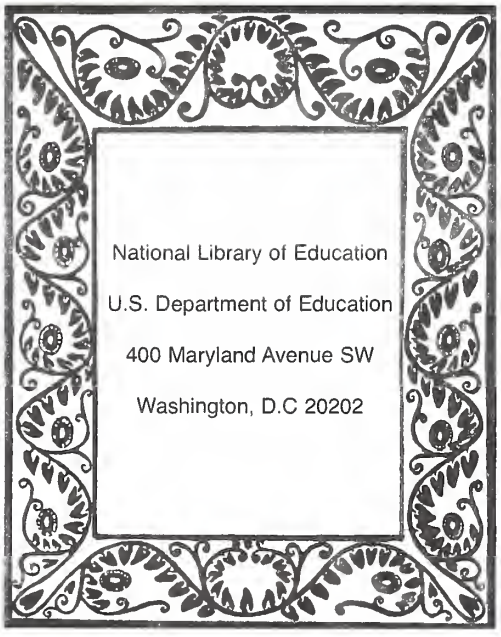

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Volume 37 Number 1
OCTOBER 1954

Route to

School Life

◀ WITH TWO PRESIDENTS

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

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

Because our schools help shape the mind and character of our youth, the strength or weakness of our educational system today will go far to determine the strength or weakness of our national wisdom and our national morality tomorrow. That is why it is essential to our nation that we have good schools. And their quality depends on all of us.

For this reason, I join with the students and teachers of America in inviting every citizen to become better acquainted with his schools. We can use this opportunity to express our pride in the great host of able teachers who devotedly give their best toward an education of the young. And this week we can also begin a new effort to make sure that we have more of such teachers, and that they have the best possible facilities and incentive for carrying forward their work.

If we citizens succeed in this effort, we shall have helped to strengthen an America in which intelligence and sound ethics will be preserved, and therefore an America in which democracy will be secure. If through indifference we fail, we shall ourselves have struck a blow against the foundations of our chosen way of life.

This *American Education Week* reminds us that the choice lies open.

Dwight D. Eisenhower

American Education Week: November 7–13

DAILY TOPICS

Sunday, November 7—Ideals To Live by

Monday, November 8—Teachers for Tomorrow

Tuesday, November 9—Investing in Good Schools

Wednesday, November 10—Working Together for Good Schools

Thursday, November 11—Effective Citizenship

Friday, November 12—Teaching the Fundamentals Today

Saturday, November 13—How Good Are Your Schools?

This year the 34th annual observance of American Education Week is under the sponsorship of four organizations—the National Education Association, the American Legion, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the Office of Education. Special emphasis is being placed on extending the observance to colleges and universities in addition to the primary and secondary schools. A wealth of suggestions and materials have been prepared to aid in making this an outstanding event. Address inquiries and orders to American Education Week, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, NW., Washington 6, D. C.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover Photograph Credit: State officers of the Future Teachers of America, with S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, are shown in the rose garden at the White House with President Dwight D. Eisenhower, and former President of the United States Herbert Hoover. Photograph by Wide World.

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Volume 37 Number 1

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.)

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

OVETA CULP HOBBY.....Secretary
SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL.....Commissioner of Education
WARD STEWART.....Assistant Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination
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)

The People's Schools*

by Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education,

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

IN spite of the shining successes of American education and the tremendous strides of progress it has made since the early days of the Plymouth Colony, we are faced with a number of major problems.

In the first place, we face a continuing shortage in school facilities. As you know, our primary and secondary schools are behind to the tune of more than 340,000 classrooms this year in spite of record numbers of new facilities recently built. Our colleges, too, face great needs in this area. Some observers would take courage in the fact that 10 to 12 billion dollars would solve the school facilities crisis for the moment. Nevertheless, because the need is a continuing rather than a static one, we should recognize the necessity to spend billions annually over a number of years.

Furthermore, we face the parallel and even more urgent need of providing instruction in these schools. The truth of the matter today is that we are simply not providing the teachers that we need. We are not providing them by many thousands. And the relationship of this situation to national well-being is, I think, well stated in these two quotations. The first is from testimony before the House Armed Services Committee in February 1951, as follows:

Those who have struggled with this manpower security problem recognize that technical schools, colleges, professional and graduate schools are almost wholly dependent for their proficiency upon the quality of preparation of students in the elementary and high schools of this country.

It is abundantly evident to them . . . that preservation of a flow of trained personnel necessary for our long-range national security requires as its first essential the preservation of strong programs of elementary and secondary education. . . . They, the teachers—elementary, secondary, and collegiate—provide the main line of defense for long range national security.

The second is from the book *Teachers for Our Times*, and I quote:

Teaching is indispensable to the preservation and improvement of any nation. Through teaching, knowledge is passed on from generation to generation, and its wider diffusion and more rapid advancement made possible. Through teaching, the powers of youth are drawn out and disciplined in practice. Through teaching, the values that characterize a culture's fate must lie. Through teaching, a people's capacity to meet change in ways that increase the national welfare is strengthened. In all civilized communities the task of teaching is chiefly entrusted to a company of experts. In the United States that company numbers approximately 1,000,000; and some 285,000 young men and women are preparing to enter the profession. It makes a difference who and what these teachers are. Social well-being and social advance depend in marked measure on their excellence. But who these teachers are, and what they are, turns directly upon the effectiveness of the arrangements that we make for their education. To improve teacher education is to improve teaching; to improve teaching is to improve the schools; to improve the schools is to strengthen the next generation; to strengthen the next generation is a social duty of the first magnitude.

A third serious problem facing the Nation is a distressing loss of trained manpower through dropouts from school and high school—not to mention those from college. The fact of the matter is that roughly half of our students drop out of school between the fifth grade and graduation from high school. Similarly, almost half our 4-year college students fail to graduate.

To go back for a moment to the problems in education which face us—I feel very strongly that they must be seen in the proper perspective of the overriding requirement today for better education than was provided young people of my generation. In my day, one could say of a student who could not master his course work, "Oh, send him back to the farm!" Today such a statement is ridiculous. Today the successful operation of a farm calls for a thorough and extensive knowledge, not only of agriculture, soil conservation, pest control, and animal health, but also of mechanics, agronomy, finance, and marketing, not to mention strength of body and mind

(*Continued on page 14*)

*Excerpt from an address delivered before the Association of Former Internes and Residents, Freedmen's Hospital, Howard University, Washington, D. C., June 3, 1954.

Educational Expenditures of the Federal Government

by Clayton D. Hutchins, Specialist in School Finance, Albert R. Munse, and Edna D. Booher, Research Assistants
Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE NATION'S concern for education in the United States is evident in the types of educational programs which are supported in whole or in part by Federal appropriations. A comprehensive report on the extent to which Congress appropriates funds for educational purposes would require a detailed analysis of the activities of almost all Federal departments, agencies, and offices. This report is not such a detailed analysis. However, some information of this nature has been assembled regularly by the Office of Education on a voluntary basis.

In this effort to provide information on Federal educational activities, the Office of Education has prepared and published biennial bulletins for more than 20 years. These statistics and discussions of Federal educational programs have been available for public use. A new publication in the series, *Federal Funds for Education, 1952–53 and 1953–54,* has just been completed and will be available for distribution within a short time. It reviews and summarizes Federal appropriations for educational purposes during the past 2 years for 56 of the more significant programs for which information was available. However, it cannot be considered comprehensive or complete since many believe there are approximately 300 separate educational enterprises of the various Federal offices which could be included in a report of this kind.

In preparing the report on *Federal Funds for Education* some questions arise on expenditures which should be reported. For some of the activities considered, Federal agencies have indicated they should not be reported as funds for education since the educational service is only a part of some more significant purpose such as improved public service, national defense, or improvement of international relationships. Difficulties such as these have influenced the reporting of Federal funds for education. Agencies of the Federal Government have been invited to participate but some have considered it inappropriate to submit expenditure figures and discussions of programs.

Purposes and Methods

As Federal activities in education were analyzed for this series of Office of Education publications, definite national purposes in supporting these educational activities, and the procedures and formulas used in distributing, allotting, or expending the funds, became evident. These *purposes* and *methods* enacted by Congress in past years are worthy of consideration in planning assistance that the Federal Government may want to continue or establish in the future.

In the analysis of *purposes,* most of the Federal programs of education can be classified and listed under one or more of the following reasons for supporting education:

1. To encourage and support educational programs that are essential or beneficial to national health, welfare, law enforcement, civic improvement, and security.

2. To provide educational and training services essential to the national defense but not the singular responsibility of any local community, State, or segment of the population.

3. To contribute to public education where there is a direct Federal responsibility, such as for children residing—

   a. On Federal properties

   b. In communities affected by Federal activities

   c. Where Federal ownership of property deprives local school authorities of normal tax revenues

   d. Where it appears reasonable to allocate a portion of the Federal income from mineral, forest, and grazing leases for purposes of local government.

4. To assist the States in the study of educational and school housing problems, created by unusually high birth rates and shifts in population, which demand efforts that are burdensome under these conditions.

5. To assist students, selected on the basis of tests and references, to receive scholarships for advanced training that will serve a national interest.

6. To assist underdeveloped areas of the world and to improve international relationships through the exchange of information and of students, teachers, professors, technicians, and leaders with those of other countries.

7. To promote the general welfare of the Nation through research in the physical and biological sciences that will develop new areas of learning and prepare more scientists to engage in research.

8. To maintain efficient governmental services and increase the effectiveness of the Federal service through in-service training.

The *methods* prescribed for the distribution or application of Federal funds to educational projects vary widely, as may be noted by reference to congressional acts and appropriations. These distribution plans variously specify that Federal funds be: (1) allotted on the basis of land areas, (2) distributed in proportion to population figures, (3) awarded to the States as flat grants, (4) given on condition that matching funds are

provided from State and local revenues, (5) provided as the cost of an educational program or of operating a school, (6) apportioned to meet a Federal obligation such as payments in lieu of taxes on federally owned property, (7) allocated as equalization aid to provide greater assistance to the financially weaker areas, (8) paid to cover the cost of tuition and of other educational expenses of individuals, (9) granted in accordance with contracts for services on research programs in various colleges, universities, and industries, or (10) distributed according to a combination of these methods.

Funds for 1952–53

Federal Funds, Bulletin 1954, No. 14, presents many figures on Federal expenditures for education for the 1953–54 school year, but summaries have been prepared only for 1952–53 since the reports for that year are more nearly complete. Where possible, this bulletin shows the amount of assistance given each State. However, some educational programs of the Federal offices cannot be assigned to any individual State, and their expenditures are reported in the table under "National and Other." Table 1 provides a general summary of Federal educational funds for the 1952–53 school year based upon data reported in the forthcoming issue of *Federal Funds for Education.*

Federal offices which expended or allotted the funds summarized in table 1 include the following:

Veterans Administration	$725,571,175
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	338,197,916
Department of Agriculture	177,092,943
Other Federal Departments and Agencies	140,010,670
Total	$1,380,872,704

The expenditure by the Veterans Administration for veterans' education and training is the largest single Federal program in education. The major portion of the expenditure reported for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is for the program of school assistance to the federally affected school districts. In the Department of Agriculture the largest expenditure program provides funds and commodities for school lunches. Among the offices grouped as "Other Federal Departments and Agencies," the largest single item is the expenditure by the Department of the Interior for the education of Indians in the United States and of natives in outlying parts of the Nation.

Expenditure Trends

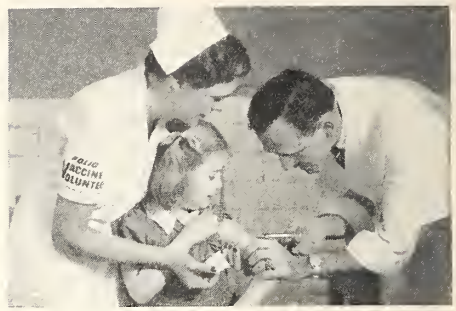
To indicate the trend through a number of years, table 2 lists expenditures at 2-year intervals during the past 10 years. Some of these expenditures appear constant over the years while others have increased or decreased. For veterans' education and training, a rapid rise and decline may be noted since the program is directly affected by the number of veterans participating in the educational benefits. In the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, assistance to schools in federally affected areas has increased rapidly since the Korean conflict. Federal funds for this assistance program are allocated

(Continued on page 5)

Table 1.—Summary of Federal Funds for Education in 1952–53, as Reported in Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 14

STATE	AMOUNT	STATE	AMOUNT	STATE	AMOUNT
1	2	1	2	1	2
Totol (1952–53)	$1,380,872,704.15	Michigon	$32,106,398.22	South Dokoto	$8,338,293.58
Alobomo	41,629,781.77	Minnesota	22,132,600.80	Tennessee	31,496,859.56
Arizono	9,028,241.99	Mississippi	32,109,413.96	Texos	73,270,905.64
Arkonsos	28,221,320.62	Missouri	35,603,318.11	Utoh	11,183,822.14
Colifornio	96,706,318.89	Montono	6,645,366.58	Vermont	2,768,715.58
Colorodo	15,690,528.12	Nebroska	14,447,881.01	Virginio	31,376,639.80
Connecticut	10,842,826.69	Nevodo	3,257,000.64	Woshington	14,971,332.94
Delowore	1,569,514.50	New Hompshire	3,132,709.59	West Virginio	11,098,895.88
Florido	32,947,766.65	New Jersey	17,485,384.80	Wisconsin	32,572,535.90
Georgio	49,794,630.51	New Mexico	9,272,413.27	Wyoming	3,384,249.95
Idaho	7,381,725.87	New York	73,443,641.03	District of Columbia	13,101,047.34
Illinois	44,359,481.53	North Corolina	40,149,179.81	Alosko	5,488,033.66
Indiono	23,460,698.16	North Dokoto	9,474,780.86	Canal Zone	2,695,215.00
Iowa	23,399,756.55	Ohio	37,271,893.50	Hawaii	3,948,438.15
Konsas	16,017,669.96	Oklohomo	28,174,419.95	Puerto Rico	6,700,317.88
Kentucky	24,247,857.08	Oregon	11,407,453.24	Virgin Islands	143,640.00
Louisiono	33,569,609.74	Pennsylvonio	54,369,288.70	U. S. Possessions	6,266,833.00
Maine	3,699,639.44	Rhode Islond	4,861,984.78	National ond Other	159,010,564.22
Morylond	16,351,444.83	South Corolino	26,670,708.22	Unollotted	20,857.66
Mossochusetts	22,100,856.30				

Pupils Pioneer Against Polio



by Marian V. Miller, Health Educator, The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis

LAST SPRING public health and public education joined forces to administer the polio vaccine trial in some 14,000 of the Nation's schools. More than 600,000 children in selected counties of 44 States received injections, and records were kept on upwards of a million and a half. Now the results of this field study are hopefully awaited by everyone. The findings will be known sometime after the 1954 polio season is over, when scientific evaluation of the vaccine has been completed.

In the meantime, other aspects of the trial can be studied. For instance, what has it taught in terms of health education? And what factors were important in gaining public acceptance of this new adventure in medicine?

First of all, what did it mean to the children? Thousands of people helped produce this medical drama, but the youngsters were the actors, and they played their parts well. Primary grade children are accustomed to "shots" and few put up any resistance. In the school clinics they vied with each other in being brave. What was more unusual was their interest in the significance of the trial. These little ones understood that the injections might keep them—and eventually all children—from getting crippling polio. And they seemed to sense the historic importance of this event. "We're pioneers in knowledge," said one New York City moppet, wiser than her years. The idea that they were "polio pioneers" soon caught on.

The fact that the children were well prepared reflects credit on parents and teachers who seized the opportunity for health education at a time when motivation was high. Teachers realized that schools had a logical part to play in making the field trial an educational experience that would mold attitudes and influence behavior for better health. Across the country the majority of parents of eligible children wanted their youngsters included. Their confidence and hope did much to reassure the children. who were proud to be selected for the trial.

All communication media were used to prepare the public in advance of the vaccine test. Newspapers, magazines, radio, and television presented a vast amount of information which in nearly every instance was complete and accurate. Printed materials furnished by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis were issued to individual parents by the schools. National interest mounted high as "V–Day" approached.

Even more important were the preparations made by each community. Public health and school officials met with parent groups to answer questions and explain the organization of the trial. A spirit of enthusiasm and confidence pervaded these meetings and resulted in community-wide assistance from medical societies, nursing organizations, and lay groups. Local health officials were responsible for conducting the tests with the assistance of volunteer doctors and nurses. Other volunteers, many of them mothers, were recruited by National Foundation chapters to help staff the school clinics and to keep all-important records.

School administrators and teachers performed a tremendous amount of work in making the trial run smoothly. They saw their responsibility as three-fold:

1. To instruct the children so that they might understand something of the nature of the trial and their part in it.

2. To help promote satisfactory understandings and attitudes among parents.

3. To cooperate with official and non-official community agencies in the actual administration of the trial.

Although teachers assumed many duties—notably record-keeping—their major job was preparing the children. Children first learned about the tests at home, but what happened in the classroom before the inoculations took place had a significant influence on their attitudes and behavior. These very young children could not grasp detailed or technical information, but teachers used their resourcefulness and skill to present the subject in different ways. Their approach to this problem was an interesting demonstration of the variety possible in educational methods.

Some teachers, using an approach based on the idea of "the less said, the better," presented the trial in a matter-of-fact way without giving it too much importance. Others felt that children should understand the test and its implications as completely as possible. The latter group carefully planned experiences which were related to understandings of elementary health, social

studies, and history. Some teachers found stories and pictures to illustrate the main points. Children were especially interested in newspaper photos of boys and girls participating in the earliest vaccine test.

Many teachers used the National Foundation filmstrip "Bob and Barbara" as a basis for talking about the polio shots. This simple cartoon story explains how two children learn about the new vaccination for polio. An accompanying Teacher's Guide gives basic scientific information and teaching suggestions.

Nearly everywhere children wanted to talk about the trial in the classroom. In these discussions teachers correlated the polio vaccination with other protective shots children had received. By talking it through, little pupils had a chance to resolve their fears. The idea that they were polio pioneers—the first boys and girls anywhere in the world to have polio shots—appealed to the children. They especially looked forward to the award of a "Polio Pioneer" button.

The timing of the classroom experience was important, too, and again there were differences. Most teachers felt the children shouldn't be aware of the vaccination program too soon, or some might develop anxieties. A few teachers did not tell the youngsters anything until just before they went to the clinic. The majority, however, timed the discussion 1 or 2 days before the "shots."

With the completion of this huge project, a new chapter has been written in the history of volunteer cooperation for the solution of a health problem. Not everyone could help with the vaccine study, but everyone who contributed to the March of Dimes helped make it possible. The estimated cost of $7,500,000 is a serious drain on the resources of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, but the American people do not count costs when the lives and health of children are at stake.

Whatever the results of the vaccine study, a giant step has been taken toward ultimate control of paralytic polio. To complete the conquest of this disease and to care for polio patients will take more millions of dollars. There is no doubt that people everywhere will continue to give what is needed to wipe out this threat to society's children.

Educational Expenditures

(*Continued from page 3*)

for both current operating expenses and for the construction of new school buildings.

Federal Funds for Education, 1952–53 and 1953–54,[1] the new bulletin in this series, provides a substantial amount of information on Federal expenditures for educational services, but an even more comprehensive survey may be expected if Congress approves the preparation of an annual report on all Federal expenditures for all classroom situations.

[1] This Office of Education publication, *Federal Funds for Education, 1952–53 and 1953–54*, Bulletin 1954, No. 14, Price 35 cents, may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Table 2.—Federal Funds for 17 Educational Programs, 1944–45 to 1952–53

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS	Amounts for designated school years				
	1944–45	1946–47	1948–49	1950–51	1952–53
1	2	3	4	5	6
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE					
Land-Grant Colleges	$5,030,000	$5,030,000	$5,030,000	$5,030,000	$5,030,000
Vocational Education	21,768,122	21,768,122	27,127,882	27,127,882	25,811,591
School Assistance in Federally-Affected Areas	[1] 13,812,029	[1] 6,646,340	5,853,862	[2] 16,727,305	[2] 200,083,820
Columbia Institution for the Deaf	204,100	247,800	320,500	368,200	413,000
American Printing House for the Blind	125,000	125,000	125,000	125,000	185,000
Howard University	908,000	3,035,414	3,301,700	4,262,000	4,047,000
Vocational Rehabilitation	7,135,441	14,188,933	18,215,683	21,001,388	22,947,581
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE					
Agricultural Experiment Stations	7,001,207	7,206,208	9,687,482	11,016,208	11,041,208
Agricultural Extension Work	22,996,840	27,322,824	30,437,885	32,141,338	32,117,059
School Lunch Funds and Commodities	57,123,726	77,597,027	94,791,575	118,091,599	133,679,476
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR					
Education of Indians in the United States	9,389,560	13,050,577	18,195,241	24,690,051	28,902,660
Education of Natives in Alaska	1,444,250	1,459,485	1,474,738	2,427,537	2,840,344
Education in the Virgin Islands	14,030	14,271	10,598	12,250	13,368
OTHER DEPARTMENTS					
Veterans' Education and Training	17,854,056	2,339,681,704	3,035,382,120	2,120,215,751	725,571,175
Education of Merchant Marine Personnel	64,399,352	10,112,081	7,654,991	5,292,414	4,023,883
Education of Coast Guard Personnel	2,980,583	1,548,856	1,983,357	1,800,000	2,565,000
District of Columbia Public Schools	13,620,739	17,968,856	25,168,992	28,248,468	28,276,398

[1] Figures do not include funds allotted prior to 1947 to Federally-affected districts for the construction of school buildings by the Federal Works Agency.

[2] Figures in columns 5 and 6 include $2,955,566 disbursed for schoolhouse construction in 1950–51 and $134,089,151 in 1952–53, respectively.

Vital Statistics of American Education: 1954-1960

ENROLLMENT TRENDS

TEACHER SHORTAGES

ANNUAL EXPENDITURES

by Emery M. Foster, Head Reports and Analysis Unit, and Carol Joy Hobson, Research Assistant, Research and Statistical Standards Section, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Enrollments

The estimated increase of 1,692,000 pupils in elementary and secondary public and nonpublic enrollments in 1954–55 over 1953–54 is the largest single year increase recorded and is about 50,000 greater than the increase last fall. The 1,473,000 increase in elementary pupils is 5.6 percent above last fall, and the 219,000 increase in secondary pupils is 3.0 percent above last fall. As the high birth rates of recent years affect the later high school grades, the increase in the number of elementary pupils will tend to lessen and the increase in the number of high school pupils to grow. The percentage of increase will become more nearly the same. The highest increases in the secondary school enrollments may come in 1958–59.

The grand total enrollment on all levels of about 38,000,000 for the entire school year 1954–55 is 23.4 percent of the estimated total population of 162,187,000 on June 1, 1954. The enrollment last year was 23.1 percent of the total population.

