Now in 1900, the educational effort—measured in expenditures per capita—was $3.40. The task—as measured by federal expenditure per capita—was $6.85. What we must be interested in is, I submit, the ratio between these two figures. We find, then, that in 1900 the Nation put out $1 of educational effort against $2 of public task.

(*Continued on page 109*)



A Businessman Looks at the Teacher Shortage

by Lyle M. Spencer
President, Science Research Associates[1]

THE FINANCIAL PROBLEMS we are facing in our schools are by no means new ones. We have been accumulating them for at least 25 years. During that period the proportion of the national income spent on public education has declined from 3.3 to 1.8 percent, a drop of about 45 percent. Salaries of teachers have increased only about 60 percent as fast as wages generally. If education were like a business concern—which, of course, it is not by any means—we would say that although its dollar sales were rising, its proportion of the market was declining, and we would be quite worried about it. Illinois is not as hard-hit as most—we rank seventh nationally, but our problems are still tough.

Another point we would consider even more worrisome is the fact that during the last year about 60,000 trained teachers left the profession for one reason or another, mainly to take higher paying jobs in other fields. I know of no other profession where this type of mass exodus has occurred, where career people have left a field in which they had highly skilled, technical training to take other jobs where they were essentially unskilled. If education were a business concern, we would conclude that the company probably was not a very good place to work, that the wages undoubtedly were not high enough, and the other job satisfactions weren't very good.

Still one other bit of information would prove discouraging. In the testing program carried on the last few years to determine who should be deferred from military service to get further schooling, it has been found that the quality of students preparing for the teaching profession is lower than that of any other profession—engineering, medicine, law, or even business administration.

The conclusion from these and many other facts seems to be that whatever our problems in education are today, they seem likely to get more serious before they get better.

This is one reason why I feel a conference of this type is so desirable, where representatives from all kinds of groups in the community can sit down together to consider common problems of education and find new ways of solving them.

This fall there has been an outpouring of books attacking our schools. I have looked at several of these, and while my first reaction was that they were unfair and they tended to make me irritated and angry, I've come to the conclusion that they are probably going to have a generally beneficial effect. Two points all of them make is that we, as citizens, must support more public education, not less, and that we together must find ways of getting more money and better financing, not less, for our public schools.

In thinking about how we might come to grips with these complicated problems, scores of ideas have occurred to me that I'd like to discuss with you, but I am only going to talk about three. The first idea concerns how educators can explain better to us laymen in more human terms the nature of educational and teacher recruiting problems, and what penalties our society pays if these problems are not solved. The second involves one way that we, as businessmen, can help with a financial aspect of the educational problem. And the final idea concerns one area that educators, businessmen, and other community groups might explore together as a new approach to educational problems.

Americans almost always support desirable community projects when they understand the problems involved, feel that the proposed solutions are reasonable, and have confidence in the people who handle them. It is in this general area that I feel that the climate of confidence between educators and public could be improved.

I rather think that educators could do a good deal more in putting their best foot forward where we can all see what a handsome and useful foot it is. Boning up for this talk has proved to be one of the most exciting extracurricular activities I've undertaken in a long time, and the most fascinating part of it has been my coming to understand a little more clearly what happens in a typical classroom. I had never thought much before about what educators mean when they talk about a child growing up intellectually and emotionally. We can't see this growth, as we can see the growth in height of one of our children

[1] Address before State-Wide Teacher Recruitment Conference, sponsored by Illinois State Chamber of Commerce, Springfield, Illinois, December 10, 1953.

or the fact that a boy's voice changes. Nevertheless, it occurs, and at a much more rapid rate than physically. Here are a few examples of what I mean:

1. During all the time a child is in school, his vocabulary increases at the rate of about 2,700 basic words per year—or about 5,000 words if we include different meanings for the same word and different forms of the word. This vocabulary growth largely stops when school days are over. It also slows down when our schools aren't as good as they should be.
2. In terms of reading speed, the average child after about the third grade annually increases his speed of reading ordinary material at the rate of about 25 words per minute, and his ability to understand what he reads rises correspondingly. In just 1 year, a student increases his reading rate about 1,500 words per hour, which is about five pages of print. This increase also comes to an almost complete stop after students leave school, although there is no psychological reason why it could not continue.

   As a matter of fact, I was astounded to learn that most of us adults read no more efficiently than an eighth-grade school child, and less than half as rapidly and as well as we could.

The Third R

3. To mention another of the three R's, our ability in arithmetic or practical everyday mathematics usually doesn't improve after we leave school. I've always taken a little pride in my ability to do arithmetic problems rapidly. Not long ago our company hired a new business manager, and I was secretly dismayed to find that he could work many arithmetic problems in his head in a tenth of the time that I could with pencil and paper. I finally learned that the main reason why he could do this was because he had learned his multiplication tables up to 20, where mine had stopped at 12. If I knew right off that $17 \times 19 = 323$, I'd save many valuable minutes every day.

I've been trying to learn these tables from 12 to 20 lately, and I want to tell you that I had completely forgotten what an agonizing job it is to learn multiplication tables. My schooling in arithmetic wasn't good enough, and neither is that of many young people coming up through our schools today.

Two other examples in other areas:

1. For some years I have been concerned over the fact that young people in our schools do not learn enough about the American way of life. The other day I was talking with a high school freshman about the American Constitution and referred casually to the Bill of Rights, the first several amendments to the Constitution. In a nice way, he inferred that I really didn't know what I was talking about, that the so-called Bill of Rights really are not individual rights. They are limitations, he said, on what the Federal Government can pass laws about. When I looked it up later I was chagrined to find that he was correct, and I had some new respect for what our youngsters are learning about the American way of life in their civics and social studies courses. It's awfully important that this learning process not be slowed down or impeded.
2. In still another area I got a lesson the other day. At a dinner party, the 12-year old daughter of some friends was permitted to serve hors d'oeuvres to the guests. In the middle of the serving, which she was obviously doing with some pride, her 9-year old sister tripped her and she fell, dropping the platter of sandwiches. The younger daughter was promptly sent to her room to meditate on her sins, but I was much surprised to observe that the older daughter did not seem upset about the incident. In talking with her about it, she said, "oh, that's only because she's jealous. That's called sibling rivalry in school and all sisters have it. She'll just learn to control it as she gets older." This is apparently a practical lesson in human relations learned in the classroom which we did not even know about when we were in school. I think it is a valuable lesson to know.

The point to these incidents that impresses me is how much children in our schools really learn when they get the chance. They have a thirsty curiosity which has somehow been lost by most of us by the time we reach adulthood. I wish that professional educators could do a much more thorough public relations job of explaining to us laymen how this learning process is slowed down when our schools are not kept up to snuff. For example, when a child gets behind in his learning of new words because he has to attend a double session school or has an untrained teacher, he does not usually catch up later on. When he finishes high school, instead of knowing forty-five or fifty thousand different words, he may only know twenty-five or thirty. The others are irretrievably lost. The same thing applies to his knowledge of reading, multiplication tables, of American history, and how to get along with other people. And what is even worse, his most valuable asset, the desire to learn, may be blunted or even turned into a hostility toward schools and the learning process. I believe that if we citizens could know more about these things, we would be more eager to help solve school problems.

What Businessmen Can Do

Now, turning to what businessmen can do, I'm convinced that all of us must take more interest in educational problems, not simply as a matter of charity as we do when we serve on hospital boards or the Community Chest, but as a matter of business self-interest. It is evident that our schools are going to need more money—to get more of their share of the national income. Up to 85 percent of all recurring school costs are in teacher salaries. We are the group in the community that knows most about financing, and I think we should take more leadership in this direction. We need to undertake more studies to find new sources of income and develop new ways whereby this income collection will be less painful to citizens generally. I am told that had not Beardsley Ruml invented the "pay as you go" income tax method, people simply would not pay the high personal income taxes they do today. The main reason seems to be that most of us will not budget for taxes. If we let them go until the end of the year, they seem to be mountains, while they are heavy but bearable if paid in part each payday. I am also told that the property taxes used to pay for education amount to less in a year than we pay for whisky and liquor of all kinds. But they seem to be much more because we only pay them annually or semiannually, while we pay for our whiskey by the pint.

Now to my final point about what educators, businessmen, and other community groups can do in working together to develop more mutual confidence and solve more educational problems. In the business

(*Continued on page 110*)

Education of Negroes: Successful Transition From Segregated to Unsegregated Schools

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner, and
Theresa Wilkins, Research Assistant, Higher Education Division

IN THE previous issue of SCHOOL LIFE, the article, "Education of Negroes," discussed their progress and status under the segregated pattern. This article presents instances of success in the modification or elimination of segregation in educational and other areas of life. This in no way implies an attempt to anticipate or prejudge the Supreme Court decision. The article merely presents factual information about events that have been and are presently taking place, and which can be expected to continue to take place, over the months or years, whatever the decision may be.

Education

The out-of-State scholarship was an early device, adopted by several of the Southern States, to enable Negro students to secure desired graduate or professional training provided in the State for white students, but not available to Negro students. In some States graduate and professional units have been established in colleges attended predominantly by Negroes. A more recent development has been the admission of Negro graduate and professional students to State universities. According to present information 17 public colleges and universities formerly closed to Negroes in 12 Southern States have enrolled one or more Negroes. In certain undergraduate courses, instruction is available in Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, and West Virginia. Instruction on the graduate and professional levels is provided in Arkansas, Louisiana, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

The legislature of the State of New Jersey enacted in 1881 a law which prohibited the exclusion of any child from a public school because of nationality, religion, or race. In 1940, however, there were 70 separate schools for Negroes, 18 of which had been established during the preceding 20 years.[1] The creation in 1945 of a Division Against Discrimination in the New Jersey State Department of Education led to the organization of community groups for study and action with the result that, in all 43 communities formerly operating separate schools, segregation has been eliminated or major steps have been taken in that direction. Predicted difficulties and acts of violence have not occurred. Negro and white pupils are attending the same schools, and teachers work together without regard to race.[2]

In several towns in Illinois, suits were filed a few years ago against segregated schools. While these suits were pending, the East St. Louis School Board began the transfer of Negro children upon application. In spite of threats, no demonstrations occurred. Before long, white and Negro children were sharing everything from lockers to cafeterias.[3]

In 1949 the General Assembly of Indiana passed a law which required the elimination of segregation and discrimination in public schools and permitted the process to be a gradual one. A grade-a-year policy was adopted, beginning with the first years of both elementary and secondary schools. In the course of implementing the new State law, it was necessary to determine new boundary lines based upon residence. Some families threatened to leave the city if special dispensations were not granted their children. The school officials, through careful planning, working with parent-teacher associations, promoting community education, and carefully selecting and placing teachers, were able to avoid a predicted crisis. By 1953 the elementary schools had become interracial on a citywide basis through the fourth grade, and all six of the formerly white high schools had admitted some Negro students.[4]

Another State in which legislative measures have been passed to accomplish integration is Arizona. Immediately after enabling legislation had been passed by the State Legislature, the Tucson system was integrated. Regarding the manner in which this action was accomplished, the Superintendent of Schools said:

> We did a lot of preparatory work last year after the Legislature made it possible to desegregate our Negro children. As a part of our regular orientation program for pre-school children and children entering junior high, etc., the questions of new friends, new district lines, bus schedules, and many other changes necessary were discussed freely . . . Although there was a considerable amount of smoke for a short time, the transition from segregation to desegregation has been most successful.
>
> Teachers as well as pupils have been integrated in our school program, and so far we have been more than pleased with the results of our program here in Tucson.[5]

More evidence of the success of integration is shown in the educational policies and procedures of the Roman Catholic Church. By pronouncement of the Archbishop of the Diocese of St. Louis, all schools, elementary through university, became integrated. Opposition to such a policy was quickly abated when it became clear that the Archbishop's action was positive and that it would not be overruled by any other individual or body. Throughout the country the Catholics have been desegregating the schools which they control.[6]

(*Continued on page 111*)

[1] Marion Thompson Wright, "New Jersey Leads in the Struggle for Educational Integration," *The Journal of Educational Sociology* 26:401–17, May 1953.

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[6] Arnold M. Rose. *Race Prejudice and Discrimination*, New York: Alfred M. Knopf Inc., 1951, p. 548.

Better Education for All Our Children

by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems

TO WORK actively and productively in a PTA or on a lay citizen committee, we need to understand something about our schools as they are now—not as they were when we were students. Therefore, I should like to spend a few minutes discussing some of the problems we face in educating all of our youth attending public schools today. As these problems are described, you will see that they do not pertain exclusively to any one group in our population. They are not peculiar problems of minority groups—except in degree. However, leaders of minority groups can certainly assist greatly in their solution. For leaders like yourselves can often communicate more easily and effectively with parents and other citizens than the heavily burdened school staff can.

To help in promoting better educational opportunities for all children, lay leaders may study problems like this one: In what ways should changes occurring in today's society affect our school program? Here are a few of the changes: Population shifts, especially from the country to the city, and the city to the suburbs; attractive employment opportunities for young people; new mass media of communication such as television, which exerts a strong educational influence; the Nation's need for a loyal and patriotic youth who can perform military service to protect the liberties they enjoy; a young population which travels fast—in hotrods and even by jet-propelled wings; an amorphous family in which the mother often works outside and the children use the home as eating, sleeping, and (facetiously) even "combat" headquarters. They are only a few of the societal changes which have shifted heavy burdens on our teachers. Some sociologists have declared that the average teacher today is expected to be a policeman, a psychiatrist, a nurse, a clergyman, an entertainer, a statistician, a librarian, and a parent. The last job, as you know, is the most difficult for teachers who have as many as 200 individual students in their classrooms each day.

Let me point out how one social development is influencing our schools. Beginning with our preparations for World War II, young men found good employment possibilities. Many of them quit school to take jobs paying high salaries. Employment has continued high, and many young men have continued to leave school as soon as attendance laws permitted. They want to make money and they want to work. These pursuits are in the best American tradition. But leaving school at an early age of 14, 15, or 16 also has certain results. In an article called "Where are the Boys?" Ellsworth Tompkins has pointed out that 428,792 more girls than boys were going to high school in 1944–45. Among adults 25 years old and over, he reported that 16.2 percent of the women were high school graduates in contrast to only 12 percent for the men. Although there are few recent statistics to support my conclusion, I believe that among some minority groups there is an even wider gap between the educational attainment of women and men. The women, I believe, are staying in school longer than the men.

This article is an adaptation of an address originally made by Dr. Reed before the Annual Convention of Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority at St. Louis, Missouri, December 27, 1953. Because of the length of the address, it is presented in two parts for SCHOOL LIFE readers. This is the concluding part of his interesting presentation.

For example, the Dillard University study of drop-outs, which I mentioned earlier, showed that of 531 Negro drop-outs who were over State school-age requirements, 212 were girls and 319 were boys. Thus, in 1 year approximately 20 percent more boys than girls above compulsory school-age requirements quit school.

This poses a problem for community study. Are more girls receiving better education than boys? If so, is this a desirable trend in our present society? If more boys should be kept in school longer, what kind of an education should they receive? Are boys dropping out of school because they think the school curriculum is effeminate, unrealistic, and too sedentary? Do we need more male teachers in our schools to give male status to education for boys who can't appreciate its value? What can we do with youth who are physically but not mentally apt? What about those who are not book-learners?

Citizens and educators who have studied this problem quickly find themselves confronted by other questions such as these: Should all boys and girls be required to study in high school all day? Can the school program be adjusted so that boys and girls can work outside of school part of the day? If so, how can their school work be related to their job needs? Or how can the girl needed at home attend classes which will make her a better homemaker and mother?

Another problem of both the teacher and parent is this: "How can we develop in each child a sense of responsibility for working up to his capacity?" Psychologists have estimated that few students—especially superior ones—work at their maximum. Some learn less than 50 percent of what they are capable. However, the cost of educating such children is just as high—and often higher—than instructing the conscientious performers. What is there in the home, school, and community that establishes anti-intellectual attitudes in the child?

A prominent anthropologist at one of

American's outstanding universities is conducting an extensive study on child behavior in the Boston area. It is her hypothesis that the attitudes and behavioral patterns of youth may be quite firmly established before they reach high school. The family, playmates, and elementary school seem to be effective conditioning agencies of our children.

Vandalism and juvenile delinquency have made banner headlines for the past several months. It is a problem that affects every parent and taxpayer. It affects our schools. It weakens the social and moral fiber of this great Nation. Why are the youth making these headlines? How do they get that way? Can parents and teachers work out a vigorous leisure-time program which puts their restless energy and thrill-seeking minds to work at something constructive? Can the school football field, gymnasium, music auditorium, and shops be used at night and over weekends for youth who might otherwise roam the streets in gangs looking for excitement? Are there unimproved private or public lands in your State which a lay citizen or educators' group could obtain and use as an outdoor recreation area for young people? There are such areas in Texas, California, Michigan, and other States. In these places young people don't just tie knots and soak up sunshine. Instead, under the direction of the schools or public associations, they clean up beaches, build docks and boats, reforest any burnt-over areas, construct log cabins, dig ditches, and build dams—all according to an overall, long range plan. And they love it!

There Is a Teacher

We need to take our young people off the crowded streets and introduce them to the lakes, woods, and farms in the countryside. We need to give them a chance to flex and strain their muscles. We need to make them *physically* as well as mentally tired. And we need to help them see, appreciate, and improve the beauties of the out-of-doors so they can say with Lew Sarett, the poet and forester: "I love everything that is rooted in earth—flowers and trees, and mountains; and everything that walks or crawls on earth. I love wild animals—deer, bears, and wolves." Frankly, I draw the line on the last two animals.

So far, our problems have dealt primarily with the pupil. But wherever there are pupils, there is a teacher. Lay groups interested in education need to understand our teacher problem. You have read that the number of young people being prepared as teachers is far short of our present and future needs. About 45,700 graduates, who were qualified as elementary school teachers, were graduated from colleges in 1953. We actually needed 118,000 public elementary school teachers. Double shifts, overcrowding, and poorly qualified teachers served as the panacea. The latest research (NEA) on this subject shows that schools are staffed with 71,589 persons who are teaching on an emergency basis without full certification. Makeshift classrooms and double-session school days are being employed for 632,000 American pupils.

Unfortunately, the future looks worse than the present. In the spring of 1953, all our schools and colleges enrolled approximately 35 million pupils and students. Office of Education estimates for 1960 are that "there will be 10 million more pupils and students in our Nation's schools and colleges, both public and private, than there were last spring." The teacher shortage is the concern of all citizens, and *all* groups.

At our recent office conference of educational leaders one question was asked repeatedly: "Why don't more promising young people enter teaching as a profession?" The economic factor was accepted as one of many important causes. But the declining status of the teacher in the community was considered just as important. These questions were asked: Why has the prestige of the teacher declined during the last few decades? Why are local citizens reluctant to accept new teachers as regular members of their social group? You may be interested to learn that in a recent study of their problems, this lack of community acceptance was ranked first by teachers.

We need more qualified and superior teachers. How can you as individual citizens and as members of a public-spirited organization encourage talented and bright young people to make a career of teaching? Here are other questions that need to be answered: Can married teachers with children be employed on a part-time basis? Can you find well-qualified ex-teachers in your school district and make it desirable for them to teach again? Can you help new teachers orient themselves and find a pleasant place to live, as Portland, Oregon, and other cities are doing? Can you take them into the social life of your group and make them feel that you understand and appreciate their professional efforts? Can you find out why some good teachers quit their jobs after a short stay? Then can you help to eliminate the basic causes of dissatisfaction?

We have briefly mentioned the economic aspect of teaching. Satisfactory salaries are obviously important in attracting superior personnel. As a member of a PTA or citizen group—or as a consumer and a taxpayer—you are helping to pay for education. You may want to study these questions: What are the tax sources in your school district? Where does the money come from? How much will a new classroom addition or elementary school cost? Where can or should you obtain new revenue if needed? Are architectural plans for a new building adequate without being luxurious? Is your money going for ornate extras or for needed classrooms, libraries, and gymnasiums? How can you pay adequate salaries to your excellent teachers so that they will stay with you and your children?

Study the Problem

There is one other vital problem which I touched upon at the beginning of this talk. It is the talented and superior child. You may think that he or she is only the teacher's responsibility. However, superior children—like other children—are in school only about 6 hours a day. Sometimes they are lost in the crowd or permitted to shift for themselves because the teacher is spending most of her time trying to teach the average and slow learners. Home conditions also affect the rapid learner. His parents may resent the bright child's knowledge; or on the other hand, they may exploit his genius and cause him to dislike school. His playmates and peers may ridicule "the brain" or "Quiz Kid" and destroy his desire to excel. These are only a few things that may happen.

Some leaders recognize that the superior child is moulded by all of his experiences in the neighborhood. Therefore, they are experimenting with an all-community program for the gifted. The Community Youth Program, directed by Robert J. Havighurst of the University of Chicago, is an example. In an Illinois town, he is including school and church teachers, nurses,

(*Continued on page 112*)

THE ATOM FOR PR

Members of United Nations delegations in their places on the floor of the hall of the General Assembly building in New York. Distinguishable in the picture are de

MADAME PRESIDENT, MEMBERS OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY: When Secretary General Hammarskjold's invitation to address this General Assembly reached me in Bermuda, I was just beginning a series of conferences with the Prime Ministers and Foreign Ministers of Great Britain and of France. Our subject was some of the problems that beset our world.

During the remainder of the Bermuda Conference, I had constantly in mind that ahead of me lay a great honor. That honor is mine today as I stand here, privileged to address the General Assembly of the United Nations.

At the same time that I appreciate the distinction of addressing you, I have a sense of exhilaration as I look upon this Assembly.

Never before in history has so much hope for so many people been gathered together in a single organization. Your deliberations and decisions during these somber years have already realized part of those hopes.

But the great tests and the great accomplishments still lie ahead. And in the confident expectation of those accomplishments, I would use the office which, for the time being, I hold, to assure you that the Government of the United States will remain steadfast in its support of this body. This we shall do in the conviction that you will provide a great share of the wisdom, the courage, and the faith which can bring to this world lasting peace for all nations, and happiness and well being for all men.

Clearly, it would not be fitting for me to take this occasion to present to you a unilateral American report on Bermuda. Nevertheless, I assure you that in our deliberations on that lovely island we sought to invoke those same great concepts of universal peace and human dignity which are so cleanly etched in your Charter.

Neither would it be a measure of this great opportunity merely to recite, however hopefully, pious platitudes.

A Danger Shared by All

I therefore decided that this occasion warranted my saying to you some of the things that have been on the minds and hearts of my legislative and executive associates and on mine for a great many months—thoughts I had originally planned to say primarily to the American people.

I know that the American people share my deep belief that if a danger exists in the world, it is a danger shared by all—and equally, that if hope exists in the mind of one nation, that hope should be shared by all.

Finally, if there is to be advanced any proposal designed to ease even by the smallest measure the tensions of today's world, what more appropriate audience could there be than the members of the General Assembly of the United Nations?

I feel impelled to speak today in a language that in a sense is new—one which I, who have spent so much of my life in the military profession, would have preferred never to use.

That new language is the language of atomic warfare.

The atomic age has moved forward at such a pace that every citizen of the world should have some comprehension, at least in comparative terms, of the extent of this development, of the utmost significance to every one of us. Clearly, if the peoples of the world are to conduct an intelligent search for peace, they must be armed with the significant facts of today's existence.

My recital of atomic danger and power is necessarily stated in United States terms, for these are the only incontrovertible facts that I know. I need hardly point out to this Assembly, however, that this subject is global, not merely national in character.

The Fearful Potentials

On July 16, 1945, the United States set off the world's first atomic explosion.

Since that date in 1945, the United States of America has conducted 42 test explosions.

Atomic bombs today are more than 25 times as powerful as the weapons with which the atomic age dawned, while hydrogen weapons are in the ranges of millions of tons of TNT equivalent.

Today, the United States' stockpile of atomic weapons, which, of course, increases daily, exceeds by many times the explosive equivalent of the total of all bombs and all shells that came from every plane and every gun in every theatre of war in all of the years of World War II.

A single air group, whether afloat or land-based, can now deliver to any reachable target a destructive cargo exceeding in power all the bombs that fell on Britain in all of World War II.

In size and variety, the development of atomic weapons has been no less remarkable. The development has been such that atomic weapons have virtually achieved conventional status within our armed services. In the United States, the Army, the

India, Indonesia, Mexico and the Netherlands.

by Dwight D. Eisenhower

President of the United States

Navy, the Air Force, and the Marine Corps are all capable of putting this weapon to military use.

But the dread secret, and the fearful engines of atomic might, are not ours alone.

In the first place, the secret is possessed by our friends and allies, Great Britain and Canada, whose scientific genius made a tremendous contribution to our original discoveries, and the designs of atomic bombs.

The secret is also known by the Soviet Union.

The Soviet Union has informed us that, over recent years, it has devoted extensive resources to atomic weapons. During this period, the Soviet Union has exploded a series of atomic devices, including at least one involving thermo-nuclear reactions.

No Monopoly of Atomic Power

If at one time the United States possessed what might have been called a monopoly of atomic power, that monopoly ceased to exist several years ago. Therefore, although our earlier start has permitted us to accumulate what is today a great quantitative advantage, the atomic realities of today comprehend two facts of even greater significance.

First, the knowledge now possessed by several nations will eventually be shared by others—possibly all others.

Second, even a vast superiority in numbers of weapons, and a consequent capability of devastating retaliation, is no preventive, of itself, against the fearful material damage and toll of human lives that would be inflicted by surprise aggression.

The free world, at least dimly aware of these facts, has naturally embarked on a large program of warning and defense systems. That program will be accelerated and expanded.

But let no one think that the expenditure of vast sums for weapons and systems of defense can guarantee absolute safety for the cities and citizens of any nation. The awful arithmetic of the atomic bomb does not permit of any such easy solution. Even against the most powerful defense, an aggressor in possession of the effective minimum number of atomic bombs for a surprise attack could probably place a sufficient number of his bombs on the chosen targets to cause hideous damage.

Should such an atomic attack be launched against the United States, our reactions would be swift and resolute. But for me to say that the defense capabilities of the United States are such that they could inflict terrible losses upon an aggressor—for me to say that the retaliation capabilities of the United States are so great that such an aggressor's land would be laid waste—all this, while fact, is not the true expression of the purpose and the hope of the United States.

To pause there would be to confirm the hopeless finality of a belief that two atomic colossi are doomed malevolently to eye each other indefinitely across a trembling world. To stop there would be to accept helplessly the probability of civilization destroyed—the annihilation of the irreplaceable heritage of mankind handed down to us from generation to generation—and the condemnation of mankind to begin all over again the age-old struggle upward from savagery toward decency, and right, and justice.

Surely no sane member of the human race could discover victory in such desolation. Could anyone wish his name to be coupled by history with such human degradation and destruction.

Occasional pages of history do record the faces of the "Great Destroyers" but the whole book of history reveals mankind's never-ending quest for peace, and mankind's God-given capacity to build.

It is with the book of history, and not with isolated pages, that the United States will ever wish to be identified. My country wants to be constructive, not destructive. It wants agreements, not wars, among nations. It wants itself to live in freedom, and in the confidence that the people of every other nation enjoy equally the right of choosing their own way of life.

No Idle Words or Shallow Visions

So my country's purpose is to help us move out of the dark chamber of horrors into the light, to find a way by which the minds of men, the hopes of men, the souls of men everywhere, can move forward toward peace and happiness and well being.

Because of the widespread interest in and significance of this address by the President of the United States, which he delivered before the General Assembly of the United Nations on December 8, 1953, SCHOOL LIFE presents the full text of the address to its readers. Copies in pamphlet form are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price, 15 cents.