Teachers

The total public and nonpublic elementary and secondary school instructional staff this fall numbers about 1,222,000. The college faculty includes about 269,500 different individuals who make up the equal of approximately 218,400 full-time positions. This makes a total instructional staff on the elementary, secondary, and higher levels of about 1,500,000 different people.

The problem of the shortage of teachers this fall is as serious as ever. The increase of 1,473,000 elementary school pupils and 219,000 secondary school pupils—at 30 pupils per elementary teacher and 25 pupils per high school teacher—demands 49,100 new elementary teachers and 8,800 new high school teachers *to meet the needs for only the additional pupils* during the 1954–55 school year.

A normal annual teacher turnover of 10 percent for retirements, deaths, marriages, and those who leave the profession for other work calls for about 72,000 elementary teachers and 37,000 high school teachers. The demand for new teachers caused by the increase in enrollment, the need for replacements to take care of the normal annual turnover, and the replacement of emergency teachers who have not qualified for standard certificates calls for a total of 245,000 more qualified teachers than were on the teaching staff last year. About 25,000 of these come from among those emergency teachers who can qualify for standard certificates and 95,000 come from among the new teachers graduated from our colleges and universities, providing they all enter teaching. The remaining 124,000 needed for elementary schools (see table 4) must be made up from among former teachers returning to the profession or anyone else willing to teach on an emergency certificate.

This shortage of qualified teachers who are willing to teach is greater than the number of graduates from our teacher training programs during an entire year, and it is equal to more than 1 in every 8 teachers now employed in the elementary schools. Furthermore, the figure of 124,000 represents a shortage which does not include any allowance for teachers needed to reduce overcrowding or to permit enrichment of the curriculum.

The seriousness of the teacher shortage situation is shown (1) in table 2, by the constant addition of from approximately 1,500,000 to 1,700,000 pupils each year on top of a similar addition the year before; (2) in table 4 by the 10 percent loss by turnover each year due to death, retirement, marriage, and leaving for work in other fields: and (3) by the facts revealed in the 1954 Teacher Supply and Demand Report of the National Education Association that only about two-thirds of the persons who are trained for teaching in our colleges each year, enter into teaching when they leave college. This means that we must train 3 people for teaching for every 2 that will become teachers. With a 10-percent annual turnover of more than 100,000 teachers that must be replaced, even when there is no additional enrollment, this means training 50,000 persons to teach who under present conditions will not enter teaching when they graduate.

Expenditures

The present grand total expenditure for public and nonpublic education, kindergarten through college, including current expense, capital outlay, and interest for 1954–55, is estimated at $13,700,000,000.

An average addition to the elementary and secondary school system of over 1,550,000 pupils each year will mean an increase of about $400,000,000 each year in the total current expenditures to handle only the additional pupils. A modest increase of $10 per year in current expenditures per pupil to cover increases in teachers' salaries, increases in costs, and expansion of services will add about $250,000,000 to the school budget each year. This means that we must expect an addition of at least $650,000,000 to our elementary and secondary school current expenditures each year through 1959–60. For the expanding school enrollment of approximately 1,550,000 more pupils annually, over 50,000 new schoolrooms must be added each year through 1960. The expenditure of approximately $1,800,000,000 annually for new grounds, buildings, and equipment must be continued each year through 1960 *to ac-*

Table 1.—Office of Education Estimates of Enrollments for 1954–55 as Compared With Those for 1953–54

SCHOOL	Year	
	1954–55	1953–54
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (including kindergortens)		
Public	24,091,500	22,801,400
Privote and porochiol	3,506,200	3,325,400
Residentiol schools for exceptionol children	65,000	65,000
Model and practice schools in teacher training institutions	38,300	37,900
Federol schools for Indians	27,400	27,500
Federal schools under P. L. 874 [1]	9,600	7,800
Total elementory	27,738,000	26,265,000
SECONDARY SCHOOLS		
Public	6,582,300	6,388,000
Private and porochial	774,800	751,200
Residentiol schools for exceptional children	11,100	11,100
Model ond practice schools in teocher troining institutions and preporotory deportments of colleges	40,500	40,000
Federol schools for Indians [2]	12,300	11,800
Federol schools under P. L. 874 [1]	1,000	900
Totol secondary	7,422,000	7,203,000
HIGHER EDUCATION		
Universities, colleges, professionol schools, including junior colleges ond normol schools	2,533,000	2,444,000
Totol higher educotion	2,533,000	2,444,000
OTHER SCHOOLS		
Privote commerciol schools	144,000	131,000
Nurse training schools (not offilioted with colleges and universities)	69,500	71,900
Totol other schools	213,500	202,900
GRAND TOTALS	37,906,500	36,114,900

[1] Includes only "schools operated on post by o Federol agency."
[2] Includes Indions in "Vocotionol training, including Veterans."

NOTE. These estimotes include enrollments for the *entire school or college year;* they ore not restricted to September enrollments olone.

commodate only the additional pupils. This is about the same as the total amount spent in 1953–54 for these items. It makes no provision for needed replacements of about 20,000 rooms a year nor does it reduce the backlog of about 370,000 rooms now needed to properly house the present students.

In order to wipe out the backlog of 370,000 rooms in 5 years, to keep up with the needed replacements of 20,000 rooms a year, and to provide 50,000 rooms for the additional 1,550,000 pupils annually, we should build 144,000 rooms each year from 1954–55 to 1959–60 at an annual cost of about $5,750,000,000 and a total cost of about $28.000.000,000.

(*More tables on page 15*)

Table 2.—Projection of Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment, Public and Nonpublic, and Annual Increase, 1953–54 to 1959–60

SCHOOL YEAR	Totol enrollment	
	Totol number of pupils	Increose over preceding yeor
1953–54	33, 468, 000	.....
1954–55	35, 160, 000	1, 692, 000
1955–56	36, 718, 000	1, 558, 000
1956–57	38, 237, 000	1, 519, 000
1957–58	39, 756, 000	1, 519, 000
1958–59	41, 330, 000	1, 574, 000
1959–60	42, 818, 000	1, 488, 000
Totol increase 1953–54 to 1959–60	.....	9, 350, 000
Averoge onnuol increose	.....	1, 558, 000

NOTE. Projections mode by Emery M. Foster ond Corol Joy Hobson, Reports ond Anolysis Unit. They ore bosed on the inter-relotionships of such foctors os number born, percent entering school, grode-to-grode-retention rotes, percent in privote schools, etc.

Planning and Designing for Functional Operation and Economy

Multipurpose Rooms in Elementary Schools

by James L. Taylor, Specialist for Planning School Buildings, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Edu

UNPRECEDENTED DEMANDS for an enormous school building program are causing superintendents, school boards, and school plant specialists to search as never before for plans, designs, and materials which will make school plants more functional and economical. One of the most popular means for meeting the new demands for functional and economical planning in elementary schools is to include multipurpose rooms in lieu of separate auditoriums, gymnasiums, and cafeterias. The multipurpose room seems to offer a solution to the difficulty school officials so often encounter in trying to justify the expenditure of capital outlay funds for large, single-purpose rooms which are not used to maximum efficiency.

The Office of Education, in response to many suggestions from school officials of State educational agencies and local schools, has made a study of multipurpose rooms and has published its findings in a brochure entitled *Planning and Designing the Multipurpose Room in Elementary Schools.*

The term multipurpose room, as used in the study, refers to a type of general-use room (utilized by various groups) designed to accommodate two or more activities such as assembly, physical education, lunch, music, clubs, audio-visual education, or library. This definition excludes large, general-use rooms such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, and cafeterias.

More than 90 percent of the school officials and teachers responding to a field questionnaire state that a multipurpose room, functionally planned and efficiently administered, aids instruction, encourages community participation, enriches the program, and saves public funds.

In considering a multipurpose room, the planning committee should make a thorough study of the program of activities to be housed in it. The study should reveal not only the names and natures of the various activities but also the priority of each in terms of pupil-hours per week. When such information is included in the educational requirements, it will guide the designer in producing a functional facility.

The Office of Education presents this information on the multipurpose school simultaneously with the issuance of its publication titled, "Planning and Designing the Multipurpose Room in Elementary Schools." In requesting it, ask for Special Publication No. 3. The price is 35 cents. Other publications in this series, developed with the assistance of teachers, school administrators, and architects, are: Designing Elementary Classrooms, Special Publication No. 1, price 35 cents, and Good and Bad School Plants, Special Publication No. 2, price 50 cents. Order the series from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

The questionnaire responses dealing with the programs held in multipurpose rooms rank activities on the basis of pupil-hours per week in the following order:

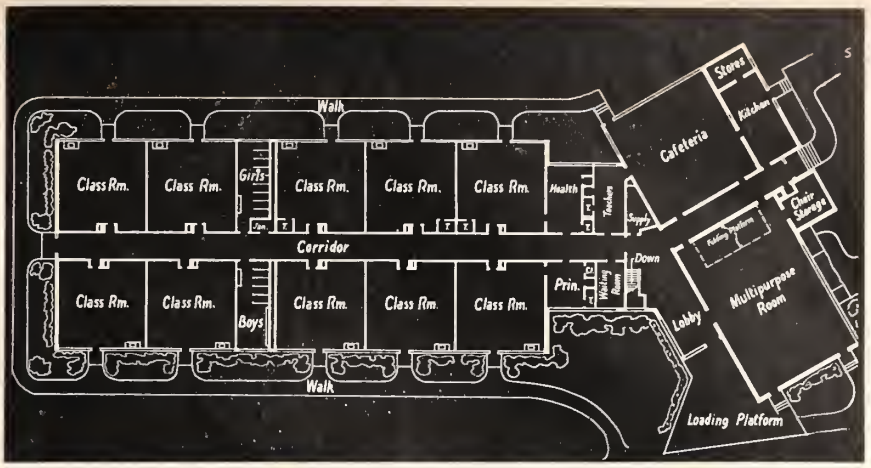
1. School lunch
2. Physical education
3. Assembly
4. Music
5. Community meetings
6. Dramatics
7. Library

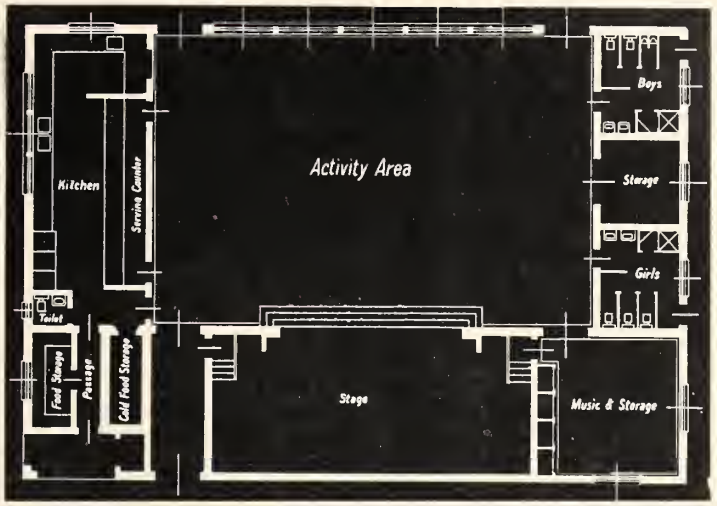
Similar information concerning the relative importance of the various activities conducted in their own schools is needed by local officials in order to plan a functional multipurpose room for a specific situation.

Characteristics of such rooms vary in different schools and communities. Their design should be determined by the school curriculum, the enrollment, the sizes and types of regular classrooms, the number and kind of general-use rooms planned or already available, the existing outdoor play area, and the community activities. There is no satisfactory "stock plan" which may be used successfully in all schools.

The multipurpose room should be easily adapted to various uses and purposes. Good planning and designing of storage space to fit movable or stackable furniture will facilitate the work of changing the function of the room. The need for such planning and designing cannot be overemphasized.

The total area of the multipurpose room, including auxiliary areas, is usually not as large as that of a gymnasium or auditorium. Most of the schools reporting indicate that the total area ranges from 2,400 to 6,000 square feet.





Good natural lighting adds to the cheerfulness of the atmosphere in a multipurpose room. Children in the upper left picture are enjoying folk dancing in a physical education activity. The location of the multipurpose room at the end of a wing as indicated in the above building floor plan provides convenience for both school and community use. The multipurpose room as indicated in the floor plan at the left is in fact a suite of rooms. Its utilization should be efficient since it is designed for physical education, lunch, and assembly.

The type of auxiliary facilities needed in the multipurpose room—such as stage, kitchen, dressing rooms, storage compartments, toilets, and shower rooms—will be determined by the program of activities of both the school and the community. The multipurpose room should be made attractive and functional. Floors must be durable, resilient, and easy to clean and repair. Walls should be finished with nonabrasive materials and painted with attractive pastel colors. Ceilings ought to be finished with sound-absorbing tile.

The primary considerations in the exact location of the multipurpose room within an elementary school building are: (1) convenient entrances and exits for both pupils and patrons, (2) access to service facilities, and (3) avoidance of disturbing noises from certain activities.

Since the multipurpose room is by its very nature a cooperative undertaking, there should be included among its planners not only school administrators but also teachers, pupils, and lay citizens. It will be helpful for them to examine several sample floor plans showing various arrangements of facilities in multipurpose rooms and of their locations in school buildings. The group may also profit by visiting schools having such rooms in nearby communities to gain firsthand reactions from the people who use them.

Building Habits and Attitudes for Safety Throughout the Grades

Occupational Safety and the Schools

by Henry H. Armsby, Member of the President's Conference on Occupational Safety and Chief for Engineering Education, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

SAFETY, at work, at play, at school, on the street, or in the home, depends in large measure on proper mental attitudes. Our educational institutions, from the grade school to the graduate school, can and should play a vital role in the development of these attitudes. The schools and colleges of the nation are being asked by the President's Conference on Occupational Safety to participate actively in a campaign to reduce the number and severity of accidents which exact each year a terrible national toll of death, disablement, and expense, nearly all of which is the result of ignorance, indifference, or carelessness. This article deals with that part of the report of the Conference's Committee on Education which applies to elementary and secondary schools.[1]

The President's Conference on Occupational Safety

This Conference was established by President Truman in 1948 as "The President's Conference on Industrial Safety," and was continued by President Eisenhower under its current name which implies its broadened base of interest and activity. Its annual meetings are attended by approximately one thousand leaders of business, labor, Government (National, State and Local), insurance companies, educational groups, and private safety organizations from all parts of the nation.

A general coordinating committee and seven nation-wide committees carry on the activities of the Conference between its meetings and submit reports for consideration by the full conference. The Committee on Education is divided into four subcommittees: (a) Schools, (b) Labor, (c) Public Agencies, and (d) Employer and Employee Associations. Printed reports of earlier conferences have been issued by the Department of Labor, and a report of the 1954 meeting is in preparation.

The subcommittee on schools points out that the American school system is the best organized agency to reach effectively the largest percentage of the population and that the schools have a dual responsibility in Safety Education. First, they must provide and maintain a safe environment as a basis for accident-free operation and as an example of safe working conditions. Second, they have a responsibility for safety instruction, preferably developed as an integral part of many subjects rather than as a distinct and separate subject within itself. The subcommittee offers specific suggestions as to desirable programs in elementary and secondary schools.

Elementary Schools

Even in the early grades it is possible to develop an understanding of safety principles and a general mental attitude of the individual's responsibility for his own safety and for avoiding actions which unnecessarily expose others to injury. Any understanding of accident prevention in industry must be built upon a strong foundation of general safety knowledge gained to a considerable extent through impressions made in the elementary schools. An understanding of the fact that accidents are usually caused, rather than being a matter of chance, and a sense of personal responsibility for the safety of himself and others can be conveyed to the pupil in each grade in a variety of subjects.

In a few schools, elementary students begin to use simple hand tools. In these cases, they should be instructed at the outset as to their proper use, storage, and perhaps even maintenance. Learning the principles of safety with these simple tools can form a good foundation for more advanced instruction in later courses in shops and laboratories. It is recommended that educators integrate into all appropriate courses suitable references to accidents and their prevention, as well as their effect on the individual, the family, the community, and the Nation. The cumulative effect of such efforts will be more effective than attempting to set up separate programs of instruction in safety for its own sake. Educators should seek to develop in the pupil an understanding that a safe environment is not in any sense unusual, but proper, and that unsafe conditions should be considered unusual and deserve attention.

Secondary Schools

In the secondary school the general implications of a safe environment become more intensive as the pupils become more aware of their surroundings and more capable of evaluating them. Even at this early stage, they will probably discredit instruction in accident prevention if classrooms, playground, shops, etc., are themselves not safe. In the shops, laboratories, industrial arts courses, and other activities of the secondary school, industrial activities are often closely simulated. Habits formed by the student during this period will persist as he moves on into industry. School authorities have a responsibility for providing safe work places where students may receive instruction with a minimum exposure to hazards and where they may learn the basic factors of safety. It cannot be expected that safe workers will develop from shops and laboratories which are themselves hazardous working places.

A close, cooperative working arrangement between industries and the schools is needed in order that the schools may be kept abreast of recent developments in var-

(Continued on page 15)

[1] Recommendations concerning colleges and universities are reported in the September 1954 issue of HIGHER EDUCATION, also published by the Office of Education.

Practical Nurse Training Comes of Age

by Louise Moore, Specialist, Trade and Industrial Education for Girls and Women, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE FIRST SCHOOL for training practical nurses to be financed from public educational funds was organized in 1919 by Miss Elizabeth Fish, Principal of the Girls' Vocational High School in Minneapolis, Minn . The City Board of Education paid for teaching materials and services, while the Women's Christian Association furnished the hospital which was set up for chronically ill patients. Originally this training covered a 6-month period, but it was increased in 1935 to 9 months. At that time, and until 1942, the Franklin Hospital as well as the Women's Christian Association Hospital was used to provide clinical experience. An increase in the length of the course to 12 months and various changes in the clinical training have been made since that date.

After a lapse of 20 years, the second school for practical nurse training under public educational authorities was opened in Rochester, N. Y., in February 1939, largely as the result of efforts of the home economics education staff. The cooperating hospital in Rochester assigned a registered nurse as a teacher-supervisor of the clinical work to hold classes and be responsible for rotation of students during their clinical training. At first, the length of the course was 17 months—5 months in school, 6 months at the hospital, 5 months of supervised home experience, and 1 month of vacation. Now, however, the period of home experience is omitted, and the course is 12 months in length.

In Detroit, Mich., in 1913, the Home Nursing Association arranged for a branch called the Bureau for Organizing Care of the Sick in Homes which was financed first by the Thomas Thompson Fund of Boston and later by the Detroit Community Chest. In 1937 the course was increased to 12 weeks and the Detroit Board of Education agreed to finance the cost. The State Board of Vocational Education allocated Federal funds also for this purpose. The building, equipment, and maintenance were supplied by the Detroit Council on Community Nursing which provided a registered nurse to supervise the students during 6 months of practice. By 1946 the length of the course had been set at 1 year, with provision for preclinical and clinical training.

Present Situation

The definition approved in January 1954 by the Board of Directors of the National League for Nursing states: "A practical nurse is a person prepared to care for the sick in a team relationship with registered professional nurses in hospitals and other institutions, public health agencies, and industries, and also as a private practitioner in the homes of selected convalescent, subacutely, and chronically ill patients. She gives household assistance, when such assistance is necessary to the patient's health and well being. A practical nurse works only under the direct orders of a licensed physician or under the supervision of a registered professional nurse."

The practical nurse, formerly trained largely for duty in homes, is now used extensively in hospitals where she is part of a nursing team. This concept of a nursing team evolved about 1948. It grew out of the demand for patient-centered care in which a variety of needs could be met by a group of persons working under the supervision of a professional nurse. As head of the team this professional nurse assigns duties to the other members of the group according to the patient's degree of illness and his requirements for more or less expert care.

The number of practical nurses and attendants in hospitals in 1951 was 167,977. By 1952 the number had increased to 184,872. The use of practical nurses in hospitals has necessitated an extension of their training to include many more areas than in earlier years, and at present a committee of the National League for Nursing is considering techniques in all of the areas they recommend for inclusion in such training.

Few data are available about the number of practical nurses providing private care in homes. Apparently the proportion of practical nurses so employed has decreased in recent years, since the growth in hospitalization insurance has given impetus to the care of illness in hospitals rather than at home and since the increase in the number of nursing homes has diminished the number of chronically ill cared for by their own families. The increasing cost of practical nursing may also be a factor. During 1948 the number of nonprofessional registrants placed in homes by the registries constituted 78.2 percent of the total number placed. In 1951 this dropped to 61.7 percent and in 1952 to 56.6 percent.

Current Training

Changes in the duties of practical nurses have meant changes in the length of the course. The 8 weeks considered sufficient for training in 1897 have been extended to a full year in most schools, with one-third of the time devoted to classroom work and two-thirds to clinical experience in hospitals. During the latter period at least 4 hours a week are usually scheduled for organized class instruction related to the ward experience. The present tendency is to restrict time devoted to training in housekeeping skills because the practical nurse is giving less household service in homes and also because many students are mature women who already have experience in homemaking. The report on an Office of Education questionnaire dated June 1, 1953, indicates that 32 years was the average age of students in practical nurse training classes under public supervision and control in 1952.

Vocational educators have been increas-

ingly interested in practical nurse training in public schools. By the end of 1943 such training was offered by the public schools in 14 cities located in 6 States—8 in Michigan, 2 in New Jersey, 1 in New York, 1 in Minnesota, 1 in Washington, and 1 in Connecticut. Courses were worked out to follow the pattern of vocational training in the fields of trade and industrial education and of home economics. Ten years later, in April 1954, there were 379 schools teaching practical nursing. Of these, 248 were under the supervision of vocational schools, junior colleges, or publicly supported universities, and 131 were under other auspices such as hospitals, organizations like the YWCA, or privately endowed colleges. The number of localities with such training facilities was 313. Only three States offered no training in the field—Maine, New Hampshire, and Wyoming.

Trends

In 1944 representatives of the National Association for Practical Nurse Education approached the Office of Education, then in the Federal Security Agency, suggesting the need for an analysis of the practical nurse occupation. The Office called a meeting of representatives of various organizations interested in the subject. As a result of the recommendations of this group, a representative working committee was chosen to develop an analysis of practical nursing. Work by this committee continued until 1947 when the *Analysis of Practical Nursing* was published by the U. S. Government Printing Office. This publication lists the duties usually performed by the practical nurse and the information necessary for the intelligent performance of her duties. Also included are detailed suggestions about the selection and use of advisory committees and about the qualifications for teachers and students. In 1950 a committee with substantially the same membership finished their preparation of a *Curriculum Guide* which suggests how the *Analysis* may best be used by schools and includes a bibliography and a list of equipment and supplies needed by a school. This pamphlet also was published by the U. S. Government Printing Office, and both have had wide acceptance. (By April 1954, in addition to several thousand copies distributed free, the Government Printing Office had sold 10,528 copies of the *Analysis* and 4,382 copies of the *Curriculum*.)