In this quest, I know that we must not lack patience.

I know that in a world divided, such as ours today, salvation cannot be attained by one dramatic act.

I know that many steps will have to be taken over many months before the world can look at itself one day and truly realize that a new climate of mutually peaceful confidence is abroad in the world.

But I know, above all else, that we must start to take these steps—NOW.

The United States and its allies, Great Britain and France, have over the past months tried to take some of these steps. Let no one say that we shun the conference table.

On the record has long stood the request of the United States, Great Britain, and France to negotiate with the Soviet Union the problems of a divided Germany.

On that record has long stood the request of the same three nations to negotiate an Austrian State Treaty.

On the same record still stands the request of the United Nations to negotiate the problems of Korea.

Most recently, we have received from the Soviet Union what is in effect an expression of willingness to hold a Four Power Meeting. Along with our allies, Great Britain and France, we were pleased to see that this note did not contain the unacceptable pre-conditions previously put forward.

As you already know from our joint Bermuda communique, the United States, Great Britain, and France have agreed promptly to meet with the Soviet Union.

The Government of the United States approaches this conference with hopeful sincerity. We will bend every effort of our minds to the single purpose of emerging from that conference with tangible results toward peace—the only true way of lessening international tension.

We never have, we never will, propose or suggest that the Soviet Union surrender what is rightfully theirs.

We will never say that the peoples of Russia are an enemy with whom we have no desire ever to deal or mingle in friendly and fruitful relationship.

On the contrary, we hope that this Conference may initiate a relationship with the Soviet Union which will eventually bring about a free intermingling of the peoples of the East and of the West—the one sure, human way of developing the understanding required for confident and peaceful relations.

Instead of the discontent which is now settling upon Eastern Germany, occupied Austria, and the countries of Eastern Europe, we seek a harmonious family of free European nations, with none a threat to the other, and least of all a threat to the peoples of Russia.

Beyond the turmoil and strife and misery of Asia, we seek peaceful opportunity for these peoples to develop their natural resources and to elevate their lives.

These are not idle words or shallow visions. Behind them lies a story of nations lately come to independence, not as a result of war, but through free grant or peaceful negotiation. There is a record, already written, of assistance gladly given by nations of the West to needy peoples, and to those suffering the temporary effects of famine, drought, and natural disaster.

These are deeds of peace. They speak more loudly than promises or protestations of peaceful intent.

For the Benefit of Mankind

But I do not wish to rest either upon the reiteration of past proposals or the restatement of past deeds. The gravity of the time is such that every new avenue of peace, no matter how dimly discernible, should be explored.

There is at least one new avenue of peace which has not yet been well explored—an avenue now laid out by the General Assembly of the United Nations.

In its resolution of November 28th, 1953, this General Assembly suggested—and I quote—"that the Disarmament Commission study the desirability of establishing a subcommittee consisting of representatives of the Powers principally involved, which should seek in private an acceptable solution . . . and report on such a solution to the General Assembly and to the Security Council not later than 1 September 1954."

The United States, heeding the suggestion of the General Assembly of the United Nations, is instantly prepared to meet privately with such other countries as may be "principally involved," to seek "an acceptable solution" to the atomic armaments race which overshadows not only the peace, but the very life, of the world.

We shall carry into these private or diplomatic talks a new conception.

The United States would seek more than the mere reduction or elimination of atomic materials for military purposes.

It is not enough to take this weapon out of the hands of the soldiers. It must be put into the hands of those who will know how to strip its military casing and adapt it to the arts of peace.

The United States knows that if the fearful trend of atomic military buildup can be reversed, this greatest of destructive forces can be developed into a great boon, for the benefit of all mankind.

The United States knows that peaceful power from atomic energy is no dream of the future. That capability, already proved, is here—now—today. Who can doubt, if the entire body of the world's scientists and engineers had adequate amounts of fissionable material with which to test and develop their ideas, that this capability would rapidly be transformed into universal, efficient, and economic usage.

To hasten the day when fear of the atom will begin to disappear from the minds of people, and the governments of the East and West, there are certain steps that can be taken now.

Proposal for Joint Atomic Contributions

I therefore make the following proposals:

The Governments principally involved, to the extent permitted by elementary prudence, to begin now and continue to make joint contributions from their stockpiles of normal uranium and fissionable materials to an International Atomic Energy Agency. We would expect that such an agency would be set up under the aegis of the United Nations.

The ratios of contributions, the procedures and other details would properly be within the scope of the "private conversations" I have referred to earlier.

The United States is prepared to undertake these explorations in good faith. Any partner of the United States acting in the same good faith will find the United States a not unreasonable or ungenerous associate.

Undoubtedly initial and early contributions to this plan would be small in quantity. However, the proposal has the great virtue that it can be undertaken without the irritations and mutual suspicions incident to any attempt to set up a completely acceptable system of world-wide inspection and control.

The Atomic Energy Agency could be made responsible for the impounding, storage, and protection of the contributed fissionable and other materials. The ingenuity of our scientists will provide special safe conditions under which such a bank of fissionable material can be made essentially immune to surprise seizure.

The more important responsibility of this Atomic Energy Agency would be to devise methods whereby this fissionable material would be allocated to serve the peaceful pursuits of mankind. Experts would be mobilized to apply atomic energy to the needs of agriculture, medicine, and other peaceful activities. A special purpose would be to provide abundant electrical energy in the power-starved areas of the world. Thus the contributing powers would be dedicating some of their strength to serve the needs rather than the fears of mankind.

The United States would be more than willing—it would be proud to take up with others "principally involved" the development of plans whereby such peaceful use of atomic energy would be expedited.

Of those "principally involved" the Soviet Union must, of course, be one.

Out of Fear and Into Peace

I would be prepared to submit to the Congress of the United States, and with every expectation of approval, any such plan that would:

First—encourage world-wide investigation into the most effective peacetime uses of fissionable material, and with the certainty that they had all the material needed for the conduct of all experiments that were appropriate;

Second—begin to diminish the potential destructive power of the world's atomic stockpiles;

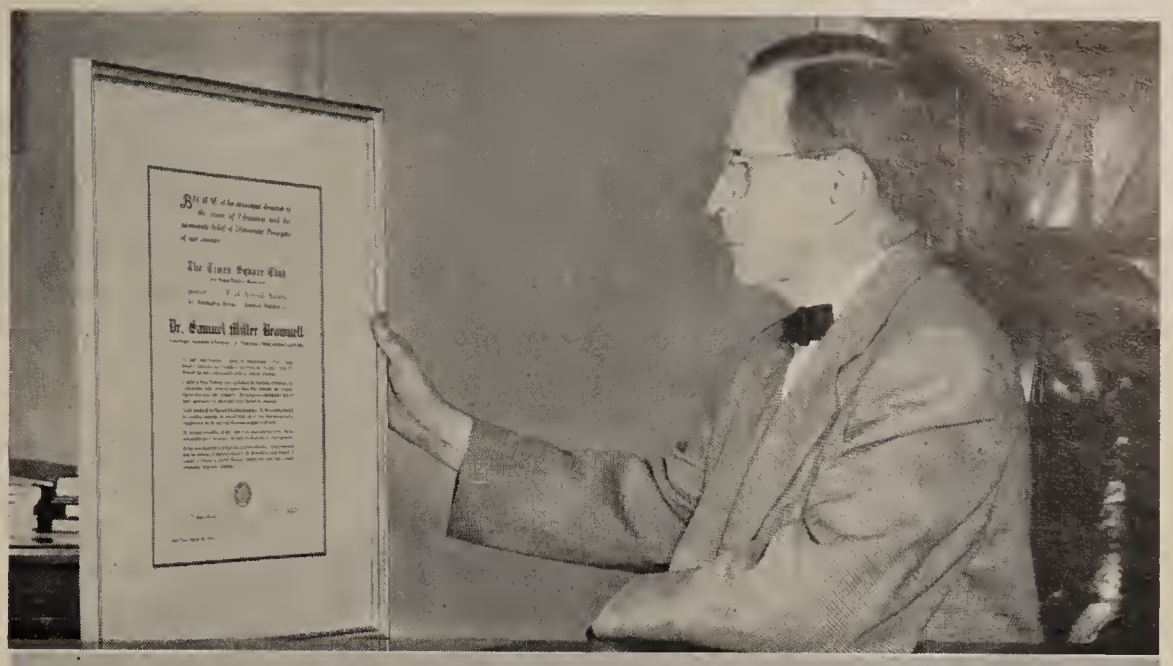
Third—allow all peoples of all nations to see that, in this enlightened age, the great powers of the earth, both of the East and of the West, are interested in human aspirations first, rather than in building up the armaments of war;

Fourth—open up a new channel for peaceful discussion, and initiate at least a new approach to the many difficult problems that must be solved in both private and public conversations, if the world is to shake off the inertia imposed by fear, and is to make positive progress toward peace.

Against the dark background of the atomic bomb, the United States does not

(*Continued on page 111*)

Commissioner Brownell Honored



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A native of Peru, Nebraska, and a graduate of the University of Nebraska, the Commissioner holds advanced degrees from Yale University and honorary degrees from many other institutions. His background and experience include active participation in educational affairs beyond the classroom.

A Life Member of the National Education Association, Dr. Brownell has through his inspiring leadership, his talented mind, and his boundless courage been a valuable force for an improved educational program on all levels.

Dr. Brownell exemplifies all that is best in the democratic way of life. He has dedicated his life to the cause of our youth and the welfare of citizens generally

He has given leadership to both private and public education. Deeply concerned with the problems of American education, Dr. Brownell has given tirelessly of himself in helping to provide America's children and youth with a sound, wholesome, democratic schooling.

Director of Education

President

New York, March 28, 1954

Stretching the School Building Dollar

by N. E. Viles, Associate Chief, School Housing Section

Los Cerritos School, South San Francisco, California

SCHOOL OFFICIALS and architects are very much concerned over the possibilities of financing capital outlay expenditures for current and anticipated school-plant improvements. The public elementary and secondary schools are faced with a backlog of school-plant needs calling for a capital outlay investment of about $13 billion and an anticipated additional need by 1960 of over $14 billion (all in terms of January 1954 construction dollars) to care for enrollment increases and normal replacement.

Finances Limited

Under existing patterns and regulations the possibilities of financing these capital outlay expenditures do not seem promising. Local property valuations and taxes do not keep pace with rising costs; many school districts are exhausting local financing capacities and still have extensive school-plant needs. School officials realize that continued increases in general construction cost levels and ever-growing demands for additional or improved school services may add to current financing difficulties. Some State governments are assisting local districts in capital outlay financing. The lack of adequate financing is serious in most of the States, and all possible means should be used to obtain maximum current and long-time values and services for the money spent on school-plant construction.

Cost Analysis

In analyzing and comparing school building costs it is desirable to identify the cost level and/or the unit of measurement used. The first cost level is the *contract award* cost, which is the sum of the various construction contracts. The second cost level is the *total construction* cost, which includes in addition to contract awards the cost of professional fees and supervision and the management of the program. In school buildings this often runs to about one-tenth of the contract award cost. These first two are often used in comparing building costs. The third cost level is the total *capital outlay*, which includes, in addition to the total construction costs, other items such as furniture, sites, and administrative costs, and represents the total amount of money that the district must provide for the particular project. Cost comparisons are usually made by using some common units of building measurement such as a square foot (of the gross floor area), or the cost per classroom—if the amount of building overall or gross floor area per classroom is indicated. Recent studies in the Office show that during the Controlled Materials Program the average *contract award cost* for new school buildings in the United States during the latter part of 1951 and the early part of 1952 was about $14.53 per square foot and $33,200 per classroom. If interpreted in terms of total capital outlay, the average cost would have been over $40,000 per classroom.

School-plant costs have increased, although less rapidly than other major school costs. Some contributing factors are the general rise in construction costs, the improved lighting and other services now demanded in our schools, administrative changes replacing some small and/or uneconomical units, and curriculum enrichment and teaching method changes that require more building space per pupil than was required in the days of more formalized teaching.

Needs Exceed Means

Parents want adequate and well-adapted school-plant facilities for their children; however, funds are limited. To obtain maximum school plant facilities and services from the limited funds available, schools may find it necessary to effect savings at many points. Various conferences and workshops of school administrators and architects have devoted their attention to possible school-plant economies. These conferences have had value, but necessarily could not be conclusive. This article lists or summarizes some of the economies discussed in these meetings but does not attempt to determine the feasibility or value of any such economies as applied to an individual situation. What might be an economy in one situation might not prove so in another. Savings in initial cost may not be ultimate economy since the costs of school buildings should be measured in terms of the average annual cost during its period of usefulness.

Design and Construction Economies

School officials urge architects to get more space for the money. Designers and contractors have effected some major design and construction economies in school buildings. Numerous new buildings have the first floor at or near grade level with floor slabs on fill. Interior wall surfaces are often of masonry units without plaster. In some schools building heights have been reduced, and in many of these schools the ceiling and roof structures have been combined.

Other structural design and construction pattern economies may merit consideration. Most of them have already been put into effect in some buildings. Some of them would not be feasible in various locations. There is a general tendency to eliminate some ornamentation such as dormers, domes, towers, and belfries. In other cases it is found economical to omit cornices, to delete ornate columns, and to substitute some other roof pattern for high gable roofs with slate covering. Simple building lines with a minimum number of offsets may be used in an attempt to reduce wall costs. The omission of basements and the following of ground contours or making use of such contours for special areas often proves economical. Recent studies seem to indicate, for many areas, an economy in erect-

ing single story buildings particularly where such construction permits use of lighter walls. A few States are experimenting with reduced ceiling heights. Some other construction patterns being considered are the use of open corridors, the omission of parapets, and the omission of utility corridors. Planning readily expandable buildings may be an important factor in ultimate cost. Some contractors reduce on-the-job labor costs by using a maximum amount of prefabricated materials such as millwork and various other component parts. Some contractors indicate that they could assist in effecting certain design economies if called upon to review the drawings and specifications prior to their completion. Boards of education often find that good job supervision brings economical returns. Boards often find it desirable to give attention to the types of contracts awarded in order to effect all desirable safe economies.

Standardization

Questions are often asked about design and construction pattern standardization. The consensus of designers seems to be that total plan uniformity is undesirable but that savings may be effected by using common patterns for the design and construction of certain integral units. The planning of multiple equal dimension bays and the general use of modular unit layouts may simplify construction and save costs. Standard dimensions for millwork are generally more economical. Planning in-the-room storage alcoves, into which can be set movable mill fabricated cases of various designs according to need, reduces on-the-job fabrication. The cases may be moved as desired.

School Plant Planning

School officials understand that there is a limit to the economies that may be effected in construction and that some of the essential savings become the obligation of the educators. Long-range system-wide planning generally proves more effective than "spur of the moment" individual project planning. Careful site selection may facilitate adaptation to long-range needs, community services, population trends, and building locations. In some climates use of campus-type plants with separated buildings may merit attention. Limiting special group-use areas such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, and lunchrooms to school needs may reduce construction costs. Even though there are many abuses, designing for multiple use may reduce total construction cost. Shops, laboratories, and homemaking rooms may often be so designed that they are usable for more than one type of specialized activity. Planning some rooms of different sizes makes it possible to care for both large and small classes. Elaborate foyers and entrances may be difficult to justify.

Utilization

School officials often need to give specific attention to the utilization of spaces and pupil stations. Careful scheduling may make it possible to reduce the number of rooms required. Room period utilization should be computed as the percentage of available periods per week during which the room is used. Pupil station utilization is computed as the percentage of time each classroom pupil station is occupied. Some school officials plan a high hourly period use of classrooms, then use special areas such as lunchrooms for a few peak over-flow groups. Utilization studies may also give attention to the percentage of the total building gross floor area included in classrooms. Some buildings run as high as 50 percent in regular and special classroom areas and others less than 30.

Refinements

Essentials in one building may be termed refinements in another. When necessary to save, school officials usually look for items they may need to delete as a matter of economy. Such features as intercommunicating telephones, public address systems, television, complete room darkening for audio-visual work, and other similar services, often come up for consideration when the board is trying to save.

As indicated, some economies may be effected by changes in design and construction practices. Others may be effected by improved financing methods. Some may be made by a higher utilization of the plant and a reduction in the demand for space. The answer in school-plant economy probably lies in a combination of many of these factors. Even with all the economies it will not be possible to provide all of the buildings needed under present financing patterns. In evaluating any proposed saving in school plant costs it should be measured by its effect on the average annual cost during the life of that particular building.

Educational Efforts and Educational Needs

(*Continued from page 98*)

How is it now, half a century or so later? In 1953, the educational effort was at the rate of about $76 per capita. Federal expenditures—including defense—had risen to $467 per capita. The ratio of educational effort to public task, which in 1900 was as one is to two, had fallen, a half century later, to a ratio of one to six.

Perhaps I should pause at this point for a parenthesis, to say for those who may be thinking how much the value of the dollar has depreciated since 1900, that I am aware of that, but for the purposes of this comparison, it makes no difference. For while the dollar was worth probably three times as much in 1900 as in 1953, we are interested only in the relative effort in 1900 and in 1953. The ratio would be the same if we divided the 1953 expenditures by three, or if we multiplied the 1900 expenditures by three.

You have now heard all the statistics that I shall use. The two ratios, the one at the beginning of our rise to the position of the leading great power of the world and, the other ratio a half century later, when we carry the enormous burden abroad and at home—these two ratios show, I submit, that the effort we are now making to educate ourselves has fallen in relation to our needs.

I must now remind you that this disparity between the educational effort and the public task is in fact greater than the figures suggest. For in this half century there has been a momentous change in the structure of American society and it has added greatly to the burden upon the schools.

The responsibility of the schools for educating the new generation has become very much more comprehensive than it used to be. Ever so much more is now demanded of the schools. For they are expected to perform many of the educational functions which used to be performed by the family, the settled community, the church, the family business, the family farm, the family trade.

This is a very big subject in itself—much too big for me tonight—except to mention it as a reminder that the comparison between our real educational effort and our

real public need is less favorable than the figures of one as to two in 1900, as against one as to six today. For the school today has a much larger role to play in the whole process of education than it needed to play in the older American society.

Can it be denied that the educational effort is inadequate? I think it cannot be denied. I do not mean that we are doing a little too little. I mean that we are doing much too little. We are entering upon an era which will test to the utmost the capacity of our democracy to cope with the gravest problems of modern times—and on a scale never yet attempted in all the history of the world. We are entering upon this difficult and dangerous period with what I believe we must call a growing deficit in the quantity and the quality of American education.

There is, I believe, compelling proof that we are operating at an educational deficit. It is to be found in many of the controversies within the educational system. I am not myself, of course, a professional educator. But I do some reading about education, and I have been especially interested in the problem of providing education for the men and women who must perform the highest functions in our society—the elucidation and the articulation of its ideals, the advancement of knowledge, the making of high policy in the government, and the leadership of the people.

Need for Equality in Education

How are we discussing this problem? Are we, as we ought to be doing, studying what are the subjects and what are the disciplines which are needed for the education of the gifted children for the leadership of the Nation? That is not the main thing we are discussing. We are discussing whether we can afford to educate our leaders when we have so far to go before we have done what we should do to provide equal opportunities for all people.

Most of the argument—indeed the whole issue—of whether to address the effort in education to the average of ability or to the higher capacities—derives from the assumption that we have to make that choice. But why do we have to choose? Why are we not planning to educate everybody as much as everybody can be educated, some much more and some less than others?

This alleged choice is forced upon us only because our whole educational effort is too small. If we were not operating at a deficit level, our working ideal would be the fullest opportunity for all—each child according to its capacity. It is the deficit in our educational effort which compels us to deny to the children fitted for the leadership of the Nation the opportunity to become educated for that task.

New Plateau in Education

So we have come to the point, I would contend, where we must lift ourselves as promptly as we can to a new and much higher level of interest, of attention, of hard work, of care, of concern, of expenditure, and of dedication to the education of the American people.

We have to do in the educational system something very like what we have done in the military establishment during the past 15 years. We have to make a breakthrough to a radically higher and broader conception of what is needed and of what can be done. Our educational effort today, what we think we can afford, what we think we can do, how we feel entitled to treat our schools and our teachers—all of that—is still in approximately the same position as was the military effort of this country before Pearl Harbor.

In 1940 our armed forces were still at a level designed for a policy of isolation in this hemisphere and of neutrality in any war across the two oceans. Today, the military establishment has been raised to a different and higher plateau, and the effort that goes into it is enormously greater than it was in 1940.

Our educational effort, on the other hand, has not yet been raised to the plateau of the age we live in. I am not saying, of course, that we should spend 40 billions on education because we spend about that much on defense. I am saying that we must make the same order of radical change in our attitude towards education as we have made in our attitude towards defense.

We must measure our educational effort as we do our military effort. That is to say, we must measure it not by what it would be easy and convenient to do, but by what it is necessary to do in order that the nation may survive and flourish. We have learned that we are quite rich enough to defend ourselves, whatever the cost. We must now learn that we are quite rich enough to educate ourselves as we need to be educated.

There is an enormous margin of luxury in this country against which we can draw for our vital needs. We take that for granted when we think of the national defense. From the tragedies and the bitter experience of being involved in wars for which we were inadequately prepared, we have acquired the will to defend ourselves. And, having done that, having acquired the will, we have found the way. We know how to find the dollars that are needed to defend ourselves, even if we are to do without something else that is less vitally important.

In education we have not yet acquired that kind of will. But we need to acquire it, and we have no time to lose. We must acquire it in this decade. For if, in the crucial years which are coming, our people remain as unprepared as they are for their responsibilities and their mission, they may not be equal to the challenge, and if they do not succeed, they may never have a second chance in order to try again.

Teacher Shortage

(*Continued from page 100*)

world, the great advances that are occurring have come mainly from money spent on research and development of new and better products, and better ways of distributing them. In the business world, we take progress as a matter of course. We *expect* productivity to improve about 3 percent each year, which is the great underlying statistic about why our economy is continuing to grow and get better each year.

I think we need more of this invention and development in the field of education. Let me give you just one example:

> One of the most cherished ideas in the whole field of education is the notion that the smaller the number of pupils in a class, the better the quality of instruction will be. When I tried to find the facts behind why this is so, I must confess that I could not obtain any really objective evidence. I then went to Dr. Paul Mort of Columbia University, one of the most skilled educational researchers in the country. He told me that *no real proof* of this educational maxim actually exists.

Yet I remember that from my own teaching days I have always carried the idea that a class should be no larger than I or any other teacher could get to know all the pupils personally, what their problems are,

their strong points and their weak ones. The ideal, of course, is Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a single student on the other.

A little booklet—"How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?"—*soon to be published* discusses this problem more cogently than I've seen it explained before. It gives a grand write-up to the Illinois Chamber teacher-recruitment program. It may be obtained from the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th Street, New York 36.

The facts are, however, that we *must* find some new solution to this teacher-pupil ratio problem. If we hold to the ratio of 30 pupils to one well-qualified teacher, *64 percent of all college graduates* would have to choose teaching as their profession this year to supply the needed teachers, and over one-half of them would have to choose teaching every year from now until 1964!

This proportion is obviously fantastic and impossible. Here, then, is an area where new inventions and ideas are needed in education—as much as the invention of penicillin or polio cures in medicine. Some time ago, Dr. William Vincent, when at Pennsylvania State College, made an experiment on the teaching of general science. In one group he had the teacher—a good trained one, by the way—teach the general science course by traditional methods. In another group he had all the teaching of factual knowledge done by motion picture films. He determined afterwards by extensive tests that the child taught from the films learned the material in half the time it took to do it in the teacher-led class, and that there was no essential difference in the amount that the two groups learned.

Of course, it's true that a teacher can do many things that a film cannot do. I wonder, however, whether it may not be possible in many areas where we are dealing mainly with factual knowledge to redefine the role of the teacher to do things that only she can do, and have more of her routine duties handled by less skilled people or by different methods. As an instance of this, if a single class in general science could be taught in a group of 300 rather than 30, nine teacher hours would be released to work individually with pupils on problems that cannot be handled satisfactorily in groups.

Such methods in other professions where personnel shortages exist have produced startling results. For example, the nurse shortage in our hospitals has been acute for a long time. During the last 15 years, major strides have been made through new ways of handling patients where relatively untrained nurses' aids have taken over many of the routine functions formerly performed by nurses, leaving the latter free to do the more important things which only trained people can handle adequately. I wonder if a real opportunity does not exist in somewhat the same sense in education. Indeed, this is the *only* major profession I know in which the labor-saving invention has not already been adopted.

The Atom for Progress

(*Continued from page 107*)

wish merely to present strength, but also the desire and the hope for peace.

The coming months will be fraught with fateful decisions. In this Assembly; in the capitals and military headquarters of the world; in the hearts of men everywhere, be they governors or governed, may they be the decisions which will lead this world out of fear and into peace.

To the making of these fateful decisions, the United States pledges before you—and therefore before the world—its determination to help solve the fearful atomic dilemma—to devote its entire heart and mind to find the way by which the miraculous inventiveness of man shall not be dedicated to his death, but consecrated to his life.

Successful Transition

(*Continued from page 101*)

The process by which desegregation was begun and by which progress has been made toward integration included teachers as well as students. One of the most serious questions raised when the process of integration begins is: "What happens to Negro teachers?" Under the New Jersey plan the number has increased. In 1945–46 there were in that State 479 Negro teachers of whom 415 were teaching in 9 counties operating a dual school system. Last school year there were 645; of whom 425 were in areas formerly maintaining separate schools. The experience in Indiana reinforces that of New Jersey. While a few Negro teachers have lost their positions in the making of changes, the overall picture is that the total number of opportunities is usually increased.

Many persons have referred to the successful elimination of segregation in other areas as evidence of the feasibility of eliminating segregation in education. In both the briefs and oral arguments of the appellants and the Attorney General, presented to the Supreme Court in December, evidence was given that the old patterns of segregation are disappearing. It has been suggested that if desegregation can take place among adults in the armed services, housing, industry, health, and recreation, it should be even easier in education where younger persons, with less rigid attitudes and fewer prejudices than adults, are involved. Moreover, it has been observed that practices in schools have a close relation to practices in society generally; hence, trends in desegregation in other areas have considerable relevance here. Examples in some of these areas are given below.

Armed Services

On July 26, 1948, the President issued Executive Order No. 9981 which provided among other things "that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion or national origin." The order also established a Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services which, in its report, presented evidence and summarized the results of experiences in the integration of Negroes in the three major branches of the services.[7]

The Air Force set to work to evolve a policy which would simultaneously improve the efficiency of the service and extend equality of treatment and opportunity to all personnel. The Committee reported that almost without exception, the commanders interviewed by the Committee's staff stated that they had put the new policy into effect with some misgivings. After their experience in effecting the policy, the Committee found, in fact, that inequality had contributed to inefficiency. On the basis of its examination into the rules, procedures, and practices of the armed services, both past and present, the Committee is convinced that a policy of equality of treatment and opportunity will make for a better Army, Navy, and Air Force.

[7] *Freedom to Serve, Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services.* A Report of the President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950.

The Committee found that under segregated conditions, Negro units could not offer as wide a range of jobs as white units. Because the jobs were not available in segregated units, Negroes were often not given the military occupational specialty for which they were qualified. Because they were not given the opportunity to qualify for the jobs, they did not receive school training in these specialties. The end result was not only unequal opportunity for the Negro but a poorer, less efficient army.