The U. S. Public Health Service, which had been interested in the work on the *Analysis* and the *Curriculum*, gave further assistance to the promotion of practical nurse training by detailing a professional nurse to the Office of Education for a period of three and one-half years beginning in November 1949. Devoting full time to this work, the Nurse-Specialist assisted many States in organizing and improving their training by helping with curriculum development and teacher training, by gathering statistics, and by making reports on progress in the schools.

Organizations

Among the most active groups helping to advance training for practical nurses are the professional nursing organizations, particularly the National League for Nursing and the American Nurses' Association—and their predecessor associations. Members of these organizations have served on local and national advisory committees and have assisted in developing courses of study and tests. Hospital and medical associations have given advice and help, and cooperating hospitals have opened their doors for the necessary clinical training of students. The National Federation of Licensed Practical Nurses, organized in 1949, is active in promoting training and in helping practical nurses to realize the importance of their contribution to national health. The National Association for Practical Nurse Education, formed in 1941 and incorporated in 1943, has furthered the organization of practical nurse training and is prepared to accredit courses which meet their standards in States without licensure and also to accredit schools which may desire such service in States with licensure. A committee of the National League for Nursing continues its efforts to further training, not only for practical nurses but for others of the nonprofessional group such as nursing aides.

In 1951 the Division of Nursing of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Mich., offered approximately $690,000 to the State departments of education in five southern States for the purpose of furthering practical nurse training under public school auspices. The grant, made for a 3 year period, was accepted by the States chosen—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, and Mississippi. One condition of the grant was that a supervisor of practical nursing be appointed in each State to coordinate the work in the various training centers. Provision was made for conferences, for teacher training, and for the participation of the State boards for vocational education in all activities. Each State developed its own pattern of training to meet its needs. Each State also agreed to finance part of the cost of the program and to be prepared to underwrite all costs at the end of the period.

Licensure of practical nurses, which brings recognition of the occupation and standards for training, has proceeded rapidly during the past 10 years. In 1944 only 15 States had such laws, but by 1954 the only States or Territories without licensure were Colorado, Delaware, Nebraska, Ohio, West Virginia, Wyoming, and the District of Columbia. The usual period specified for training is 1 year, provision is made for preparatory and for clinical work, and arrangements are outlined for accreditation of schools.

The Future

In the 35 years since Miss Fish organized the first class for training practical nurses in a public school, the practical nurse has proved her value in all parts of the nation. The training, widespread as it now is, seems far from adequate to meet the developing needs of the public for the type of service which the practical nurse is prepared to render. It is inevitable that there will continue to be increases in the number of classes and improvement in the teaching.

The two Office of Education Publications referred to in this article are Practical Nursing: An Analysis of the Practical Nurse Occupation with Suggestions for the Organization of Training Programs, Miscellaneous No. 8, 1947, Price 75 cents, and Practical Nursing Curriculum: Suggestions for Developing a Program of Instruction Based Upon the Analysis of the Practical Nurse Occupation, Miscellaneous No. 11, 1950, Price 65 cents. Both publications may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Congressional Action To Promote the Cause of Education

Recognizing the many educational problems with which this country is faced, the President, in his State of the Union and Budget Messages, called for the adoption of several proposals dealing with education. Among them were three of general interest to educators which were passed by the Eighty-third Congress and which became public laws when the President signed them on July 26, 1954.

Public Law 530

This act to provide for a White House Conference on Education authorizes appropriations to enable the President to hold a conference "broadly representative of educators and other interested citizens from all parts of the Nation . . . to consider and report to the President on significant and pressing problems in the field of Education." The law also provides that, prior to the White House Conference, educators and other interested citizens in each State shall meet "to discuss educational problems in the State and make recommendations for appropriate action to be taken at local, State, and Federal levels. . . ."

Public law 530 authorized the appropriation of $1,000,000. In considering the supplemental appropriations to be made for the fiscal year 1955, the Senate recommended the appropriation of this amount, but the House disagreed. The final Supplemental Appropriations Bill, 1955 provided the sum of $900,000, of which $700,000 shall be used as grants for State conferences. It also provided that "none of the funds granted to any State may be used to compensate any person for their personal services" and that "a Conference Director may be appointed by the Secretary at a salary of not to exceed $12,500 per annum."

Public Law 531

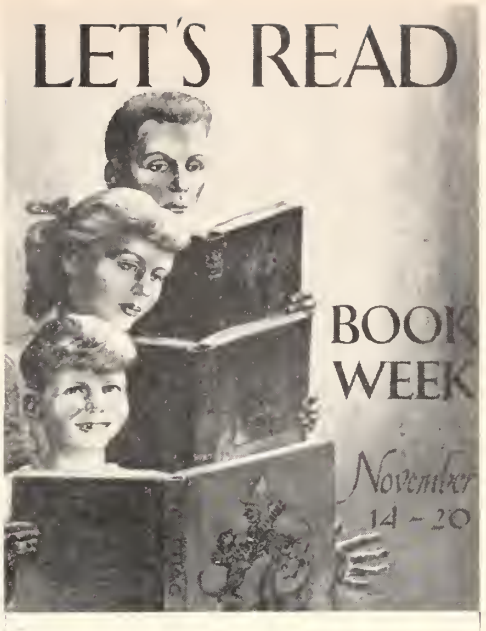
This act to authorize cooperative research in education permits the Commissioner of Education "to enter into contracts or jointly financed cooperative arrangements with universities and colleges and State educational agencies for the conduct of research, surveys, and demonstrations in the field of education." The law also requires that no arrangements be entered into "until the Commissioner of Education has obtained the advice and recommendations of educational research specialists who are competent to evaluate the proposals. . . ."

The language of this law authorized the annual appropriation of "such sums as Congress determines to be necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act." However, neither the House nor the Senate recommended the appropriation of any funds, and none are included for it in the final Supplemental Appropriations Bill, 1955.

Public Law 532

This act to establish a National Advisory Committee on Education establishes in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare a National Advisory Committee on Education. The Committee "shall be composed of nine members appointed without regard to civil-service laws by the Secretary from among individuals who are not otherwise in office under or in the employ of the Federal Government, a majority of whom shall be other than professional educators. . . ." The group, which will meet at least three times each year at the call of the Secretary, shall "recommend to the Secretary the initiation of studies of national concern in the field of education," propose appropriate action indicated by such studies, and advise on the progress being made in carrying out its recommendations. Consultants may be appointed to assist in making these studies. Members of the Committee will serve without compensation but will receive per diem and travel allowances while attending meetings.

In considering supplemental appropriations for implementing this law, the House did not recommend any funds, but the Senate specified the amount of $100,000. The sum finally agreed upon and authorized in the Supplemental Appropriation Bill, 1955 is $25,000.



NATIONAL BOOK WEEK NOVEMBER 14-20

An outstanding fall event for children, parents, and all groups concerned with young people is the annual celebration of National Book Week. The 1954 slogan is "Let's Read." Both school and public libraries across the country plan numerous activities to focus attention on the wonderful world of books for young people, and the Children's Book Council prepares a variety of materials to interest children of all ages. Write the Council at 50 West 53d Street, New York 19, N. Y., for a free 1954 *Manual of Book Week Aids.*

Secretary Mitchell Speaks to Youth

An Open Letter From Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell To the Youth of the United States

SOME PEOPLE might say that the most valuable thing in America is the gold at Fort Knox. Others might say it is our airplanes, another our H-bombs, or another the money in our banks. But I would pick none of these, and I would like you who are about to go back to school to think with me about what is the most valuable thing you have.

Is it not really your life? And when you come down to it, what is it that makes up your life? How do you know you are alive? You know because you can think and, after you have thought, you can feel and move. So that when you come down to it, the most valuable thing in America is the hearts and minds of her people—you and me.

Now, if you agree with me so far, I think you will then agree that the most important thing any of us can do is to develop our hearts and our minds. Briefly, this means go to school.

For at school you learn. You learn skills. You learn how to do things so that when you grow up you can get a good job and support your wife and your children. Did you know that if you get a high school diploma, you will probably earn as much money when you are 25 years old as you would at 50 with an eighth grade education? By the time you are 45 a high school diploma will mean almost $1,000 a year more to you than if you only finish the eighth grade.

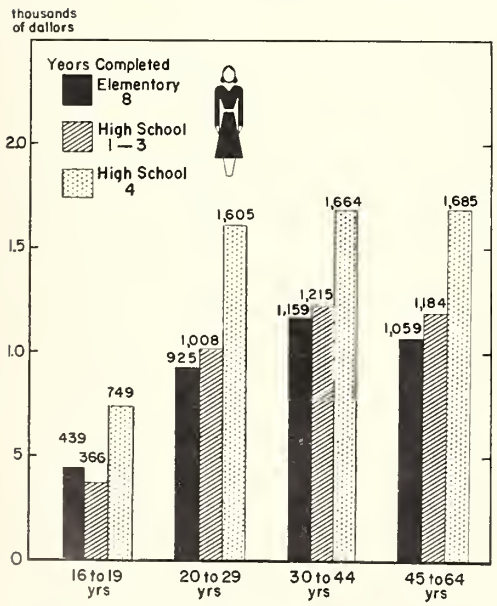
That is, if you are a boy, and the same thing holds true for girls, only more so.

There is another reason why you must develop your heart and mind by going to school. You live in a democracy where the people are the rulers. Through their votes they choose their government. This means that you have a great responsibility. You must have knowledge so that when you grow up your vote will be a wise one.

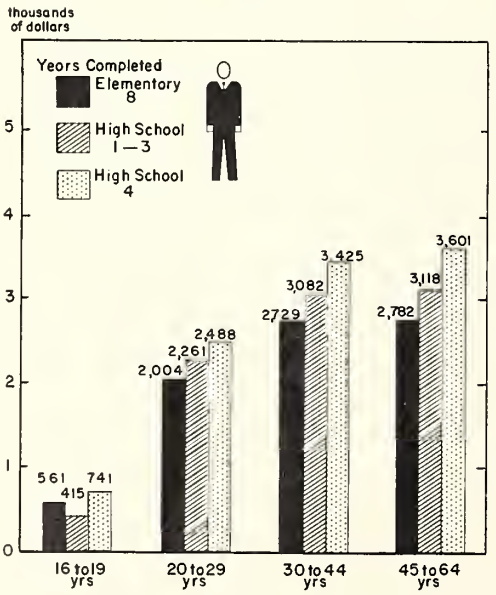
Also, for your country's safety, for its national defense, you must develop your skill. The skill of America's workers is worth many times more than all the bombs, planes, and guns put together. It is your skill and spirit that will keep this country safe from her enemies.

So I ask you to think carefully about going back to school this fall. I ask you to think of your country, and I ask you to think of yourself. Both will suffer if you choose the wrong course.

AVERAGE INCOME FOR WOMEN BY AGE AND AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED (1949 overage)



AVERAGE INCOME FOR MEN BY AGE AND AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED (1949 overage)



(*Continued from page 1*)

which makes farming an occupation for leaders rather than weak sisters.

My generation grew up in a world without television, without radio, without airplanes, without automobiles, without tractors, and without many of the other machines which make our life today so tremendously different from life 30 or 40 years ago. Not only mechanics but geography, sociology, and science have each become so complex than an understanding of experience to day is hard to come by. Far more comprehensive and intensive study is necessary for the young person of today who expects to make his mark.

The complexity of our life is only one aspect of the need for better and more thorough education today. Another is the hard fact of America's position in the world. Our population today is only roughly a fourth of that of China and Russia combined—to take only a fraction of the rest of the world with whom we must compete. This simple statistic should reemphasize the need in our own minds for making the maximum effective use of every American boy and girl. If America is to cooperate and to provide leadership, there is need for each one to be well trained in order to play his leadership role.

When we look at our situation in its world perspective we can see more clearly the proportions of the job which we face. It calls for teamwork. In our country no group alone can solve the educational problems or make an adequate response to the challenges. Educators, parents, and citizens must work together at all levels up and down the line to strengthen every aspect of education if we are to meet the challenges of our generation. And I should like to emphasize here that no government, no agency, no foundation, *no one* organization or group actually can do this job alone. It must be done by *all working together,* and it must be begun in the local community and with the local school. Each village, each town, each city, each region, each State, must use its resources of human intelligence, of devotion and enthusiasm, and of money, to organize, to think, to finance, and to create better and sounder schools for American youth.

Occupational Safety

(*Continued from page 10*)

ious training areas. School shop teachers should be kept up-to-date in their knowledge of industrial programs, which implies the necessity of a definite preservice and inservice training program for teachers in modern safety practices.

An Adequate Safety Program

In addition to safe school shop installations the subcommittee lists 11 major aspects of an adequate program of occupational safety at the secondary school level.

(1) Accident reporting and analysis should include a definite local plan for the analysis of school shop accidents, a statewide plan of reporting and analysis, and the submission of reports to the National Safety Council for analysis.

(2) School shop inspections should be a part of the regular program in every school. Supervisors, teachers, students, and if possible, industrial safety engineers, State fire inspectors, and State Department of Labor Inspectors should all participate.

(3) A national standard safety check list for school shops is needed and should be developed through the combined efforts of such agencies as the U. S. Department of Labor, the National Safety Council, the U. S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the American Vocational Association, and the American Industrial Arts Association. Once it is developed, a definite program should be established for the use of the checklist at State and local levels.

(4) A National Steering Committee for the promotion and general development of school shop safety programs should be an outgrowth of the President's Conference. This committee should be charged with responsibility for carrying forward the recommendations of the action program of the Conference Education Committee.

(5) In each State there should be a statewide school shop safety committee under the direction of the State superintendent of public instruction, the State director of vocational education, the State director of industrial arts, or a combination of these officials. These State committees should work in cooperation with the National Steering Committee to carry forward the recommendations and action program of the Education Committee of the President's Conference.

(6) There should be local school shop safety committees, established by local school administrators, to cooperate with the national and State committees. The responsibility for the school shop safety program should be vested in one specific person at the State level and one at the local level. These persons should be interested and proficient in the assignment and should be provided with authority and means to carry out the program.

(7) There is a need for shop safety instruction materials dealing with individual and specific machine and tool operations. These materials should be suitable for instructor use, and they should serve the needs of the students and the industries for which they are being prepared.

(8) Authors and publishers of instructional materials should incorporate information on hazards and safe practices wherever it applies. The illustrations should be examined to make sure that only safe practices are shown.

(9) Teachers need familiarity with present practices and procedures of safety education. They should have an understanding of the need for a fundamental safety program and should incorporate safety in the development of specific work skills. Liaison with industries, mercantile establishments, etc., should be set up to acquaint teachers with problems and practices.

(10) Students should participate and have definite responsibilities in the school safety program and the individual shop.

(11) As a final suggestion, the Committee recommended that the U. S. Department of Labor prepare and publish a list of free or inexpensive safety materials available to elementary and secondary schools and suitable for their use.

(*Continued from page 7*)

Table 3.—Projection of Regular Session Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education, Continental United States: 1953–54 to 1959–60

SCHOOL YEAR	Regular session enrollment	
	Total number of students	Increase over previous year
1953–54	2,444,000	.....
1954–55	2,533,000	89,000
1955–56	2,649,000	116,000
1956–57	2,754,000	105,000
1957–58	2,838,000	84,000
1958–59	2,910,000	72,000
1959–60	3,006,000	96,000
Total increase 1953–54 to 1959–60	.....	562,000

NOTE. Projections made by William A. Jaracz, Head, Statistical Services Unit. They are based on such factors as number living to age 18, percent entering college, retention rates, etc.

Table 4.—Supply and Demand of Elementary and Secondary Public and Nonpublic School Teachers: 1954–55

Item	Elementary	Secondary
SUPPLY:		
Total teachers 1953–54	875,500	288,100
Less emergency teachers 1953–54	58,700	12,900
Total qualified teachers 1953–54	816,800	275,200
Less 10 percent turnover	81,680	27,520
Qualified teachers returning for 1954–55	735,120	247,680
Emergency teachers qualifying for 1954–55	20,000	5,000
New supply of qualified teachers 1954–55	45,000	50,000
Total qualified supply 1954–55	800,120	302,680
DEMAND:		
Total teachers 1953–54	875,500	288,100
Teachers needed for increase in enrollment in 1954–55	49,100	8,800
Total demand 1954–55	924,600	296,900
Status of qualified supply	−124,480	+5,780

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 LIBRARY SERVICE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Jewel Gardiner. Second edition. Chicago, American Library Association, 1954. 160 p. Illus. $3.50.

CREATIVE RHYTHMIC MOVEMENT FOR CHILDREN. By Gladys Andrews. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 198 p. Illus. $4.75.

COURT DECISIONS ON TEACHER TENURE; Reported in 1953. Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom. Washington, D. C., National Education Association of the United States, 1954. 23 p. 25 cents.

CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR BETTER TEACHING AND LEARNING. By J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander. New York, Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954. 624 p. Illus. $5.50.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION; A Description of the English Composition Test of the College Entrance Examination Board. New York, College Entrance Examination Board, 1954. 34 p. Illus. 50 cents. Order from: College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592, Princeton, N. J., or P. O. Box 9896, Los Feliz Station, Los Angeles 27, Calif.

FEDERAL CONTROL OF PUBLIC EDUCATION; A Critical Appraisal. By Dawson Hales. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 144 p. (Teachers College Studies in Education) $3.75.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE LEARNING MATERIALS. Sixth edition. Nashville, Tenn., Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1954. 216 p. $1.00.

THE HANDICAPPED CHILD IN THE MAINSTREAM; Proceedings of the Tenth Governor's Conference on Exceptional Children. Chicago, State of Illinois Commission for Handicapped Children, 1953. 111 p.

HOW TO CHOOSE THAT CAREER—CIVILIAN AND MILITARY; A Guide for Parents, Teachers and Students. By S. Norman Fiengold. Cambridge, Mass., Bellman Publishing Co., 1954. 52 p. illus. $1.00.

HOW TO ORGANIZE AND RUN A SCHOOL CAMERA CLUB. Prepared by the editors of Photography Magazine. New York, Photography Magazine, 1954. 28 p. Free. *Order from: Photography Magazine,* School Service Department, 366 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

JUDGING STUDENT PROGRESS. By R. Murray Thomas. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1954. 421 p. Illus. $4.50.

THE LEGAL POWERS OF SCHOOL BOARDS; A Handbook to Guide School Directors in the Discharge of Their Duties. Olympia, Washington State School Directors' Association, 1954. 68 p. $1.00.

MASTER'S THESES IN EDUCATION 1952–53. (No. 2) Edited by T. A. Lamke and H. M. Silvey. Cedar Falls, Iowa, Bureau of Research, Iowa State Teachers College, 1954. 174 p. $3.75.

THE SARGENT GUIDE TO SUMMER CAMPS; Representative Private Summer Camps for Boys and Girls throughout the Country. Ninth edition. Boston, Porter Sargent Publishers. 1954. 127 p. Illus. (Sargent Handbook Series) $1.10. Paper.

STAFF PERSONNEL IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. By Willard E. Elsbree and E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 438 p. $4.65.

STRENGTHENING COMMUNITY LIFE: SCHOOLS CAN HELP. Washington, D. C., Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1954. 42 p. 35 cents.

TEACHING ADOLESCENTS. By Gilbert C. Kettelkamp. Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1954. 550 p. Illus. $5.00.

TEACHING ARITHMETIC IN GRADES I AND II. By George E. Hollister and Agnes G. Gunderson. Boston, D. C. Heath & Company, 1954. 168 p. Illus. $2.50.

GUIDANCE SERVICES. By J. Anthony Humphreys and Arthur E. Traxler. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 438 p. Illus.

GROUPING . . . PROBLEMS AND SATISFACTIONS. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1954. 39 p. Illus. (Articles from 1953–54 issues Childhood Education. Reprint Service Bulletin No. 26.) 50 cents.

HOW CAN WE ORGANIZE A STATE CITIZENS' COMMITTEE? A Supplement to "How Can We Organize for Better Schools?" New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1954. 34 p. Illus. (Working Guide No. 2A.) Single copy free.

JANIE LEARNS TO READ. A Handbook for Parents Whose Child Will Soon Learn to Read. Washington, D. C., Department of Elementary School Principals, National School Public Relations Association, Departments of the National Education Association, 1954. 40 p. Illus. 50 cents.

NOW HEAR YOUTH . . . A Report on the California Cooperative Study of School Drop-Outs and Graduates. By William H. McCreary and Donald E. Kitch. Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1953. 69 p. Illus. (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. 22, No. 9.)

AN OUTLINE OF A COMMUNITY PROGRAM FOR THE PREVENTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY. Sacramento, the California Youth Authority, 1953. 17 p.

THE PRESIDENT OF A SMALL COLLEGE. By Peter Sammartino. Rutherford, N. J., Fairleigh Dickinson College Press, 1954. 163 p. Illus.

RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS OF BLIND WITH SIGHTED CHILDREN. Compiled by Georgie Lee Abel. New York, American Foundation for the Blind, 1954. 58 p. (Educational Series No. 9.) 75 cents.

SCHOOL AND CHILD: A Case History. By Cecil V. Millard. East Lansing, Mich., the Michigan State College Press, 1954. 221 p. Illus. $3.75.

YOU AND YOUR STUDENT TEACHER. By Ernest J. Milner. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 42 p. 75 cents.

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

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Home Care of the Sick. Public Health Service Health Information Series No. 21. Revised 1954. 5 cents each, $2.50 per 100.

Some Facts About Juvenile Delinquency. Children's Bureau. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Staff Development, The Supervisor's Job. Training Manual No. 6. Revised 1954. 20 cents.

Office of Education

Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Large Cities, 1952–53. By Lester B. Herlihy. Circular No. 391. April 1954. 25 cents.

Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Small and Medium-Sized Cities, 1952–53. By Lester B. Herlihy. Circular No. 392. April 1954. 25 cents.

Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1953. Free.

Directory of Institutions Offering Graduate Training in Guidance and Related Phases of Student Personnel Services. Guide Lines No. 1. June 1954. Free.

Education in Pakistan. By Abul H. K. Sassani. Bulletin 1954, No. 2. 35 cents.

General Education Bibliography. Prepared by Elizabeth N. Layton. Bulletin 1954, No. 3. 15 cents.

General and Liberal Educational Content of Professional Curricula: Engineering. By Jennings B. Sanders. Pamphlet No. 114. 1954. 20 cents.

General and Liberal Educational Content of Professional Curricula: Pharmacy. By Jennings B. Sanders. Pamphlet No. 113. 1954. 15 cents.

Guilding High-School Students of Vocational Agriculture in Developing Farming Programs. By E. J. Johnson and W. N. Elam. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 254. 1954. 30 cents.

High-School-Retention by States. By Walter H. Gaumnitz. Circular No. 398. June 1954. Free.

Public Library Statistics, 1950. Bulletin 1953, No. 9. 1954. 25 cents.

Publications of the Office of Education, January 1, 1942—February 1, 1954, and Supplement to June 10, 1954. Free.

Report of Conference for Supervisors of Elementary Education in Large Cities. March 29–April 1, 1954. Free.

The School Lunch—Its Educational Contribution. Nutrition Education Series, Pamphlet No. 6. 1954. 25 cents.

Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. By Mabel C. Rice and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Chapter 5, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1954. 35 cents.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education—Supplement No. 7. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 253. 1954. 30 cents.

Teaching Materials for Mathematics Classes. By Kenneth P. Kidd and Kenneth E. Brown. Circular No. 399. 1954. Free.

Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools. Bulletin 1954, No. 5. 35 cents.

A Look Ahead in Secondary Education—Education for Life Adjustment. Report of the Second Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth. Bulletin 1954, No. 4. 35 cents.

Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children, 1952–53. By Mabel C. Rice and Arthur S. Hill. Chapter 5, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952–54. 30 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Grasshoppers, A New Look at an Ancient Enemy. 1954. 20 cents.

Department of Commerce

Highways in the United States. 1954. 20 cents.

Department of Defense

You and Your USA, What America Means to Me. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of the Interior

Brief Account of the Lewis and Clark Expedition From St. Louis, Missouri, to the Mouth of the Columbia River, Oregon, and Return, 1804–06. 1954. 10 cents.

Fort Necessity National Battlefield Site, Pennsylvania. National Park Service Historical Handbook Series No. 19. 1954. 25 cents.

Department of State

Foreign Relations of the United States, 1937, Volume 1, General. 1954. Cloth, $4.25.

Foreign Relations of the United States, 1937, Volume 2, British Commonwealth, Europe, Near East, Africa. 1954. Cloth, $4.25.

Federal Civil Defense Administration

Civil Defense Household First Aid Kit. Revised 1954. 5 cents each, $1.50 per 100.

UNITED STATES
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OFFICIAL BUSINESS

PENALTY FOR PRIVATE USE TO AVOID
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On June 14, 1954, the Congress of the United States amended the pledge of allegiance to the flag of the United States of America to read as follows:

"I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands, one Nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."

(Public Law 396, 83d Congress, Chapter 297, 2d Session, H. J. Res. 243.)

Volume 37 Number 2
NOVEMBER 1954

Route to

School Life

◀ In the Service of Education

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

Pupil Transportation—A Big School Business

AT A RECENT CONFERENCE of educators and representatives of the Nation's leading manufacturers of automobiles, trucks, and buses, it was suggested that our schools throughout the United States are engaged in a major way in an activity involving the movement of millions of children daily to and from schools in automobiles and other means of transportation over the highways.

We learn from E. Glenn Featherston, of the Office of Education, who has made numerous surveys in the pupil transportation field over a period of years, that about 8,900,000 elementary and secondary pupils were transported at public expense in 1953–54 at an estimated cost of more than 300 million dollars. This is approximately 32 percent of the total public elementary and secondary school enrollment.

Dr. Featherston says the total cost of pupil transportation for the Nation as a whole is only about 5 percent of the total current expense for public and secondary education, although the percentage of pupils transported is increasing.

Perhaps the credit can go to those school administrators and others whose long-range planning and work have done much to help keep costs of pupil transportation to a minimum in a period which has also seen decided advances in better constructed and safer school buses.

This effective planning dates back to 1939 when the first national conference on pupil transportation was held. Dr. Featherston said that many States then had no school bus standards. Today, 44 States have incorporated school bus codes in laws or regulations. The other 4 States recommend them. In many States an annual or more frequent inspection is used to enforce school bus standards and to require adequate maintenance.

"The States are coming closer and closer to a uniform vehicle with the result that costs of production have been cut materially," Dr. Featherston says. "So much progress has been made that one might estimate that more than 90 percent of the pupils now transported ride in vehicles that meet fairly adequate construction standards."

The Fourth National Conference on Pupil Transportation held at Michigan State College in Lansing this year reviewed progress made since that first conference in 1939. The 200 representatives of State departments of education and local school systems, and manufacturers of school buses and transportation equipment present, also took action for future progress.

They decided to try a new test devised for judging the strength of school bus bodies. They also agreed to consider the problem of uniform State laws related to vehicles meeting or passing school buses on the highway and discussed the use of school buses in connection with the instructional program of the schools—a problem that may be given full scale conference consideration some time in the future.

(Continued on p. 32)

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover Photograph Credit: Neil H. McElroy, Chairman of the White House Conference on Education Committee. Photograph by Archie Hardy, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

CONTENTS for November 1954

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

OVETA CULP HOBBY.....Secretary
SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL.....Commissioner of Education
WARD STEWART.....Assistant Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination
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)

Secretary Hobby congratulates Chairman McElroy in presence of Commissioner Brownell.

National and State Action for Conferences on Education

"I HOPE that this year a conference on education will be held in each State, culminating in a national conference . . ."

These words of President Eisenhower, in his 1954 state of the Union message, started a chain reaction for the betterment of education that already is making educational history.

The President mentioned his plan for State conferences and a follow-up national conference after pointing out that the Nation as a whole is not preparing teachers or building schools fast enough to keep up with the increase in our population.

He said further in explanation of his recommendation, "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 . . ."

Accepting the call of the President for authorization of the meetings and for funds to help defray the cost of holding them, the Eighty-third Congress provided $700,000 for the State conferences and approved a White House Conference on Education that would be "broadly representative of educators and other interested citizens from all parts of the Nation . . . to consider and report to the President on significant and pressing problems in the field of education."

As soon as the Congress enacted its legislation, the President and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Oveta Culp Hobby, sent letters to the State and Territorial Governors, and Commissioner of Education S. M. Brownell addressed communications to the Chief State School Officers, to educational organizations, and to other leaders throughout the country, informing them of the action and urging their cooperation.

To the Governors the President wrote, "With this opportunity to know the facts and understand the problems, I am convinced that the people of the United States will develop programs of effective action. It is with this conviction that I ask you to join with me in bringing about the most thorough, widespread, and concerted study that the American people have ever made of their educational problems. The study is necessary, I believe, to make citizens realize the importance of immediate and continued action if we are to have agencies that contribute to a well-educated nation."

"I share the President's conviction," said Secretary Hobby, "that these conferences can be tremendously helpful in solving the grave and complex educational problems which face Americans across our land. . . . The conference plan recognizes that one of the strengths of the schools in this land is their closeness to the people, with the responsibility for education resting with the States and local communities. . . . The ultimate goal," she said, "is more than to supply more buildings and teachers, important as they are. It is to prepare young people in every way possible to meet the increasing complexities of today's world."

Commissioner Brownell also emphasized the primary importance of State autonomy and responsibility in educational matters. He said that in this appraisal of educational problems through the State conferences and the national conference to follow the Federal Government "seeks to assist . . . without interfering." The Commissioner told the Chief State School Officers "that while your own conditions and problems will determine the nature of your conference and the goals it seeks to achieve, the State Conferences will contribute in the fullest measure to the success of the White House Conference, provided there is cooperative thinking and action on our educational problems."

Commissioner Brownell further explained that the development of purposes and procedures of the White House Conference to be held before November 30, 1955, is the responsibility of a Conference Committee to be appointed by the President.

Announcement of the appointment of Neil H. McElroy, President and Director of the Procter & Gamble Co., of Cincinnati, Ohio,

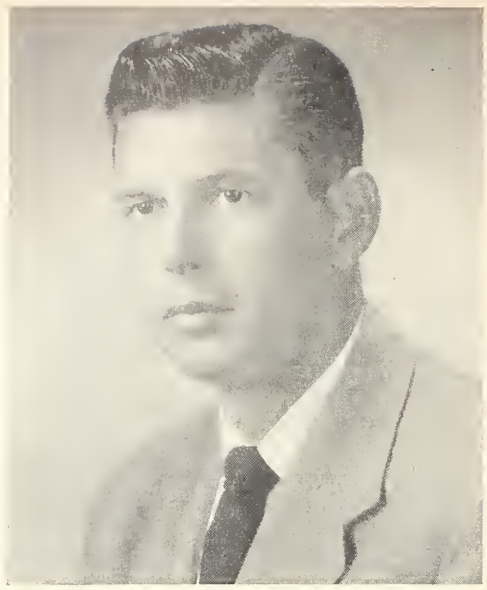
to serve as Chairman of the White House Conference Committee was made by Secretary Hobby on October 1. Mrs. Hobby said she was "highly gratified" that Mr. McElroy had accepted President Eisenhower's invitation to serve in this capacity. "As a leader in the business world and as one who has been actively working for improved education at the local and national level for a number of years, Mr. McElroy, I know, will give vigorous leadership in the planning and direction that will make the White House Conference the success it must be for the much-needed advancement of education throughout the country," Mrs. Hobby said.

Mr. McElroy, on October 19, announced his selection of Clint Pace, of Dallas, Tex., to serve as Director of the White House Conference on Education. Mr. Pace took his oath of office in Commissioner Brownell's office the same day, in the presence of Under Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Nelson A. Rockefeller, other officials of the Department, Office of Education, and representatives of national organizations in education.

Formerly on the staff of the Dallas Morning News, Mr. Pace served as Director of the Southwest Regional Office for the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools from 1951 until his appointment as White House Conference Director. The National Citizens Commission encourages citizen interest and action at the local level for the solution of school problems and the improvement of education. Both Mr. and Mrs. Pace have been active in school and church work in Dallas.

The response to the initial announcements about the State and White House conferences on education was most encouraging. Early replies were received from scores of organizations offering such help as they could give. Among these organizations were the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the American Federation of Teachers, the Association for Childhood Education International, the Association for Higher Education, the National Catholic Welfare Conference, the National Council of Independent Schools, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Camp Fire Girls.

At a meeting in San Francisco, Calif., early in October, the Education Committee, Chamber of Commerce of the United States,



Clint Pace, Director of White House Conference on Education.

urged businessmen to participate in the proposed conferences on education. Lead articles in the *Washington Report* newspaper, issued by the Chamber of Commerce, and in the *News and Cues* report to education committees throughout the United States focused attention on the conferences.

William G. Carr, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, reaffirmed the support of the NEA of the State and White House conferences on education. He sent special mailings of material on the conferences to all State secretaries of educational organizations. He said, "I urge you and the members of your association to take an active interest in the program, composition, and recommendations of the State conference on education."

By the time this issue of *School Life* reaches its readers plans will be well under way in a few States for the State conferences. Early reports indicated that Connecticut, Washington, and Wyoming State conferences would be held late in November. Kansas has scheduled its conference early in December.

The President's call in his 1954 state of the Union message for State conferences on education's pressing problems is being answered. By the end of 1955 all States will probably have held such conferences to assess the critical problems of the schools and colleges. Their reports to the White House Conference on Education will doubtless represent the greatest inventory of educational problems and progress ever made in the United States. —JOHN H. LLOYD.

Some Major Problems in American Education Which the Conferences May Consider

THE BASIC CONCERNS IN EDUCATION to which Americans are devoting so much time, thought, and energy fall into five main categories: Providing education to meet today's needs for the individual and for a free society; maintaining an adequate supply of well-prepared teachers; providing school buildings and equipment; financing education; organizing education.

Experience suggests that the following areas are foremost in the attentive consideration of Americans interested in improving education.

A. Providing Education To Meet the Needs of Individuals and of a Free Society

What are the bases for deciding what education should be?

What should education accomplish?

Who shall be educated and to what extent?

What shall be the educational responsibilities of the home, school, church, libraries, and other neighborhood agencies, institutions, and instructional media?

B. Enlisting and Maintaining an Adequate Supply of Well-Prepared Teachers

How can the status of the profession be improved to attract and retain greater numbers of able persons?

What preparation is needed by those who teach?

How can teachers be used most effectively?

C. Providing School Buildings and Equipment

What are the needs for elementary, secondary, and higher education?

How will the costs be cared for?

How can the greatest efficiency and economy be effected?

D. Financing Education

What are the respective responsibilities of families, industry, localities, State and Federal Government for elementary, secondary, vocational, higher, adult, professional education?

What changes are needed to provide adequate education?
For example, property valuations, tax and bond limits, State funds for buildings and operation, sources of revenue?

E. Organizing Education

What changes in organization are needed to improve educational effectiveness in individual schools, school districts, or the States' higher education?

How can the public and the professional staff relate their activities most efficiently?

What is the proper role of the local school district, the State, and the Federal Government in education?

Teaching Is An Attractive CAREER

by Earl W. Anderson,* Consultant in Teacher Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

TEACHING in the elementary and secondary schools offers unusual opportunities to young people who are now seeking attractive vocations. Information on the requirements for and the duties and opportunities of teachers is here presented.

What Is Teaching?

Teaching is essentially a job of helping students to grow and develop into healthy, happy, self-directed citizens who can manage their own affairs effectively, get along with their family and neighbors, and develop useful skills, industrious habits, and clear understandings which will help them obtain optimum satisfaction from life. Teaching is really the other side of the coin of learning. If the students learn because of the teacher, then there is teaching. If the learning is unsatisfactory, then the teaching is unsatisfactory. If there is no learning, then there is no teaching, no matter what the teacher is doing. Since teaching is done in groups, most of the teacher's work is in group leadership, group management, and group coordination.

Teachers who are counseling students regarding vocational choices may find help in this article on teaching as a life work. Copies of the article may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

*On a 6-month leave of absence from Ohio State University, where he is professor of education.

What Different Kinds of Work Are There in Teaching?

The prospective teacher should become acquainted with the great variety of duties that may be found in different positions in teaching. The work ranges from the teaching of 18-month-old children in nursery schools to the teaching of advanced graduate students in universities. There are teachers of night classes for adult workers, of slow learners, of the deaf, of the blind, and of the physically handicapped. Teaching of classes in physical education, industrial arts, music, art, and trade programs is quite different from that in the usual courses in mathematics or languages, from that of leading discussions of society's problems, or from that of directing a group in appreciation of music or art.

In the teaching of some subjects, the activity of the individual student is the center of the teaching process; in others the group operates as an organized unit in problem solving. The social studies teacher will normally talk more than the teacher of typing, although the good social studies teacher will increasingly put the responsibility for class direction and class activities upon the students.

Some teachers with several years of classroom teaching experience are engaged partly or wholly in duties as supervisor, assistant principal, principal, superintendent, counselor, director of guidance, or business manager.

What Qualifications Are Needed?

The competent teacher must have the personal qualities essential in working effectively with students in order to help them gain as much valuable learning as possible from their school experiences. This means that one must enjoy working with people and being of service to them. The teacher must be interested in learning, eager to find new ideas and new ways of doing things, and effective in the planning and organizing of his program. He must be alert to the values which the students are obtaining in his class and facile in directing their activities. Beyond everything else, a teacher must be honest with his students and impartial and interested in his dealings with them. A good sense of humor adds much to a teacher's effectiveness.

Teaching is fundamentally salesmanship, in a higher meaning of the word. In a sense, the pupils are the teacher's customers. Knowledge, attitude, skills, and ideals are the teacher's stock in trade. Learning is the act of purchase by the pupil-customer. The successful salesman must have enthusiasm, personal attractiveness, thorough knowledge of what he is trying to sell, skill in meeting objections and indifference, ability to lead the customer to do the things that he wants him to do, the knack of praising at the right time, and the ability to make easy a task that at first glance seems difficult. These are some of the traits that are also essential to a good teaching personality. One who has them will find teaching enjoyable. One who does not have them will find teaching a dismal drudgery.

There are certification requirements in all States of the Nation. A few States permit persons with 2 years of preparation to

enter permanent teaching in the public elementary schools, but 25 States require 4 years of preparation. For high school teaching, 46 States require a bachelor's degree, and 2 States require 5 years of training. In all States, certification requirements for public elementary and secondary school teaching include specific courses in professional education. Almost all of these requirements include some experience in student teaching and classes in educational psychology and methods of teaching. In the majority of States, the teacher must have had specific amounts of work in broad general preparation and the secondary school teacher must have had specific hours of course work in the subjects for which he is to be certified.

What Salaries Are Paid?

The salaries for teaching are moderate. In 1954 the annual salaries for beginning teachers ranged from below $2,500 in a few States to more than $3,500 in others; the average was about $3,000. Most school districts have salary schedules which provide for increments each year. The tops of these schedules range from about $3,600 to $9,000 with most schedules stopping near $5,000. In many districts, elementary school teachers are paid the same salary as high school teachers with the same qualifications. In general, the larger cities pay higher salaries than the smaller ones and the rural sections pay the lowest salaries.

School districts vary widely in initial salaries paid, in the amounts of the annual increments, in the number of steps in the schedule, and in the additional amount paid teachers for additional college preparation. Most salary schedules provide for an automatic increase in salaries each year; a few determine the salary of each teacher in terms of an evaluation of his teaching effectiveness.

High school principals receive salaries above $10,000 in a few instances, and superintendents of schools receive from $10,000 in some of the medium-sized cities to $25,000 or more in a few large ones. College teachers in the State-supported institutions obtain somewhat higher salaries than public school teachers because large proportions of them hold degrees which involve a minimum of 3 years of study beyond the bachelor's degree.

What Are the Prospects for Employment in Teaching?

Almost any recent graduate of a program for preparing elementary school teachers can now secure employment in the elementary schools—except perhaps in some of the large cities. Within 4 years, much the same opportunity will exist for new high school teachers, but varying in different subjects of specialization. Careful selection of specialization in terms of the demand can result in almost certain employment upon graduation. The opportunities in English and the social studies, and to a great extent in the modern languages, will likely not be as great as in science, business education, industrial arts, home economics, music, and women's physical education. However, one may prepare in any subject and materially increase his chance of employment by preparing in additional subjects in a combination in which there is a great demand in high schools. College placement offices will furnish information on opportunities in teaching upon request.

The greater the shortage of teachers, the easier it is for a teacher to get employment in a section a great distance from his home. The smaller the shortage, the more difficult it is for him to move out of his own region. This is because employers will hire teachers without interview only in unusual cases. Also, travel costs to and from a distant location make it necessary for the teaching position in that location to pay a higher salary in order to be more attractive than positions nearer home. People qualified in first-rate institutions with recognized programs for the preparation of teachers have little trouble in qualifying for certification in other parts of the country. A few States have requirements which can be met only in that State, such as a course in the history of Oregon, which is taught only in Oregon. However, in cases of shortage, most States will temporarily waive such requirements for beginning teachers.

The selection of new teachers is entirely in the hands of the local school district, subject to general State regulations. Peculiar desires of some districts may interfere with employment of some people. Thus, some employers will not take new teachers past 40 years of age. A few States will not employ married women or persons of certain religions, nationalities, and races, despite some State laws prohibiting discrimination upon such bases.

There will usually be more positions available for the beginner in rural than in urban areas; the large cities will offer fewer possibilities since many of the teachers in the small communities will transfer to the large cities upon the first opportunity.

Aside from local discriminations, one's employment depends upon his ability to convince the employer that he has "what it takes" to do a good job in the classroom in which the vacancy occurs. Evidence checked upon by employees includes grades made in college, experiences in group activities, and general recommendations covering ingenuity, enthusiasm, salesmanship, cooperativeness, energy, thoroughness, and sympathy for young people.

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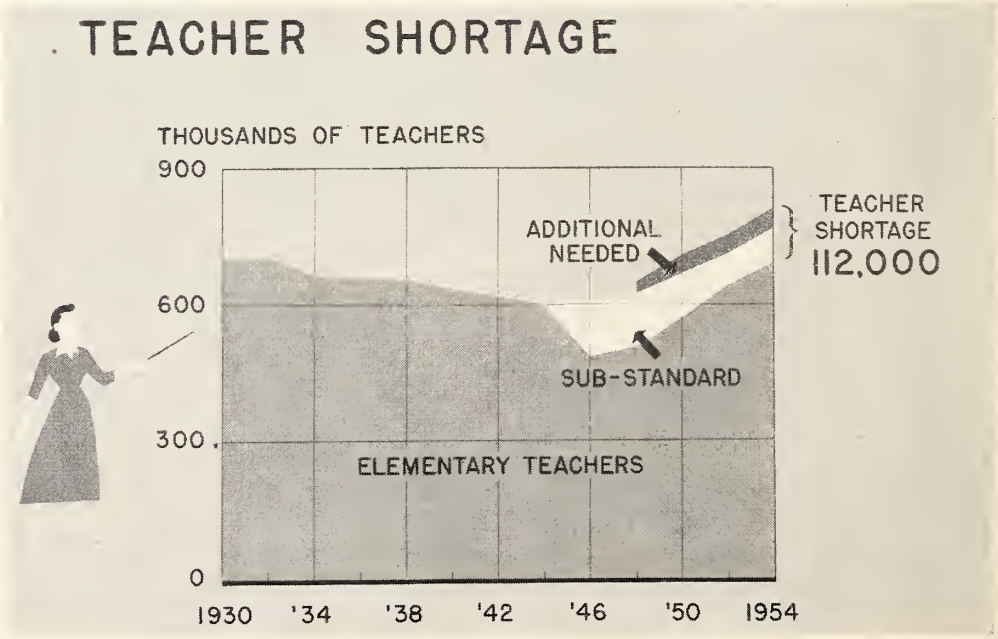

Schools—Our Nation's First Line of Defense Against Juvenile Delinquency

by Leonard M. Miller, Specialist, Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

● There has been a general increase of 29 percent in the occurrence of delinquency across the Nation.

● The majority of the Nation's delinquents come from the age range 10 to 17. The number of children in this age group will increase 42 percent by 1960.

These facts were presented at the National Conference on Juvenile Delinquency to focus attention upon the seriousness of the problem. They were used as a starting point to stimulate discussion in Work Group 3 on what teachers, school administrators, and citizens in general can do to help strengthen school programs and services in an effort to meet problems of juvenile delinquency.

The School Staffs

It was agreed that since the schools, in relation to other community agencies, get the children first and keep them longest, they are the Nation's first line of defense against this growing problem. They are in the most strategic position to do a job of prevention, beginning with the nursery school. Therefore, it is imperative that the schools, in facing the problem of dealing with delinquency, begin immediately to expand their programs and services.

The prevention and control of juvenile delinquency demands school programs designed to meet the needs of individual children. A critical look at the schools and school programs by Work Group 3 revealed important areas in need of reinforcement, especially those of the school staffs, school programs, and community cooperation.

The participants agreed that schools need teachers who are self-respecting, with warm, understanding, responsive personalities, with good mental and physical health; and trained to understand the personal development of children—their emotional, physical, and social needs, individual differences, and the constructive use of authority. Teacher training, preservice and inservice, needs to place more emphasis on how to create wholesome, happy learning situations, and how to develop the skills in human relations that will promote personal security and meet the emotional needs of each child.