With this situation in mind, the Committee submitted to the Army in May 1949 a four-point plan to achieve the President's objective:

1. Open up all Army jobs to qualified personnel without regard to race or color.
2. Open up all Army schools to qualified personnel without regard to race or color.
3. Rescind the policy restricting Negro assignments to racial units and overhead installations, and assign all Army personnel according to individual ability and Army need.
4. Abolish the racial quota.[8]

Collins George, staff writer for *The Detroit Free Press*, in a series of articles on racial integration in the Armed Forces, reported in that daily during May 1952:

> The Army, with its greater number of Negro personnel, Negro units and Negro officers, faced correspondingly greater difficulty in enforcing the new policy than the other branches of the service. Yet, at the time of my tour of Army posts in 1951, enormously great strides had been made. The Negro recruit, entering the service at that time, found no segregation at the reception centers, North or South. In the training division, the picture was the same. The recruit served side by side with other recruits, slept, ate, played, and worshipped side by side without thought of race . . . and without racial incident.

In a recently published study based on personal interviews, Lee Nichols reports that:

> A by-product of military racial integration which likewise could have a deep impact on civilian patterns in the United States, was the movement to end segregated schooling for children of service personnel.
>
> With the same lack of publicity that marked racial integration in the military services, the system of segregated schools on some military bases began to vanish. By the summer of 1953, federally-operated schools had quietly opened their doors to children of all races living on at least eight southern army, navy, air force and marine bases. The last existing segregated federal school, at Fort Benning, Georgia, began operating on a non-segregated basis with the 1953 fall term. Steps were under way, with the personal backing of President Eisenhower, to end segregation in some twenty-one schools operated by State or local agencies on southern bases.[9]

The story of integration in each Southern base school was a drama in itself. However, it has taken place without serious incident. For example, Mrs. Mildred Poole, a white North Carolinian by birth, who was trained in her native State, and also in New York and Tennessee, said that her integrated school at Fort Bragg "never had the first problem between a teacher and a child, a child and a child, or parent and a parent; all the difficulty came from outside." [10]

[8] *Ibid.*

[9] Lee Nichols, *Breakthrough on the Color Front*, New York: Random House, 1954, p. 189.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 193.

Better Education

(*Continued from page 103*)

scout leaders, YMCA and YWCA personnel, court employees, and parents in his program for gifted, as well as maladjusted, youth.

This program is projected for a 10-year period with children aged 9 or 10. It is not limited to children with high intelligence but includes those with extraordinary talent in art, music and writing. And—this is important—it also includes children with special abilities in mechanics, science, dramatics, athletics, human relationships, and social organization. One of Dr. Havighurst's associates in this project is Dr. Allison Davis.

Because teachers and administrators throughout America are seeking more effective ways of teaching rapid learners—and because parents are concerned—a committee of eight staff members in the Office of Education has been studying this problem during the past year. They have identified promising educational practices for both rapid and slow learners in such areas as administration, guidance, English, social studies, mathematics, science, industrial arts, and home economics. Their first published report of effective practices, procedures, and programs will be available this spring. It should be of interest and value to both teachers and public-minded persons.

In concluding my remarks about ways in which citizens have helped and may help educators to improve the schools, I wish to make a generalization or two. In our country the schools belong to the people. But citizens who want to work with the board of education, the administrative staff, and the teachers have an obligation *first* to study and understand the local problems and in some cases the State or regional conditions. Then they are in a position to help with school-community work programs, juvenile delinquency, teacher recruitment, financial support of education, and similar problems.

In working with others, let us not lose sight of all the forces that have made America great. Foremost among these forces are liberty and equality: These are the cardinal principles of our fundamental law—the Constitution of the United States. Abraham Lincoln observed with respect to the importance of and reverence for this great law of the land:

> "Let it be taught in the schools; in seminaries; in colleges; let it be written in primers, spelling books and almanacs; let it be preached from the pulpit proclaimed in legislative halls and enforced in our courts of justice. And in short, let it become the political religion of the Nation."

We all recognize, however, that in spite of the greatness of our country, in spite of the progress that has been made, there are still inequities in the application of some of our laws, particularly with respect to the rights guaranteed to all our citizens by the Constitution. The answer to this problem, as President Eisenhower so aptly put it in his State of the Union Message in February 1953, is: "Much of the answer lies in the power of fact, fully publicized; of persuasion, honestly pressed; and of conscience, justly aroused. These are methods familiar to our way of life, tested and proven wise."

Our schools can help us in the task ahead—even more than in the past. In no other nation of the world has free public education been available for so many years to so many children, youth, and adults. Education has helped to guide us from a small beginning to a great present. But most important of all, it promises to each of us, our children, and their children an unprecedented future: a life of understanding, happiness, and justice in the long tomorrows that stretch ahead.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1954

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Children. A new professional journal on services for children and on child life. Published by the Children's Bureau 6 times a year. Volume 1, Number 1 is dated January-February 1954. 25 cents a single copy. Annual subscription price, $1.25.

Office of Education

Aviation Periodicals for Teachers and Pupils. Prepared by Willis C. Brown. Circular No. 381, January 1954. Free.

Books for Retarded and Reluctant Readers. Compiled by Arno Jewett. Resources for Teaching English, Circular No. 390, March 1954. Free.

Class Size in High School English. By Arno Jewett. Reprint from **School Life**, December 1953. Free.

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1952–1953. By Mabel C. Rice and Neva A. Carlson. Circular No. 380, December 1953. 60 cents.

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 3, Higher Education. Prepared by Theresa Wilkins. 55 cents.

Engineering Enrollments and Degrees, 1953. By William A. Jaracz and Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 387. Free.

Fall Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions, 1953. By William A. Jaracz. Circular No. 382. 1954. 30 cents.

Practices to Consider for Improvement of Language-Arts Program. Prepared by Arno Jewett. Free.

Public Library Statistics, 1950. Bulletin 1953, No. 9. 25 cents.

Research Concerning Reading Interests of Secondary School Pupils. Prepared by Arno Jewett. Resources for Teaching English, Circular No. 386, January 1954. Free.

The School Lunch—Its Educational Contribution. Nutrition Education Series, Pamphlet No. 6. 1954. 25 cents.

Selected References to Secondary School Supervision, 1948–53. By Ellsworth Tompkins and Ralph Beckley. Circular No. 389, February 1954. Free.

U. S. Government Films for Television. By Seerley Reid and Anita Carpenter. 1954. Free.

Index to Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948–50. 1954. Free.

Supplement to Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury. By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. Misc. No. 19, 1954. 35 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Atomic Energy Commission

Major Activities in Atomic Energy Programs. July–December 1953, 15th Semiannual Report of the Atomic Energy Commission. 1954. 45 cents.

Department of Agriculture

Buying Women's Coats and Suits. 1954. 15 cents.

Buying Your Home Sewing Machine. 1954. 10 cents.

Department of Labor

Occupational Planning and College. Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor in cooperation with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Higher Education. 1953. 10 cents.

Department of State

Evolution of Foreign Policy. Text of Speech by John Foster Dulles, Secretary of State, on January 12, 1954. Free.

Faith of Our Fathers. Based on an address by the Secretary of State, October 1953. 10 cents.

Foreign Relations of the United States, 1936, Volume 3, The Near East and Africa. 1953. Cloth, $3.00.

Department of Defense

Air Almanac, September–December 1954. $2.00.

Executive Office of the President

Economic Report of the President, Transmitted to the Congress, January 28, 1954. 65 cents.

The Federal Budget in Brief, Fiscal Year 1955. Bureau of the Budget. 1954. 40 cents.

Government Printing Office

Hobby Publications. A Superintendent of Documents Price List. 1954. Free.

House of Representatives

Financing Schools in Federally Affected Localities. A report prepared in the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress for the use of the House Committee on Education and Labor. 1953. Free from the House Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Washington 25, D. C.

The Road to Industrial Peace. An unusual study of what the author terms the American politico-economic system. 1953. House Document No. 563. 35 cents.

The Atom for Progress and Peace. An Address by President Eisenhower before the General Assembly of the United Nations, December 8, 1953. Department of State Publication No. 5403, General Foreign Policy Series 88. 15 cents.

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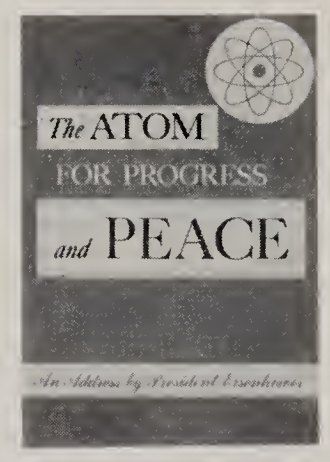
President Eisenhower in The Atom for Progress and Peace.



An address by President Eisenhower before the General Assembly of the United Nations, December 8, 1953. A Department of State publication. Price 15 cents.*

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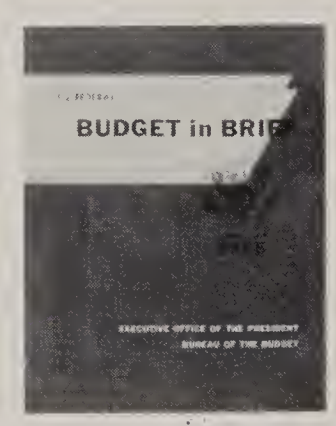
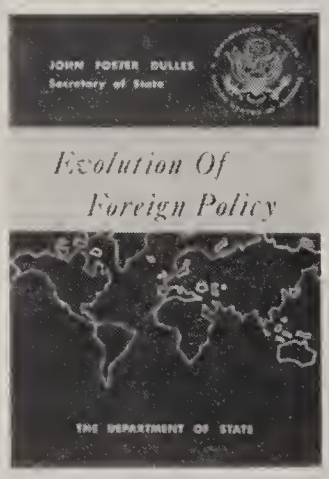
President Eisenhower in The Federal Budget in Brief.



An overall description of the United States budget for the fiscal year 1955 presented in summary form by the Bureau of the Budget. A Bureau of the Budget publication. Price 40 cents.*

". . . to show all men how good can be the fruits of freedom."

Secretary John Foster Dulles in Evolution of Foreign Policy.



Text of an address by John Foster Dulles, Secretary of State, before the Council on Foreign Relations, New York, January 12, 1954. Copies are free. Order from Public Service Division, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.

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MAY 1954

Route to

School Life

◀ Honored Teacher

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

School Buildings Should Be Safe

by Samuel Miller Brownell

Commissioner of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE recent explosion and fire in the Cleveland Hill Elementary School at Cheektowaga, New York, which has taken the lives of 15 children, has shocked the entire Nation.

It is deplorable, indeed, that this tragedy could happen. It is also alarming to know how many school buildings there are throughout the United States which are of combustible construction or may be regarded as fire hazards.

Children are compelled by law to attend school. Such a compulsion places a clear moral responsibility on each community to see that the child attends in a *safe* building. It places upon all school authorities an equal responsibility to be vigilant in seeing that the buildings and equipment are maintained as safely as possible.

The *Report of the Status Phase of the School Facilities Survey*, an office publication revealing school building needs and the status of school housing, as reported by State departments of education, indicates that 35 percent of all the school children in our Nation attend classes in combustible-construction buildings. Eighteen percent of all school children, according to the reports from State departments of education, are housed in structures which do not meet minimum fire-safety conditions. Another 16 percent are in buildings which are only "possibly" acceptable as to fire-safety conditions.

These calculations have been based on the questionable assumption that all one-story buildings are fire-safe, regardless of the type of construction.

The 18 percent of all school children housed in structures which do not meet fire-safety conditions, when broken down by States for the 43 States included in the School Facilities Survey, range from 2 percent in one State to 54 percent in another State.

As We Go to Press

The opinion of the United States Supreme Court on the school segregation cases was delivered by Chief Justice Warren on May 17. Because of the nationwide interest in this opinion, SCHOOL LIFE delayed publication of this issue so as to include the opinion in full, excluding footnotes. See page 117.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

The cover photograph shows the "Teacher of the Year", Willard Widerberg, 7th grade teacher of DeKalb Junior High School, DeKalb, Illinois. Eileen Darby Phato, courtesy *McCall's Magazine*. For story, see page 113.

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

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

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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Mr. Widerberg's seventh-graders observe the operation of a tape recording machine. An Eileen Darby Photo, courtesy of McCall's Magazine.

Teacher of the Year—Willard Widerberg

THE selection of Willard Widerberg of DeKalb, Ill., as the 1954 Teacher of the Year is announced in the June issue of *McCall's Magazine*. "Mr. Widerberg's gift," according to McCall's, "lies in his ability to make his students think. With encouragement from him, and with a certain amount of coaching at first, they learn to tackle a variety of problems—personal, civic, political, scientific—and to devise a method of solving them. . . . What is important to their teacher is that they learn how to attack a problem, make a decision, and follow it through to a conclusion."

The Teacher of the Year project is sponsored by the Office of Education in cooperation with the National Council of Chief State School Officers and McCall's. This is the third consecutive year such an honor has been conferred. Nominations are made by State departments of education, and the work of the candidates is observed by representatives of the Office of Education. The final selection is made by the editors of McCall's.

Mr. Widerberg is the first man to be named Teacher of the Year. He shares this year's headlines with eleven teachers from seven States, who earned special mention on McCall's Honor Roll of Teachers.

Mr. Widerberg's approach to his work as a 7th grade core teacher at DeKalb Junior High School has given his classes an air of purposeful learning. He has two groups of 7th grade students, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. Each meets for two hours and 25 minutes of integrated instruction in social studies, language arts, and science. For the students this has become a time of total pupil growth—emotional, mental, and physical. Students then have single periods of 45 minutes each for mathematics, homemaking, shop, and other subjects.

Mr. Widerberg works toward this goal of unified study through cooperative student-teacher planning which could be typified by the question he often asks his students, "What seems the best way for us to proceed?" This group involvement in the problem at hand and the successful use of the classroom as a working laboratory depend largely on the sensitivity, originality, and intelligence which this remarkable teacher displays. He seems to understand the behavior and the needs of each individual child. This awareness has won him the respect and love of his students, who greatly appreciate his honesty and his understanding.

Mr. Widerberg does not talk about "methods" of teaching—he talks about understanding the whole child and about wanting to teach him the principles of democratic everyday living. To do so, he must himself be an example of working democracy and be able to catch overtones that indicate group feeling. This he does as an artist in human relations. In such a relaxed, yet purposeful, atmosphere the students can move ahead on projects that result from their own questions and problems and achieve skills in learning and living.

Mr. Widerberg studied education at Northern Illinois State Teachers College and DePauw University after serving in

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Partners in Progress

by George A. Greenawalt*

NO DOUBT every country in which the United States Technical Cooperation Program operates has its particular problems. its frustrations, and its opportunities, but none can offer a greater historical interest than Iran, or Persia of ancient times. To be able to visit the ruins of the Persepolis or to view the carvings of Behistun, or to stand with bowed head in the building which houses the tomb of Queen Esther is to live in imagination in the golden age of a great country.

The People of Iran

While the thoughtful Iranians are very proud of their history, they are conscious of the need for change in the educational system, the curriculum, and the methods. They are also aware of the lack of educational opportunity of a great part of the population.

Iran's population is estimated at from 18 million to 20 million. Upward of 1½ millions of the population live in the capital city of Tehran; another million live in the cities of Shiraz, Isfahan. Kermanshah, Kerman, Meshed, Tabriz, Hamadan, and smaller centers. The great majority of the people, however, live in villages or are members of nomadic tribes which travel with their herds and flocks to the mountains in spring and return again to the southern plains and slopes in the autumn.

Racially the Iranian stock is Indo-European. In fact, the word Iranian means Aryan. The language however bears an unmistakable resemblance to the Teutonic of Northern and Western Europe. They are for the most part of swarthy complexion, but a few are blue-eyed and blond-haired. In spite of hardship, undernourishment, foreign oppression, and exploitation they have maintained a courtesy, friendliness, and sense of humor which make them a people to be admired and loved. The Iranians are a people capable of playing an important part in the family of nations.

One of the primary concerns of educators in the Technical Cooperation Program is with the children of the country and especially with those of the village. These youngsters are often undernourished, ill-clad, and afflicted with trachoma, malaria, and hookworm, but they are intelligent and eager to learn. There is a compulsory school law which cannot be enforced because many of the villages and most of the tribes have no educational facilities. The present school facilities are overloaded, and it is not unusual to find rooms so crowded that from three to five children sit on a rude bench behind a desk so badly carved that writing on it is almost impossible. Nor is it unusual to see several children standing in the schoolroom without either seat or desk.

School System

The visitor to a village school is likely to find an overcrowded school room filled with boys, for many villages do not offer schooling for girls. The teacher will probably be a man who has had no more than a sixth-grade education. He will be poorly dressed because his salary is very low, from $15 to $20 a month. He may even be undernourished. The textbooks which the children use will be ragged and dog-eared, thin little books about the size of an American spelling book. This meager book contains the subject matter for the whole year's work including reading. arithmetic, science, history, geography, and all else that is taught. The students literally memorize this book.

Equipment, as we in the United States know it, is practically noncxistent, unless a board about 2½ by 3 feet painted black which serves as a chalk board can be so considered. To these limitations add lack of proper lighting, inadequate heating, unsanitary drinking water, unsanitary toilet facilities and usually insufficient playground, and the result is a school in which, it seems to an American-trained schoolman, little or no education can be acquired.

To meet the problem in Iran, the American Technical Cooperation Program, generally known as Point 4, and the Iranian Ministry of Education have jointly initiated several educational projects. One of them was a teacher-training project.

Teacher-Training Program

In the summer of 1952 a series of summer training courses for teachers was inaugurated as the first phase of the teacher-training project. These training courses extended for a period of 5 or 6 weeks. The enrollees were teachers from the villages and towns. Many of them had no more than a sixth-grade education. The faculties of these summer schools were composed of officials of the Ministries of Education, Health, and Agriculture and the representatives of the corresponding offices from the Technical Cooperation Mission in Iran. In this course the teachers were given help in teaching methods; in construction of materials for visual education; in understanding the importance of the teaching of health habits, sanitation, and nutrition and the relation of agriculture to living; and in using the community as a source of teaching materials.

Profiting from the experience of the summer of 1952, cooperating officials expanded the summer school training of teachers in 1953, and approximately 3,000 teachers enrolled in the 10 regions. A training course for the faculties of the summer sessions was held in Tehran for 6 weeks just before the opening of the summer sessions. This was followed by 5-week courses in the 10 provinces, known as *ostans*. In all the ostans two or more sessions were held,

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*Mr. Greenawalt is currently working with the educational phase of the U. S. Technical Cooperation Program in Tehran, Iran. In his article Mr. Greenawalt deals only with educational progress made under that program and not with the great educational progress the Iranian people have independently made in the last few years.

Developments in Teaching Foreign Languages

by Marjorie C. Johnston, Specialist in Comparative Education

JUST a year ago SCHOOL LIFE reported a National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, called by the Office of Education in January 1953 (SCHOOL LIFE, March 1953, pp. 83–85). This conference, while emphasizing the importance of an early start in foreign languages, called attention to the need for school people and public alike to work toward the improvement of foreign language teaching at all levels of the educational system.

A review of what has been happening in the field of foreign language study indicates that 1953 was a noteworthy year, with respect to both popular interest and professional advancement, in the teaching of second languages. Evidences of increased public interest are many. Editorial comment favoring more and better foreign language teaching has appeared frequently in daily newspapers throughout the country. Television programs in one or more foreign languages have been introduced in Albany, Rochester, Buffalo, Schenectady, Atlanta, El Paso, Philadelphia, Ames (Iowa), and Washington, D. C. Last summer the Girl Scouts of the U. S. A. sponsored nine foreign language camps in various parts of the country. The General Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Association of University Women, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and many other groups encouraged greater attention to language as a means of cultivating better understanding among peoples. Sales of language records have been rising steadily; the number of people using self-help language books and correspondence courses is increasing; commercial language schools which stress quick acquisition of the spoken language are doing an annual business grossing several millions of dollars. In New York City 30 movie houses show only foreign language films without English subtitles. Translation bureaus, with fees ranging from 80 cents to 2 dollars per 100 words, are operating on a large scale. Since many automobile manufacturers, oil companies, pharmaceutical houses, airlines, electrical and engineering firms, and other industries maintain branches abroad, personnel directors of large companies are looking for employees with language qualifications.

During August 1953 UNESCO sponsored an international seminar, directed by a United States educator, on the Contribution of the Teaching of Modern Languages Toward Education for Living in a World Community. The U. S. National Commission for UNESCO included in its Fourth National Conference, held in Minneapolis in September, a work group on "What Is a Sound Domestic and International Program in Foreign Languages?" The Commission plans similar discussions during the coming year at regional conferences to be held in some 20 university centers.

The growing usefulness of foreign languages in American life stems from several circumstances, but chiefly from the improved conditions of travel, communication, and interchanges with parts of the world that were relatively unknown to us a few years ago. As one school man remarked, "We are up to our necks in practical need for foreign languages; we just haven't noticed the waters rising." What, then, is the story of our professional advancement in the teaching of foreign languages?

There are several important developments, if we may judge from the many inquiries and reports which have come to the attention of the Office of Education Committee on Foreign Language Teaching, an interdivisional committee appointed to work on the national conference and its follow-up activities.[1] Most encouraging is the growing willingness of language specialists and professional educators to work together in a thorough reexamination of the objectives, content, method, administration, and other aspects of foreign language teaching in the public schools.

In the colleges, the traditional idea that language study leads only to a carcer in *belles lettres* is being increasingly challenged. The head of a large department of foreign languages recently stated, "Many students, probably a majority of them, have no real interest in literary studies even in their own language. In a foreign language they are bored or repelled, although many of these same students have a lively interest in politics, economics, history, and other aspects of the foreign culture." A few de-

[1] The author is chairman of this committee.

partments of language and literature are reshaping their courses to meet the needs of greater numbers of such students. In April 1953, the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts of the University of Michigan, in a brochure listing its facilities for instruction in Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Norwegian, Portuguese Russian, and Spanish, explained: "Although foreign language study may well lead to a career in itself, it is as an *added skill* that a knowledge of one or more foreign languages is often most rewarding. It is difficult to imagine a single profession in the curriculum of the University where the added skill of a foreign language would not increase the value, the opportunities, and the rewards of the individual student. . . . The amount of language study necessary will vary according to the demands which various occupational situations make upon the individual. . . . More important than the total number of credit hours is the *kind* of training which the student receives and which of the particular language activities—speaking, reading, or writing—are emphasized in his courses." The fact that people in the professions so frequently lack competence in any foreign language while language majors have no other specialty is a serious problem, one which demands solution as our business, diplomatic, and military relationships grow more and more complex.

Teaching Problems Emphasized

Evidence of greater attention to teaching problems is to be expected as the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association of America moves into its second year. This program, undertaken for a 3-year period under a Rockefeller Foundation grant of $120,000, is endeavoring to improve the contribution of foreign languages in American life. The first project in the study, an interdisciplinary Seminar on Language and Culture held last July, tackled the question of how foreign language study may be made to contribute to the understanding of other cultures. Although the courses of study and textbooks in use in virtually all high-school and college language classes give as one of the objectives a gradually expanding and deepening knowledge of the foreign country and people whose language is studied, there is reason for believing that, as foreign languages are generally taught, this objective is not being reached. Much cultural information is undobutedly acquired, just as through social studies, music, art, and other subjects, but the cultural insight that is uniquely attainable by experiencing the culture itself through the language is all too frequently missed. The seminar report, in recommending a clearer direction of effort toward cultural objectives, concerns itself with techniques of analysis for determining the significant and relevant patterns and traits of a given culture and with ways of employing such a body of cultural data in teaching materials.

This report,[2] if accepted in principle, could lead to a considerable alteration in the training of foreign-language teachers. Charles E. Odegaard, dean of the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, University of Michigan, in his review of the report at the annual meeting of the Modern Language Association (December 29, 1953, Chicago, Ill.), observed: "The Seminar was not content with minor tinkering. It opened the question wide, and I think inevitably in the process opened even more of a Pandora's box than the report perhaps indicates. For, if I read this report accurately, it implies without exactly stating it that the achievement of the objective with which the report starts calls for the development of a trained teacher of foreign language such as has rarely walked this planet. . . . This report suggests that these language courses (undergraduate) need not be devoid of content and understanding apart from the acquisition of linguistic skills and that the effort to build these values into courses calls for a whole new ordering of intellectual interests."

In addition to the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association, at least two other research projects should be mentioned. Because language study in the schools has been limited too exclusively to the Western European countries, the American Council of Learned Societies, with the aid of a Ford Foundation grant and in cooperation with the Department of State, is helping to train a corps of specialists in many of the little-known languages. With assistance from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University is beginning a 2-year study of aptitude for learning foreign languages. The Harvard study will seek to determine the role of abilities and motivational factors in successful foreign-language study and to devise tests and other instruments which will be valid for predicting success. The researchers will work with a wide range of age groups—children, adolescents, adults—and in different types of instructional programs, from the more traditional to those emphasizing oral-aural skills.

[2] Available upon request from the Modern Language Association of America, 6 Washington Square North, New York 3, N. Y.

Elementary Classes

The past year has been marked also by continued interest in extending the teaching of foreign languages, usually French or Spanish, in elementary schools. Opportunities for children to begin a second language exist now in some 200 communities in 34 States and the District of Columbia. The extent of the interest may be illustrated by an experience in Dade County, Florida, where, after an experimental year of Spanish lessons over station WTHS–FM, the board of public instruction, hopefully planning to involve 20 schools during 1953–54, met with requests for participation from 82 elementary schools.

In the high schools, foreign language classes are paying more attention to audio-visual materials and are benefiting in many communities from firsthand experiences with exchange teachers and foreign visitors. As in communication arts and English, courses are being revised in the direction of broadened social experience and continuity of growth in the learner.[3] Foreign language teachers, relaxing somewhat their efforts to teach formal grammar, seem less preoccupied with college preparatory goals. The point of view expressed by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English could apply as well to foreign language: "The problem is not so much one of looking at English and determining the order of topics to be studied as it is of looking at the learner and the society of which he is a part and aiding his growth both in and through the elements of reading, listening, and expression necessary to effective living today." [4]

[3] (See, for example, the *Course of Study in Modern Foreign Languages for Secondary Schools, A Progress Report*, Bulletin 350, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg.)

[4] Preface, *The English Language Arts*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952.

The Supreme Court Rules on School Segregation

CHIEF JUSTICE WARREN of the Supreme Court of the United States on May 17, 1954, delivered the following opinion [1] of the Supreme Court on the school segregation cases:

These cases come to us from the States of Kansas, South Carolina, Virginia, and Delaware. They are premised on different facts and different local conditions, but a common legal question justifies their consideration together in this consolidated opinion.

In each of the cases, minors of the Negro race, through their legal representatives, seek the aid of the courts in obtaining admission to the public schools of their community on a nonsegregated basis. In each instance, they had been denied admission to schools attended by white children under laws requiring or permitting segregation according to race. This segregation was alleged to deprive the plaintiffs of the equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment. In each of the cases other than the Delaware case, a three-judge federal district court denied relief to the plaintiffs on the so-called "separate but equal" doctrine announced by this Court in *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, 163 U. S. 537. Under that doctrine, equality of treatment is accorded when the races are provided substantially equal facilities, even though these facilities be separate. In the Delaware case, the Supreme Court of Delaware adhered to that doctrine, but ordered that the plaintiffs be admitted to the white schools because of their superiority to the Negro schools.

The plaintiffs contend that segregated public schools are not "equal" and cannot be made "equal," and that hence they are deprived of the equal protection of the laws. Because of the obvious importance of the question presented, the Court took jurisdiction. Argument was heard in the 1952 Term, and reargument was heard this Term on certain questions propounded by the Court.