Schools and communities need to supplement the teachers' services with those of pupil personnel workers who will help the teachers understand individual pupils and their needs. The early identification, referral, screening, diagnosis, and treatment of children needing special services is of the utmost importance in the prevention of maladjustment leading to delinquency. These pupil personnel workers may include guidance counselors, school social workers or visiting teachers, attendance workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, health service workers, and rehabilitation workers for the physically handicapped. They need to be adequate in number and preparation to assist the classroom teachers and the administration in providing services of a specialized nature to pupils of all ages.

To coordinate the work of the schools there need to be administrators who will foster respect for teachers; promote proper working relationships between all school personnel, and between the schools and the homes; assist teachers with their physical and emotional problems; help to create proper attitudes within the school to foster healthy development of children; and support consistent discipline.

The School Program

The schools need to present broad, flexible, community-focused programs, designed to fit the abilities, potentialities, and the total development of each child whether normal, gifted, or slow; typical or atypical; whatever the behavior pattern. There need to be rich, varied, and challenging opportunities for learning, using the community as a laboratory, and providing experiences in good citizenship and recreational activities under competent leadership. Beyond the secondary school the program should include programs for young adults who have left school, and programs for parents, emphasizing the better understanding of children.

The emotional climate of the school is of utmost importance. It must be characterized by an atmosphere of kindliness, having interesting, challenging, and stimulating activities. The school, in classroom activities as well as in administration, needs to emphasize democratic practices and the development of responsible citizens. This includes assisting pupils to learn the difference between license and responsible action, and how to share with others. It means defining limits for children within which there is freedom for decision and action. It includes adequate and attractive school buildings in which to live and work.

The schools still need much help in understanding children, especially such information as factors useful in identifying potential maladjustment, the exchange of ideas growing out of on-going programs relating to the alleviation of child maladjustment, and the results of pilot studies concerned with child development.

Community Cooperation

To be effective in the campaign to prevent and control juvenile delinquency, the schools must have the understanding and cooperation of their communities. The community must understand, and actively support, the goals of a program geared to the needs of each child. There must be financial support which will guarantee sufficient staff and buildings, together with resources for children whose needs cannot be met within the school program. Such community cooperation and understanding demands from the schools careful attention to public relations and to the interpretation of their programs and goals.

Recommendations

Steps in relation to schools which can be undertaken to reduce and prevent juvenile misbehavior were suggested in the following recommendations by Group 3. It was recommended that:

1. The teacher-pupil ratio be reduced as rapidly as possible as a preventive to juvenile delinquency. The teacher-pupil ratio should be considered in terms of the number of children who must compete for the attention of one teacher. Twenty-five children per teacher is considered as the ultimate goal.

2. Teacher-training programs (pre-service and in-service) be strengthened so that teachers are better equipped to understand the motivations of human behavior and thus more able to recognize and work with individual differences in children.

3. A staff of guidance counselors, school social workers or visiting teachers, school psychologists, and attendance personnel, adequate in number and preparation, be maintained in all school systems to assist the classroom teachers and the administration in providing services of a specialized nature to pupils of all ages in order to assure early identification, referral, screening, diagnosis, and treatment.

4. Long-range plans on the part of State and local school systems be made to anticipate financial needs that can be achieved over a period of time. This requires creative leadership on the part of the superintendent and other school staff and the participation of community groups.

5. Federal aid be given to the States and Territories to guarantee adequate pupil personnel services in the schools, e. g., attendance workers, counselors, school social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists.

Increased appropriations be given to the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, for the following services:

a. Sponsorship of workshops

b. Pilot projects

c. Research in cooperation with State and local units

d. Research on a national level

e. Publication and distribution of pertinent information

f. Assistance to teacher-training institutions in formulating developmental, experimental pilot efforts

6. Liaison groups (composed of representatives of the various agencies dealing with youth, such as the schools, the juvenile courts, juvenile police, training schools, public and private social agencies, etc.) be developed in each community to coordinate and integrate the necessary programs to meet the needs of maladjusted youth. This step can be taken immediately and will reduce the number of children who fall into the gaps and who go without services. Through these groups the teachers and other school personnel will know community resources, what help can be expected as well as the limitations, and can be sure of services when children are referred. This brings about a kindred spirit of partnership in meeting the needs of children, and also strengthens the communication between school and community agencies. This liaison can be achieved through local community groups such as boards of education, local coordinating councils, community councils, or youth boards.

7. Youth participation programs be developed. Opportunities should be provided for youth to plan not only within the school but in the community as school representatives on such problems as recreation, library facilities, etc. Youth organizations within the schools should have opportunities to carry out the purposes for which they are organized.

8. Attention be given to the use and release of information on specific children among agencies having responsibility for the child. The use and release of information will depend upon the extent to which there is developed confidence among agencies. The problem of confidentiality is an open issue to be worked out in each community with the end result depending upon the degree to which mutual confidence among agencies is achieved.

9. Greater community understanding and active support of sound school programs geared to the needs of each child be achieved. To accomplish this each school system should provide persons who are competent to interpret the total school program to the community. This involves information about the activities of the school, teachers, and pupils. The interpretation of the need for pupil personnel services to both school staff and the general community should be emphasized.

10. Greater emphasis be placed upon offering family life education in the schools both for students and parents.

11. Evaluation of all our efforts to reduce juvenile delinquency be made periodically.

12. School staff relations be improved in each school or school system through the development of a recognized procedure for handling complaints and grievances. Also provision for joint planning among teachers, administrators, and boards of education should be made. Teachers serving on such planning groups should be chosen by the teachers themselves.

13. Curriculums be developed that are geared to the needs of the individual pupils and the community.

14. Participation of qualified law enforcement officials in school curricula be utilized for the purpose of helping students understand law, law enforcement, and their personal responsibilities as citizens. Where this procedure has been developed, students have been able to understand and cope with the problems caused by the differences in State laws. Law enforcement officials have been utilized in conferences with young people on such subjects as teen-age drinking, teen-age driving, and vandalism.

15. Use of school facilities be extended. School boards and municipalities should have formal agreements by which school facilities are made available for recreational and social activities.

16. Cumulative records be maintained by each school on each child from kindergarten on in order to develop useful information and to identify predictive factors in child maladjustment. In addition, school systems should develop a manual of instructions for teachers so that they understand what to record and how to record it. Attention should be given by all school personnel as to the how, what, and why of cumulative records.

17. The following programs and services be developed to meet the needs of those children who cannot adjust to the regular school program:

a. Special groupings within the regular school program, permitting the pupil to be involved in the regular school program while receiving special attention. This would require the provision of adequate special education teachers.

b. Supervised work-school programs in all types of communities to meet the needs of the slow learner, the potential school leaver, and the older youth. These programs should be planned so that they survive periods of labor surplus.

18. Residential treatment centers under public school auspices on a 24-hour basis be provided for those children whose home conditions or personal problems make this type of care necessary.

19. Exploratory and adventurous programs that appeal to youth be developed. These programs are

(*Continued on p. 30*)

Most of us know that a National Conference on Juvenile Delinquency was held during the past summer in Washington, D. C. Called by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, and organized by the Children's Bureau June 28–30, the Conference brought together more than 500 leaders of agencies concerned with the prevention and control of delinquency. Many of us may not know what Work Group 3 of the National Conference discussed and recommended. It considered what the schools specifically can do to help turn back the rising tide of delinquency. This report by Leonard M. Miller reviews and summarizes the discussions and recommendations of Work Group 3. Their theme was "The School Faces Delinquency." Those in the Work Group included school administrators, directors of guidance and pupil personnel services, school attendance directors, social workers, and psychiatrists. Also in the Group were law enforcement and legal officers on Federal, State, and local levels, State and local parent-teacher association officials, directors of youth activities in veterans' organizations, and directors of State training schools.

A Report on United States Education At International Conference

by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems, Office of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Dr. Wayne O. Reed, assisted by Miss Martha A. Shull, answers questions of delegates after the presentation of the U. S. Report. M. Marcel Abraham, Conference Chairman, is listening to the French translation.

THE 17th International Conference on Public Education was held in Geneva, Switzerland, July 5–13, 1954. It was sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization and the International Bureau of Education.

The United States was represented by Miss Martha A. Shull, English teacher, Jefferson High School, Portland, Oreg., and Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner of Education, U. S. Office of Education.

Fifty-seven countries were represented by 111 delegates. The largest groups came from Spain, the U. S. S. R., France, German Federal Republic, Italy, United Kingdom, Switzerland, the Holy See, and Thailand. The United States and 18 other countries sent 2 delegates each, and the remaining 26 countries sent 1 delegate each.

Seven international organizations were each represented by an observer: the International Labor Organization, the Cultural Department of the League of Arab States, International Association of Universities, Joint Committee of International Teachers' Federations, World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, New Education Fellowship, and European Office of the United Nations. A number of unofficial observers and representatives of the press also attended various sessions.

Speaking at the opening session of the conference, Dr. Luther Evans, Director-General of UNESCO, stressed the growing importance with which the conference recommendations were being received by many governments. He indicated that a number of countries have translated the recommendations into their own language and have given them wide distribution. Professor Jean Piaget, Director of the International Bureau of Education also addressed the opening session. Mr. Piaget described the Conference on Public Education as a forum for the free expression of views; where Ministries of Education present the experience and the results gained each year as a subject of discussion and at the same time gain knowledge from the experience of others.

The morning sessions of the conference were devoted to general discussions and the voting of recommendations relating to two items on the agenda: The Training of Secondary Teachers and The Status of Secondary Teachers. At the afternoon sessions representatives of the various Ministries of Education made progress reports on education in 1953–54. Afterward a short period was allowed for questions and answers.

Dr. Wayne Reed presented the United States report on the afternoon of July 6.

Report of United States Education

Out of a total of some 18,636,000 children 7 to 13 years of age, there are in the United States today approximately 222,000 not currently enrolled in school. This indicates that closely approaching 99 percent of our country's total number of children within those ages are enrolled.

Even when 6-year olds are included in the statistics, the percent representing the children enrolled in school decreases by about three-tenths of one percent. In the lower age levels it may be noted that when both kindergarten and first-grade pupils 5 years of age are counted considerably more than half of these (57.9 percent) are currently enrolled in school.

Today three-fourths of the States place the lower attendance range at 7 years of age; the other fourth of the States, at 6 or 8. Upper limits vary from 16 to 18 years with provision for employment permits generally at 14, if such permits are deemed necessary.

Although every State in the United States had enacted compulsory school attendance laws by 1918, school enrollment and school attendance, years ago, showed quite a different picture from today. A bulletin of the United States Office of Education near that period—when "Recommendation No. 1" was adopted by the International Conference—had this to say about the problem:

"The ideal of having all the children of elementary and secondary school age (6 to 17, inclusive) attend school has not been

(*Continued on p. 28*)

Federal Assistance for Schools Under

by B. Alden Lillywhite, Associate Director for Federally Affected Areas, Office of Education, U. S. Depa

SCHOOL LIFE, in the January 1954 issue, carried an article entitled "School Problems Near Large Federal Installations." That article described the Federal assistance programs authorized by Public Laws 815 and 874 of the Eighty-first Congress. This article, the second in a series on school assistance for federally impacted areas, deals with the scope, size, and accomplishments of the program under Public Law 815. The next article to appear in SCHOOL LIFE will report on what has been done under Public Law 874.

The Congress, in 1950, recognized the seriousness of problems thrust on local school districts by large Federal installations or activities. This recognition led to the passage of Public Law 815, which provides assistance for the construction of school facilities, and of Public Law 874, which provides funds for current operating expenses.

In many instances the financial burden imposed on a school district results principally from Federal acquisition of property which removes it from the local tax rolls and from an increase in school population which reflects the number of persons needed to operate the new installation or activity. This double burden is often so great that the school is unable to provide even a minimum program of education for the children of the military personnel and civilian workers.

These two laws not only aided the progress of Federal activities but also showed the Government's awareness of certain problems it had created. The congressional committees considering the bills recognized that the period during which aid for school construction might be needed could not be clearly defined. They also realized that the need for assistance in current operating expenses would continue as long as large numbers of school children lived on nontaxable Federal property. Therefore Public Law 815 was enacted for a period of 2 years—to June 30, 1952, and Public Law 874 for a period of 4 years—to June 30, 1954.

Defense activities related to the Korean conflict and the troubled international situation created needs for school construction in a number of areas after the expiration date of Public Law 815. Consequently the 83d Congress, during its first session, extended this program with some modifications to June 30, 1954, by means of Public Law 246. The changes thus incorporated into the original Public Law 815 were necessary to adapt the formula to the new 2-year period, to remove certain inequities, to improve administration, and to adapt the payment formulas more closely to the actual financial burden created by Federal activities.

Accomplishments Under Title II

Public Law 815 as originally passed authorized in Title II the submission of applications and the counting of federally connected children up to June 30, 1952. Appropriations could be made for one additional year and the funds were to remain available until expended. This act not only authorized grants to school districts but also permitted the Federal Government to construct temporary school facilities for federally connected children whose attendance was for a temporary period and to construct permanent school facilities on Federal property when the local educational agency was unable to provide them.

The act entitled a school district to an amount determined by a certain formula, but provided that when the total funds available in any year were not sufficient to meet all eligible claims, the money was to be allotted on a priority basis to those districts having the greatest relative need. At no time during this program were sufficient funds available to meet the total entitlement. Consequently it was necessary to allot funds on the priority of need basis. In view of this situation the Office of Education administratively determined to restrict the Federal allotments for each school district to an amount sufficient to construct minimum school facilities for only the "unhoused" children—those for whom no standard school facilities were available. Existing facilities were counted at 110 percent of their normal capacity. This priority system was based on the percentages of children "federally connected" and "unhoused" in any one district.

The law also provided that a district which had constructed school facilities with its own funds for federally connected children could be reimbursed up to the amount of its entitlement. However, no reimbursement request could be paid until all requests for new construction had been satisfied.

In listing accomplishments under Title II of Public Law 815 and subsequent programs under Titles III and IV, the following facts should be kept in mind: (1) The number of applications submitted, the number eligible, and the amount of Federal funds originally allotted are exact data. (2) The total costs of the projects, the exact amounts of local funds provided, the numbers of classrooms, and the amounts of floor space provided depend on actual bids received and other factors which will not be known definitely until all projects have been completed. (3) Since only about half of the projects approved on the original program and none of those approved under the extension have been completed, exact data on the final accomplishments are not yet available. The figures given are as accurate as can be obtained at this time.

In the 2 years during which applications could be accepted 1,128 school districts applied for assistance. Of these 940 were considered eligible and entitled to receive a total sum of $392,448,339. A little over $27 million of this amount was requested as reimbursement and the remainder for construction. A total of $341,500,000 was appropriated for this program, of which $293,804,178 was allocated for grants to school districts. The re-

blic Law 815

of Health, Education, and Welfare

mainder was set aside for Federal construction. This $293 million was allotted to 740 school districts to construct 1,222 projects. The States and communities added approximately $127 million in addition, making a total of $420 million approved for the construction of 1 222 projects. These funds exclude the costs of sites and surrounding improvements which, together with other items not a part of the Federal projects, will require some $17 or $18 million from local funds.

This money is being used to build 432 elementary schools, 193 secondary schools, 547 additions, and 45 other projects. These facilities will provide approximately 14,000 equipped classrooms and related facilities containing about 29,000,000 square feet of floor space. They will provide for approximately 403,000 children. As of July 31, 1954, there were 773 projects completed and in use, and the remainder were rapidly nearing completion. Allotments were made to school districts in the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii and to every State in the Union except Delaware and West Virginia.

A total of $4,707,328 was allotted to provide 20 temporary buildings for approximately 8,800 children. Other allotments of $40,628,925 were made to build on Federal property 101 projects containing 1,216 classrooms and related facilities and housing about 36,200 children. In a few isolated areas, chiefly in Alaska and Arizona, it was also necessary to construct living quarters for teachers.

Unpaid Entitlements Under Title II

As stated, only 740 of the 941 eligible school districts received allotments and only $293 million was available to pay the total entitlement of a little over $392 million. This left valid entitlements of approximately $98 million which could not be paid. The eligible districts that did not receive allotments were those that had constructed facilities with their own funds so that they had less than 10 percent unhoused, and those that requested reimbursement. In amending the act in 1953 the Congress extended the period of time in which appropriations could be made to pay these entitlements but limited the total amount that could be appropriated to $55 million and provided that no district could receive more than 70 percent of its unpaid entitlement.

The second session of the 83d Congress appropriated the $55 million authorized for these unpaid entitlements and gave the school districts until September 30, 1954, to renew their requests. The $55 million appropriated will be sufficient to pay about 60 percent of the amount still due each district. Construction has not yet begun on any of the projects financed under this new appropriation. Judging from past experience, this $55 million, when supplemented by local contributions, will provide about 3,600 classrooms and related facilities for about 76,000 children.

Changes Under Title III

In extending Public Law 815 the Congress eliminated from Title III the concept of "entitlement" and substituted in its place a "maximum payment," which was the amount computed for a school district under the formulas or the cost of constructing minimum school facilities for "unhoused" children, whichever was smaller. Under this concept reimbursement for facilities already constructed was eliminated and grants were limited to an amount sufficient to provide facilities only for unhoused children. These changes together with restrictions on the counting of children and a reduction in the Federal amount per child in some categories substantially reduced the amount due each district and the total cost of the program in comparison with the original act.

A total of $140,000,000 was appropriated for the program authorized by the extension of Public Law 815, $70 million for the first fiscal year and $70 million for the second. On the basis of data presently available it appears that this amount is sufficient to meet all requirements under the act. By June 30, 1954, the final date for receipt of applications, a total of 675 school districts had applied for assistance under Section 305. Of these, probably 500 will be eligible to receive allotments of approximately $110,000,000 for 600 projects. This amount together with local funds, will provide school housing for approximately 140,000 "unhoused" children.

Under this extension of the act, seven projects have been approved in the amount of $1,286,400 to construct temporary school facilities for 1,890 children. Projects to provide for 3,712 children who live on Federal property have also been approved. A number of these are additions to buildings constructed under the original act. Their estimated cost is $2,400,000.

Title IV

Public Law 815 originally provided that a school district could not count for entitlement more children than the increase in school enrollment over a specified year. This was to insure that a district would obtain construction funds only for children who had come into the community because of Federal activities and to prevent the payment of entitlement for children whose families lived in the area before the impact occurred.

This concept was well adapted to the impact pattern caused by defense and related activities. It did not, however, meet those relatively few situations where large numbers of school children lived on nontaxable Federal land but where there had been little or no growth in school attendance during the period specified. Such situations were mostly in districts containing Indian reservations on which school children lived. They could not meet the eligibility requirements for growth and very few of them received any benefits under the original act.

To meet this specific problem the 83d Congress added Title IV, which based eligibility only on "unhoused" children living on nontaxable, federally owned land and on the lack of financial resources for necessary school facilities. This provision was the first overall authorization of Federal grants to school districts for school facilities primarily for children on Indian reservations.

By July 31, 1954, 55 school districts had applied for assistance under Title IV, of which 33 were eligible. As of this date, funds totaling $6,860,512 had been allotted to 29 school projects in this category to construct school facilities for approximately 6,000 children.

Districts have until December 31, 1954, to file applications under this title. When this program is completed it appears that school facilities will have been provided for 18,000 Indian children in 100 school districts at a cost of $20,000,000. Most but not all of these projects are located in 3 States—Arizona, Montana, and New Mexico.

Further Extension of Public Law 815

Just prior to the end of the congressional session last August, the Congress again amended and extended Title III of Public Law 815 for an additional 2-year period, until June 30, 1956. The need for an extension was made necessary primarily by a number of new or expanded Air Force bases, new and expanded Atomic Energy Commission projects, construction of additional housing projects on military bases, and a few new nondefense projects.

The amendment simply extended Title III of the law for two additional years. Districts can submit new applications and count the increase in federally connected children for two more years to June 30, 1956. The eligibility requirements and formula provisions in Title III, Public Law 246, were preserved in the new act. An additional amount will be sought for the 1955 fiscal year when the 84th Congress convenes in January 1955.

Summary of Accomplishments

In summary, the program authorized by Public Law 815 and its amendment, P. L. 246, when completed, will provide 22,000 equipped classrooms and related facilities containing approximately 47,400,000 square feet of floor space and housing 668,000 pupils. Thus projects aided by Federal funds will provide school housing for three out of every four children reported as eligible for payment of part of the cost to build needed school facilities. The estimated total cost is $730,000,000, of which $533,800,000 is from Federal funds, the remainder is from State and local resources.

The amount shown as the local share of the cost of constructing school facilities—$200,000,000 or 30 percent of the total cost of federally aided local projects—does not reveal the full extent of local effort put forth in these impacted areas to build school facilities. The State and local contributions shown are simply the amount added to Federal funds for projects approved under the Federal programs. Most federally impacted districts have voted bonds and constructed facilities throughout the entire

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Making Education More Effective Through School-Community Collaboration

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist for School and Children's Libraries,
Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

SCHOOLS of today recognize more than ever before the importance of satisfactory communication between home and school. There is much knowledge that the home may well communicate to the school and the school to the home, as each increasingly recognizes the fact that education requires thoughtful working together to secure the best possible development of each individual child. However, the understanding that makes for good relationships is often difficult to obtain; its maintenance must be a continuous process.

Sometimes, particularly in a new school, a simple learning situation may be so handled that it arouses the interest and curiosity of the children, reaches into their homes, and as a result literally pulls both parents and community resources into the school. Such a situation may be created through an exhibit of materials if the subject of the exhibit can be related to the interests and experiences of the adult population as well as to those of the children.

A Significant Story

Recently a collection of various objects from Japan, including pictures painted by Japanese children and some of their favorite books and toys, was made available to the Page Elementary School in Arlington, Va.

The children were attracted immediately, because in their community almost everyone knew of someone who had been in service in Japan, and a few of the children had lived there with their parents in recent years. After the boys and girls communicated the news of the exhibit to their families, many parents volunteered to tell the children of life and customs of Japanese children and about the country of Japan. Furthermore, the parents and many of the children were able to add to the exhibit. For example, one 10-year-old boy brought a doll, a much prized token of friendship, given to his older sister by the Princess Takako of the Imperial family; a lad of 12 brought an exhibit of pearl culture from the Mikimoto Pearl Farm; a girl brought an armload of Japanese cushions; and a father whose daughter was absent because of illness brought her Japanese doll's house. Parents showed as avid an interest in the articles exhibited as the students.

Behind this particular exhibit sent by the children of Yokosuka is a significant story. A teacher in the United States was asked by a former student, who was going to work as a nurse in Japan, "What shall I bring you as a souvenir?" In reply the teacher said, "The jade, ivory, and linen you can buy overseas is not important to me. Find out what the children you are serving need and I shall send it to you if I can." The request which came back to the American teacher asked for books to help the children learn English. Books were sent from several sources. As a result this exhibit—named for Caro Lane, a teacher in Georgia—was sent by the children of Yokosuka to the children of the United States.

The books sent by Miss Lane, some 300 including text books for the primary school and the junior and senior high schools, form the nucleus of the "Lane Library" in the Educational Research Institute of Yokosuka. They are eagerly demanded by the various schools in the city as reference books for the use of teachers.

The Caro Lane Exhibit is made up of hundreds of articles representative of Japanese life. There are photographs, guide-books of Japan, tea-services, lacquer-wares, bamboo-wares, "Yukata" dresses, parasols, so-ro-bans (abacuses) and other typical

objects. In the exhibit there are also 51 textbooks used in Japanese schools today.

Recently photographs were made of the project by the United States Information Agency for use in Japanese newspapers. Some of the pictures are reproduced here. They show what is happening in a school in the United States where the exhibit is being used successfully by pupils, parents, and teachers.

Exhibit Prompts Questions

The display is effectively set up in the school's library by the librarian with the assistance of the art teacher and pupils. Here it is readily accessible to the whole school and to the community. Furthermore, reference books and books dealing with travel, folklore, art, and stories of children in Japan are close at hand to answer some of the questions asked.

The artistic effect of the exhibit is heightened by vases of flowers arranged in the Japanese style by a mother who lived in Tokyo for more than 2 years. This mother has also come to the school several times to answer the flood of questions about life in Japan that the exhibit continues to prompt. One day she gave the children a lesson on how to eat with chopsticks. Another mother brought her 7-year-old daughter dressed in a kimono and helped other little girls dress in Japanese costume for a tea party. She also sent a handsome low table for the party. The table had been presented to her in Japan as a gift by some of her Japanese friends.

Knowledge Leads to Understanding

The principal of the school has taken an active part in the various projects stimulated by the exhibit. Her reaction is summed up in the statement, "It seems to me that one of the best ways to promote world friendship and understanding is through the efforts of teachers, children, and parents—just as it is being fostered by the Japanese collection."

Certainly in the eyes of the teacher and in those of many other participants, this exhibit has proved a provocative stimulus for bringing the school and community together in an enjoyable and worthwhile learning experience.

U. S. Education

(Continued from p. 23)

attained. According to the 1930 United States Census, 4,173,951, or 14.3 percent of the 29,066,072 children 6 to 17 years of age were not attending school. Of the number not attending school, 1,658,965, or 39.7 percent, were of elementary school age (6 to 13, inclusive) and 2,514,986, or 60.3 percent, were of high school age (14 to 17, inclusive)."

It is true that statistics over a great many years may not be wholly comparable, but perhaps one comparison made in a recent bulletin of the Office of Education most concisely reveals progress on this vital problem "of having all the children of elementary and secondary school age (16 to 17, inclusive) attend school."

That comparison concerns the "average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools of the United States." It shows that the "average number of days attended by each child 5 to 17 years of age (inclusive)" for the school year 1929–30, was 116.3; for the school year, 1949–50 (latest year for these complete figures), the average number of days had climbed to 128.8.

Many factors have entered into school enrollment and school attendance progress in the United States. No longer are distances from school such difficult factors, for public school funds in the respective States provide transportation. More than 130,000 vehicles transport more than 8,000,000 children to and from school daily throughout the Nation. When necessary, public funds can also be used for boarding children near schools. Consolidation of school districts, more suitable buildings, more adequate equipment, increased preparation of teachers, greatly improved roads, closer enforcement of school attendance laws, public interest in the schools—all these and others have been and are constructive influences toward the goal of educating all of our children.

Every State compulsory school law in the United States applies equally to boys and girls; and elementary and secondary education in the public schools has always been, and is today, free to all children who enroll. The long-range result of such laws would seem to be reflected in the facts that during the past decade "about half of the young people in the United States have completed a full high school education, whereas a generation earlier about half of the young people had not advanced beyond elementary school," according to the Bureau of the Census. At the higher education level there was an increase in "the number of college graduates living in the United States" from approximately 4.7 million in 1947, to 6.7 million in 1952, according to census reports. Again, many factors have played their part in this heartening educational progress.

Referring once more to the school attendance laws and their effective enforcement, it should be mentioned that they are highly

What types of questions do educational leaders of other countries ask about education in the United States? The following questions were asked at the 17th International Conference on Public Education at Geneva, Switzerland, this year:

POLAND

What is being done about adult education?
What about your problem of illiteracy, especially Negro and Indian?
Is elementary, secondary, higher education free?
What proportion finish secondary school?

GERMANY

Is TV used in or by schools?
Can it raise the activity of children in school, or does it reduce it?

CANADA

What are the functions and responsibilities of the U. S. Office of Education?

INDIA

Is it true that at the higher levels of education there is much wastage?

UKRAINIAN S. S. R.

What is the explanation of why so many leave the secondary schools? In what level of society are they? Why do you pay such insufficient attention to the teaching of physics and mathematics, and to the behavior of children?

U. S. S. R.

What about the discrimination against Negro children?

UNITED KINGDOM

Will the Supreme Court decision on segregation be effective, or will the States defy it?
What success has there been in teaching languages in the primary schools?

supported by public opinion of citizens throughout the Nation. In this relation it would seem appropriate to recall that in the United States, education is a direct responsibility of the respective States; fundamentally, of local communities and the people.

The Federal Government, however, along with the States and local communities, reflects the spirit of that early International Conference's "Recommendation No. 1" through its ever increasing interest in assuring "to each child adequate physical, intellectual and moral development."

The President of the United States recently said in these words:

"Our schools—all our schools—must have a continuing priority in our concern for community and national welfare."

An Overall View of Progress

The total soaring school enrollment of the United States has been roughly estimated at about 37,000,000 in 1954. Some have ventured to estimate that by 1960 the figure will go as high as 45,000,000; others say even that figure is conservative.

The facts are that increasing numbers of 5-, 6-, and 7-year-old children are entering school; increasing numbers of 16-, 17-, and 18-year-olds are remaining in school; and increasing numbers of young people are attending colleges and universities. All of these factors together with our "burgeoning birthrate" show us that the United States faces a long-range development program in education—one of the greatest challenges to educators, and to all citizens, in our Nation's history.

Parts of such a challenge are: the bringing home to people in all the States, in all the communities, facts about education, facts about their schools; and their own personal responsibility toward the whole of education in the United States. Educators are increasingly emphasizing to the people of their respective States the need for them to consider thoroughly the kind, the quality, and the amount of schooling our communities and States are to give their children; the need to plan for the wisest possible use of the resources they have; and to develop programs to secure necessary facilities.

The importance of such development of citizen understanding of the whole gamut of educational problems is recognized more fully when one stops to think that in the United States only the citizens can see to it that there are adequate taxes for the support of education; and only the citizens can give the adequate moral support essential to all educational progress.

Preliminary plans have been laid this year for increasing and continuing wide efforts toward bringing the schools and the people even nearer to each other. The manifest interest of American citizens in their schools and in trying to help solve educational problems in their local communities is one of the brightest and most encouraging signs of our times.

In his State of the Union Message to the Congress of the United States this year, the President of the United States made the following comments related to such plans for bringing the schools and the people nearer each other in their understanding:

"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."

The President has already announced that it is his 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."

Current progress of citizen interest in the schools throughout the United States is evidenced by such reports as the following which are typical of many groups both large and small:

Parent-teacher associations are said to have doubled their membership since 1946, and participation continues to increase. The evidence of public interest in education displayed by the press, in the magazines, on television and radio, and related channels is proof of how important education is considered to be by millions of citizens today.

There were fewer than 1,000 lay citizen education groups which we knew of in 1950. Today, there are citizen committees working on educational problems with local school boards in at least 8,000 communities which we know of throughout the United States.

It is also true that in communities where there have been active citizen groups devoted to the best interests of the schools, the results have often included approval of school building programs and their financing; better salary schedules for teachers; improvements in school curriculums more truly reflecting community needs and interests; and other related achievements.

In this overall view of educational progress, it would seem appropriate to indicate that the United States Office of Education is now an agency in the Federal Government's new Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Through congressional action in 1953, this department was organized and the functions of the former overall organization, the Federal Security Agency, of which the Office of Education had been a part for several years, were transferred to the new department. The head of the Department is a member of the President's Cabinet; and the Office of Education, with "Education" in the department's name, has thus gained further recognition for the place of education in the Federal Government's structure. This in turn should reflect constructively on education throughout the Nation.

The Office of Education's wide research services fill a clearinghouse function. This year, as in all years, its findings have been made available to the people of all the States so that they may direct, improve, and govern their own schools in accordance with the best known practices throughout the States, and in line with our traditional emphasis on local and State responsibility for education to which we are dedicated. The Office during the past year has informed educators and citizens through scores of major publications; through conferences and workshops not only in the Nation's Capital but over the country; and by means of answers to more than half a million inquiries received during the year.

In addition to its research and clearinghouse activities, the Office at present administers roughly $136,500,000 annually—a sum appropriated by the Congress for payments to school districts—for the construction and operation of schools in areas which are affected by Federal activities. It administers about $26,000,000 annually for vocational education in local communities of the respective States throughout the country; and it disburses more than $5,000,000 to the land-grant colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.

Enumeration after enumeration could be made showing educational progress during the current school year in elementary and secondary schools, in vocational education, in higher education, in adult education, in

international education and understanding; but in the overall picture of such progress, together with its problems yet to solve, perhaps no one feature is truly more valuable and far reaching than the growing "teamwork in education" to insure every child the opportunity to find and to fill his useful role in society.

The following sections of this report present the more detailed view of educational progress—and problems—in the United States during the 1953–54 school year.

The second part of Dr. Reed's article will be presented in the December issue of SCHOOL LIFE.

Federal Assistance

(Continued from p. 26)

period. It is believed that these communities have provided, in addition to their contributions to Federal projects, an amount which exceeds the total Federal appropriation.

This program, like that authorized by Public Law 874, has been very substantial in terms of the amount of Federal funds required and the number of districts participating. It has not provided any luxurious school buldings or added capacity beyond the immediate needs of any community. Yet it has enabled many communities to have essential school facilities for the children of in-migrant military and civilian personnel. Without this aid many communities serving vital Federal projects would have been forced to resort to double or even triple sessions or to use unsafe buildings.

School Savings Program

DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR 1954–55 the U. S. Treasury Department is extending its School Savings Program to an even greater number of classrooms.

A new "take home" folder emphasizes the benefits of thrift for children and points out the advantages to adults of purchasing Savings Bonds through Payroll Savings or Bond-a-Month plans. This folder also serves as an album for Savings Stamps.

For teaching aids, posters, and the handbook *How To Manage Your School Savings Program* write to Savings Bonds Division, Treasury Department. Washington 25, D. C.

Juvenile Delinquency

(Continued from p. 22)

needed by children whose attention spans are short and who have difficulty in learning through abstract generalizations. Research has demonstrated that young people who move from experience to experience within the school program stay in school longer and develop greater affection and loyalty for the school. Many aggressive delinquents get more from these experiences than from regular academic learning. These young people learn the skill subjects through activities related to their specific interests such as conservation, fishing.

20. Work-learn-outdoor experimental schools be provided for teenagers. This camp experience has resulted in improved group attitudes and behavior where it has been tried.

Conclusion

Since the schools deal directly with the majority of youth from 10 to 17 years of age, and since the bulk of delinquents come from this age range, they have a tremendous opportunity and responsibility before them. Schools and communities which accept this point of view must do their utmost to improve their programs and services for all pupils. Challenging instruction, understanding leadership, and community support of sound school programs—these will make our schools, indeed, the first line of defense against juvenile delinquency.

Selected Readings

Hill, Arthur S., Leonard M. Miller, *and* Hazel F. Gabbard. Schools Face the Delinquency Problem. *The Bulletin, National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, vol. 37, No. 198, December 1953. 30 cents.

National Education Association. Schools Help Prevent Delinquency. *Research Bulletin* 31: 99–131, October 1953. 50 cents.

Children's Bureau. Understanding Juvenile Delinquency. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau Publication 300) Rev. 1949. 49 p. 20 cents.

Glueck, Sheldon. The Home, the School, and Delinquency. *The Harvard Educational Review* 23: 17–32, Winter 1953, $1.

Glueck, S. *and* E. T. Glueck. Delinquents in the Making. New York, Harper and Bros., 1952. 214 p. $3.

Kvaraceus, William C. Juvenile Delinquency and the School. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, World Book Co., 1945. 337 p. $2.

Peck, Harris B., *and* Virginia Bellsmith. Treatment of the Delinquent Adolescent. New York, Family Service Association of America, 1954. $2.

Expenditures Per Pupil

IN 80 LARGE CITIES of 100,000 population or more the current expenditures per pupil for the school year 1952–53 ranged from $134 to $395. Cities of this size in the middle half of the expenditure span spent from $221.34 to $298.88 per pupil a year. This is a daily expenditure of from $1.21 to $1.68 per pupil.

In 110 small cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population, current expenditures per pupil ranged from $97 to $676. The middle half of the cities in this population group had a range in expenditure for the year from $201.53 to $251.16 per pupil, or $1.12 to $1.40 per pupil per day for each school day.

These facts and others on the amount of money spent on the education of each public school pupil in 413 cities are reported in two recent publications of the Office of Education. They are: *Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Large Cities, 1952–53* (Circular No. 391); and *Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Small and Medium-Sized Cities* (Circular No. 392). Both reports were prepared by Lester B. Herlihy, specialist in Educational Statistics, Office of Education.

In releasing these publications Samuel M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, said: "These data will be helpful to school administrators and others in seeing how their cities stand comparatively in the amount of money spent on costs of teaching, administration, and other current expenses in public school education. What others spend is by no means what any individual city should necessarily spend, but to know if one is or is not in line with others can be a useful guide in seeking out why such differences exist."

Copies of the publications may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for 25 cents.

Teaching Is An Attractive Career

(*Continued from p. 20*)

There is now a critical need for qualified elementary school teachers throughout the Nation. Exceptions are a few very large cities and their vicinities. This situation will continue for at least 10 years. The major reason for this great shortage is the tremendous increase in the number of children born during the last 12 years.

The wave of increased enrollments has already almost swamped the elementary schools; it will move on to deluge the high schools and later the colleges. Elementary attendance will be even higher than it is now, and present high school and college enrollments will be more than doubled. The number preparing for teaching is now less than one-half of the 150,000 new teachers who will be sorely needed each year for the next 10 years to care for the swelling tide of elementary and secondary school students. Colleges will face an equally desperate need for teachers at a later date.

What Are the Attractive Features?

The same features of teaching may be attractive to some people and unattractive to others. However, in general, the phases which are attractive to most people are job security, the chance to work with young people and to help them grow, the relatively short hours on the job, and the long summer vacations that are three times as long as those in any other major vocation. In addition, schools are closed on Saturdays. Many teachers prize the chance to manage their own classrooms and to experiment with different methods of helping boys and girls grow and develop. In the main, if a person likes people and likes to do things for them, if he is comfortable in dealing with people in a cooperative relationship, if he gets a thrill in sharing new experiences with boys and girls, if he can get people to work with him enthusiastically, if he enjoys planning his work step by step and if he likes books and reading, teaching will be an attractive occupation for him.

Many teachers refuse better paying offers in nonschool work because of the deep satisfaction they get in helping their students grow and mature into fine young men and women. They get much satisfaction in their service to humanity and in being a part of a profession that is working to build a better world. They find it an inspiration and fun to work with children and youth.

Public school teachers in all States are now provided substantial income upon retirement. These retirement programs are improving steadily. In most States, a teacher obtains permanent tenure after 4 or 5 years of successful teaching. This means that he cannot be dismissed except after a fair hearing in which legally specified procedures have been followed. The surroundings are pleasant and the teachers are a congenial group. In most parts of the Nation, a woman teacher may look forward to continuing her teaching after marriage. Restrictions on teachers, except in a few rural communties, are no more severe than those which any moral person should hold for himself.

What Are Unattractive Features?

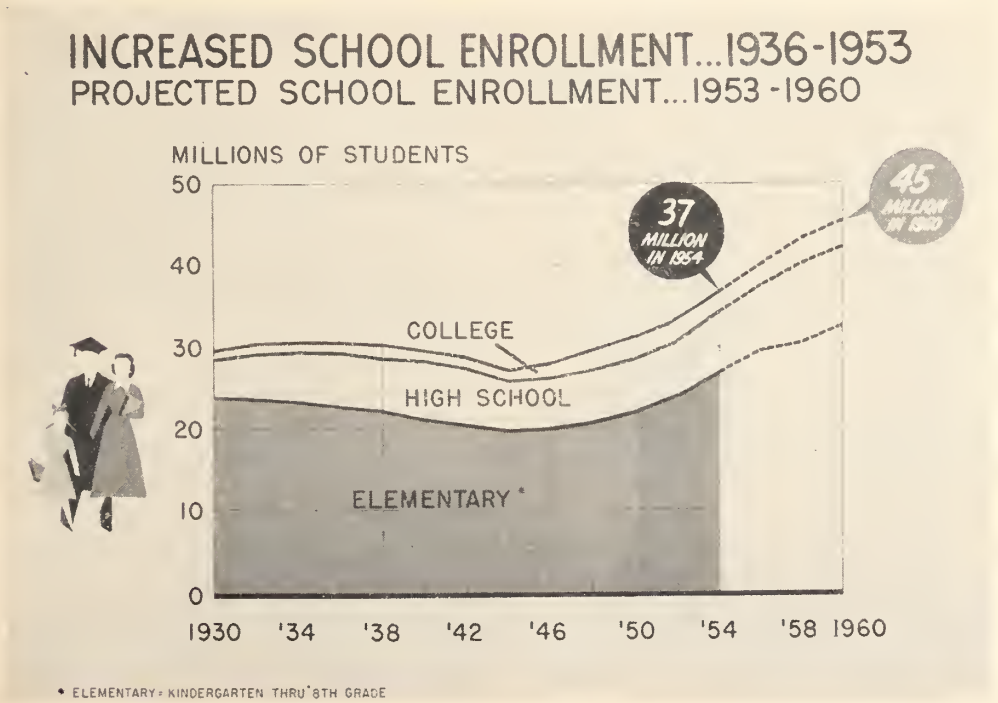
Aspects of teaching which some people do not like are somewhat low salaries in some districts, numerous routine duties, overcrowded classes, unhappiness in the failure of pupils, and narrow standards of conduct. Every occupation has its annoying features. Teaching also has some, but relatively no more than other occupations. Adequate salaries are becoming the concern of communities, and as a result salary schedules are improving steadily.

Factors in Choosing a Vocation

In choosing a vocation, every young person should attempt to analyze his abilities and interests and to relate them to the demands of each of the vocations which he considers as a career. He should pick that vocation which gives him enduring satisfactions and the one in which he feels he can make the greatest contribution. Among the values which he should examine are income, service, enjoyment, competency, and features of the employment which will add to or detract from his satisfactions in living. Everyone should select a vocation which he thoroughly enjoys. Any vocation in which there is not a stimulating challenge should not be considered.

An excellent way to discover some of the satisfactions and annoyances which one may find in teaching is to work as a leader with groups of boys and girls. Teaching a Sunday school class counseling in a summer camp, and supervising playground activities are experiences which aid one in determining his abilities in helping young people to enjoy their activities and to grow in worthwhile endeavor. The judgments of teachers, friends, and relatives should also assist in determining vocational choices.

The purpose of this discussion is to point out some of the features in teaching which may help those who are considering it as a career. The children of our land require outstanding teachers who thoroughly enjoy their work. Their futures and that of our Nation depend upon the kind of teaching which they receive in school. There is no greater or more satisfying service than that of a happy and stimulating teacher.



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 a Sick-Leave Program for School Personnel. Washington, D. C., The American Association of School Administrators, A Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1954. 24 p. Illus. 50 cents.

A History of American Education. By Stuart G. Noble, revised edition. New York, Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1954. 552 p. $5.

Beginning Jobs for Young Workers; A Series of 12 Charts Giving Basic Facts on 72 Entry Jobs for Young Workers. Washington, D. C., B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1954. 12 p. Illus. $1.

Books for Junior Colleges; A list of 4,000 books, periodicals, films, and filmstrips. Compiled by Frank J. Bertalan. Chicago, Ill., American Library Association, 1954. 321 p. $7.50.

Bibliography of Books for Children. 1954 Edition. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1954. 109 p. (General Service Bulletin No. 37.) $1.25.

Counseling With Parents in Early Childhood Education. By Edith M. Leonard, Dorothy D. Vandeman, and Lillian E. Miles. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1954. 330 p. $3.75.

Committee Common Sense. (The Why, Who, When, What and How of Successful Committee Operations.) By Audrey R. Trecker and Harleigh B. Trecker. New York, Whiteside, Inc., and William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1954. 158 p. $2.50.

Educational Wastelands. By Arthur E. Bestor. Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois Press, 1953. 226 p. $3.50.

Education in a Democracy.—By Alonzo F. Myers and Clarence O. Williams. Fourth Edition. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 349 p. Illus. $4.50.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials. Edited by Patricia A. Horkheimer, Paul T. Cody, and John Guy Fowlkes. Eleventh Edition, 1954. Randolph, Wis., Educators Progress Service, 1954. 332 p. $5.50.

Fire Safe School Buildings. New York, National Board of Fire Underwriters, 1954. 21 p. Illus. (Free from National Board of Underwriters, 85 John Street, New York 38, N. Y.)

Helping High-School Students Read Better; A Program Manual for Teachers and Administrators. By Elizabeth A. Simpson. Chicago, Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 146 p. Cloth $3.60; Paper $2.95.

How To Teach Current Events: Using The News To Build Democratic Citizenship. Columbus, Ohio, American Education Publications, 1954. 31 p. (Single copy free from Wesleyan University Press, 1250 Fairwood, Columbus 16, Ohio.)

Language Arts for Today's Children. Prepared by The Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. 431 p. Illus. (NCTE Curriculum Series.) $3.75.

Living and Learning in Nursery School. By Marguerita Rudolph. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 174 p. $2.75.

Our State and Local Government; With Text By Robert Rienow. Albany, N. Y., Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, New York State Education Department, 1954. 204 p. Illus.

School Boards and Superintendents. Revised Edition, A Manual on Their Powers and Duties. By Ward G. Reeder. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1954. 254 p. $3.50.

The Story of the Declaration of Independence. By Dumas Malone. New York, Oxford University Press, 1954. 282 p. Illus. $10.

The Superintendency of Public Schools—An Anxious Profession. By Willard B. Spalding. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1954. 53 p. (The Inglis Lecture, 1953.) $1.50.

What Tests Can Tell Us About Children. By J. Wayne Wrightstone. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 47 p. (Better Living Booklets.) 40 cents.