Reargument was largely devoted to the circumstances surrounding the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868. It covered exhaustively consideration of the Amendment in Congress, ratification by the states, then existing practices in racial segregation, and the views of proponents and opponents of the Amendment. This discussion and our own investigation convince us that, although these sources cast some light, it is not enough to resolve the problem with which we are faced. At best, they are inconclusive. The most avid proponents of the post-War Amendments undoubtedly intended them to remove all legal distinctions among "all persons born or naturalized in the United States." Their opponents, just as certainly, were antagonistic to both the letter and the spirit of the Amendments and wished them to have the most limited effect. What others in Congress and the state legislatures had in mind cannot be determined with any degree of certainty.

An additional reason for the inconclusive nature of the Amendment's history, with respect to segregated schools, is the status of public education at that time. In the South, the movement toward free common schools, supported by general taxation, had not yet taken hold. Education of white children was largely in the hands of private groups. Education of Negroes was almost nonexistent, and practically all of the race were illiterate. In fact, any education of Negroes was forbidden by law in some states. Today, in contrast, many Negroes have achieved outstanding success in the arts and sciences as well as in the business and professional world. It is true that public education had already advanced further in the North, but the effect of the Amendment on Northern States was generally ignored in the congressional debates. Even in the North, the conditions of public education did not approximate those existing today. The curriculum was usually rudimentary; ungraded schools were common in rural areas; the school term was but three months a year in many states; and compulsory school attendance was virtually unknown. As a consequence, it is not surprising that there should be so little in the history of the Fourteenth Amendment relating to its intended effect on public education.

In the first cases in this Court construing the Fourteenth Amendment, decided shortly after its adoption, the Court interpreted it as proscribing all state-imposed discriminations against the Negro race. The doctrine of "separate but equal" did not make its appearance in this Court until 1896 in the case of *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, *supra*, involving not education but transportation. American courts have since labored with the doctrine for over half a century. In this Court, there have been six cases involving the "separate but equal" doctrine in the field of public education. In *Cumming* v. *County Board of Education*, 175 U. S. 528, and *Gong Lum* v. *Rice*, 275 U. S. 78, the validity of the doctrine itself was not challenged. In more recent cases, all on the graduate school level, inequality was found in that specific benefits enjoyed by white students were denied to Negro students of the same educational qualifications. *Missouri ex rel. Gaines* v. *Canada*, 305 U. S. 337; *Sipuel* v. *Oklahoma*, 332 U. S. 631; *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, 339 U. S. 629; *McLaurin* v. *Oklahoma State Regents*, 339 U. S. 637. In none of these cases was it necessary to reexamine the doctrine to grant relief to the Negro plaintiff. And in *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, *supra*, the Court expressly reserved decision on the question whether *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* should be held inapplicable to public education.

In the instant cases, that question is directly presented. Here, unlike *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, there are findings below that the Negro and white schools involved have been equalized, or are being equalized, with respect to buildings, curricula, qualifications and salaries of teachers, and other "tangible" factors. Our decision, therefore, cannot turn on merely a comparison of these tangible factors in the Negro and white schools involved in each of the cases. We must look instead to the effect of segregation itself on public education.

In approaching this problem, we cannot turn the clock back to 1868 when the Amendment was adopted, or even to 1896 when *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* was written. We must consider public education in the light of its full development and its present place in American life throughout the Nation. Only in this way can it be determined if seg-

[1] Because of space limitations footnotes have been omitted.

regation in public schools deprives these plaintiffs of the equal protection of the laws.

Today, education is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments. Compulsory school attendance laws and the great expenditures for education both demonstrate our recognition of the importance of education to our democratic society. It is required in the performance of our most basic public responsibilities, even service in the armed forces. It is the very foundation of good citizenship. Today it is a principal instrument in awakening the child to cultural values, in preparing him for later professional training, and in helping him to adjust normally to his environment. In these days, it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms.

We come then to the question presented: Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other "tangible" factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does.

In *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, *supra*, in finding that a segregated law school for Negroes could not provide them equal educational opportunities, this Court relied in large part on "those qualities which are incapable of objective measurement but which make for greatness in a law school." In *McLaurin* v. *Oklahoma State Regents*, *supra*, the Court, in requiring that a Negro admitted to a white graduate school be treated like all other students, again resorted to intangible considerations: ". . . his ability to study, to engage in discussions and exchange views with other students, and, in general, to learn his profession." Such considerations apply with added force to children in grade and high schools. To separate them from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. The effect of this separation on their educational opportunities was well stated by a finding in the Kansas case by a court which nevertheless felt compelled to rule against the Negro plaintiffs:

> "Segregation of white and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon the colored children. The impact is greater when it has the sanction of the law; for the policy of separating the races is usually interpreted as denoting the inferiority of the Negro group. A sense of inferiority affects the motivation of a child to learn. Segregation with the sanction of law, therefore, has a tendency to retard the educational and mental development of Negro children and to deprive them of some of the benefits they would receive in a racially integrated school system."

Whatever may have been the extent of psychological knowledge at the time of *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, this finding is amply supported by modern authority. Any language in *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* contrary to this finding is rejected.

We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. Therefore, we hold that the plaintiffs and others similarly situated for whom the actions have been brought are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. This disposition makes unnecessary any discussion whether such segregation also violates the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Because these are class actions, because of the wide applicability of this decision, and because of the great variety of local conditions, the formulation of decrees in these cases presents problems of considerable complexity. On reargument, the consideration of appropriate relief was necessarily subordinated to the primary question—the constitutionality of segregation in public education. We have now announced that such segregation is a denial of the equal protection of the laws. In order that we may have the full assistance of the parties in formulating decrees, the cases will be restored to the docket, and the parties are requested to present further argument on Questions 4 and 5 previously propounded by the Court for the reargument this Term. The Attorney General of the United States is again invited to participate. The Attorneys General of the states requiring or permitting segregation in public education will also be permitted to appear as *amici curiae* upon request to do so by September 15, 1954, and submission of briefs by October 1, 1954. *It is so ordered.*

Segregation in Schools of the District of Columbia

THE OPINION of the Supreme Court of the United States on segregated schools in the District of Columbia also was delivered on May 17, 1954, by Chief Justice Warren as follows:

This case challenges the validity of segregation in the public schools of the District of Columbia. The petitioners, minors of the Negro race, allege that such segregation deprives them of due process of law under the Fifth Amendment. They were refused admission to a public school attended by white children solely because of their race. They sought the aid of the District Court for the District of Columbia in obtaining admission. That court dismissed their complaint. We granted a writ of certiorari before judgment in the Court of Appeals because of the importance of the constitutional question presented. 344 U. S. 873.

We have this day held that the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment prohibits the states from maintaining racially segregated public schools. The legal problem in the District of Columbia is somewhat different, however. The Fifth Amendment, which is applicable in the District of Columbia, does not contain an equal protection clause as does the Fourteenth Amendment which applies only to the states. But the concepts of equal protection and due process, both stemming from our American ideal of fairness, are not mutually exclusive. The "equal protection

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Geography in Secondary Schools

by John Wesley Coulter, Professor of Geography, University of Cincinnati

GEOGRAPHY has meant many things in different times and in different places. This is something not to be wondered at, since it is the oldest intellectual discipline, coming down to us from the times of the Greeks who, indeed, gave it the name by which it is still known—*ge* the earth and *graphein* to write. However, if we look in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* or some other source of information about the branches of knowledge, we find that there are four divisions of geography that are generally recognized. The teaching of one of these branches is especially important at this time in high schools in the United States.

The four divisions of geography generally understood are mathematical, physical, biological, and human. Stated briefly mathematical geography deals with the global shape of the earth, which can be resolved to exact formulas in terms of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. Physical geography is concerned with the physical attributes of the earth, including climate, weather, characteristics of mountains and valleys and other features of terrain, and phenomena of the ocean. Biological geography treats of the distribution of plants and animals and their adaptations to their environments.

Human geography is primarily concerned with people, studying them from the point of view of the problems which confront them because of the nature of the area in which they live. The human geographer concerns himself with how the people of an area have come to be as they are because of the place where they live. He asks, "How does the space a people occupies with all its attributes and resources and their location affect that people?"

These four branches of geography, like other disciplines, for instance, history, mathematics, and language, have gradually evolved through the years and have come down to us because they have fulfilled a certain need for knowledge. They are not mere collections of facts and formulas, but each has ways of thinking with organized structures of its own. The learning of facts is not intellectual training, unless these facts are seen as the conclusion of systematic inquiry and as part of a larger structure of knowledge.

Of course, in trying to answer the question that the human geographer asks, many factors have to be considered—among them, climate, the relief of the land—whether it is flat or mountainous—and in many cases the inquirer has to take into account the history of the particular people in which he is interested. For example, the human geography of Korea could not be understood without knowing the recent history of North Korea and South Korea. Human geography must inevitably consider the historical, traditional, and other cultural factors of a people, for those circumstances have made significant contributions to the character of the people today and their way of living. The teacher of history often has to draw on geography to answer some of the questions that arise in his field. For example, the history of the settlement of the United States cannot be understood without knowing the geography of the mountain passes in the Appalachians and the Rockies, and the valleys in the Middle West which directed the migration from the East.

Many geography teachers believe, it

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Pressing Problems in American Education—A Graphic Presentation

Chart 1.—Public School Enrollment

Chart 1 compares the number of children in school and not in school by age groups in 1930 and in 1950. The most notable changes are shown at the early and later age groups. The increase in percent of 5-year-old, 6-year-old, and 7-year-old children in school indicates the larger proportion of younger children now entering school. Whereas in 1930 about 20 percent of the 5-year-olds were enrolled in schools, in 1950 about 33 percent were enrolled. For 6-year-olds, the increase was from 65 percent to nearly 80 percent.

At the other end of the chart, the increase of 16-, 17-, and 18-year-olds remaining in school indicates the greater holding power of school in this age group. In 1930, only about 50 percent of the 17-year-olds remained in school. By 1950, this had increased to over 65 percent.

Both of these increases mean a greater load for the schools. Thus as the number of children in the country increases, the load on the schools increases in greater proportion than the population because a larger percentage of children aged 5 to 7 and 15 to 18 are in school.

Attention is called also to the still large percentage of the 17- and 18-year-olds not in school (one-third and two-thirds respectively) because of its importance in terms of waste of potential trained workers for the Nation.

Chart 2.—Increased Enrollment 1936–53 Projected School Enrollment 1953–60

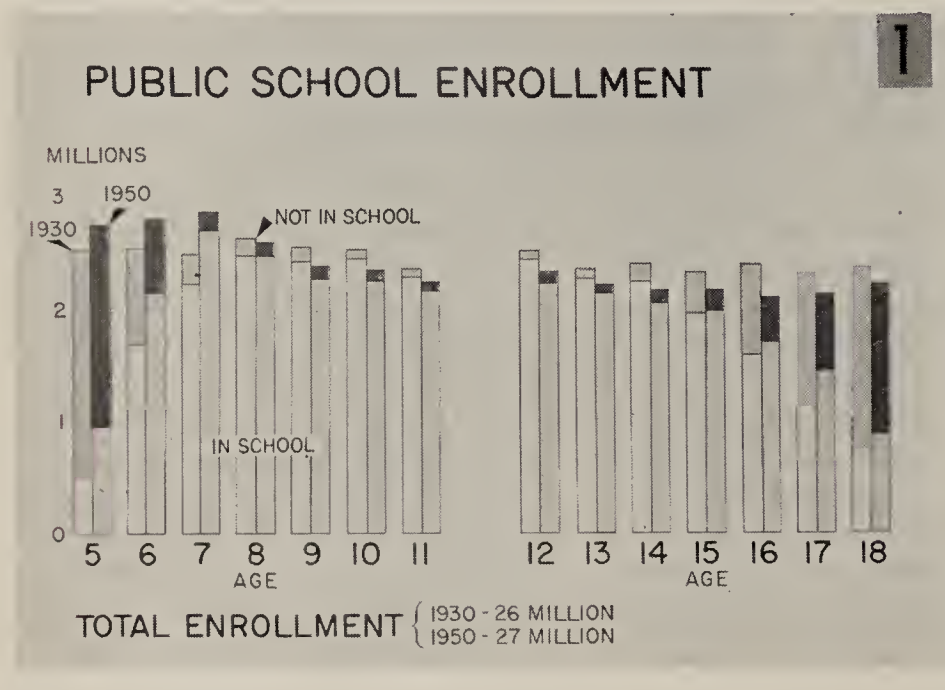
Chart 2 indicates that the increased total in school and college enrollment has been due chiefly to increased elementary school enrollment. Enrollment predictions can be made with considerable accuracy once births are known because the average pupil starts at 5 or 6 years of age and continues about 13 years in school. Projections to 1960 are therefore on the basis of children already born. The following changes may influence these figures:

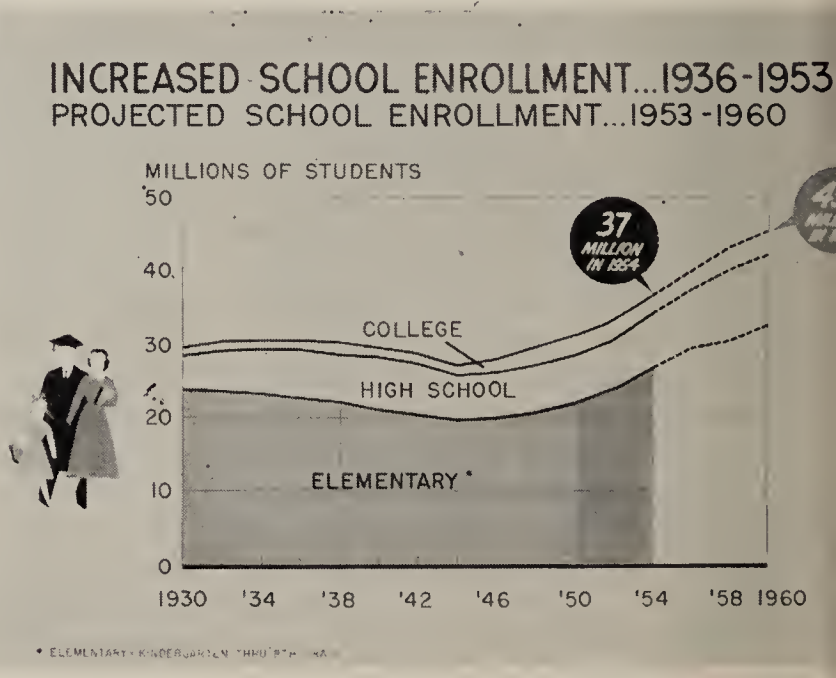
a. If there is a continuing increase in the percentage of 5- or 6-year-olds entering school, the elementary figures must be increased.

b. If the percentage of drop-outs, ages 16, 17, and 18, decreases, the high school estimate must be increased.

c. If the percentage of youth attending college increases, the college figures must be revised upward.

Births for 1953 are estimated at about 4,000,000. The prediction of a future rise in enrollment beyond 1960 would seem reasonable when it is recognized that during the 1960's there will be a great increase in family units reflecting the increase in population which began in the late 1940's.





ing on these pages were used by Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education,

ucation, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, at congressional hearings

and at various meetings of organizations. They illustrate

pressing problems in American Education. SCHOOL

E is pleased to publish these charts and parts of the Commissioner's

statements for its readers.

Chart 3.—Public School Construction 1930–60

Chart 3 indicates that from 1930 to 1950 there was an actual reduction in the number of classrooms available as a result of the abandonment of obsolescent buildings, the consolidation of one-room schools, and the destruction of buildings by fire and other causes.

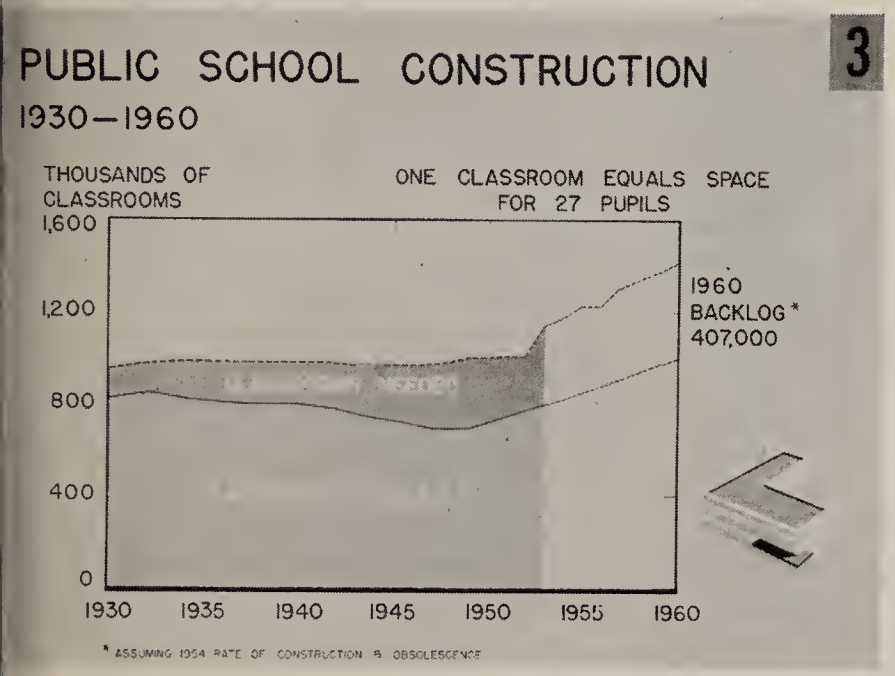
The problem of providing the number of needed classrooms becomes increasingly difficult financially because:

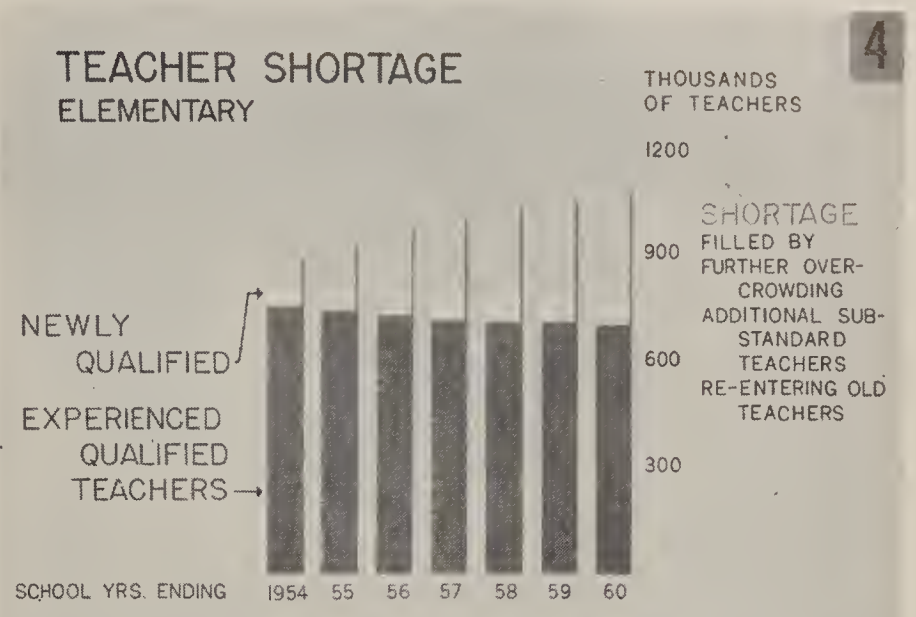
a. Some school districts have reached the debt ceiling placed by statute or State constitution.

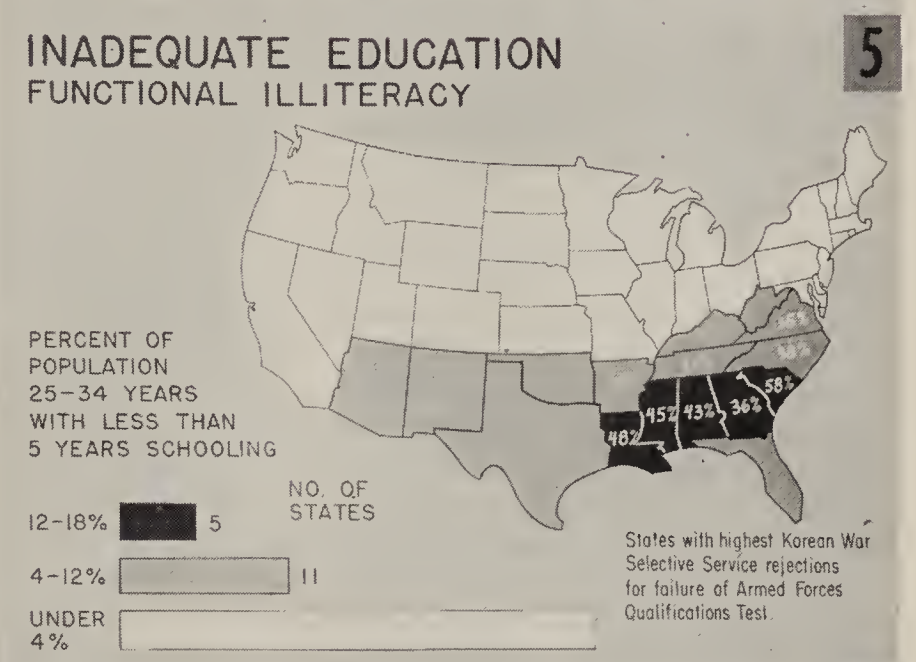
b. Some school districts operate within tax limitations placed by statute or constitution. They have reached the tax limitation at the present time.

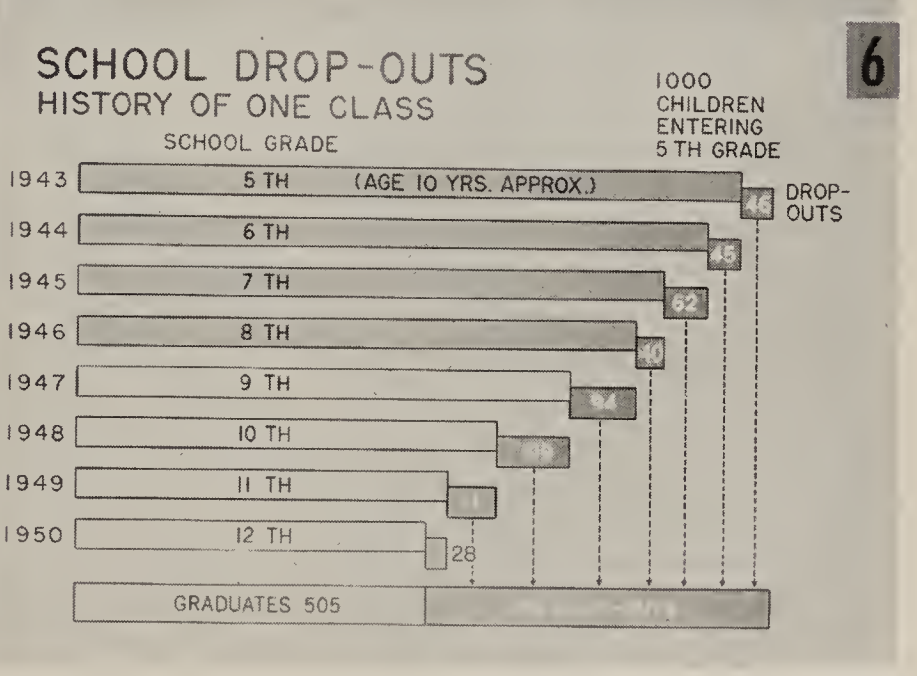
c. There is a great lag in adjustment of property value, which is the base for local school revenue in most school districts.

The number of new classrooms provided in the past years approximated 47,000 in 1951, 50,000 in 1952, and more than 50,000 in 1953, but it is not keeping up with the increase in classrooms needed. The number of new classrooms needed annually is approximately 117,000. To provide the more than 340,000 needed classrooms would cost from $10 billion to $12 billion. (*Continued on page 126*)









Books That Need No Dusting

by Delia Goetz,

Director, Educational Materials Laboratory

LATE one afternoon last June, the assistant in the Educational Materials Laboratory of the Office of Education sank onto a chair and said, "If this keeps up we'll never have to dust the books!" A group of teachers of English representing 4 continents and 12 countries had just spent the afternoon examining books in their special fields as well as in getting their first glimpse of some of the wealth of educational materials this country has to offer. For most of them it was a heady experience.

The visitors were the first assigned as a group to use the newly organized Educational Materials Laboratory, but since that time the Laboratory has attracted hundreds of visitors. Some were there when the staff came in the morning; many stayed until lights were turned off at night; a few asked if they could come in on Saturday. They have come from many States and from 56 foreign countries to look over the collection of representative textbooks used in elementary and secondary schools, professional books for teachers in a wide range of subjects, as well as reference materials and teaching aids.

Educators Visit Laboratory

Educators and leaders from other countries who come to the United States on the various educational programs which the Office of Education administers are all scheduled in groups for at least one period in the Laboratory. Most of them accept the invitation to return for individual visits as often as they have time. The peak load of the year was last September when 420 people from our own and other countries visited the Laboratory. On one memorable afternoon 109 teachers spent several hours and left no book untouched. The educator members of the Committee on Consolidated Schools and Community Participation in School Affairs from Germany brought in their colleagues—a mayor, the city treasurer, a doctor, and a county commissioner —to see the kind of textbooks they would like to have for their schools.

The Laboratory had its regular users, too. These included members of the Office of Education staff who brought visitors as well as members of committees to discuss materials in connection with consultative services they gave. American personnel preparing for overseas assignments with the Technical Cooperation Programs used the Laboratory to good advantage in compiling lists of equipment and materials that they might need on the job and also got a general view of new textbooks and supporting materials. Groups of teachers who were asked to list books for new courses in their high school programs were able to examine many books before making their recommendations. Supervisors have brought groups of in-service teachers to introduce them to a variety of texts. Teachers attending summer school discovered that the Laboratory's open shelves made it a convenient place to work. The opportunity to examine the collection gave an artist with an assignment to illustrate textbooks an idea of trends in that field. Several publishers have referred those who asked about their publications to the Laboratory where they were on display. The number of visits for the year runs to about 1,100, for they include many repeaters.

Books and Materials Contributed

The foregoing uses were some of those contemplated by the people who first discussed the need for a central exhibit of educational textbooks and educational materials located where it could be easily available to educators and others interested in the field. That this was finally accomplished was due to the cooperation of the American Textbook Publishers Institute. The ATPI asked its members to select books and materials for elementary and secondary education as well as professional educational books for teachers which it wished to place in an educational materials laboratory to be located in the Division of International Education of the Office of Education. Response of the members was prompt and generous, and to date about 2,500 titles, together with manuals, workbooks, and other aids to accompany them have been placed on the shelves. In addition, the Library of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has transferred its uncataloged texts to the Laboratory and continues to send the new copies it receives. Professional educational organizations and

several Government agencies have contributed materials, as have State departments of education and some city school systems. A committee composed of Office of Education staff members acts in an advisory capacity on policy for the Laboratory.

Office of Education specialists have assisted the Laboratory staff in selecting materials to fill requests which come in increasing numbers from personnel in Technical Cooperation Programs abroad as well as from ministries of education in other countries. Many of the latter are developing reference libraries of textbooks and ask for suggestions. The requests from American personnel abroad vary with the region. No two are alike. What do they ask for? A few pulled from the mounting stack give an idea.

Types of Requests Made

Someone wants a "highly selected list" of titles for every subject and every grade from primary through secondary, and also of tests and measurements; another is a request for lists of materials for a literacy and adult education program slanted to community participation; simply worded instructions for drying food is another writer's problem. Lists of easy-to-read materials on agriculture to be used where the soil is sandy are urgently needed in another part of the world. Another writer warns that plans should be for stone buildings, for there is no wood; requests for lists of material on processing leather and making shoes, and instruction for making a charcoal-burning kiln come from still another region. "Can you suggest sources of maps and globes printed in the Arabic language," says another. Then there are the requests that caution against including material on dogs, but ask for some on cats, as they love them. But no matter what the origin of the request or how varied the topics, one thing they all have in common—"the material is urgently needed!"