A Guide for Hearing Testing of School Children in the Public Schools of California. Recommendations of California State Department of Public Health and California State Department of Education. Sacramento, State Department of Education, 1954. 29 p.

Accent on Teaching; Experiments in General Education. Edited by Sidney J. French. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 334 p. $4.75.

Careers and Opportunities in Science; a Survey of All Fields. By Philip Pollack. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1954. 252 p. Illus. $3.75.

Careers for English Majors. By L. Ruth Middlebrook. New York, New York University Press, 1954. 27 p. 25 cents. (Address: New York University Press, Washington Square, New York 3, N. Y.)

Education in Florida Past and Present. Tallahassee, Florida State University, 1954. 182 p. (Florida State University Studies Number Fifteen.)

Furs Glamorous and Practical; Fur Buying Mystery Removed. By Frank G. Ashbrook. New York, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1954. 88 p. Illus. $2.95.

Transportation

(Continued from p. 2 of cover)

"Specialization in pupil transportation by school administrators is a growing need," Dr. Featherston points out. "A competent administrator in this area would be a sound economic investment for the school district that may operate from 25 to 150 school buses and may spend hundreds of thousands of dollars annually for transportation services. Although some in-service training is provided, there is great opportunity for expansion at both the State and local level."

Yes, as was suggested at the conference of educators and automobile-bus-truck manufacturers, our schools most definitely are in a big business of transportation each day of the school year. And they are doing a good job of it.

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

Books To Help Build International Understanding together with a Supplement of Radio Recordings. Prepared by Nora E. Beust and Gertrude C. Broderick. Revised, June 1954. Free.

Books That Need No Dusting. By Delia Goetz. Reprint from School Life, May 1954. Free.

How Children Can Be Creative. By Wilhelmina Hill, Helen K. Mackintosh, and Arne Randall. Bulletin 1954, No. 12. 15 cents.

Cooperative Education in the United States. By Henry H. Armsby. Bulletin 1954, No. 11. 25 cents.

Enrollments in Home Economics Courses in Land-Grant Institutions During the Academic Year 1952–53. Misc. 3463, June 1954. Free.

Experimenting in Elementary Science. Prepared by Paul E. Blackwood. Education Briefs No. 12, Revised 1954. Free.

Guidance Workers' Preparation—College and University Offerings in Guidance and Related Phases of Student Personnel Services. By Leonard M. Miller and Ralph W. Beckley. Circular No. 402, July 1954. Free.

History of Agricultural Education of Less Than College Grade in the United States. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 217. 1942. Reprinted 1954. $2.

Home Economics in Degree-Granting Institutions, 1953–54. Misc. 2557, Revised 1954. Free.

Planning and Designing the Multipurpose Room in Elementary Schools. Prepared by James L. Taylor. Special Publication No. 3, 1954. 35 cents.

References for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language. Prepared by Arno Jewett and Marjorie C. Johnston. Circular No. 401, August 1954. Free.

Undergraduate and Graduate Professional Preparation in Health Education, Physical Education, and Recreation. By Simon A. McNeely, Elsa Schneider, Ralph W. Beckley, and Stella T. Sebern. Circular No. 403, June 1954. Free.

Factors Affecting the Improvement of Secondary Education. Condensed Record of a Round Table Discussion. Edited by Howard H. Cummings, J. Dan Hull, John R. Ludington, and Berenice Mallory. Circular No. 404, 1954. 70 cents.

State Certification Requirements for Teachers of Exceptional Children. By Romaine P. Mackie and Lloyd M. Dunn. Bulletin 1954, No. 1. 25 cents.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Annual Report of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1953. $1.

The Living Waters. Tells how water helps us, how we harm water by making it dirty, and how we can keep our waters clean. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

Role of the Police in Mental Health. Emphasizes the importance of the police contacts with a child in trouble, and with the child's family, and suggests sources of additional information on child behavior. Public Health Service. 1954. 5 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Asparagus Culture. Revised 1954. 15 cents.

Beef-Cattle Breeds for Beef and for Beef and Milk. Revised 1954. 15 cents.

Guide to Popular Floras of the United States and Alaska. An annotated, selected list of nontechnical works for the identification of flowers, ferns, and trees. 1954. 25 cents.

Homemakers' Use of and Opinions about Fats and Oils Used in Cooking. 1954. 50 cents.

Department of Labor

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Security in the Pacific. An address by John Foster Dulles, Secretary of State, before the Los Angeles World Affairs Council, Los Angeles, California, June 11, 1954. Press Release No. 318. Free.

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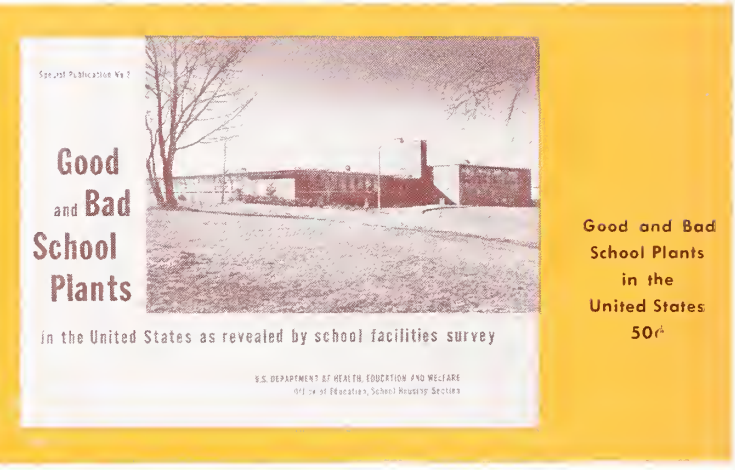

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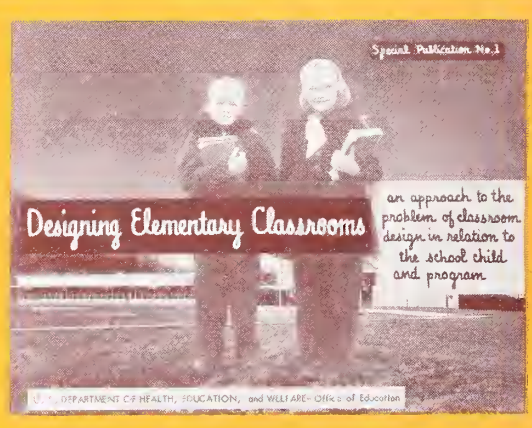

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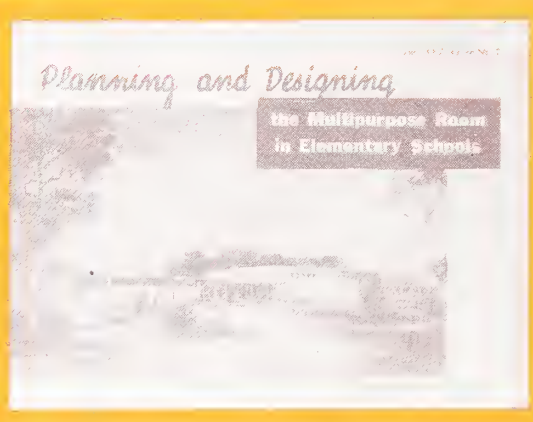

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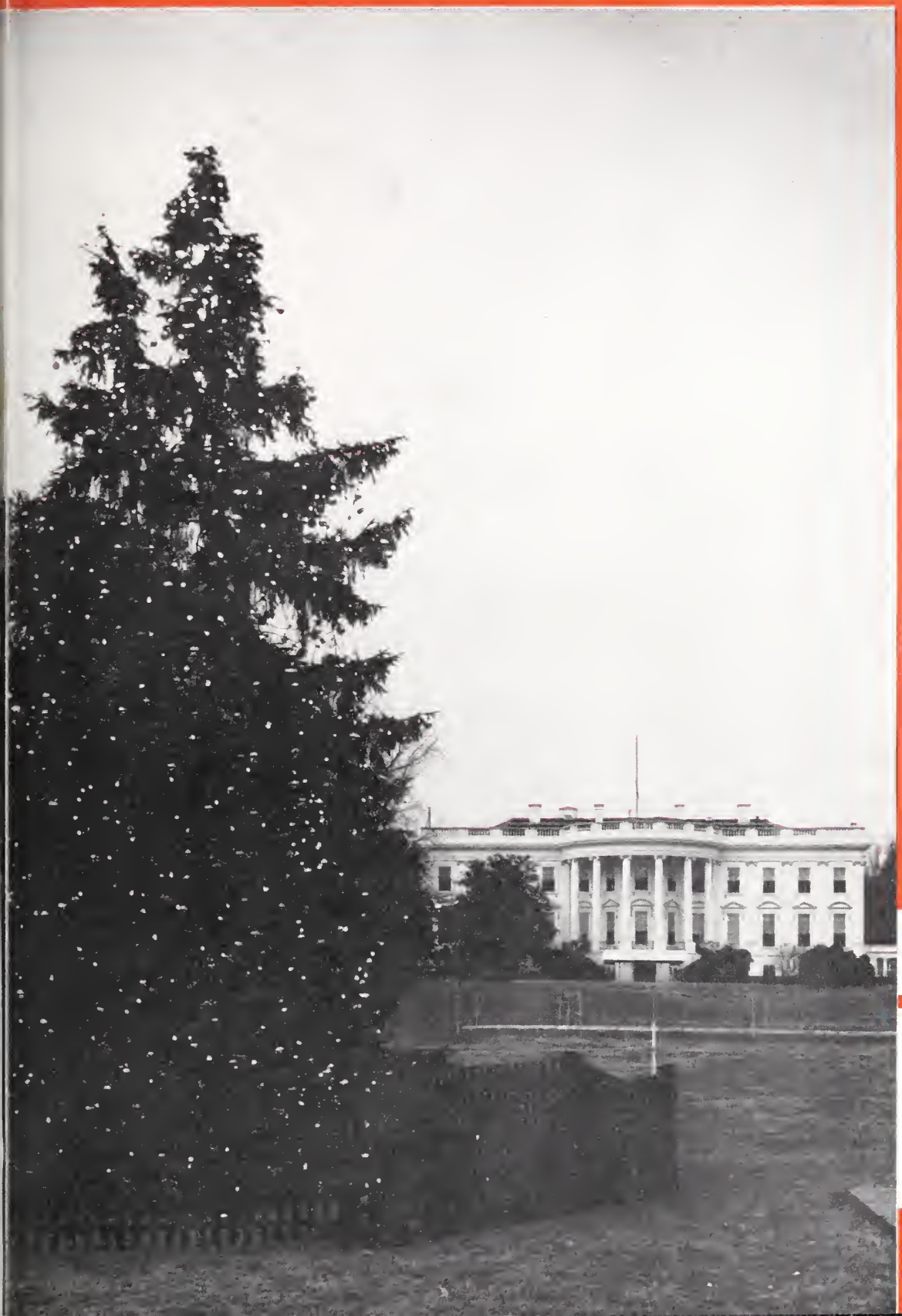

The Nation's Christmas Tree

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

On Earning A Million Dollars[1]

WHEN I was in college William Jennings Bryan addressed a convocation. I don't remember what he said in his talk although I was much impressed by the beautiful way he said it. He held all of us spellbound. At the conclusion he said that questions might be asked and I do recall one of them and his answer. The question was—"Do you think a man can really earn a million dollars in a lifetime?"

His answer was about like this:

"Yes. In terms of real contribution to the good of the world I'm sure that there have been many who earned a million dollars. The contribution of Thomas Jefferson to the development of this Nation might cause us to list him as having earned a million dollars.

"Few would fail to list Abraham Lincoln's contributions to the advance of democracy as worth a million dollars. But it has been my observation that the men who earn a million dollars are so busy earning it that they haven't time to collect it. Those who collect a million in their lifetime are so busy collecting it that they seldom have time to earn it."

I didn't then and I do not now subscribe to that doctrine completely, but I recognize full well that in it lies more than a grain of truth. Those who place first in their concern the well-being of mankind we too often fail to reward. Their good works we take for granted.

Several months ago Mrs. Margaret Lewisohn, who herself was one of those persons with a concern for people that caused her to devote her time and energy to advance human welfare, asked me to save the night of October 20 to recognize the services of a man that I consider has earned a million dollars in a way for which I doubt if he'll collect a cent.

I wish that tonight I could present him the million dollars he has earned by his faithful, modest, far-sighted leadership of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools and all that it has done for and will mean to public education of this country. His devotion, his sacrifice of time and energy, his wisdom in enlisting the interest and concern of tens of thousands of citizens about improving education in their community have been an inspiration to citizens and educators throughout the land.

It was my privilege to meet Roy Larsen in the early days of the Citizens Commission. Our paths have crossed frequently and with each crossing my respect, my admiration, and my appreciation grow for what he does and is.

I count it a special privilege tonight to be one who can let Roy Larsen know that we realize that while he may not collect the million he has earned, he has collected the wholehearted thanks of millions. In addition he has the full gratitude of all of us here that we are having the chance to know him and to work with him.

[1] This statement by S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, was made in conferring an award for distinguished citizen service to public education to Mr. Roy Larsen, Chairman of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, on October 20 in New York City.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph by A. Rowe, National Park Service, Department of the Interior.

CONTENTS for DECEMBER 1954

Volume 37 Number 3

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)

Teachers from India participating in the International Teacher Education Program are welcomed by Office officials. Left to right: Oliver J. Caldwell, Assistant Commissioner, Office of Education; M. S. Sundaram, Cultural Counselor, Embassy of India; S. Jagdish Ichhpunani, S. Thiruvenkatachari, Mulkh Oberoi, Asoke Sarkar, teachers; and Raymond C. Gibson, Director, Educational Missions, Point IV, Office of Education.

Educational Partners—India and America

D. K. Hingorani, Educational Attaché, Embassy of India, Washington, D. C.

THE silent role of education in forging a lasting friendship between India and America needs to be better known. The two countries, in spite of their differing backgrounds, have quite a few common features and problems in the field of education. For instance, as in America, education in India is, under the constitution, a local and State function. The Ministry of Education of the Indian Union Government has neither executive nor administrative powers over educational activities in the States. It is essentially an advisory body with functions more or less analogous to those of the U. S. Office of Education. But the Ministry of Education is hardly ten years old; its organization and functions are still growing. The organization and activities of the U. S. Office of Education serve as an excellent model for the future development of the Ministry of Education and its many functions. This is an important field of cooperation between India and America, particularly in view of their somewhat similar educational problems.

Literacy Workshops

Both countries suffer from serious shortages of teachers and classrooms against steeply rising rates of school-age children. There are, however, a few fundamental differences. For instance, India has a very heavy handicap of a long legacy of appalling illiteracy, about 80 percent at present. And she lacks educational equipment of every kind. She also suffers from a serious shortage of financial and technical resources. Even so, she is struggling hard to achieve the goal of universal literacy in the foreseeable future. One of the crying needs of her literacy campaigns is literature for neoliterates. America, on the other hand, is placed, in all these respects, in a most fortunate position in which she can lend a helping hand to less developed countries, like India. As a token of America's interest in India's problems of educational expansion, the Ford Foundation cooperated with the Ministry of Education in the Government of India to hold in 1953–54 four literacy workshops for training of promising writers to produce reading material specially suitable for neoliterates.

Education Commissions

The problem of educational expansion in India is, however, complicated by the urgent need to improve the quality of existing educational facilities at all levels. For over a century the present educational system in India has continued in a rigid mold set by the British for certain specific purposes. The system has long since outlived those limited objectives. Even before independence, and much more so after it, the need to reorganize Indian education on broader and sounder lines became apparent and pressing. As a result the Government of India appointed two commissions—University Education Commission and Secondary Education Commission—to make a thorough study of the existing system of education at these two levels and make suitable recommendation for its reorganization. Distinguished American educationists were invited to join these commissions as members—Arthur E. Morgan, First Chairman, Tennessee Valley Authority, on the University Education Commission, and Kenneth Rash Williams, Associate Director, Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, on the Secondary Education Commission. Both members made valuable contributions to their respective fields of inquiry.

The University Education Commission, appointed in December 1948, submitted their report in August 1949. In it they laid stress on establishment of rural universities and on improving and increasing facilities for agricultural, engineering, and technological studies at college level on the lines of the amazing achievements of American

education in these fields. The Secondary Education Commission, appointed in September 1952, submitted their report in June 1953. They laid particular emphasis on opening of multipurpose schools, agricultural and technical high schools, and on providing a multiplicity of courses in ordinary high schools more or less on the lines of vocational and comprehensive secondary schools of America.

In 1953, soon after the Secondary Education Commission Report was published, the Ford Foundation sponsored a team of four Indian and four foreign educationists, including Alfred Simpson, Harvard University professor, and Lester W. Nelson of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, to make a detailed and comprehensive study of two particular problems highlighted in that report—methods of teacher training and reconstruction of curriculums in schools. The team visited Denmark, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America and submitted their report, in the beginning of this year.

The recommendations of all these reports are now before the Government of India for implementation. When the Indian educational system is reorganized completely in the light of these recommendations it will certainly bear a strong impress of some of the tested principles and practices of the American system of education. That is another fruitful field of cooperation between the two countries.

Student Exchange

Both University and Secondary Education Commissions emphasized, as mentioned before, the need for improving and increasing facilities for vocational and technical studies so as to relate Indian education to economic needs of the country. This has been a long-felt need. Even before independence, the Ministry of Education had instituted in 1945 a scheme of Government scholarships under which Indian students were selected on merit basis and sent abroad to the United Kingdom and the United States of America for advanced studies, mainly in technical studies because of inadequacy of suitable facilities for training in such subjects in India. In December 1945 the first group of 159 Government-sponsored scholars arrived in this country. That was the beginning of a general exodus of Indian scholars to this country for studies which has steadily increased since independence. Until independence England was the Mecca of learning for Indian students. Since then, however, there has been a pronounced diversion of Indian students from the United Kingdom to the United States of America. Under the Government of India scholarships scheme alone, from 1,300 to 1,400 Indian scholars have come to America since 1945, for advanced studies in various branches of engineering, agriculture, animal husbandry, biochemistry, food technology, education, and economics. The scheme, however, has had to be considerably reduced recently because of financial stringency.

But that has not affected the increasing flow of Indian nationals to this country for study, training, and observation. In fact, today there are more Indians in America for such purposes than ever before. According to the latest report of the Institute of International Education, about 1,500 Indian students are studying in different parts of this country. Actually, the number is even larger. They constitute the third largest group of foreign students on American college campuses, next to Canadian and Chinese students. A sizable section of the total number of Indians visiting this country come under various exchange programs sponsored by the Department of State, philanthropic foundations, and universities of this country. For instance, in the fiscal year 1953, 190 Indians visited the United States for varying periods under different Point Four Exchange Programs sponsored by the Foreign Operations Administration of the U. S. Government—148 students, 13 teachers, 19 lecturers and research scholars, and 10 leaders and specialists. A large number of philanthropic agencies, like the Rockefeller Foundation, the Ford Foundation, the Haen Foundation, the Rotary Foundation of Rotary International, the American Home Economics Association, the Wenner-Gren Foundation, and of American universities and industries, also sponsor cultural and educational exchange programs. One of the most interesting programs is the International Farm Youth Exchange, sponsored by the 4–H Club, under which so far 55 young Indian farmers have had the unique opportunity of learning and appreciating the American way of life by living it at the grassroots level with average American farm families.

The interesting thing to note, however, is that the bulk of Indian students come to this country for studies entirely on their own, at considerable financial sacrifice. This is a tribute to the high standards of American educational institutions and also to their generous hospitality in extending all possible facilities, including partial financial assistance, to some of the deserving Indian students. The Government of India, also, in spite of an acute dollar-exchange shortage, allows Indian students to come freely to this country for study and training, in full faith that the enormous expenditure involved will be compensated for by the invaluable skills and attitudes that they will, on their return, bring to bear on the development of Indian industry and education. This is in fact true of all Indian nationals who visit this country on their own or on some exchange program. Their visits also promote mutual understanding and good will. In this way, American education is making a valuable contribution to the future progress of India and at the same time strengthening the basis of friendship between the two countries.

Community Projects

The most important enterprise of far-reaching significance to which India and America have pledged partnership is that of Community Projects. On October 2, 1952, India launched 55 Community Development Projects to cover 18,464 villages with a population of 15.2 million and an area of 26,000 square miles. The objectives of these projects are to increase agricultural production, improve health, and advance education simultaneously in rural areas. Educational progress is an integral part of the projects. They have been undertaken with the cooperation of the U. S. Government, which under the Indo-U. S. Technical Cooperation Agreement has been extending valuable assistance in the form of goods, technical equipment, and personnel. The cost of the projects is estimated at $101 million, the major portion of which will be borne by the Government of India. In November 1952 a further agreement was signed between the Governments of India and the United States extending the projects to 55 more development blocs covering about 4 million people at an additional cost of $16.3 million.

The Ford Foundation has also been rendering very valuable assistance in the training of personnel and the evaluation of progress achieved by various projects. The Foundation has provided funds up to $4.9 million for such purposes. The program so far has reached 43,350 villages with a

(Continued on p. 37)

The Case FOR and AGAINST the Carnegie Unit

by Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter Gaumnitz, Specialists in Secondary Education, Office of Education

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

AT THE TIME of its origin and during the first decade of its existence, the Carnegie Unit was a helpful device to high schools and colleges. In fact, it was the influence of the Carnegie Unit that forced colleges to rid themselves of their own secondary school departments and to specify graduation from a 4-year high school as a prerequisite for admission to college. In this respect the Carnegie Unit strengthened the high-school's role, furthered its growth, and consolidated its position in the American educational system.

But there are many reasons why the Carnegie Unit is no longer so helpful to secondary education. The fundamental concept inherent in the Unit—that the amount of time spent in the classroom studying a subject is a justifiable criterion of the measure of high-school work—has erected a sort of iron curtain against the appraisal of high-school work in terms of competence and knowledge acquired.

The question many people are asking today is, "*How well* are our high-school pupils prepared in their studies?" By itself the Carnegie Unit cannot answer this question because it answers a different sort of question; namely, "*How much time* have they devoted to their studies?"

This point of difference emphasizes the major issue at the heart of this discussion on the Carnegie Unit.

For the purpose of easy reference, the authors now present a brief outline of the Case For and Against the Carnegie Unit:

FOR

A. The Carnegie Unit created order out of the chaos in the college-entrance procedures existing before the adoption of the Unit.

1. It eliminated the need for many of the prevailing unsatisfactory college-admission practices, such as the giving of personal examinations or subjective interviews as a basis for entrance, the custom of admitting on condition a large number of candidates deficient in preparation, and the lack of agreement among colleges as to basic items in admissions policy.

2. It became generally accepted by all colleges as a standard basis for admission of candidates.

B. The Carnegie Unit strengthened the high school as an integral part of the educational system.

1. It caused the elimination of high-school departments from college programs.

2. It established the concept that graduation from a 4-year high school constituted a required basis for college entrance.