The Educational Materials Laboratory celebrates its first birthday this month and is still growing. It is spreading out in expanded quarters and adding materials, including a limited amount of audio-visual aids. It welcomes visitors who come to use the Laboratory and is particularly happy to have information on sources of selected educational materials, for the aim is to make the collection so useful that it will never gather dust!

In the Words of an Exchange Teacher

NORMA E. SCOTT, of Orange, Tex., spent a year in Great Britain under the British-American Teacher Exchange Program of the Department of State, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and Board of Foreign Scholarships.

What resulted from this one of more than 1,600 exchanges of teachers between the countries of Great Britain and the United States can best be told in Miss Scott's own words. Here they are:

"On one occasion I was able to clear up a misconception much to the disappointment of the youngsters concerned.

"I had been asked to go to a junior school to talk to a group of small boys. The teacher (master) told me upon my arrival that the boys had been excited for days about the prospect of hearing a 'real, live Texan' and that he was afraid that I would have some difficulty in talking to them because they would be so exuberant.

"He left me with them after having introduced me, and instead of finding a room full of excited little boys, I was confronted with 30 of the stoniest expressions I have ever seen on 9-year-old faces.

"For what seemed a very long time, I struggled valiantly to arouse some enthusiasm; they continued to stare fixedly at me and I could get no response to my urgent request that they ask me about my native State.

"Finally, one small boy at the back of the room raised his hand and said in a grieved tone, 'Please, Miss, you don't look like a proper cowgirl.'

"I realized then that I had been an acute disappointment because they had known what kind of clothes I'd be wearing, how I'd stride into the room, and what sort of a nasal twang would mark my speech. The cowboy movies had done a thorough job of misinforming those children of what Texas women were like. Many times school children said with sorrow in their voices, 'Please, Miss, you're just like an English mistress.'

"You will be interested to know, I am sure, of a project which is the result of my year in England.

"When I returned to Orange, a professional organization of women teachers to which I belong (Delta Kappa Gamma) wanted to do something for the teachers who had been so kind to me. Our Each-One-Adopt-One plan developed whereby each member of the local chapter adopted a friend of mine to send food and clothing and to write friendly, personal letters in the hopes of making life a bit easier and brighter for the overworked and overtired English teachers. Very soon the plan spread throughout Texas and by the time I had been back in the States 8 months, over 900 English teachers had been 'adopted.' Eighteen hundred teachers were being directly affected by the fact that one teacher had been sent to England.

"There is no way to know how many 'friends of friends' are now involved in the plan, nor how many school children are exchanging letters and gift parcels. The figure surely runs into the thousands. And, the thing that is significant is that the Texas teachers and children are perhaps even more delighted with the plan than the English, if that can be possible. There are hundreds of stories of friendships that have developed that will last a lifetime, giving satisfaction to all those concerned.

"The particularly significant thing about this plan for international friendship is its personal aspect. You can see that not only am I a teacher better able to combat prejudice and misunderstanding, but hundreds of teachers who will never have the wonderful opportunity that I had are also better teachers as an indirect result of the exchange plan.

"Professionally, the year spent on exchange to England was the most valuable of my teaching career. The opportunities for interpreting my country to the English were unlimited. The realization of the importance of doing a good job was sometimes a terrifying feeling.

"I am completely sold on the exchange scheme and believe its possibilities for furthering international understanding and good will are far reaching. In some way I should like to be permanently active in helping the program to expand and improve."

How States Collect Public School Library Statistics

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist for School and Children's Libraries

THE SERVICE TO LIBRARIES section of the Office of Education is preparing to make a nationwide statistical study of public school libraries in the 48 States and the District of Columbia. The study is the fourth nationwide collection of public school library statistics. The last collection covered the school year 1947–48, and the data were published as part of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946–48. The present study will cover the school year 1953–54.

Preparatory to the formulation of a questionnaire for school library statistics, a study was made of the number of States in which State agencies collect school library data, the specific agency that collects the data, the frequency of collections, and the categories that appear most frequently on the statistical forms used by States.

The findings indicate that public school library data are collected in 37 States by State departments of education and in 3 other States by State libraries. The frequency for collecting school library data is: annual, 38 States; biennial, 1 State; every 5 years, 1 State; no data collected, 7 States. Information is not available on 1 State.

A separate form for school libraries is used by 10 States, a general form that includes school libraries is used in 21 States, and a form for the accreditation of schools that includes school libraries is used in 9 States.

A tentative form for collecting public school library data was devised by the Office of Education based on the above findings of the study of State forms and the information about school libraries included in *The Common Core of State Educational Information*, compiled by the Office of Education. The tentative form was sent to the State agencies that collect library data for their comments in relation to the schools of their own State.

The form that will be used in the Office study has also been checked with the committee on statistics of the American Association of School Librarians and with directors of school libraries in various localities.

The Office of Education appreciates the excellent cooperation of the various agencies that have made it possible to construct a realistic form that will give each of the public school systems an opportunity to report on their current programs for school libraries.

An analysis of the categories appearing on State agency forms shows that the following categories were used by more than 10 States:

Item	Number of States using
Enrollment	27
Number of periods in a school day	14
Name of librarian	33
Full-time librarians	23
Teacher-librarians	23
Training of librarians	32
Number of librarians serving secondary schools	27
Number of librarians serving elementary schools	17
Number of librarians serving both elementary and secondary schools	17
Total number of librarians employed	16
Total number of school libraries	18
Number of elementary libraries	12
Number of student assistants	12
Location of the library	17
Number of hours the library is available to students	16
Seating capacity of the reading room	17
Library used as a study hall	12
Records kept in library	25
Total number of volumes in the school library	28
Total number of volumes added to the school library since last report	17
Total number of volumes withdrawn since last report	12
Number of reference books	16
Standard Catalog for High School Libraries	11
Number of periodicals (titles) received	25
File for pictures, clippings, etc	13
Instruction in the use of the library	19
Appropriation for library	13
Expenditures for library	32

Partners in Progress

(*Continued from page 114*)

which enabled a much larger number of teachers to be reached than in the previous summer. Plans are under way to increase the numbers of enrollees during the summer of 1954 to 5,000 elementary teachers.

The American educator can by careful planning and discussions with the faculty of the summer school help them to understand how to conduct a discussion, how to prepare materials which can be used in a classroom, how to organize a field trip, how to use the community needs for sanitation and the need for vegetables in diet in motivating instruction. and how to use the situations which arise in the school as a basis for moral guidance. He cannot change the course of study, for that is fixed by the ministry, but he can show how the materials in the course of study can be supplemented and made to contribute to better habits of living. He can help the teachers to gain a new sense of the importance of their work and believe in the importance of every child in school through discussions in which the teachers themselves are encouraged, perhaps for the first time, to express themselves.

It is, of course, impossible in the brief time available for the summer session to give teachers an adequate training, but the results have been very encouraging. To see a middle-aged man prepare a beautifully made set of flash cards for the teaching of arithmetic, to observe a young teacher work out a plan for a social studies lesson based on some magazine pictures, or to see another teacher, who had not previously been conscious of the relationship between education and everyday living, work out a plan for teaching of sanitation and gardening is to realize that these courses are meeting a great need.

Supervision

A second phase of the training program is that of supervision. It is one thing for a teacher to respond to enthusiastic teaching and discussion in a group where there is acceptance of the new ideas, as is the case in the summer sessions. It is quite another thing for a teacher to carry out the ideas when he is back in his own village school out of contact with the inspiration of his classmates and often opposed by those who

have not had the opportunity for acquiring new ideas.

In order that the influence of the summer sessions may be extended the general educationalist of each region has during the past year been developing a supervisory staff. The members of this staff visit the teachers who have attended the summer schools, periodically take supplies and spend time in assisting them in the use of the newer methods which were presented in the summer sessions. Each of these supervisors is assigned from 25 to 50 of the teachers, and throughout the year he visits and encourages them, and attempts to help them with their problems.

A third feature of the teacher-training program has been the development of a demonstration school. The purpose of this school is twofold: First, to establish in the vicinity of each teacher-training institution a school in which the future teachers can observe the improved methods and materials being used; and second, to furnish a model for the other schools of the community.

The demonstration school buildings have sometimes been furnished by the Ministry of Education; sometimes they have been constructed by the Foreign Operations Administration, Technical Cooperation Mission in Iran, and sometimes they have been rented for a period of years from a landlord. The latter plan has been less successful as the buildings available are not well suited to the purpose.

It has been the policy to limit the size of the classes in these demonstration schools to 30 pupils. The children are selected by the Iranian educational official in charge, for the most part on a first come basis so that a fairly good cross section of the population is represented.

The demonstration schools have been very well received by the Iranian parents. As an example, in one of the demonstration schools, in which the children came from average or below average social groups, results of instruction when measured by the same examinations as used in the other schools showed a failure rate about one-fifth that in the other schools of the city. This is a very convincing argument as to the value of the newer methods of education.

As necessary as the improvement of methods and materials is the provision of more and better facilities. A start has been made in this direction. Some buildings have been constructed in nearly every region of Iran, and some of the old facilities have been improved. For the most part both improvement and construction have been cooperative undertakings. The Iranian villages have furnished land, materials, labor, and in some cases money. The U. S.-Iranian Cooperative Education Program has furnished technical advice and money. As a result of this cooperation, thousands of children of Iran have been provided with acceptable school facilities.

Interest in English Language

The Iranians are greatly interested in acquiring a knowledge of English. Nearly all educators have a knowledge of French and a considerable number speak English. Long business association with the British has promoted the use of English among the working classes in those regions in which the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company operated. For many years American missionaries have operated in Iran and established mission schools in some of the larger cities. The influence of these missions and mission schools in increasing interest in the English language has been considerable. Since the beginning of the Technical Cooperation Program in Iran, interest in the use of English has received a great impetus. To meet this interest the educational division of the Technical Cooperation Program has established classes in English for teachers and Government employees. These classes are very popular. The Iranians seem to have a talent for learning language, and good progress has been made. The greatest difficulty in this program is the shortage of American teachers. Especially is this true outside of Tehran. With only a handful of Americans in the regions and each of them very busy it is necessary to rely on the English-speaking Iranians for instruction in English. Despite any inadequacies in their pronunciation and enunciation, they have been able to give those who wish to study the language a fair reading and speaking knowledge of English.

Other phases of the educational program include home economics, vocational agriculture, vocational industrial, and adult literacy education. Space does not permit the detailed discussion of these or the secondary school and collegiate programs which are projected for the future.

As educators discuss their experiences in Iran with American and Iranian associates the question most often asked is, "Is this experiment proving successful and will it have any permanent benefit?" The answer is:

When one becomes acquainted with the patience, courage, industry, and the intellectual ability of the Iranians, and when he realizes the great natural resources of Iran, he is encouraged to believe that education will, if the world situation permits it to carry on for a generation, do much in the restoration of this great people to a position of constructive influence in world affairs. It is this hope and faith that lures back to Iran many educators who could find more physical comfort, less worry, and in some cases greater financial rewards in their homeland. Even though they cannot be sure that their efforts will bring eventual success, they know that in the long and weary journey toward a better tomorrow they gain most satisfaction through extending a hand to help a friend.

Status of Special Education in Delaware

A tabulation accompanying an article entitled, "Extending Special Education Through State Legislation," appeared in SCHOOL LIFE for June 1953. Some clarification of the status of special education programs in Delaware has been requested.

In column 12 of the table in question, four States, not including Delaware, were indicated as having permissive legislative authority for special education programs for severely mentally retarded children. It now appears that the State of Delaware should have been included in this group.

The Act of 1939, Volume 42, Delaware Laws, 253, Chapter 125, states, "It shall be the duty of the State Board of Education to provide and maintain under appropriate regulations special classes of special facilities *wherever possible* to meet the needs of all children recommended for special training who come from any geographical area within the State that can be served by such special facilities." By rules and regulations of the Delaware State Board of Education, this program includes children with I. Q.'s as low as 35.

SCHOOL LIFE is indebted to Dr. J. E. Wallace Wallin, 311 Highland Avenue, Lyndalia, Wilmington, Del., for bringing this matter to its attention.

Willard Widerberg

(*Continued from page 113*)

the Army. Now, at 34, he holds a Master's Degree in school administration. Besides being very active in school and civic affairs, Mr. Widerberg is part of a busy household, for he and Mrs. Widerberg have four charming children, aged 3, 6, 7, and 11.

As the head of a family, teacher, and citizen, Willard Widerberg has the highest respect of his fellow colleagues, friends, and students. Congratulations to the 1954 Teacher of the Year.

McCall's Honor Roll of American Teachers

The following teachers earned special mention during the school year 1953–54 for unusual teaching achievement and for their contributions to the improvement of national teaching standards.

Mrs. Lera C. Blocker, Moody School, St. Clair County, Eden, Alabama

Miss Ruby Lee Chance, Natchez High School, Natchez, Mississippi

Mrs. Arlene S. Eherts, Riverview Elementary School, Daytona Beach, Florida

Mr. Jack W. Fletcher, Tarpon Springs High School, Tarpon Springs, Florida

Miss Susie Green, Sidney Lanier High School, Montgomery, Alabama

Miss LaVerne Hoff, Cheyenne Senior High School, Cheyenne, Wyoming

Miss Lelia D. Jackson, Calvert-Cranston School, Newport, Rhode Island

Miss Ruth R. Kent, Coffeen School, Sheridan, Wyoming

Miss Elizabeth M. Ray, Stephens High School, Rumford, Maine

Mrs. Lois Thompson, Lincoln School, Pierre, South Dakota

Mrs. Cecilia M. Walsh, Maple Avenue School, Barrington, Rhode Island

Supreme Court Ruling

(*Continued from page 118*)

of the laws" is a more explicit safeguard of prohibited unfairness than "due process of law," and, therefore, we do not imply that the two are always interchangeable phrases. But, as this Court has recognized, discrimination may be so unjustifiable as to be violative of due process.

Classifications based solely upon race must be scrutinized with particular care, since they are contrary to our traditions and hence constitutionally suspect. As long ago as 1896, this Court declared the principle "that the Constitution of the United States, in its present form, forbids, so far as civil and political rights are concerned, discrimination by the General Government, or by the States, against any citizen because of his race." And in *Buchanan* v. *Warley*, 245 U. S. 60, the Court held that a statute which limited the right of a property owner to convey his property to a person of another race was, as an unreasonable discrimination, a denial of due process of law.

Although the Court has not assumed to define "liberty" with any great precision, that term is not confined to mere freedom from bodily restraint. Liberty under law extends to the full range of conduct which the individual is free to pursue, and it cannot be restricted except for a proper governmental objective. Segregation in public education is not reasonably related to any proper governmental objective, and thus it imposes on Negro children of the District of Columbia a burden that constitutes an arbitrary deprivation of their liberty in violation of the Due Process Clause.

In view of our decision that the Constitution prohibits the states from maintaining racially segregated public schools, it would be unthinkable that the same Constitution would impose a lesser duty on the Federal Government. We hold that racial segregation in the public schools of the District of Columbia is a denial of the due process of law guaranteed by the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution.

For the reasons set out in *Brown* v. *Board of Education*, this case will be restored to the docket for reargument on Questions 4 and 5 previously propounded by the Court. 345 U. S. 972.

It is so ordered.

Pressing Problems

(*Continued from page 121*)

Chart 4.—Teacher Shortage: Elementary

Chart 4 points up the need for teachers. In the face of a general need for more competently educated citizens, we find an increasing percentage of children today receiving schooling either from teachers who are substandard in their preparation, or in overcrowded classrooms, or in half-day sessions.

Beginning in 1944 many persons left teaching for other positions or for the armed services. Their places have been filled by persons unable to meet full certification standards, which in some States are still no more than high school graduation plus the rudiments of teaching elementary school subjects.

At present we are losing more teachers per year than we can replace by persons entering the profession.

Chart 5.—Inadequate Education, Functional Illiteracy

Chart 5 presents the facts about a serious national problem. One of the big losses in potential skilled workers, in potential military manpower, and in potential trained leadership lies in the large numbers of young people with inadequate education.

In 5 States from 12 to 18 percent of the population 25 to 34 years old has less than 5 years of schooling and is generally considered functionally illiterate. In 11 States from 4 to 12 percent of the population 25 to 34 years old has less than 5 years of schooling.

Note that the 5 States with the largest percentage of functionally illiterate—the States in black—have the largest percentage of Selective Service rejections on the Armed Forces Qualifications Test. This test depends, to a considerable degree, on ability to use skills commonly associated with schooling. The rejections in the 5 States run from 36 percent to 58 percent. The average rejection rate nationally is 19.2 percent.

Chart 6.—School Dropouts, History of One Class

Another way to show the extent of loss of potential trained manpower in the Nation is

to show the record of the children entering the fifth grade of public school in 1943. See chart 6. Of course, there are close relationships between dropouts and functional illiteracy, delinquency, social and economic competence, and military service.

By the end of the 8th grade nearly 200 of every 1,000 in this class had left school; by the end of the 10th grade, 200 more. Another 100 dropped out in the 11th and 12th grades. In other words, just about one-half of the 1,000 children who were fifth-graders in 1943 finished high school.

Figures show that those who drop out of school are not necessarily the stupid ones. We lose each year hundreds of thousands of able youngsters. This loss is a serious national handicap.

Geography in Secondary Schools

(Continued from page 119)

might be added, that history and geography are not successfully combined under a general heading of "Social Studies." Taught in that way, each of them, vague and nebulous, loses its identity in something which is neither one nor the other. We might recall the words spoken at the opening of one of the two original institutions for teacher-training established in the United States. Governor Edward Everett said at the opening of the Normal School at Barre, Massachusetts, on September 5, 1839, "The first requisite of a teacher (is) that he should himself know well that which he is to aid others in learning."

The value of training in geography as a facet of the American way of living can be argued strongly. The pleasures of the natural environment—mountains, valleys, plains, and climates—are enhanced by our knowing something about them and the uses made of them. An understanding of why land is used in one way on the flood plain of a river, in another way on the valley slopes, and in still a different way high up on the mountains adds to our enjoyment of looking at landscapes. The training in powers of observation—in the ability to see when we look—is part of a good education of every boy and girl. Why a city is located where it is, why it has a particular shape when we look at it on a map, why it has developed along the lines that it has, and how the general appearance of its districts is explained—the answers to all these questions satisfy a healthy and intelligent interest which can be aroused in boys and girls in their teens.

But why maintain that the aspect of geography which deals with the problems of people in relation to their environment is such a vital part of the training of boys and girls in high schools today? Two things have made it very important: the shrinkage of the globe in terms of human geography, and the leadership of the United States in this global world.

A change in the scale of human affairs has come upon us with such rapidity that, as human beings, we have not yet grasped its significance. The technological progress in means of communication has made neighbors of peoples that formerly were at the ends of the earth.

At the time the United States was coming into being, the President was given 4 months in which to settle his affairs and make the long journey to Washington by stagecoach from Massachusetts or Georgia. In January 1954, an F–86 Saberjet flew from the west coast of the United States to the east coast in a little over 4 hours.

This shrinkage of the globe in terms of human geography has made neighbors of nations and peoples whose ways of living are wholly unknown to us. Mechanical means of transport have changed the world's human geography in unbelievable terms, and so suddenly that a revolutionary change has overtaken human affairs in economic, political, and military fields. Our improved technology has brought next door to each other a number of very different human societies, poles apart in cultural development. In the horse and buggy days, these communities were so far apart that they had very little influence on each other. A traveler returned from Asia or Africa was still a Marco Polo. Now, by telephone or radio, we can talk with people in other parts of the globe. Television can bring into our homes street scenes from San Francisco or New York. Our technology has been truly revolutionary within the span of a single lifetime.

Recent surveys have shown that we are not living up to our responsibility in acquainting our boys and girls of high school age with the new world at our door. Geography does not appear in the catalog of courses in most of the high schools in the United States.

The rapid development of means of communication demands that geography have a place in the curriculum of the contemporary secondary school. The modern approach to the teaching of geography is in the global framework of society. We no longer think of the inhabitants of the continents as isolated by the vast expanses of the Atlantic and the Pacific, but as neighbors around bodies of water easily and quickly bridged.

The second reason for the inclusion of human geography in the high school course is the leadership of the United States in the world of today—leadership in a global world about which we do not know nearly as much as we should. At the beginning of World War II, the Government made a frantic search for Americans having even a slight acquaintance with other countries and peoples suddenly become very important. People were wanted who knew something of the Near East and the Arab World in general; who at least knew where on a map to look for Uganda, Natal, and Nairobi; who knew what the word *Swahili* meant.

Even now misconceptions of Iran and of the Near and Middle East are resulting in obstinately economic and quantitative approaches to the problems of the people of those areas of the world. A background of human geography of the countries of that part of the world would go a long way in explaining the behavior of their peoples.

The Indo-Pakistan continent is pivotal in the affairs of Asia; and the changing face of Asia today may be the prime fact of our time. Between them, India and Pakistan account for one-fifth of the world's population. Yet, there are widespread misunderstandings throughout the United States about the people of these two countries—what they are like, how they live, their purposes in the world; and about the problems of the Asian peoples in relation to their climate and their soil.

The most unusual feature of Pakistan is a geographic one. That country is composed of two units separated by a distance of over 1,000 miles. In no other State in the world do such conditions exist.

Notwithstanding the dangerous rift between India and Pakistan over many unresolved questions growing out of the partition of India, there is an underlying similarity in many of their problems—problems which could be introduced to

juniors and seniors in high school. They have in common a colonial background, eroded lands, hunger, and economic underdevelopment. Any program for the Far East has to take into account the human geography of the Asian peoples.

Today the United States is leader of the Free World politically, economically, and from the standpoint of military power. In our type of democracy, high school boys and girls will soon become active partners in the administration of their own country and in forming its policies towards their neighbors. They will be called on to vote for proposals and policies towards foreign countries on the basis of their knowledge or supposed knowledge of the lands and their people. They must know something of the ways of living in other lands.

In the world of business and international trade, the United States stands preeminent. A knowledge of the resources of other countries, as well as of the United States, and of how their peoples use them, is necessary, if American business men are to discharge their full social responsibility in these difficult and trying times. To realize the importance of that knowledge, we have only to consider the variety of raw materials which modern manufacture requires; the multiplicity of its products; the complicated techniques of distribution; the countless numbers of people affected by its operations; and the large areas covered by its activities.

The United States, dependent on foreign markets and on foreign sources of uranium, tin, nickel and rubber, cannot detach itself from knowledge of the countries and peoples who are our customers or our sources of supply.

Militarily we have great power in the world, but we must reconcile ourselves to the fact that our power position will gain us some allies, many enemies, and but few friends unless we make a point of getting to know people. Many GI's talked of the peoples of France and Germany as "dumb" and their nations "backward" because their way of living had so many hangovers from a long past. Some of them found England impossibly drab and dull, instead of alertly looking for things that bespoke the cradle of our own civilization. Their attitude, sprung of ignorance and fostered in indifference, will continue, if the tens of thousands of prospective GI's in our high schools are not taught to think differently. It sometimes seems that the farther America grows away from the peoples of its origin, the less it understands of the background of thought and action of the nations from which it sprang.

Every American who has traveled in foreign parts must at some time or other have been brought up short by the consciousness of his own provincialism, by realization of the fact that he was measuring peoples and customs encountered for the first time by the yardstick of his own land and countrymen. Less than one-half of one percent of students in our high schools are introduced to a civilization other than their own. If we school our young people in the way of living of their neighbors in this global world so that they get to know something of their problems, we can project our leadership into the future with less anxiety and more hope.

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)

Censorship and Controversy. Report of the Committee on Censorship of Teaching Materials for Classroom and Library, William R. Wood, Chairman. Prepared for The National Council of Teachers of English. Chicago, The National Council of Teachers of English, 1953. 56 p. 75 cents. (Address: 8110 South Halstead St., Chicago 20, Ill.)

Dental Health Facts for Teachers. Chicago, Ill., American Dental Association, 1953. 28 p. Illus. 25 cents.

Early School Leavers in Kentucky. By Stanley E. Hecker. A study sponsored by the Kentucky Association of Colleges, Secondary, and Elementary Schools. Lexington, Ky., College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1953. 78 p. (Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, vol. 25, No. 4, June 1953.) 50 cents.

Education of the Slow-Learning Child. By Christine P. Ingram. Second Edition. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1953. 359 p. $5.

The Folk Dance Guide. Fourth Annual Edition, 1954. By Paul Schwartz. New York, 1954. 16 p. 50 cents. (Address: Paul Schwartz, Box 342, Cooper Station, New York 3, N. Y.)

Guiding Student Teaching Experiences. By Kathryn Feyereisen and Verna L. Dieckman. Lock Haven, Pa., the Association for Student Teaching, 1952. 29 p. (Bulletin No. 1.) Processed. 60 cents.

How It Grew; A History of the Pueblo Public Schools (A "Type Study" of the development of a school system). By James H. Risley. Denver, University of Denver Press, 1953. 335 p. Illus. $5.

Administration and the Teacher. By William A. Yeager. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 577 p. $4.50.

Building the High School Curriculum. By Stephen Romine. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1954. 520 p. $5.50.

Business Education in Oregon Secondary Schools. Salem, State Department of Education, 1954. 70 p.

Citizen Cooperation for Better Public Schools and *Mass Media and Education;* Parts 1 and 2 of the Fifty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Prepared by the Yearbook Committee. Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, Ill., the University of Chicago Press, 1954. 2 v. $4 cloth; $3.25 paper bound, for each part.

Our American Government; the Answer to 1,001 Questions on How It Works. By Wright Patman, M. C.; A new edition revised by the author. New York, Bantam Books, 1954. 304 p. 35 cents.

Public School Administration. By Calvin Grieder and William Everett Rosenstengel. New York, the Ronald Press Co., 1954. 622 p. $6.

The Preschool Curriculum of the Chicago Public Schools. Prepared in the Department of Instruction and Guidance by Paul R. Pierce, Mary D. Bradley, and Cleon Truitt. Chicago, Ill., Board of Education, 1953. 57 p. Illus.

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Bibliography of Occupational Health, Occupational Health and Related Publications from the Public Health Service, 1909–53. 1954. 35 cents.

Chronic Illness, Digests of Selected References, 1950–52. Public Health Service. 1954. $1.

Hospital Services, Dietary Department, Plans, Equipment, and Supplies. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

Poliomyelitis (Infantile Paralysis). Public Health Service. Health Information Series No. 8, Revised 1953. 5 cents.

Office of Education

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 1, Federal Government and States. Prepared by Robert F. Will. 25 cents.

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 2, Counties and Cities. 35 cents.

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 3, Higher Education. Prepared by Theresa Wilkins. 55 cents.

Education Directory, 1952–53—Part 4, Education Associations. Prepared by Margaret M. Butler. 25 cents.

The High Calling of Teachers and **America's Great Voice.** By Ward W. Keesecker. Reprints from *School Life*. May and December 1953. Free.

School Problems Near Large Federal Installations. By B. Alden Lillywhite. Reprint from *School Life*, January 1954. Free.

Selected References to Extraclass Activities, 1950–53. By Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Circular No. 340, Revised June 1953. Free.

Selected References to Student Councils, 1947–53. Prepared by Ellsworth Tompkins. Circular No. 341, Revised June 1953. Free.

Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 100,000 or more: Fiscal 1953. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 393, March 1954. Free.

Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. By Mabel C. Rice and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52, Chapter 5. 35 cents.

Status of Foreign Language Study in American Elementary Schools, Fall Term, 1953. By Kenneth Mildenberger, of the Modern Language Association of America. Free.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Fighting Our Insect Enemies, Achievements of Professional Entomology, 1854–1954. 15 cents.

Workers in Subjects Pertaining to Agriculture in Land-Grant Colleges and Experiment Stations, 1953–54. 60 cents.

Department of Commerce

Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1953. Published annually since 1878, this volume is the standard summary of statistics on the industrial, social, political, and economic organization of the United States. Compiled and edited by the Bureau of the Census, 74 agencies of the Federal Government and 46 private firms and research organizations cooperate in furnishing their statistics and in reviewing the material each year. Buckram, $3.50.

United States Department of Commerce Publications, Catalog and Index, 1951–52 Supplement. 1954. Cloth, $1.75.

Department of the Interior

Olympic National Park, Washington. National Park Service. Natural History Handbook Series No. 1. 1954. 30 cents.

Alaska, 1952–1953. Presents a brief review of Alaska, including history, size, opportunities for settlers, industries, people, wildlife, and resources. 1953. 20 cents.

Alaska's Fish and Wildlife. 1953. 25 cents.

The White House. An 8-page folder giving early history of the White House, improvements 1830–1902, alterations 1903–48, renovations 1948–52, and a brief description of the various rooms. 1953. 5 cents each, $3.00 per 100.

Department of Labor

Occupational Outlook Publications. A Bureau of Labor Statistics list. March 1954. Free.

Occupational Planning and College. 1954. 10 cents.

Housing and Home Finance Agency

Application of Climatic Data to House Design. 1954. $1.

United States Senate

Our Capitol, Factual Information Pertaining to Our Capitol and Places of Historic Interest in the National Capital. A description with illustrations of the Capitol, Senate Chamber, House of Representatives Chamber, Library of Congress, U. S. Supreme Court, White House, Washington Monument, Lincoln Memorial, Jefferson Memorial, Lee Mansion, Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, Arlington Cemetery, and Mount Vernon. Senate Document No. 72. 1953. 25 cents.

Tensions Within the Soviet Captive Countries, Part 1, Bulgaria. Prepared by the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress for the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. Senate Document No. 70. 1954. 15 cents.

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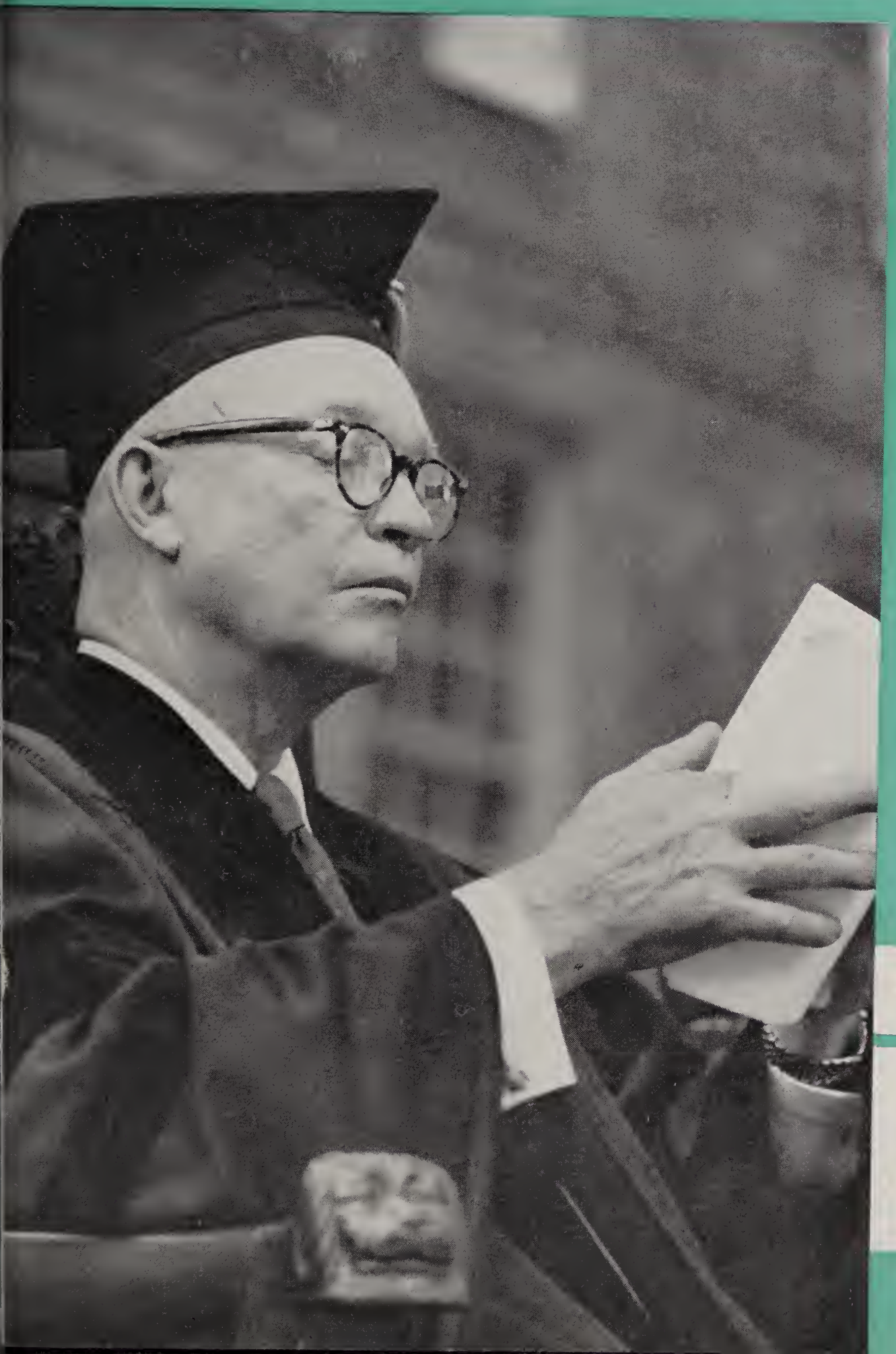

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Education in Athletics

by Simon A. McNeely*

ATHLETICS, in the correct setting and under good leadership, provides a laboratory for fine human relationships and healthful personal development. Few people would disagree with this statement. "Correct setting" and "good leadership," however, are the key ideas. School leaders, parents, and other interested citizens need constantly to evaluate school athletic practices to insure full realization of educational outcomes.

The recently published statement of the Educational Policies Commission, *School Athletics—Problems and Policies*, should prove an invaluable guide to community leaders in improving and continuing sound school athletic programs. Beginning with a statement of "affirmations" which strongly supports athletics as an important part of the school's physical education program, the Commission makes several recommendations basic to educationally worthwhile sports participation. Among these are:

All children and youth should share in the benefits of athletic participation.

Programs [of organized games and sports] should be conducted by teachers on the regular school staff and should be under the control of school authorities.

Athletic games . . . should be played with emphasis on fun, physical development, skill and strategy, social experience, and good sportsmanship.

The core of the program at all levels should be athletic instruction and play for all pupils in regular classes in physical education . . . supplemented by games and sports that enlist participants on a voluntary basis.

Boys' interscholastic athletics should be governed by the same authorities that control other parts of the school program, at both local and state levels.

Local school authorities should give consistent support, in letter and in spirit, to the rules and standards developed by the several state high school athletic associations and by similar bodies. They should acquaint members of boards of education, sports writers, and other citizens with these rules and standards; develop community understanding of the reasons for them; and resist pressures for practices that would violate them.

Boards of education should establish policies for financial support of athletics that will free the interscholastic program from dependence upon gate receipts. School and community leaders should make every effort to finance athletics completely out of general school funds at the earliest possible date.

Boxing should be taboo at all schol levels. . . . Ice hockey and tackle football should not be played below senior high school.

Interscholastic competition should be permitted only in

(Continued on page 144)

*Specialist, health instruction, physical education, and athletics, Division of State and Local School Systems, Office of Education.

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

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Cover photograph: President Eisenhower at William and Mary College. Photograph taken by Charles P. Gorry, Associated Press.

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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)

The New Frontiers

by Oliver J. Caldwell,
Assistant Commissioner
for International Education*

OUR GENERATION is in a position comparable to that of the children of Israel, who after 40 years of wandering in the wilderness, found themselves at last on the frontier of the Promised Land. They had grown accustomed to the hardships of the wilderness, but faced the future with fear and confusion. In this situation, Moses sent forth two groups of spies to examine the Promised Land.

One group came back and reported that the land was full of giants. They advised the children of Israel to take their flocks, their herds, and their tents and go back into the wilderness from which they had recently emerged.

But the second group of spies reported that it was a land of milk and honey, a paradise to be claimed by the children of Israel if they advanced with determination, with faith, and with courage.

So the children of Israel swept into the Promised Land.

Their faith was high and their courage was great; and they possessed the land. Out of that land in the years that followed came ideals and dreams which dominate a majority of the nations of the world.

Our generation also stands on the frontier of a Promised Land. The future for generations to come, not only of the American people, but of mankind, will be greatly influenced by the decisions we make.

Science has given to limited man access to almost infinite energies. For the first time, man has access to the very energies of creation. By their nature, these forces are also capable of destruction. Thus man holds in his immature hands the potentialities either of creation or of destruction. This is a fact on which there can be little disagreement. However, what it means to us and to unborn generations is a matter yet to be determined.

There are those who tell us that man is inherently incapable of meeting the challenge of this new frontier. They would have you believe that man bears within himself the seed of destruction, that he is incapable of controlling himself, and therefore cannot control for creative purposes the energies which he is just beginning to understand.

I think too much has been said about the possibilities of destruction and the danger inherent in man's possession of the ability to utilize atomic and nuclear energies. I prefer to believe that our future, your future and that of your children, can be happier and better across the frontier and in our "Promised Land." I believe our frontier is one of hope and not of despair. Our problem is to identify the obstacles ahead of us, and to find ways to surmount them.

If we are to use effectively the great forces now available to us, and the new energies which we are only beginning to perceive, then each individual has an obligation to prepare himself with humility, determination, and courage, to accept and to utilize creatively these great forces of creation.

Across our frontier, we will find boundless possibilities for both good and evil, for destruction as well as creation. Actually, we face a variety of obstacles, and must advance with equal effectiveness on several fronts simultaneously toward a common objective. This objective must be the creation of a stable, peaceful society based on a full utilization of all available resources, human, physical, and spiritual. The obstacles we face are the existing barriers to an effective utilization of our available resources.

We are faced by a unique intellectual challenge. There was a time when man's knowledge had finite boundaries. I recall reading of an Italian scholar during the Renaissance whose knowledge encompassed the entire field of man's intellectual achievement. This scholar challenged all comers to debate him on any one of several hundred theses. Presumably there was nothing worth knowing that this man did not know.

The intellectual vitality of our day resembles that of the Renaissance, but our rapidly expanding intellectual horizon has created a situation in which it is literally impossible for any individual to know everything, or even to know a great deal about a great many things. This fact is dramatically illustrated by the growth of the science of cybernetics, and the building of robot machines which can add, multiply, and carry out an infinite variety of mathematical operations with an efficiency and a speed which the individual human mind cannot approximate.

There is a serious danger in this situation of forcing overspecialization on the individual. We could become a society somewhat like an anthill in which each ant would have one job and know nothing about the general activities of the society of which he is a part. I think one of the principal challenges of our world to the individual is that he must not only achieve a fairly high degree of specialization to make him a useful member of society, but at the same time

*Address at Freshman Honors Convocation, Sweet Briar College, February 19, 1954.

achieve enough general knowledge to enable him to look with sympathy and understanding on what is going on about him. It is a principal function of what we call a liberal education to instill into the student this kind of intellectual breadth and sympathy.

Our physical frontiers are expanding faster than at any time in man's history. They seem to be expanding in every direction simultaneously. One direction of this expansion is inward, as science each year pushes forward the knowledge of the nature of matter, and of life itself.

But our physical horizon is also expanding outward into space. We stand on the verge of our greatest adventure. We are like the people of the days of Columbus who stood on the shores of western Europe looking westward, remembering the legend which described the lands beyond the sea, and speculating on the possibility of crossing that vast and turbulent expanse on the wings of the wind. So we stand today looking out at the firmament which tomorrow may be our home.

Adjustment to a changing and expanding universe poses a major challenge both to our system of education, and to the individual, who must rely largely on his education to equip him both for service to his society and for personal survival. There is serious need for immediate modifications in our curriculum. While creative changes have been taking place in both the content and the methods of American education, they lag far behind the changes in our environment.

Another, and one of the most serious challenges we face in this vast and exciting new universe, is the problem of getting along together. We must learn more about ourselves, and about the elements which tend to disrupt human society. Thus social science has a particular pertinence in our times. We have only begun to learn to understand ourselves and our society. More than ever before, man's appropriate study now is man.

But the key to everything is an appreciation of ethical responsibilities. We must have a vision of life bigger than ourselves, and bigger than the physical universe which we see around us. Without an ethical and religious motivation we face only chaos. We must aspire to something greater than ourselves. Without such aspiration we are restricted to a materialistic interpretation of the expanding universe. Such an interpretation is devoid of principles adequate to control the energies at our fingertips. Without such aspirations and motivation, man is like a child playing with an atomic bomb.

The process of education probably is more important today than at any other time in man's history. I would suggest that educators have the following minimum obligation to their students:

1. They must equip them intellectually to understand the nature of the rapidly evolving universe. This is, of course, extraordinarily difficult to do. As a first step, they might begin to place less emphasis on a teaching of an array of generally disconnected facts, and more emphasis on a teaching of the basic principle which are the foundation of the constantly growing edifice of facts.

2. They should place more emphasis on instilling into their students an ability to understand man and his total worldwide society. This means getting away from the idea that our cultural heritage is first North American, and secondly European and Mediterranean. We live in and are part of a world. We cannot escape that fact.

3. They should place more emphasis on philosophical and spiritual values. The more the physical universe changes and expands in our sight, the more unchanging these values appear. Such values are essential to racial survival; they are the common ground on which all peoples of all races and faiths can meet to work together for their common welfare.

Yet the responsibility for conquering the new frontier we now see, and all the new frontiers of the future, rests primarily on the individual. Education can help us to meet these new opportunities, but cannot remove from us the responsibility for making decisions necessary for survival in a changing world, nor spare us the results of such decisions.

All of us face enormous new responsibilities. The nature of the "Promised Land" we are about to enter will be whatever we ourselves make it. Our future will be tragic, or brilliant and beautiful, according to how our generation meets the multiple challenges it faces. But if we go forward with faith, with determined courage, and with humility into the expanding universe around is, then we cannot fail.

Harry A. Jager

Harry A. Jager, Chief, Guidance and Pupil Personnel, Division of State and Local School Systems, died on May 8 in a Washington hospital at the age of 66.

Dr. Jager was a native of Providence, R. I., and a graduate of Brown University. He joined the staff of the Office of Education in 1937 and became the first chief of its guidance services in 1938. Before coming to the Office, he was for 25 years a teacher and principal of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools in rural and urban communities.

In 1948–49 Dr. Jager was a United States representative on vocational guidance for the International Labor Organization and helped prepare the Recommendation on Vocational Guidance for the 61 member nations. He was also chairman of the special committee on vocational guidance of the American Vocational Association.

At the time of his death Dr. Jager was chairman of the international relations committee of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. He had written many articles for professional magazines and had actively participated in conferences throughout the country to help plan better programs of guidance and pupil personnel for the Nation's youth.

☆ ☆ ☆ Obligation To Serve in Armed Forces ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆

by Maj. Gen. Lewis B. Hershey, Director, Selective Service System

OUR FOREFATHERS in the early settlements along the Atlantic seaboard lived under constant threat of attack. The problem of survival was immediate and continuous. Each of the colonists was aware that he lived only because he and his associates were capable of self-defense.

The colonists never knew for any longer period than a day whether they were at peace or at war. The proximity of the Indians and the constant threat of attack resulted in the Thirteen Colonies' passing more than 600 laws providing for some form of compulsory military service.

Today the term "under threat of attack" takes on a meaning widely different from that of colonial times. Distances are greater today, but with the speed of airplanes being what it is and with the development of guided missiles and "pushbutton" warfare, we have no more idea of how far away the enemy is than the colonists had of how far away the Indians were.

If we are to survive in this new age, our youth must be awakened to the fact that citizenship carries along with it the obligation of service. Each youth must serve to protect the freedom our forefathers won for us through force of arms.

Some of the most common gripes teenagers make to parents and teachers today are: "I'm living in the shadow of the draft." "If it wasn't for the uncertainty, I could plan my life!" "I don't mind doing my duty, but why do they call on me?" "Why can't they call me right away, so I can get it over with?"

So far as "living in the shadow of the draft" is concerned, I suppose we all live under the shadow of our obligations, if we want to put it that way. A man with a family lives under the shadow of his obligations to support that family; his wife under the shadow of obligations to make a home for her husband and children.

Obligation to one's country is about the same thing as obligation to one's family but on a different scale. And after all, it is not necessarily unpleasant to fulfill an obligation and it is not always unpleasant to be under a shadow.

As for uncertainty, there isn't very much uncertainty about what the future holds for today's teen-ager. He must plan to serve at least 2 years, if he is physically fit, in the Armed Forces.

The obligation to serve in the Armed Forces of the United States is clearly set forth in the selective service law. With very few exceptions, the law places the liability for service on all males between the ages of 18½ and 26, with liability extended to 35 for those who are deferred. But the obligation is something more than an obligation to a law. The obligation is to the Nation, to home and family, to one's self.

Why do "they pick on him?" For the same reason that upward of 2 million have been "picked on" since 1950 and more than 10 million were "picked on" during World War II; these figures do not include the 6 million who enlisted before they could be "picked on."

"Why don't they call me now, so I can get it over with?" That's an easy one. Any registrant can go to any local board and volunteer for immediate induction. It will send him on the next call. He need not wait his turn to be called.

When he comes home after fulfilling his obligation of 24 months' active duty, he'll be confronted by a generous government, ready and willing to finance a large part of his college education.

For the past 15 years the safety of our country has been in jeopardy. Looking ahead we can see nothing but a prolonged period of tension which will force us to devote a large portion of our resources to building and maintaining an adequate defense of our country. Certainly never in modern times have the American people had to live through such a prolonged period of watchfulness and preparedness, just to insure that the system of government will survive.

This, of course, is part of the price we have to pay for achieving maturity as a nation and succeeding to the leadership of a free world. We can go ahead and lead the free world only if the youth of our Nation willingly accept their responsibility, serve willingly, and understand why they are serving.

One of the difficulties facing our Nation today is the attitude of our citizens toward service in the Armed Forces. Many young people are not taught in the home and in our educational institutions why they must serve in the Armed Forces. They should be imbued with the richness of the heritage they have. This job should be accomplished in the home and in our schools. I do not believe the Armed Forces should have the job of teaching a man anything other than how to become a seasoned soldier and how to survive on the field of battle.

A free society is not possible and has never been possible without men willing to fight to gain it and having gained it being ready and willing to sacrifice to protect and keep it. This is as true today as it was when our forefathers fought for our independence.

The educational institutions throughout our land can do a great service to the Nation by continuously exerting every effort to imbue our youth with the history of America and a belief in the things we have. They should be taught the truth about the constant fight their ancestors waged to gain the freedom they enjoy today. This movement to educate our youth and awaken them to the obligations of citizenship must start at the bottom, in the home and the school, not at the top, with the Federal Government.

Teacher demonstrating physics experiment to senior class in Camlica Girls High School, Uskudar, Istanbul Province. Standing to the right, Ellsworth Tompkins, Melahat Emirgil (Ministry of Education interpreter), and Muhittin Akdik, superintendent of schools, Istanbul.

Questions and Answers

Turkish Youth and Their High Schools

by Ellsworth Tompkins, Specialist for Large High Schools

STUDENTS in Turkish high schools are eager to learn about American high-school boys and girls. They want to know what subjects American students study in high school, how they dress, what sports they engage in, and whether coeducation is common. In addition, they ask questions about teachers and high-school buildings. There is no doubt that Turkish high-school youth really want to know more about American youth. A major reason for their curiosity is the conviction that Turkey and America are going to be even closer partners in the world and that the destiny of the new Turkey is closely tied in with the welfare of the Free World.

In many ways high-school students in Turkey are similar to their American counterparts. But the schools they attend are less similar. Turkish students want to know whether American students are interested in them and how much they know about them. Perhaps a few questions and answers will point up some of the characteristics of Turkish high-school students and their school environment.

Are Turkish students interested in sports and activities?

Yes. All high schools have teams in soccer—their main sport—and in outdoor volleyball, which is more popular in Turkey than in this country. Their recreational activities include table tennis, track, and gymnastics. School clubs are common in foreign correspondence, stamp collecting, foreign language, music, art, and wrestling. Some of the schools have student councils. All of them have boy scout troops. Most schools have school stores, called "kooperatifs," which sell paper, pencils, candy, and other sweets.

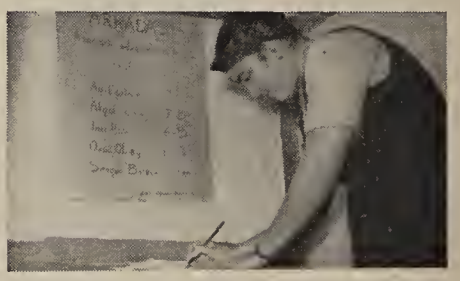
When do they take part in these activities?

On Wednesday afternoon and Saturday afternoon. Turkish high schools are in session 6 days a week, with the exception of Wednesday and Saturday afternoons after 1 p. m. and all day Sunday.

Are the activities coeducational?

No. With few exceptions high schools are not coeducational. Boys go to one high school and girls go to another. Faculties, however, are coeducational; many men teachers teach in girls' high schools and many women teachers teach in boys' high schools.

Student voting in booth for student council president in Ataturk Girls High School, Istanbul. ARKADAS! means *member*. "7–A" signifies last term of high school, or senior.



Girl junior police directing traffic on Findikli Caddesi (Findikli Street) in front of Ataturk Girls High School, Istanbul. Notice that she wears white gloves and white belt.

Elementary-school girls selecting reading materials in National Library, Ankara, Turkey; Adnan Otuken, director.

Do boys and girls work after school in Turkey?

No. Practically no opportunities exist for after-school or Saturday afternoon part-time jobs. Turkish students are amazed to learn that many American boys and girls work at gainful employment after school hours.

Are there homerooms in Turkish high schools?

No. When an attempt was made to explain the homeroom setup common in most American high schools, Turkish students as well as teachers had difficulty understanding the idea of the homeroom.

How are students promoted in Turkish high schools?

By grades, which they call "sinif," and not by subject as is customary in our high schools. Pupils in Turkish high schools are scheduled by classes rather than individually. When they heard that American students were scheduled individually for their school programs, they expressed amazement and wondered how such a complicated process could actually work.

Do Turkish students study each major subject every day of their school week?

No. Their studies require various numbers of hours a week. For example, in the first grade of senior high school (corresponding to our Grade X) a student takes the following subjects: Turkish literature, 5 hours; Turkish history, 2 hours; geography, 2 hours; mathematics, 5 hours; chemistry, 3 hours; biology and health, 3 hours; foreign language, 5 hours; drawing, 1 hour; music, 1 hour; physical education, 1 hour; military tactics, 1 hour; supervised study, 3 hours; making a total of 32 hours a week.

What foreign languages do Turkish students study?

English, French, and German. About 65 percent of all junior and senior high school students take English, which is taught by the direct, or active, method. Probably a greater percentage of students would study English if there were enough capable teachers. Classes in English are consequently likely to be large, sometimes having as many as 50 or 55 students. Spanish, Italian, and Greek are not offered in public schools. A few Turkish high schools give all instruction in English (Ankara Koleji), and one conducts instruction mainly in French (Istanbul Galatasaray Lisesi).

How long are the daily periods in Turkish high schools?

One hour, consisting of 45 minutes of class recitation and 15 minutes of free recess. When the weather permits, the students go outside of the building to saunter on the campus. Otherwise, they take their hourly recess of 15 minutes in the building. When Turkish students were told that American high-school pupils have only a few minutes for passing between classes, they asked how they found time to relax between classes.

Do the students receive a certain number of credits for each subject taken?

No; like students in most foreign countries, the student receives no point credit for subjects in Turkish schools. He does not have to acquire a total number of units to be graduated. Instead, he must pass examinations at the end of each school year and at the end of the high-school course.

Are all students in Turkish high schools day students?

Probably the majority of them are, but there are many boarding students. Galatasaray Senior High School in Istanbul (founded in 1868 in the building it still occupies), for example, has hundreds of boarding students, who live in dormitories in the school building and eat all meals in the school dining hall. Boarding students have supervised study each day, except Saturday night and Sunday according to this schedule: 6:30 to 7:30 a. m.; 5:30 to 7 p. m.; and 7:30 to 9 p. m.

Do they have junior high schools in Turkey?

Yes. All the senior high schools in Turkey are junior-senior high schools offering 7 years of study. There are many 3-year junior high schools existing separately; that is, without a senior-high-school combination.

Are there many small high schools in Turkey?

Very few. High schools, particularly senior high schools, are found in urban places and are large schools. Few high schools enroll fewer than 400 students, and many have more than 1,000 students.

Do Turkish high school buildings look like American high schools?

There is little outward similarity, but classrooms are quite similar. High-school buildings in Turkey are usually of stone or concrete construction, painted white. Turkish school have an extensive campus, which is called "bahce" or garden; the grounds around their high schools are more spacious than those surrounding most American high schools. Furthermore, they are attractively landscaped. The Adana (population 150,000) Commercial High School in southern Turkey has a grove of oranges and lemons on the school campus; the fruit may be eaten by the students at will.

Are Turkish high school pupils earnest students?

Indeed. They are attentive to their studies, earnest about their education, and diligent. The Republic of Turkey grants scholarships for university study to high-standing secondary-school students; it also sends many students to study at universities in America. This year over 900 Turkish students are being maintained at American universities by the Ministry of Education at the expense of the Turkish Government. Turkish high-school youth strive to receive such high honors.

How do Turkish high school boys and girls dress?

Outside of school, just as American boys and girls do, except that one finds no blue jeans. In elementary school (5 years), both boys and girls dress in a school uniform—black cotton with white collar; in junior and senior high school, boys wear regular street dress and girls wear a school uniform.

Where do Turkish boys and girls get their ideas of American youth?

Mainly from seeing the "Sinema" (movies), which show American films with Turkish subtitles. The younger boys in elementary school know a lot about Texas, Hopalong Cassidy, and Roy Rogers.

These questions and answers give only a meager picture of Turkish youth and the high schools they attend. If you are interested in more detailed information about the topic, read *Education in Turkey*, Bulletin 1952 No. 10 (obtainable from the Office of Education), or write to Mr. Emin Hekimgil, Turkish Educational Attache, Empire State Building, New York, N. Y., for free illustrated booklets.

Education of Negroes:*

Some Factors Relating to Its Quality

by Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner
and Joseph H. Douglass, Special Consultant in Intergroup Education

WHAT A PERSON does and the way he does it are the result of the interplay of many factors over his entire lifespan. Every stimulus-response situation, in every phase of his life, is influenced not only by the individual's innate capacities but also by the facts he learns and by the habits, attitudes, and ideals he acquires from the value systems of the society in which he lives. The patterns of behavior growing out of these stimulus-response situations largely define the roles which the individual assumes in society. The degree to which this process results in wholesome personality development depends on the extent to which the individual participates freely and voluntarily in his own adaptive experiences.

The significance here of the principle indicated above lies in the fact that education is an important phase of social adaptation. It is the outcome not only of schooling but also of the experiences in the home, at play, at work, in the church, and on the street. Thus it is seen, as suggested in the preceding articles of this series, that the educational process is not an isolated phenomenon.

The quality of education among Negroes, therefore, has been and will continue to be influenced by a variety of factors. The three selected for discussion here are the social, economic, and scholastic. One measure of this quality is the general cultural level which Negroes have attained, and is concerned with the first two factors to be discussed. Another measure is the result reached on achievement and mental tests which will be concerned with the third factor. These factors are not mutually exclusive, as is indicated in the three preceding articles of the series. Their interrelationships should be constantly kept in mind by all persons interested in the successful integration of Negroes into the general stream of American life. Those concerned especially with the integration of Negroes into the educational life of the Nation will need to consider carefully the matters discussed here.

*EDITOR'S NOTE.—This article which was written prior to the Supreme Court decision on school segregation, has special pertinence for school systems planning a program of desegregation and integration.

Social Factors

Although the South is rapidly becoming industrialized, for many generations it suffered from the evils of a colonial system, including poverty, insecurity, mobility, lack of initiative, poor housing, dietary deficiency, lack of sanitation, poor health and disease, and cultural deprivation.[1] It is in such an environment that the majority of Negroes in the United States have lived. The combined impact of the colonial and slave pattern forced Negroes into a caste-like system based on race and color. The effects of their situation limited the participation of Negroes in the major avenues of personal and social expression in American society and relegated the group to a disprivileged and subordinate position.[2]

The result of these limitations, in large measure, has been to release Negroes from the obligations and responsibilities of citizenship. This meant that they had to adjust to a social structure which held aloft the ideals of democratic life, but which denied them avenues of democratic expression, thus creating a double and somewhat conflicting set of adjustment patterns.[3] The effect of this anomalous position has had serious implications for their personality development.

In terms of the adjustment of children, the carryover of the effects of discrimination have serious impact upon the family structure and environment within which the Negro child must grow. If parents belong to a socially inferior group, and themselves are poorly adjusted, the child is quite likely to become the replica of the frustrated parent. Consideration of such conditions becomes of great significance to teachers, who are responsible for educating Negro children for participation in a democratic society.[4] Add to these outside pressures, those internal ones of family disorganization, broken homes, working mothers, overcrowding, and lack of the simple ordinary home conveniences, and it is seen that the average Negro child progresses toward maturity against great odds.

Economic Factors

In general, two types of economic opportunity are available to Negroes. They might find employment in the white occupational world, or within the segregated Negro world.[5] In either case, as a result of limited education and other factors, such as discrimination, the group in most instances is relegated to the lower economic rungs. The effects of low income, insecure employment, and associated factors combine to

[1] Brown, Ina Corrine, *Socio-Economic Approach to Educational Problems*, National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes, Misc., No. 6, Vol. 1, Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1942, p. 103.

[2] Kardiner, Abram, and Ovesey, Lionel, *The Mark of Oppression*, New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1951, p. 61.

[3] Brown, op. cit., p. 19.

[4] Kardiner and Ovesey, op. cit., p. 302 ff.

[5] Brown, op. cit.

place severe handicaps upon the group. Poor housing, lack of home ownership, restricted and slum environments, poor standards of health, and high mortality rates may largely be traced to the economic position of the group.

Economic necessity frequently causes irregular school attendance of Negro children, and sometimes causes them to stop school altogether as soon as the legal age of compulsory attendance is passed. According to the 1950 census, nonwhite youth go to work at an earlier age on the average than white youth, who obtain more years of schooling before entering upon gainful employment.

Although during the decade from 1940 to 1950, Negroes made some gains in skilled occupations. Hope says that about one-half of the Negro men and two-thirds of the Negro women engaged in nonagricultural pursuits are employed below the semiskilled level, while only one-sixth of the whites are employed on this level.[6]

The median family income of Negroes in 1949 was $1,650; that for whites, $3,232. Mitchell and Holden have shown that only 4 percent of the Negro group had money resources of $5,000 or more, and only 10 percent had as much as $3,000 or more in 1949. The corresponding percents for whites were, respectively, 21 and 44.[7] They also point out that 6 out of 10 urban Negro families and 7 out of 10 rural Negro families were in the low-income category (incomes of less than $1,000); whereas only 3 out of 10 white families had incomes under $1,000. In the South, where the major problem being discussed here is found, three-fourths of all Negro urban families had an income of less than $2,000 in 1949. Of the rural families, 92 percent had a cash income of $1,000 or less.[8]

According to Ginzberg and Bray, in 1940, 60 percent of the poorly educated and illiterate persons in the Nation were in the South. One out of eight white workers had completed less than 5 years of schooling. For Negroes, the ratio was 2 out of 5. In spite of the progress that had been made, the South still had, in 1940, 90 percent of the poorly educated Negroes; and one-half of the Negro workers in the South had less than 5 years of schooling.[9]

As rapid advances in the Nation increase the number and variety of demands upon the individual, the tempo in closing the cultural, economic, and educational gap between the races should be stepped up. This becomes increasingly significant in light of the need of the Nation to utilize its human resources to the maximum.

Scholastic Factors

During the past decade great progress has been made in the education of Negroes in the South, as was indicated in a previous article of this series. However, in another article of the series, it was shown that prior to a decade ago the schooling of Negroes was quite inadequate in comparison with that for whites. And the level of schooling of whites in the South was far below that of the Nation as a whole. In terms of the number of children to be educated, the lack of money, and the general devastation following the Civil War, the South faced a staggering educational task for white children, not to mention the task of educating approximately a million recently emancipated Negro children.

The Negro Separate School

For many years, for hundreds of thousands of Negro children, there were simply no schools available. As late as 1930, there were approximately a million Negro youth of high school age out of school. At least a half million had no high schools in 230 counties in which they represented one-eighth or more of the population.[10] Studies have shown that when schools existed, many pupils were compelled to travel great distances to and from school, either on foot or in their own vehicles.[11]

A high percentage of the rural schools were held in churches, lodge halls, and cabins. Many of the public buildings in which schools operated were in a dilapidated condition with poor equipment, or lack of it altogether. Adequate drinking water, heating, and toilet facilities were frequently absent; and the general surroundings of the schools were ugly and unwholesome. The schools in general were characterized by short-school terms, limited curriculums and extracurricular activities, large classes, few textbooks, poorly trained and poorly paid teachers, and inadequate supervision. It was not surprising, therefore, to find poor attendance, due not only to the condition of the schools, but also to the lack of enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws, and the poor economic status of Negro families. Many of the conditions mentioned here applied, in a lesser degree, to schools for Negroes in certain urban areas.

With reference to higher education, it might be observed that ". . . few Negroes, in comparison with whites, go to college. Primarily, it is poverty that keeps them out; but poor elementary preparation is also a factor. The 1940 census figures showed that only 1.3 percent of Negroes had a 4-year college education as compared with 5.4 percent of native-born whites and 2.4 percent of foreign-born whites. . . . Of the estimated 75,000 Negroes in college in 1947, 85 percent were attending 105 segregated schools." [12]

Certain of these above-mentioned conditions are rapidly changing, but they did prevail rather generally for many years, and conditioned the behavior of millions of adults in civilian life as well as in World Wars I and II. They also had a deleterious effect on mental test and educational achievement scores of Negro youth who migrated to other parts of the country. Needless to say that the same effect would be found among any low economy group, since scientific studies show that in general test results are functions of environmental conditions rather than of racial characteristics.

Illiteracy Among Negroes

One of the accumulated effects of the inadequate schooling of Negroes has been their high rate of illiteracy. Much progress has been made in this also, as is indicated by a reduction from about 95 percent at Emancipation to approximately 10 percent now. However, nearly one-third of the adult Negroes are still functionally illiterate (have not advanced beyond the 4th grade).

(*Continued on page 143*)

[6] Hope, John, "The Employment of Negroes in the United States by Major Occupation and Industry," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. XXII, Summer 1953, No. 3, pp. 321.

[7] Mitchell, George S., and Holden, Anna, "Money Income of Negroes in the United States," *Journal of Negro Education*, cited, pp. 334 ff.

[8] Ibid., p. 337.

[9] Ginzberg, Eli, *and* Bray, Douglas W., *The Uneducated*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, p. 36.

[10] Caliver, Ambrose, *Secondary Education for Negroes*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 7.

[11] Caliver, Ambrose, *Availability of Education to Negroes in Rural Communities*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 12.

[12] Ivy, A. C., *and* Ross, Irwin, *Religion and Race*, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 153, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, 1949, p. 18.

Steps To Meet Pressing Problems

In American Education—A Graphic Presentation

Chart 1.—State and White House Conferences on Education

Within the past few years there has been a great upsurge of citizen interest and concern about education in this country. The doubling of enrollment in PTA's and the development of local citizen advisory groups from 1,000 in 1950 to more than 8,000 at present are expressions of this interest. Many other indications could be cited. These have grown out of the recognition, by increasing numbers of citizens, of such school needs as housing and financing of teachers' salaries.

Citizen groups in towns and cities can get together easily and frequently. They can get the facts, study them along with the educators, arrive at reasonable plans of action, and then work to convince others to favor the action program. The result has been approval of bond issues for school building and increased salary schedules in thousands of communities.

But certain conditions are impeding progress. Some of these are:

Limitations in financing local school districts almost exclusively through property taxation;

Limitations on the rate of taxation for school purposes;

Maximum ceilings on bonded indebtedness;

Difficulties in securing teachers because State legislatures control budgets for teacher education facilities;

Limitations on freedom to reorganize school districts because of State laws;

Inequities raising local assessed valuations, unless these are raised generally throughout the State.

These factors indicate that essential action on meeting school needs can be taken most effectively at the State level.

S. 2723 provides the machinery for citizens in each State to develop the kind of educational program they want and need by:

—Changing property assessments;

—Changing limitations on taxes and bonds;

—Reorganizing inefficient school districts;

—Expanding the facilities for higher education;

—Attracting capable teachers; and by

—Providing State aid for school construction.

Each State conference would develop solutions to problems by:

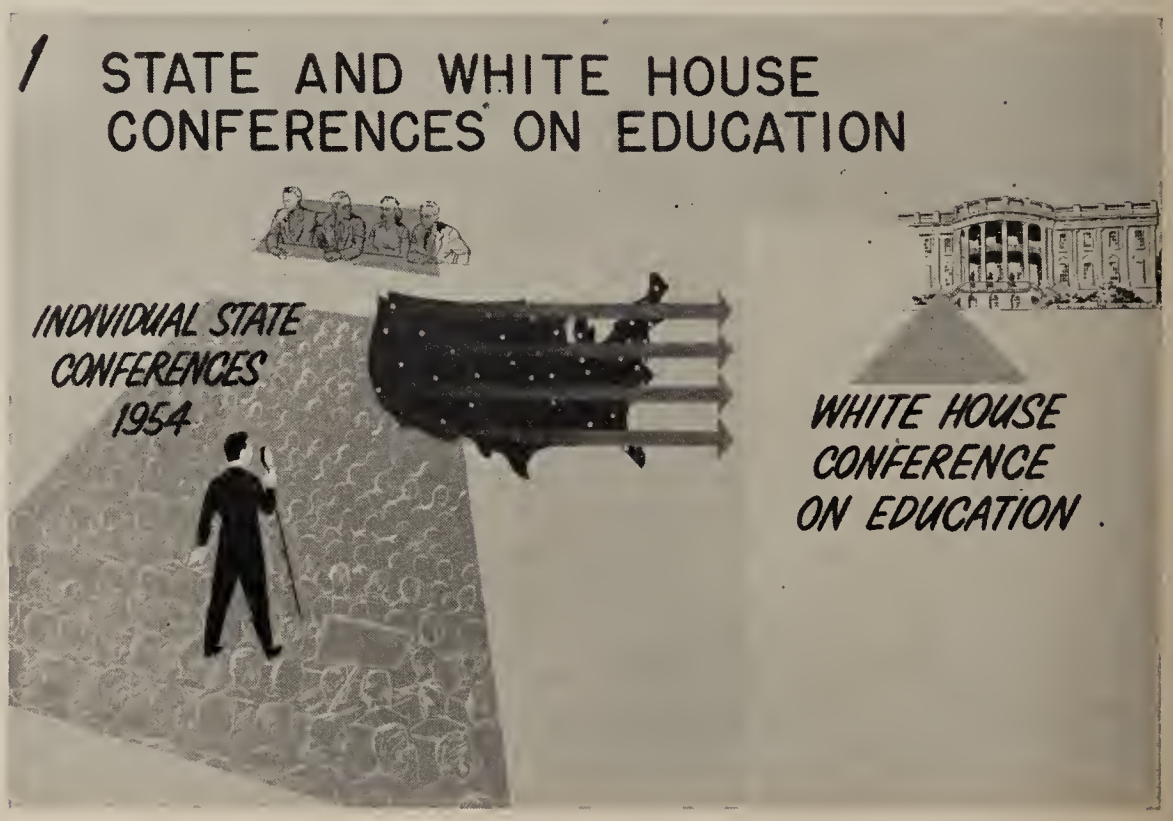
—Bringing together a small group of representative citizens and educators to plan and prepare the materials for the larger citizen-educator conference.

—Studies of local and State problems in education in the light of the facts so that study and discussion lead to

—Mobilizing resources to solve the problems.

Thus study and action would intermesh to meet the long-range problems ahead. The conference approach would expedite State and local action by involving the citizens as central figures—for the citizens will, in the last analysis, decide the quality and quantity of education.

It is expected, of course, that lay citizens and educators would meet together. They would decide what is needed to be done and



then how to do it—across the board—by giving thought not only to the urgent problems of today but to those which face us ahead.

In summary, we believe that the pattern of citizen-educator cooperation on the local level is the soundest course. We believe that the Federal Government should assist and encourage the States to bring together representative citizen-educator groups to work out such action programs.

The White House Conference would serve a complementary and a somewhat different purpose. It would:

—Emphasize the importance of education to the national well-being;

—Report on the progress being made in the several States;

—Summarize the resources available and needed to keep American education operating at the level essential for national security and well-being;

—Demonstrate clearly what the citizens of the 48 States can do and want to do to meet their educational needs;

—Indicate whether citizens wish greater or less Federal support or participation in various phases of education;

—Give great impetus to the speedup in educational efforts needed in these coming years throughout the country;

—Show citizens the nationwide significance of local schooling.

I have no illusions that the White House Conference would solve the problems of education in this country, but I believe it can be very important and helpful.

S. 2723 appears to provide a practical and badly needed impetus by the Federal Government. It also would provide evidence—not now available—as to whether our citizens believe that the Federal Government should maintain its present relationships to education, do more, or do less.

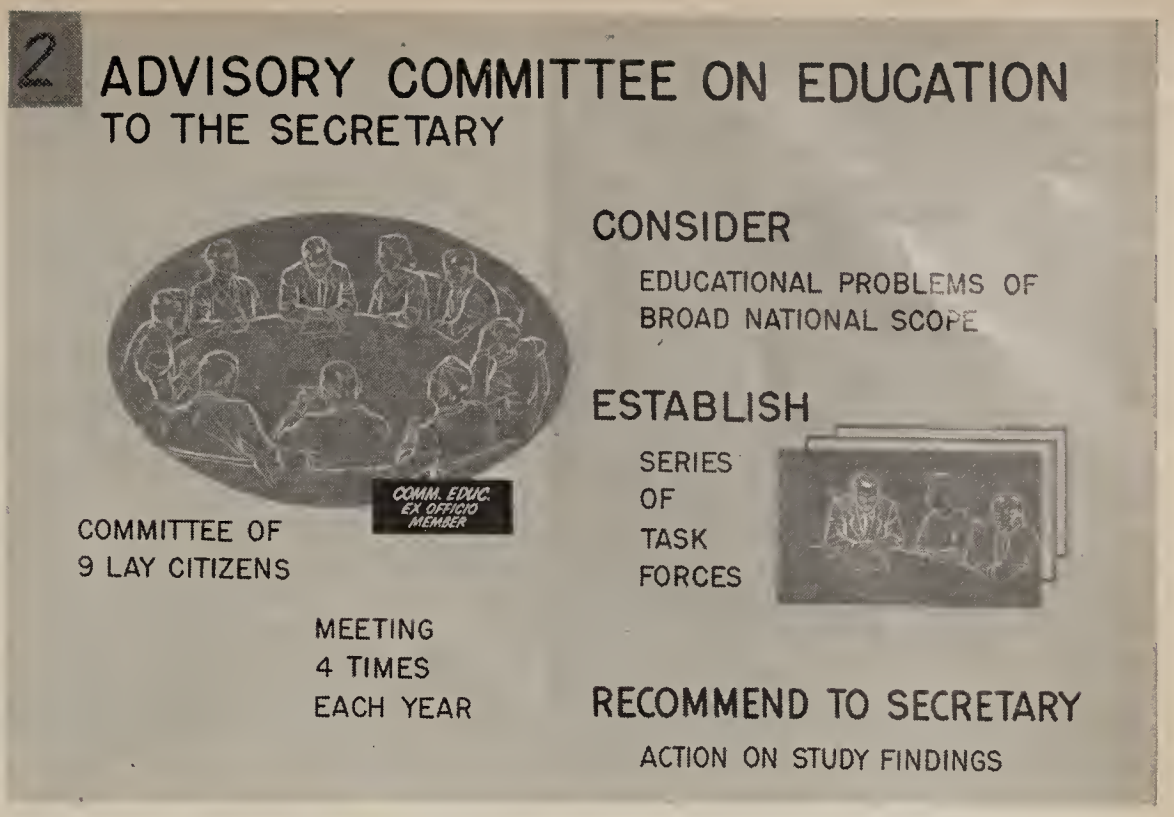


Chart 2.—Advisory Committee on Education

The problems which the Advisory Committee might consider are many. For example, the Committee might consider such matters as:

—The role of the school in reducing juvenile delinquency;

—Illiteracy, particularly in relation to selective-service rejections;

—The education of children with special abilities;

—The education of children with mental and physical handicaps;

—The education of children of migratory workers;

—The education of teachers.

These are but a few educational problems of national significance. In each area, there has been some research on aspects of the problem. Communities and States could be much more effective in dealing with these problems if a task force, under competent professional leadership, were to analyze and bring together the findings of researches already made, were to define problems needing immediate study, and were to make such studies. They could set forth authoritative conclusions as to what is known about the problem, what needs to be known, and what seem to be reasonable lines of action for individuals, schools, public and private agencies. Such task-force work might properly take 2 or 3 years.

The Committee's analysis might result in the conclusion, for example, that the problem of the education of the children of migratory workers would be appropriate for study because of the complexity of the problem, its interstate implications, its national importance, and the lack of accurate studies in the field. Research would involve those concerned: Local and State authorities, teachers, schools, and boards of education, labor and employer groups, social welfare agencies, and others. Such study would establish facts which the Committee would analyze and upon which it would base its recommendations to the Secretary. Some of these would doubtless be matters upon which the Department could act through its constituents: The Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, and so on. Probably more of them would involve action which local and State groups should take.

The cost of such studies as the Committee might recommend would depend on their

The three charts illustrating this article were used by Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare at congressional hearings and at various meetings of organizations. They illustrate three major steps toward the solution of pressing problems in American education. These steps are: (1) State and White House Conference on Education to foster nationwide understanding of the problems of education and to mobilize resources for local, State, and Federal action; (2) a National Advisory Committee to make available the advice and recommendations of outstanding citizens; and (3) cooperative research in education to stimulate solutions to educational problems of national significance.

School Life is pleased to publish these charts and parts of the Commissioner's statements for its readers.

scope. One of the functions of the Committee would be to consider proposed study plans and budgets for recommendation to the Secretary.

Chart 3.—Cooperative Research Projects

At the present time, the Office of Education has no legislative authority to enter into contracts for jointly financed research projects with colleges, universities, State departments of education, local school systems, and nonprofit organizations. Joint efforts with such groups are of basic importance because it is in these agencies that able research personnel and resources that could not otherwise be enlisted are to be found.

A prime advantage of cooperative work with agencies in the field is that such procedure avoids the centralization of staff and facilities in Washington.

There are many areas in the field of education in which cooperative research holds out great promise for increased economy and efficiency.

Examples of research areas in which studies might be undertaken to improve school efficiency are:

1. Costs of school and college buildings.
2. Business procedures in schools and colleges.
3. School district reorganization.
4. Adequate staffing of teaching, engineering and other "shortage" professions.
5. Teaching methods.
6. Relationships of community health and social agencies to community programs.

General practice with respect to educational research today usually involves study of local problems by those directly concerned at the local level. This procedure is sometimes wasteful because many matters of local concern are, in fact, common to other groups across our Nation. Too often only those concerned locally profit from their research. Enlarging the scope of a local or State study so as to make its findings usable by others in other regions would be an efficient procedure. But a locality or State would be reluctant to put in the added cost just to make the research for demonstration more useful on a nationwide basis. For example, Minnesota may be studying more effective use of the services of teachers. Many other States may share the same general concern, but the particulars of their respective problems may be sufficiently different to render the Minnesota findings inapplicable for their purposes.

This bill would make possible contributions of funds from the Office of Education and the assistance of staff members of the Office of Education who are familiar with areas which require study—to the end that research and surveys of general interest be enlarged as appropriate to make them widely useful.

Raymond W. Gregory

Dr. Raymond W. Gregory, for many years a leader in the field of vocational education, died at his home at the age of 60 on June 2 after a heart attack.

Dr. Gregory, special assistant to the Commissioner of Education, had recently returned from Korea where he had served as director of a special mission which had studied the vocational education needs and facilities of that country.

Formerly assistant commissioner for vocational education, Dr. Gregory had the responsibility of administering the national program of vocational education authorized by the Smith-Hughes and George-Barden Acts. A member of the Office of Education staff since 1936, he first served as a specialist in agricultural education. During the World War II period he administered the food production war training program which enrolled a million persons in 15,000 rural communities.

In 1952 Dr. Gregory was chairman of the United States delegation to the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education at the University of Maryland. He also served as a consultant on educational problems to various other countries.

Dr. Gregory was editor of the American Vocational Association Journal from 1928 to 1932. He was an active member of the American Vocational Association, National Education Association, American Farm Bureau Association, the American Legion, and Purdue University Alumni Association.

Coordinating and Improving Instructional Services in Growing School Districts

by C. O. Fitzwater, County and Rural School Administration

THE COORDINATION and improvement of instructional services is a challenge to educational leadership. Especially is this true in growing school systems. This becomes more readily apparent when we examine the reasons why many school systems are growing. Their growth results from three major causes.

The most frequently mentioned cause, which has affected school systems almost everywhere, is the impact of increasing birth rates over the past several years. Evidence of the magnitude of this impact is furnished by Office of Education estimates indicating that more than 1½ millions of elementary pupils and more than a quarter million secondary pupils are enrolled in school this year than last.

Another cause—population mobility with a strong tendency to concentrate in and around larger centers—has had and is continuing to have a heavy impact on school systems in urban and suburban communities, particularly the latter. The growth of suburban communities, perhaps "mushrooming" would be a better term, is in many instances nothing short of startling.

Consider the effect on school officials when a sudden influx of several thousand families—the parents young, most of them with school-age or pre-school-age children, and most of them planning to have more—settles in a quiet, uncrowded, rural countryside locality, until then relatively unaffected by the influence of the city nearby. A recent statement by a county superintendent in a rapidly growing area illustrates the point:

> . . . The mass population shifts that are now in evidence appear to be of a more permanent character. [These people] are moving to Contra Costa County to live—to establish homes, to build communities, to raise their families. . . . The emergency that we face now is not to be met with temporary measures. Ours is now the long-range planning. . . . The announcement that there is to be a community of 8,000 homes built in an area now primarily devoted to stock raising and fruit growing illustrates the opportunities, as well as the responsibilities, that Contra Costa County communities have. . . . This illustration is only a more dramatic example of conditions that have become all but universal in Contra Costa County.[1]

A third cause is local school district reorganization, which during the past 5 years has resulted in reducing the total number of districts by almost a third. Although most redistricting takes place in rural situations, it is becoming increasingly common in urban and suburban localities.

Whenever reorganization happens, improvement of instructional services becomes a matter of crucial importance. Obviously, this is as it should be. Other benefits may be realized, but the important outcome is better schools, provided with the array of specialized services necessary for making instruction most effective.

However, some growing school districts, including many of those enlarged through reorganization procedures, are still too small to provide all the specialized services that are needed. In such cases the role of the intermediate district, typically the county, takes on additional importance. Thus, there is a growing trend for intermediate districts to provide the specialized services that local districts are unable to provide for themselves effectively and economically. Moreover, the scope and quantity of these specialized services is likewise growing. This is especially true in the more densely populated counties in and near metropolitan areas.

Teamwork Processes

However, the major issue is not so much what type of district should be providing specialized services as it is a question of how any district, large enough to do so, can provide such services most helpfully. In other words, the processes employed and the human relationships involved are of primary importance.

The most productive processes, and certainly the most effective relationships, are developed and maintained when everyone concerned has a hand in helping to set the conditions for their nurture. This does not mean that everyone in a school system should have a direct responsibility in all decisión-making activities. What it does mean is that there are areas of action in the realm of decision making for everyone.

Moreover, these areas for decision-making activities are not fenced off and isolated from one another. They are interrelated. Thus, the areas of decision making by the school board are interrelated with those of the superintendent, the central office staff specialists, the school principals, and the teachers. Likewise, decisions made by teachers are interrelated with decisions made by everyone else having responsibility in the school system.

[1] Contra Costa County School Bulletin, March 1954, Martinez, Calif.

Not only that, but this interrelatedness does not constitute a hierarchy of responsibilities that can be neatly charted and arranged in the order of their importance. To be sure, some are of broader scope than others and affect more people. But in the final analysis, these broader responsibilities exist to render teaching more effective.

Moreover, the interrelatedness of all responsibilities makes them interdependent. This interdependence, when viewed forthrightly and realistically and implemented in that spirit, makes the operation of a school system a teamwork process.

This point of view holds for any type of school system, whether large or small, rapidly growing or not growing at all. Likewise, it is applicable to the entire range of activities involved in the operation of a school system. Most certainly, it holds true for coordinating and improving instructional services.

Number of Reasons

However this task, it is not the only problem which demands attention, although in one way or another it is related to all of them. Increasing enrollments require construction of additional classrooms if shortchanging of educational opportunities of the pupils is to be avoided.

Likewise, additional teachers must be recruited in this period of short supply, particularly qualified elementary teachers. Frequently this problem is so great that it is no longer a question of recruiting only those fully qualified but of filling vacancies with the best people available who are not fully qualified.

Coupled with such problems is that of raising additional funds to meet increased costs. It is a well-known fact that increasing school enrollments are not usually accompanied by commensurate increases in the value of property on which local taxes may be levied to pay increased school costs. As a result, the financial strain often increases greatly.

Not only are problems such as these of great magnitude but by their acuteness they sometimes claim the limelight to such an extent that others, also important, are in danger of being left in the shadows. Perhaps this is understandable. But increasing enrollments—whether resulting from increased birth rates, migration of families to the community, school district reorganization, or a combination of these factors—bring other problems, challenges, and opportunities as well.

Administrative Procedures

Clearly, in all these matters there is a common purpose—the improvement of instruction. Equally apparent is the fact that realization of that purpose involves the best efforts both of school and community people.

There is abundant evidence that school boards are, in increasing numbers, recognizing this. Increasingly common is the practice of appointing lay advisory committees, composed of representative community citizens, to help gather facts, interpret them, and propose solutions on major school problems.

Not only that but in recent years it has become more and more common for school boards to develop administrative codes or rules and regulations, in printed or mimeographed form, setting forth not only board functions and operating procedures but also indicating the scope of responsibility of employees of the school system. The significance of such codes, when soundly developed, in clarifying relationships and fostering effective working procedures would be difficult to overemphasize. Particularly is this true in school systems beset with growing pains.

Although such administrative matters may seem at first thought rather remotely related to coordinating instructional services, they can set the conditions so that such coordination is greatly facilitated. In fact, a common understanding of the relationships and responsibilities involved can thus be developed and maintained.

Leadership Qualities Required

Even more significant is the expanding role of the superintendent in all these activities. There is abundant evidence that the superintendent's position is increasing in scope and complexity, that it involves far more than the technical aspects of school administration, and that it most directly and intimately is concerned with community as well as school leadership. Equally revealing of its true nature is the degree to which it is concerned with developing wholesome relationships among school staff members, of fostering cooperative undertakings to improve the school program.

Growing school systems put the exercise of such leadership qualities to a severe test. Ways must be found to extend the vision to involve community people in planning for better schools. School boards must be encouraged in setting their sights high, in taking a realistic view of the kinds of education services needed. Ways must be found to secure the services of specialized personnel, whether provided by the local or the intermediate district. Procedures must be established so these specialists function as a team, working through school principals in helping classroom teachers. Relationships have to be established so that school principals truly become instructional leaders for their schools, and are encouraged to improve their leadership. Opportunities must be provided for active participation of teachers in the processes of improving instructional services.

That the roles of instructional supervisors and other specialized personnel are likewise undergoing change there can be little doubt. As schools become larger and principals are made full-time instructional leaders, instead of head teachers with part-time principalship duties relating to routine details of school management, the role of the supervisor can properly assume new proportions. Working with the principal brings new opportunities to function as a consultant, available on call. Emphasis is placed on making supervision a helping teacher service, provided when needed and never imposed.

The same holds true for other specialized services, whether provided directly by larger districts or by the county. In either case, the emphasis is on service to schools. The people who provide the services are resource people. They supplement resources in the school in ways that will help principals and teachers become more, not less, self-sustaining.

This places a premium on the development of readiness among teachers and principals to utilize these specialized resources, whether from the county or local superintendent's staff. Only when teachers and principals have developed a readiness for them can they become really effective in improving the conditions for teaching and learning. Perhaps there is no single characteristic that reveals more about a resource person's leadership qualities than his ability to cultivate this readiness.

Cooperative Effort To Improve the Nation's School Statistics

IN A RECENT LETTER to all chief State school officers, Samuel Miller Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, described plans for full application by the Office of Education of *The Common Core of State Educational Information.*[1] This Handbook lays the basis for improving the comparability of statistical reports on staff, students, income, expenditures, organization, transportation, school lunch program, etc., of elementary, secondary, and adult education, with reference particularly to reports by State departments of education.

The Common Core, which is Handbook I of the State Educational Records and Reports Series, was developed by the cooperative efforts of State departments of education, numerous national associations concerned with education, and the Office of Education.

The Handbook does two things. It presents a list of items of information upon which there should be available strictly comparable information from all of the various States. The same items of information constitute an acceptable basis for a nationwide report on the status and condition of education.

Perhaps an example of an item of statistical information is in order. It has been agreed that comparable statistics should be collected on the number of one-teacher schools in each State. Further it has been agreed that this item should be broken down so that the report specifies the number of such schools with four or fewer grades and, also, the number with five or more grades. Thus *The Common Core* lists two items of statistical information which are to be collected with respect to the number of one-teacher schools in a given State.

In addition, the Handbook defines the terms that are usually employed in describing and reporting on those items of information. Thus according to the definition of *The Common Core*, a school with just one teacher is a "one-teacher school" regardless of the number of rooms in the building. The Handbook further makes it clear that in counting the number of grades it is not necessary to have pupils enrolled in a given grade in the year being reported to count the grade. Thus a school with one teacher, two rooms, and grades 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, would be counted as a "one-teacher school with five or more grades," regardless of the fact that there might be no children in grades 3 and 4.

Because it gives a standard list of items of statistical information which all States should have available and because it defines the terms involved in their collection, the Handbook provides the means by which a greater measure of comparability can be secured than has heretofore been possible.

In his letter, Commissioner Brownell also outlined the steps being taken by the Office of Education to do its part in implementing *The Common Core.* As a first step, the Office will adapt its questionnaire form for the biennial survey to the items of *The Common Core.* Because not all of the States will be in a position immediately to provide information on all of the items of the Handbook, not all of the items are included in the biennial survey form to be distributed by the Office of Education this year. Only those items similar in content to the items of previous biennial survey forms, plus items commonly available in the State departments, will be found in this form. The form for the year ending June 30, 1956, however, will include all the items of the Handbook, except where the information would duplicate the information supplied to other Federal agencies.

In addition, the Office of Education will collect and publish statistics on the nine items of information recommended by the Handbook for a quick report in the fall of each school year. The forms for this report, which will be distributed during the first week of October, will request information on (1) the number of pupils, (2) the number of teachers, (3) the number of teachers with substandard credentials, (4) the number of pupils in excess of the normal capacity of the school buildings in use, and (5) the total number of instruction rooms scheduled for completion during the current fiscal year. Except for the last item, this breakdown will be used for elementary schools and separately for secondary schools.

The statistical reports of the Office of Education can be no better than the basic reports received from the States. The Handbook outlines the essentials for a nationwide statistical reporting system in the field of education which, given common application and implementation, should yield information of greater accuracy and completeness than in the past.

[1] U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *The Common Core of State Educational Information.*, Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953. (State Educational Records and Reports Series: Handbook I, Bulletin 1953, No. 8.) 35 cents.

NEWBERY-CALDECOTT AWARDS

THE NEWBERY MEDAL for the most distinguished contribution in 1953 to American literature for children was awarded to Joseph Krumgold for *And Now Miguel* (Crowell). The Caldecott Medal was presented to Ludwig Bemelmans for his *Madeline's Rescue* (Viking), the most distinguished picture book for children published in 1953. Both medals were officially presented at the Newbery-Caldecott Dinner in Minneapolis, June 22, 1954.

White House Library Receives 100 Great Books

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER recently received a collection of the Great Books, which comprise the heart of the liberal arts program at St. John's College of Annapolis, Md.

The books, numbering more than 100, will be added to the White House Library. They were presented to the President in his office by Theodore R. McKeldin, Governor of Maryland, a St. John's board member: Richard F. Cleveland, chairman of the college's board of visitors; and Richard D. Weigle, president of the 258-year-old school.

Through its Great Books curriculum, Dr. Weigle told the President, "this little college in Annapolis has been pioneering a return to the traditional liberal arts of thinking, analyzing, judging, and communicating which marked the education of great public men in the early years of this Republic.

"These books are truly our heritage as western men. Each is a masterpiece, exemplifying those very liberal arts of thought and imagination. Each deals with some great theme of human experience as valid now as in the days when it was written—the wisdom of Socrates, the plays of Shakespeare, the eternal verities of the Bible, the political lessons of the Constitution and the Federalist Papers. These books provide a continuing stimulus to our thinking and a constant challenge to more imaginative living."

St. John's has sought to restore to American higher education a modern equivalent of the liberal arts once studied at the college by colonial leaders. Founded as King William's School in 1696, the college is now independent, nonsectarian, and coeducational.

Francis Scott Key, author of "The Star-Spangled Banner," founded the St. John's

100 GREAT BOOKS

HOMER, *Iliad, Odyssey;* HERODOTUS, *History;* AESCHYLUS, *Agamemnan, Choephoroe, Eumenides, Prometheus Baund;* SOPHOCLES, *Oedipus Rex, Oedipus ot Calanus, Antigone;* EURIPIDES, *Hippolytus, Medeo;* ARISTOPHANES, *Clouds, Birds;* HIPPOCRATES, *Airs, Woters ond Ploces, Ancient Medicine, Ooth, Socred Diseose;* PLATO, *Ian, Gorgios, Meno, Republic, Apology, Crita, Phoedo, Sympasium, Pormenides, Theoetetus, Saphist, Timoeus, Phoedrus, Crotylus;* THUCYDIDES, *History of the Peloponnesion Wor;* ARISTOTLE, *Generotian of Animols, On the Soul, Physics II, III, IV, VIII, Metophysics I, V, VI, VII, XII, Nicomochean Ethics, Politics, Poetics, Orgonon;* EUCLID, *Elements;* ARCHIMEDES, *Selected Warks;* APOLLONIUS, *Conics;* LUCRETIUS, *On the Noture af Things;* VIRGIL, *Aeneid; The Bible;* EPICTETUS, *Discourses, Monuol;* TACITUS, *Annols;* PLUTARCH, *Lives;* NICOMACHUS, *Arithmetic;* PTOLEMY, *Almogest;* GALEN, *On the Noturol Foculties;* PLOTINUS, *Fifth Enneod;* AUGUSTINE, *Confessions, The City af Gad;* THOMAS AQUINAS, *Summo Theologico;* DANTE, *The Divine Camedy;* CHAUCER, *Conterbury Toles;* PICO DELLA MIRANDOLA, *On the Dignity of Mon;* RABELAIS, *Gorgontuo ond Pontogruel;* MACHIAVELLI, *The Prince, Discourses;* LUTHER, *Three Treotises;* CALVIN, *Institutes;* COPERNICUS, *On the Revalution af the Spheres;* MONTAIGNE, *Essays;* BACON, *Novum Orgonum, First and Second Book of Aphorisms;* GILBERT, *On the Mognet;* KEPLER, *Epitame of Copernicon Astranamy;* DONNE, *Paems;* SHAKESPEARE, *Richord II, Henry IV (Ports 1 ond 2), As You Like It, Twelfth Night, Homlet, Mocbeth, King Lear, Tempest;* CERVANTES, *Don Quixate;* HARVEY, *Mation af the Heort ond Blood, Generotion of Animals;* GALILEO, *The Two New Sciences;* DESCARTES, *Rules for the Direction of the Mind, Discaurse on Method, Geometry, Meditotions;* HOBBES, *Leviathon;* SPINOZA, *Theolagical-Politicol Treotise;* MILTON, *Porodise Lost, Somson Agonistes;* BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Pragress;* PASCAL, *Pensées;* CORNEILLE, *Cinno;* RACINE, *Phèdre;* MOLIÈRE, *Tartuffe;* LA FONTAINE, *Fobles;* NEWTON, *Principio, Optics;* HUYGENS, *Treotise on Light;* HOOKER, *Ecclesiasticol Polity;* LOCKE, *Essoy Concerning Humon Understonding, Secand Essoy on Civil Government;* BERKELEY, *Principles of Humon Knowledge;* LEIBNIZ, *Essoy on Dynomics, Discaurse on Metophysics, Monodalogy, Correspondence with Arnauld;* SWIFT, *Gulliver's Trovels, The Bottle of the Baoks;* VICO, *The New Science;* PRÉVOST, *Monon Lescout;* FIELDING, *Tam Jones;* MONTESQUIEU, *The Spirit af the Lows;* HUME, *Enquiry Cancerning Human Understanding, Diologues Concerning Naturol Religian;* VOLTAIRE, *Candide, Micromegos;* ADAM SMITH, *Weolth of Nations;* GIBBON, *Decline ond Foll of the Romon Empire;* ROUSSEAU, *Essay an the Origin of Inequolity, Sociol Contract;* LESSING, *Educotion of Monkind;* HERDER, *Outlines af o Philasophy of the Histary of Mon;* SCHILLER, *Poems;* KANT, *Critique af Pure Reoson, Critique af Proctical Reosan, Critique of Judgment, Metophysics of Morals;* LAVOISIER, *Treotise on Chemistry; United Stotes Constitutian; Federolist Papers;* DALTON, *New System of Chemicol Philasophy;* GOETHE, *Foust, Sorrows af Young Werther, Poems;* HOELDERLIN, *Paems;* JANE AUSTEN, *Emmo;* HEGEL, *Philosophy af Histary;* DE TOCQUEVILLE, *Demacrocy in America;* KIERKEGAARD, *Philosophicol Frogments, Feor ond Trembling;* FARADAY, *Experimentol Reseorches in Electricity;* LOBACHEVSKI, *Theary of Porallels;* BALZAC, *Father Goriot;* STENDHAL, *Red ond Block;* FLAUBERT, *Modome Bovory;* MARK TWAIN, *Huckleberry Finn;* BOOLE, *Laws af Thaught;* VIRCHOW, *Cellulor Pathalagy;* J. S. MILL, *On Liberty;* DARWIN, *Origin of Species, Descent af Man;* MARX, *Capitol, Cammunist Manifesto;* MENDEL, *Experiments in Plant Hybridization;* TOLSTOI, *Wor ond Peoce;* NIETZSCHE, *Birth of Tragedy, Beyand Good and Evil;* DOSTOEVSKI, *Crime ond Punishment, The Passessed;* GEORGE CANTOR, *Tronsfinite Numbers;* DEDEKIND, *Essoys on Numbers;* BAUDELAIRE, *Paems,* WILLIAMS JAMES, *Psychology—Briefer Caurse;* POINCARÉ, *Science and Hypothesis;* FREUD, *A Generol Introductian ta Psychaanolysis;* GIDE, *Lofcodio's Adventures;* PROUST, *Remembronce af Things Post;* THOMAS MANN, *Death in Venice;* VALÉRY, *Paems;* WHITEHEAD, *Science in the Modern World;* DEWEY, *Lagic;* SCHUMPETER, *Copitolism, Socialism and Demacrocy;* BRIDGMAN, *The Logic af Madern Physics; Charter af the United Notians.*

Alumni Association. George Washington's stepson was also a student. Four signers of the Declaration of Independence were members of its first board of visitors and governors.

St. John's launched its single, 4-year, nonelective curriculum in 1937, Dr. Weigle said, as an answer to the increasing specialization in higher education which made it more and more difficult for young Americans to acquire a real liberal arts education. The St. John's program, stressing seminar discussions and individual understanding, has since widely influenced higher educators.

More than half of the St. John's students enter graduate and professional schools. A recent survey found graduates of the "new" program forging ahead in business, industry, and the professions.

Education of Negroes

(*Continued from page 135*)

Illiteracy is a constant, underlying many of the economic, social, and cultural problems of Negroes. The greatest incidence of poverty, disease, and personal maladjustments in occupational, home, and civic life is found among the illiterates. There is a high correlation between illiteracy and malnutrition, infant and maternal deaths, occupational inefficiency, low-grade employment, and low wages. In short, illiteracy is associated with most of the indices of low cultural and living standards.[13]

[13] Reece, B. Carroll, "The High Cost of Illiteracy," *School Life*, May 1952, Vol. 34, No. 8, p. 115 ff.

Although illiteracy is a national problem (see map below), involving all racial and geographic groups,[14] its high incidence among Negroes is emphasized here because of its relevance to the general subject under discussion. Studies[15] have shown a significant relationship between Negro rejection rates (for failure to meet minimum intelligence standards) in World War II and the level of education as represented by expenditure per Negro pupil, school attendance, and high school enrollment.

Relation of Schooling and Environmental Factors and Test Results

Many studies[16] have presented strong evidence that there is a significant relationship between inadequate schooling and certain environmental factors, and scores attained on mental tests. For example, Negroes in general make lower scores than whites in the South, but Negroes in the North, by and large, make a higher score than whites in the South. Their rejection rates are somewhat higher than those of whites in the States where they attend the same school. This is accounted for by the fact that even in these States frequently there has been some difference in the schooling received, as well as by the fact that Negroes usually participate in the culture at a lower level than the whites.[17]

[14] Caliver Ambrose, *Literacy Education*, Circular No. 376, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., June 1953.

[15] American Teachers Association, *The Black and White of Rejections for Military Service*, Montgomery, Ala., August 1944, p. 24.

[16] Ibid., p. 28–29.

[17] Ibid., p. 30.

Klineberg[18] says that "the problem of racial or national differences in mental test scores is closely related to the problem of the effect of socioeconomic factors." He also indicates that environmental changes have an effect upon test scores. There is also the suggestion that the language, speed, and motivation factors also affect the test scores. All these have special relevance to anyone brought up in an impoverished cultural environment. Davenport presents evidence to support this general thesis. He found that among both Negroes and whites a much higher percentage of the inductees from the Fourth Service Command (comprising the Southeastern States) were classified in Grades IV and V on the Army Classification Test. For whites it was 51 percent; for Negroes, 95 percent. The corresponding percentages for the Southwestern States were respectively 45 and 93.[19]

The particular relevance to Negroes lies in the excessive extent to which they suffer the handicaps common to all low-economy groups.

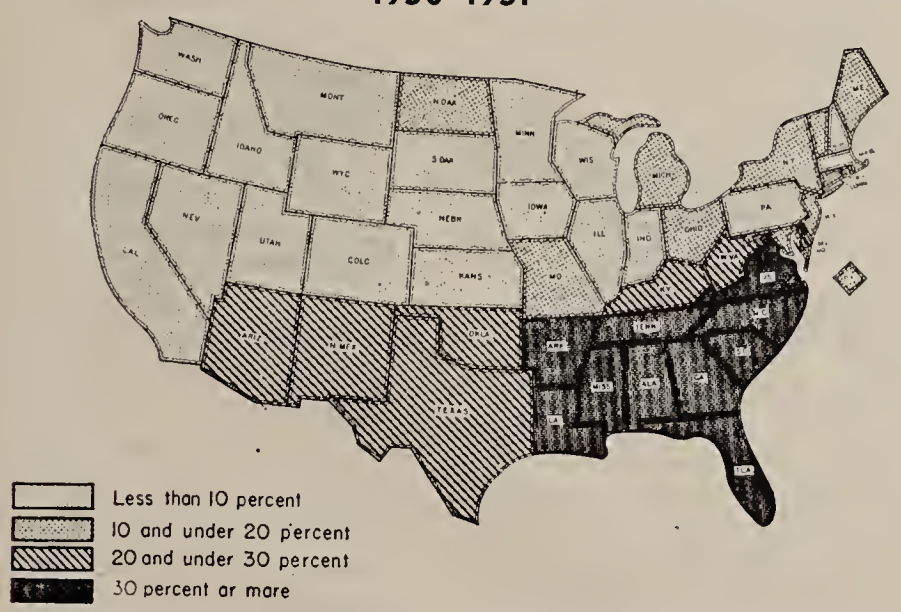
The mass movements of these people from rural to urban and from southern to northern areas emphasize the importance of these factors in their educational and cultural adjustment. The social, economic, and scholastic problems which Negroes have faced in the past, and still face, although to a somewhat less degree, pose some important questions: (1) Is there need for defining and clarifying minimum requirements and standards of performance, on the various school levels, so that our increasingly mobile population may not be unnecessarily handicapped? (2) Should remedial programs be planned to assist those children and youth needing help to adjust to the new conditions which many of them will encounter, as they move into new geographic regions, or new school situations? (3) Would it not be the part of wisdom to develop programs of intergroup education in order that administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents might meet the problems with greater knowledge, understanding, appreciation, and good will than many of them at present possess?

These questions have significance not only for the effective educational development of all American children, but also for the improvement of human relations among all our people.

[18] Klineberg, Otto, *Characteristics of the American Negro*, New York: Harper & Bros., Chapter II. 1944.

[19] Davenport, Roy, "Implications of Military Selection and Classification in Relation to Universal Military Service," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. XV, No. 4, 1946, p. 585.

Rejection Rates for Failure to Pass Armed Forces Qualification Test 1950-1951



Source. U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Standards. Armed Forces Rejections During the First Year of Korean War. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952.

Education in Athletics

(*Continued from inside front cover*)

senior high school. . . . There should be no postseason championship tournaments or games.

Girls should share equally with boys in facilities, equipment, and funds allocated to athletic activities. . . . But girls' athletic activities should not be imitations of those for boys.

The Educational Policies Commission endorses the report of the Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High School Age, *Desirable Athletic Competition*, published by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. This report recommends that priority in resources be given to broad programs of instruction for all children, to intraschool activities, and to informal activities such as play days, sports days, and occasional invitational games involving children of two or more schools. The EPC concurs with the Joint Committee in disapproval of interschool competition of a varsity pattern, and similarly organized competition under auspices of other community agencies, for children below the ninth grade.

A similar point of view was upheld by representatives of 30 national educational, medical, and service organizations at the National Conference on Games and Sports for Boys and Girls of Elementary School Age held in Washington, D. C., May 1953. Among the principles agreed upon at that conference are:

Programs of games and sports should be based upon the developmental level of children.

Competition is inherent in the growth and development of the child and depending upon a variety of factors will be harmful or beneficial to the individual.

Adequate competitive programs organized on neighborhood and community levels will meet the needs of these children. State, regional, and national tournaments, bowl, charity, and exhibition games are not recommended for these age groups.

Progress has been made over the years in upgrading athletic practices. Leadership of high-school athletic associations, professional educational organizations, and other groups has played no small part in this development. The pronouncement on athletics of the Educational Policies Commission and the other statements mentioned here are effective augmentation to the efforts of all who wish to put *more athletics into education and more education into athletics.*

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 Education; An Introduction. By Emma Reinhardt. New York, Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1954. 506 p. $4.

Audio-Visual Handbook for Teachers. Trenton, N. J., State Department of Education, 1954. 4 8p. Illus. 50 cents.

Economy Handbook: Economies from A to Z in Planning and Building Schools. Albany, New York State Commission on School Buildings, 1953. 52 p. Illus.

Elementary-School Organization and Administration. By Henry J. Otto. Third edition. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. 719 p. Illus.

Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision. By Fred C. Ayer. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 523 p. $4.50.

Good Classroom Practices in Business Education. By Delta Pi Epsilon Committee, H. G. Enterline, chairman. Cincinnati, South-Western Publishing Company, 1953. 58 p. Illus. (Monograph 85.)

How To Attend a Conference; How To Get More Out of All Kinds of Conferences. By Dorothea F. Sullivan. New York, Association Press, 1954. 61 p. (The Leadership Library Series.) $1.

Jets. Prepared as Reading Material in Aviation Education, by Members of the 1953 Production Conference. Washington, D. C., National Aviation Education Council, 1953. 31 p. Illus. Single copy, 50 cents. (Address: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St. NW., Washington 6, D. C.)

Learning To Drive Cars With Automatic Transmissions: A Supplement to *Sportsmanlike Driving.* By Helen K. Knandel. Washington, D. C., American Automobile Association, 1954. 56 p. Illus.

Look to the Sky. A picture book of aviation for boys and girls, with questions to discuss with the children and concepts to be developed by the teacher. Washington, D. C., National Aviation Education Council, 1953. 32 p. Illus. Single copy, 30 cents. (Address: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St. NW., Washington 6. D. C.)

A Manual for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary-School Buildings. By Marion J. Conrad. Columbus, Ohio, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1954. 28 p.

Modern Administration of Secondary Schools; A Revision and Extension of *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools.* By Harl R. Douglass. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1954. 601 p. $5.

Roofs for the Family; Building a Center for the Care of Children. By Eva Burmeister. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 203 p. Illus. $3.25.

Student Personnel Work as Deeper Teaching. Edited by Esther Lloyd-Jones and Margaret Ruth Smith. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 361 p. $5.

Teaching Speech in the Secondary School. By Karl F. Robinson. Second edition. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1954. 438 p. $4.25.

Working Together for Better Schools. By J. Wilmer Menge and Roland C. Faunce. New York, American Book Co., 1953. 149 p. $2.

Dr. Romaine P. Mackie

S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, has announced the appointment of Dr. Romaine P. Mackie as Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth Section in the Office of Education. Dr. Mackie has served the Office of Education since 1947 as specialist for schools for the physically handicapped. She succeeds Dr. Arthur S. Hill, who recently accepted the position of educational director with the United Cerebral Palsy Association. In earlier years Dr. Mackie taught in the schools of Ohio. She received a B. A. degree from Ohio Wesleyan University, an M. A. degree from Ohio State University, and the Ph. D. degree from Teachers College, Columbia University.

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 Care of Children in Institutions—A Reading Guide. Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. 1954. Free.

Management and Union Health and Medical Programs. Public Health Service. 1954. $1.

Nurses—Your Opportunity to Foster Day-to-Day Mental Health. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

Children. A new professional journal on services for children and on child life. Published by the Children's Bureau 6 times a year. Volume 1, Number 1 is dated January-February 1954. 25 cents a single copy. Annual subscription price, $1.25.

Office of Education

Education of Negroes: Segregation Issue Before the Supreme Court. By Ambrose Caliver. Reprint from *School Life*, February 1954. Free.

Education of Negroes: Progress and Present Status in the Segregated Pattern. By Ambrose Caliver and Emery M. Foster. Reprint from *School Life*, March 1954. Free.

Good and Bad School Plants in the United States as Revealed by School Facilities Survey. Prepared by James L. Taylor. Special Publication No. 2. 50 cents.

Mathematics Education Research Studies—1953. Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown. Aids for Mathematics Education, Circular No. 377–II, May 1954. Free.

School Life Index—Volume XXXV. October 1952 to June 1953 and Supplement, September 1953. 5 cents.

Scientific and Professional Manpower—Organized Efforts to Improve Its Supply and Utilization. By Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 394, April 1954. Free.

State Standards for Teaching Our Nation's 5,000,000 Exceptional Children. By Romaine P. Mackie and Lloyd M. Dunn. Reprint from *School Life*, October 1953. Free.

Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. Mabel C. Rice and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Chapter 5, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1954. 35 cents.

What's Ahead for Educational Television? By Franklin Dunham. Reprint from *School Life*, February 1954. Free.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Agricultural Statistics, 1953. $2.25.

Home Tanning of Leather and Small Fur Skins. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of Commerce

Weather Is the Nation's Business. A report of the Advisory Committee on Weather Services to the Secretary of Commerce.

Department of Defense

The War Against Japan—Pictorial Record. 1952. Cloth, $4.

Department of the Interior

Wall Map of the United States, Including Territories and Insular Possessions, Showing the Extent of Public Surveys, National Parks, National Forests, Indian Reservations, National Wildlife Refuges, and Reclamation Projects, 1953. It also shows State boundaries, cities, towns, rivers, and railroads. Insert charts give descriptions of Alaska, Guam, American Samoa, Hawaiian Islands, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and the Panama Canal Zone. It gives the record of the westward movement from the original 13 States; acquisitions such as the Louisiana Purchase, annexation of Texas, the Gadsden Purchase, the Spanish American Compromise, and Oregon Territory. 2 sheets each 59 x 41 inches, overall dimensions approximately 5 x 7 feet. $4 per set.

Department of Labor

Occupational Planning and College. Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor in cooperation with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Higher Education. 1953. 10 cents.

Government Printing Office

For Your Vacation Pleasure. A Superintendent of Documents price list of selected Government publications describing popular national parks, forests, and historical sites. Free.

House of Representatives

Foreign Economic Policy of the United States. Message from the President of the United States, transmitting recommendations concerning the foreign economic policy of the United States. House Document 360, 1954. 10 cents.

Post Office Department

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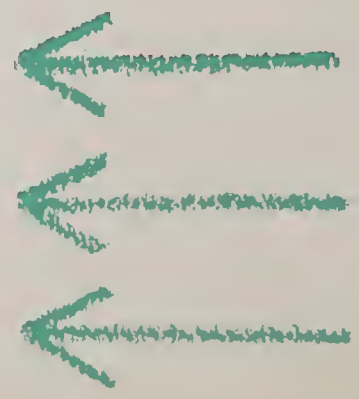

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