3. It simplified the preparation of college-bound pupils in the high school.

4. It brought about greater uniformity between time elements in high-school subjects and among high-school programs.

5. It was easily understood by principals, teachers, pupils, parents, patrons, and the college staffs.

6. It gave a feeling of security to high-school and individual teachers because the amount of time required to cover a given subject or course was known definitely.

7. It was adaptable to the mass education demands of the Nation, especially in gauging high-school graduation, college-entrance requirements, and computation of honors.

8. Time spent on a subject could be easily measured. Every pupil could spend the necessary time; not every one might master the subject or pass examinations.

9. It regularized schedule making, thus making it simpler, both in the arrangement of teaching schedules, in the scheduling of pupils, and use of classrooms.

10. The standards it established could be easily applied by regional accrediting associations and by State departments of education in their respective areas.

11. As conditions changed it lent itself to the idea that the name of a subject might remain constant, but that the content could be changed and the way it was developed for teaching might be flexible.

AGAINST

A. The Carnegie Unit, imposed on the high schools by the colleges as the result of a Carnegie grant to the colleges for pensioning their faculty members, has been primarily college-centered.

B. Originally devised to measure college-entrance requirements, the Carnegie Unit remains to give unnecessary emphasis to college-preparatory programs for all high-school pupils despite the fact that the majority of them do not go to college.

(*Continued on p. 46*)

The Case For and Against the Carnegie Unit is reprinted from **"The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends"** ***(Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 7). The bulletin brings together significant facts and describes the development of the Carnegie Unit, a device for measuring high school work in terms of credits based on time spent in the classroom.***

The authors answer such questions as What is the Carnegie Unit? Why did it originate? Who sponsored it? How did it develop? Is it a help or a hindrance to good education? They also review proposals for change and report on cooperative research under way. Their study should help educators to take a critical look at the Carnegie Unit.

Copies of Bulletin 1954, No. 7, **by Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter A. Gaumnitz** ***may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at 25 cents each.***

Education for Rural America—Conference Report

by Frank Thomas,[1] Special Assistant to the Commissioner of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was co-sponsor of the National Conference on Rural Education held in Washington, D. C., October 4–6. The theme of the conference was Education for Rural America—A Forward Look. The specific purposes of the conference were to (1) review the decade of progress since the 1944 White House Conference on Rural Education. (2) study persistent and newly emerging problems now affecting rural living. and (3) explore broad questions of policy for the future. Emphasis was placed on the distinctive educational needs of rural people today and the task that lies ahead in supplying these needs.

In addition to the General Sessions which included an address by Dr. Samuel M. Brownell, United States Commissioner of Education. the program of the conference was arranged in fifteen divisions each of which had for its chief responsibility the discussion of one of the major issues. These major issues were: (1) The Needed Educational Program—Scope and Quality; (2) the School as a Community Institution; (3) Economic and Social Trends Related to Rural Education; (4) School District Reorganization; (5) Teachers and Other Personnel for Schools Serving Rural People; (6) Financing the Education of Rural People; (7) Physical Facilities for Schools Serving Rural People and Their Communities (Buildings, Grounds. Equipment. Transportation, etc.); (8) The Development of the Intermediate Unit; (9) The County Unit of School Administration; (10) Education for the Disadvantaged and Minority Groups in Rural Areas; (11) the Educational Programs of Organizations and Agencies Serving Rural People; (12) Improvement and Administration of Small Elementary and Secondary Schools; (13) the Rural Environments Distinctive Impact on Children and Youth; (14) Rural Education and the World Scene; and (15) Opportunities for Rural Youth at the College Level.

[1] Conference Official, representing the Office of Education.

Frank Thomas

The conference represented the unusual in many ways. It was one of the few conferences that attracted nationwide attention from people of all walks of life. Labor was there in the person of Victor Reuther, Assistant to the President, Congress of Industrial Organizations. Agriculture was there in the person of the Honorable Ezra Taft Benson. Secretary of Agriculture. Industry was represented by Walter D. Fuller, Chairman of the Board of Curtis Publishing Co. Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt and Dr. Charl Williams were there as the first to champion the cause of rural education through the 1944 White House Conference. Representatives of more than fifty cooperating national organizations—not to mention many groups representing State and foreign countries—were in attendance.

All of the above, together with hundreds of educators the Nation over. served to produce a conference of unusual quality. The educator came to understand more clearly and forcefully than ever before his responsibility for leadership and service to the rural schools. He. too, was impressed with the forcefulness with which labor, business, and agricultural leaders approached the problems of rural education. The conference was made the richer by their expressions and by blending the ideas of the professional educator with those of lay people. The exchange of these ideas, plans, practical experiences. and functioning programs served to build a well-rounded program for the participants. All tended to serve the cause of rural education—a cause made more vivid by the expressions of real interest and enthusiasm.

Conference participants explored the area of their interest and the one in which they thought action was most needed. A realization developed that rural education needs are met only as those of the rural family are met and that it is therefore important to increase the rural family's perception of what its problems are, of the usefulness of an improved education program, and of the meaning of life in a rural community.

Greater effort needs to be made to overcome differences in thinking between people of open rural areas and small villages and towns as far as educational objectives are concerned. The layman and the educator need to work together to help the rural parent realize the potentialities of a good education program for his children. These leaders need to be more conscious that the success of all rural education programs will be in direct ratio to the participation of rural people themselves. Educators need also to be ever conscious of the fact that these rural people must always have the privilege of helping decide what is to happen to the educational program of their children. To that end educators will have to work with people at the community level so that they may share in finding the resources needed to reach these goals.

School district reorganization seems to have been the major accomplishment of the past 10 years in the field of rural education. Considerable encouragement was given to a continuation of the merging of the many small districts into more nearly adequate and satisfactory enlarged administrative units. To accomplish this, the thinking among all the people must necessarily be toward the same educational objectives—objectives better understood following conferences of this kind, in which major problems in rural education are thoroughly discussed and studied.

People living in sparsely settled areas have to carry a greater load financially to maintain a strong and functioning school program than do those of areas more densely populated. As a result, they are turning to reorganization, which has recently gone on at a rapid rate. The conference revealed that more than forty thousand school districts have been eliminated in the past 10 years, and those who know the extent of the present trend in that direction look upon the next decade with assurance that the trend is definitely established and will continue.

While the big change in the past 10 years has been the tremendous reduction in the number of rural schools, the next 10 years will see educators coming to understand more clearly and forcefully than ever before the purposes and responsibility of the intermediate unit for servicing the small districts. "The Intermediate Unit," to quote Dr. Howard Dawson, Executive Secretary of the Department of Rural Education, NEA, "is the least understood concept in the field of school administration. Since school districts are for the most part not going to be large enough alone to do the job required of them, they obviously are going to need services from some larger unit and they are going to have to work cooperatively with their neighboring community units. The available instrumentality for meeting the needs arising from this situation is the Intermediate Unit. It serves as the intermediary between the State department of education and the quasi corporate units having immediate responsibility for maintaining schools. Through leadership and service the intermediate unit promotes and strengthens local control and responsibility. It assists local districts and the State education department in finding and meeting the educational needs of children and communities by performing functions which can best be administered by an intermediate type of organization."

While the conference revealed that a great deal of progress has been made in the past decade, it also revealed that there are gaps in the present program of rural education and that much is left to be done to bridge those gaps. Not all the answers to long-standing problems of rural education could possibly be found in the space of one brief conference, but it brought an awareness to the American people of the issues and problems that must be faced in rural education. The conference will result in a realistic start on plans for an expanded program of education—plans that each member of the conference should translate into action with a common goal in mind of a more effective education program for rural citizens.

The people in rural areas are important to America. To quote one phase of the address of Commissioner Brownell. "It is the rural areas which provide our Nation with a continuous supply of manpower both rural and urban. The rural areas must therefore be recognized as a major national source of new personnel strength. For national well being this personnel requires the education essential to sound citizenship and competent performance in the many walks of life open only to those with good training."

Those who attended the conference left with the knowledge that while much had been accomplished in the past decade, many more important problems are yet unsolved. Only through continuation of interest and utilization of workable plans will great progress be made.

Dr. Howard A. Dawson, Executive Secretary, Department of Rural Education, NEA; Mrs. Lucille Klinge, President of the Department of Rural Education, NEA; Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt; Dr. Charl Ormond Williams, Executive Chairman, First White House Conference on Rural Education held in October 1944.

Rural Education Publications

Educational Change in Reorganized School Districts, Bulletin 1953, No. 4. 20¢

Selected Characteristics of Reorganized School Districts, Bulletin 1953, No. 3. 20¢

Modern Ways in One- and Two-Teacher Schools, Bulletin 1951, No. 18. 20¢

Schools Count in Country Life, Bulletin 1947, No. 8. 20¢

The One Teacher School—Its Midcentury Status, Circular 318, 1950. 20¢

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India and America

(Continued from p. 34)

population of 34,520,000 people. What is even more important, it has created an unprecedented awakening among millions of illiterate villagers to a desire for self-improvement. Self-help is, indeed, the keynote of the whole program. It is hoped that by 1956 the projects will cover 120,000 villages with a population of 74,000,000, which is about one-fourth of rural dwellers of India, spreading, among other things, a wide network of elementary schools all over the area.

These community projects constitute the saga of Indo-American partnership. Their success is expected to inaugurate a new era in the history of Indian education and life. Altogether, American cooperation in this and other ways briefly indicated in this article augurs well for the achievement of India's objective of guaranteeing equality of rights and opportunity to the common man through democratic means. There could be no more worthy cause for partnership between India and America. Every effort should be made in both countries to see that this partnership is preserved and prosperous.

Federal Assistance for Schools Under Public Law 874

by B. Alden Lillywhite, Associate Director for Federally Affected Areas, Office of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE CONGRESS in 1950 recognized the seriousness of problems thrust on local school districts by large Federal installations or activities, by the passage of Public Law 815, which provides assistance for the construction of school facilities, and of Public Law 874, which provides funds for current operating expenses. The financial burden imposed on a school district results principally from Federal acquisition of real estate which removes it from the local tax rolls and from an increase in school population which reflects the number of persons needed to operate the new installation or activity. This burden is often so great that the school is unable to provide even a minimum program of education for children of the military personnel and civilian workers. These two laws not only aided the progress of Federal activities but also recognized the Government's responsibility for certain school problems it had created.

The congressional committees considering these bills recognized that the need for assistance in current operating expenses would continue as long as large numbers of school children lived on nontaxable Federal property: but that the period during which aid for school construction might be needed could not be clearly defined. Therefore. Public Law 815 was enacted for a period of 2 years—to June 30. 1952—and Public Law 874 for a period of 4 years to June 30, 1954. Public Law 874 was given a life of 4 years, because it was believed that during this time experience would show what changes in the act were desirable, and these changes could be incorporated into a permanent act before the expiration date of June 30, 1954.

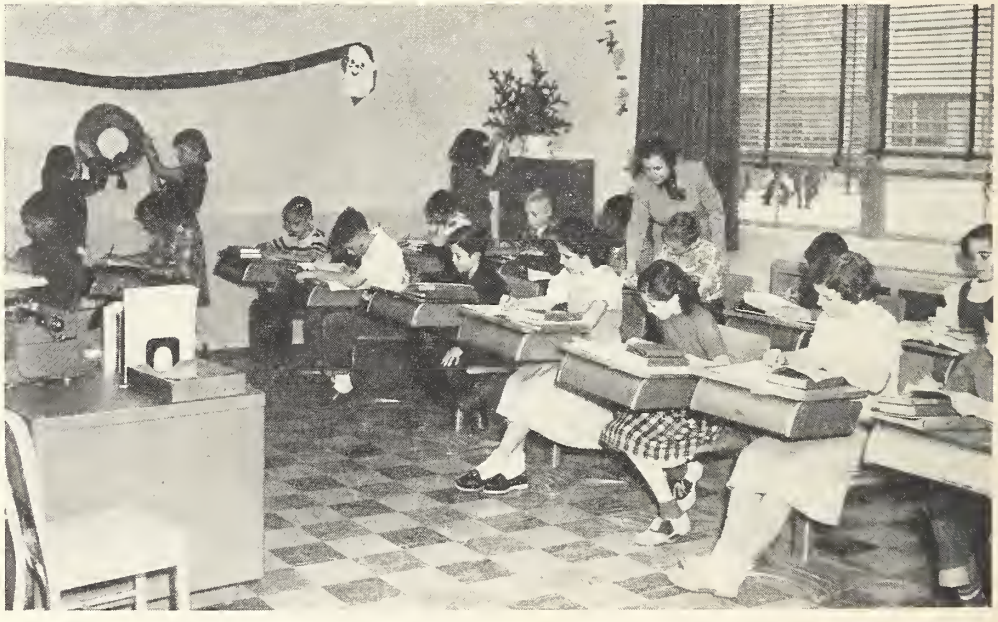
Defense activities related to the Korean conflict and the troubled international situation created new problems in a number of areas after June 30, 1952, the expiration date of Public Law 815. The 83d Congress extended that act first for a 2-year period to June 30, 1954. and then to June 30, 1956. At the same time Public Law 874 was substantially modified and was extended for two additional years until June 30, 1956. The changes made were designed to remove some of the inequities in the original act, to improve its administration, and to adapt the payment formulas more closely to the actual financial burden created by Federal projects.

One of the most important of the changes in Public Law 874 was a provision requiring that each school district absorb without Federal payment a number of federally connected children equal to 3 percent of its non-Federal attendance.

Amendments to the Act

This provision would have resulted in a reduction in the entitlement to Federal funds on the part of a number of federally affected districts, and several bills were introduced into the 2d session of the 83d Congress to modify or eliminate this provision. Public Law 732 which was passed in the closing days of the session postponed for 1 year, until July 1, 1955. the effective date of the 3 percent absorption and continued for the 1954–55 school year the 3 percent eligibility provision which had been in effect during the preceding 4 years. Also, the method of counting pupils for eligibility purposes under Section 3 that has been in effect for the past 4 years was continued for the 1954–55 school year by this amendment. A number of other amendments made by Public Law 248 were left intact.

In the January 1954 issue of School Life *an article entitled "School Problems Near Large Federal Installations" described the Federal assistance programs authorized by Public Laws 815 and 874 of the 81st Congress. The second in a series on school assistance for Federally impacted areas, which appeared in the November issue of* School Life, *dealt with the scope, size, and accomplishments to date under Public Law 815. This article describes what has been done under Public Law 874.*



Children in new Rantoul (Illinois) elementary school, constructed, maintained and operated with assistance of Federal funds authorized by Public Laws 874 and 815.

Accomplishments Under Public Law 874

In fitting into the local budgeting practices for school operation, Public Law 874 authorized annual Federal payments to the impacted districts in amounts computed according to formulas written into the law. Table 1 presents data on the number of school districts helped and the amount of Federal funds they received each year the program has been in effect.

The most significant thing shown by table 1 is the growth of the program during the 4-year period. The number of districts eligible for aid increased from 1,183 the first year to 2,560 the last year, and the Federal funds required also more than doubled during the period, reaching almost $70 million the fourth year. Only part of the increased cost was due to an increase in the number of eligible districts. The remainder resulted from an increase in cost per child of almost 60 percent during these 4 school years.

Percent of School Children Federally Connected

The second significant fact shown is that between 17 and 19 percent of the total school enrollment each year in federally impacted districts were children whose parents were connected in some way with the Federal activity, but Federal payments represented only between 5 and 6 percent of the current annual operating expenses in the affected districts. In other words, the federally connected children constituted almost one-fifth of all children enrolled in these schools while the Federal payments constituted only a little over one-twentieth of these schools' yearly operating costs. This situation results in part from the fact that the formula in the act relates the Federal payment to operating funds provided from local sources only and not to total operating funds. In addition, Federal payments are made at the full local contribution rate for those children who live on Federal property with a parent employed on Federal property—the Section 3 (a) category—while only one-half that rate is paid for those children whose parents either live or work on Federal property, but not both—the Section 3 (b) category.

Categories of Children

In the 1952–53 year, which is representative of the other years, 10 percent of the 826,450 federally connected children for whom payment was made were in the Section 3 (a) category, 80 percent were children in the Section 3 (b) category, and the remaining 10 percent were children in the school district as a direct result of Federal activities, whose parents neither lived nor worked on Federal property—the Section 4 category. Children in the Section 3 (a) category accounted for 20 percent of all Federal payments, while children in the Section 3 (b) category accounted for 71 percent of the amount paid. This is an average Federal payment of $65.81 for each federally connected child.

Cost Per Child

The average pupil cost in the federally affected districts increased over the 4-year period from $178 to $283, or almost 60 percent, whereas Federal payments have increased from $58 to $75 per federally connected child, or 30 percent. Both increases reflect the growing number of new school districts eligible for assistance each year as well as the increases in costs in the eligible districts. It is significant, however, that total pupil expenditures over this 4-year span have increased at double the rate of increase of the Federal payments. This would seem to indicate that increasing costs in these districts are not attributable to Federal payments since these payments are not keeping pace with State and local increases.

Federal Operation of Schools Located on Federal Property

In a few States no State or local funds may be spent for the education of children living on certain Federal properties. Public Law 874 provides under Section 6 that, when this situation occurs, the Commissioner of Education shall make such arrangements as are necessary to provide education for these children. Federally operated schools have been enrolling about 11,000 children each year on 24 or 25 Federal properties at a cost of about three million dollars. Table 2 shows the activities under Section 6 during the past 3 years.

Summary

The size and scope of this program each

(*Continued on p. 47*)

Table 1.—Accomplishments under Public Law 874, school years 1950–51 through 1953–54 [1]

ITEM	School years			
	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54
Number of districts receiving funds	1,183	1,746	2,200	2,560
Amount of Federal funds received ! dollars	30,181,666.23	44,336,532.80	54,464,982.32	[2] 69,450,000.00
Total current expenditures in eligible districts.....dollars	[2] 520,373,569	822,240,470	1,040,424,071	[2] 1,389,000,000
Percent of current expenditures from Federal funds	[2] 5.8	5.5	5.2	[2] 5.0
Total average daily attendance in eligible districts	[2] 2,925,190	3,845,138	4,456,280	[2] 4,902,680
Average daily attendance of federally connected children	517,760	696,380	826,450	[2] 921,705
Percent of total who are Federally connected Children	[2] 17.7	18.1	18.5	[2] 18.8
Average cost per pupil...dollars	178	214	233	283
Average Federal payment per federally connected child dollars	58	64	66	75

[1] *Since the original act was approved in September 1950, the Defense Department and other Federal agencies had already entered into agreements providing operating funds to some school districts for 1950–51. The data for this year include only part of the total program of Federal assistance to federally impacted school districts. The data for the 1953–54 school year are believed to be substantially correct although they were taken from interim reports because final reports had not been received from all districts when the table was made.*

[2] *Data are estimated.*

Table 2.—Schools operated by the Government on Federal property

School year	Number of projects	Average daily attendance	Cost per pupil	Total expenditures
1951–52	25	10,081	$272.00	$2,742,095.77
1952–53	23	11,595	258.81	3,000,958.78
1953–54 [1]	24	11,252	252.81	2,844,638.69

[1] *Estimated pending receipt of final status reports.*

School Life offers this transcript of the broadcast be

Who Will Teach

Leaders in Educati

Miss Waurine Walker, Monsignor F

Mr. WARREN. Mr. Brownell, what are the back-to-school statistics?

Mr. BROWNELL. Of course, any figures at this time have to be estimates because the children actually haven't enrolled. But from the previous experience, we can forecast pretty accurately, and it appears there will be about 38 million children enrolled in the schools this coming school year.

This is the 10th year of straight increase in the school population, and as we look ahead we can see that while this is the highest point yet, the highest peaks are to come, both in elementary and in secondary education. The increase this year is about a million seven hundred thousand over last year. From the standpoint of the teachers, whereas we had a shortage of about 112,000 prepared teachers this past year, it appears now that we'll have a shortage of about 125,000, most of those in the elementary school. Actually, in some areas in the high school fields there is an oversupply, but there is a considerable shortage in the high school in such subjects as science, home economics, and mathematics and there is a considerable shortage in some of those fields in higher education as well. The shortage is not uniform all over the country. It is greatest in the rural sections and in the small towns because the qualified teachers have a way of moving into the vacancies in the cities and suburban communities where living conditions they think are a little more attractive.

Mr. WARREN. Then actually as the enrollment increases, the shortage becomes greater.

Mr. BROWNELL. That is the situation, and if the conditions continue in reference to the number who leave teaching each year as compared with the number entering teaching, we can look forward to a shortage of elementary teachers by 1960 in the neighborhood of 250,000. Now, actually, we assume that the conditions will not continue because there is a great deal of work going on to try to recruit more teachers and in other ways to relieve the shortage.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you, Mr. Brownell. Now, Miss Walker, is this shortage merely numerical or it is also qualitative?

Miss WALKER. Well, Mr. Warren, really the answer is yes to both. It is a numerical shortage, but teachers are particularly concerned over the fact that it is a qualitative shortage as well. We are concerned with the overcrowded classroom conditions that we have today, and with what it is going to do to the education of our boys and girls.

It is estimated that around 56 percent of the children in the public schools of this Nation are in overcrowded classrooms. Many of them are attending schools on half-day sessions. Possibly an estimated million children in the first, second, and third grades are attending schools on half-day sessions.

One thing that we are having to do, unfortunately, in order to meet the terrific increased school enrollment is to accept some people for teachers who do not have the qualifications that we should like to have our teachers possess. We are employing now some substandard teachers who have had only 1 or 2 years of college preparation for the job, and we know that our school program cannot improve without thoroughly qualified teachers in control of the classrooms.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you, Miss Walker. Now, Father Hochwalt, do the private schools face this same problem?

Monsignor HOCHWALT. The private schools, Mr. Warren, do face the same problem. I can speak more specifically and more practically, of course, for the parochial schools. In our 1952 survey we discovered that in 1950 we had 2,850,000 boys and girls in our elementary schools. We expect in another of these surveys taken this year to find that the increase which we found over the past 4 years will be just as great. Of course, we turn primarily to people in religious life to staff our schools, although there is a fair percentage of lay teachers, too. But it takes a long time to train a good religious teacher, and we're finding that we don't have vocations in the great numbers that we require to fill out these needs; and for us to turn to lay teachers to supply the need is to discover just what the two previous speakers discovered, that there aren't enough lay teachers. Furthermore, when we do identify them, we should like to pay them commensurate salaries for the same kind of experience they would have in public school teaching. We can't always solve it from either side of the coin, and so we do have the same problem, Mr. Warren.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you, Father. Now let's get down to the real causes of the shortage. Who can help me with that? Let's find out basically what's wrong. Mr. Brownell.

Mr. BROWNELL. There's no simple cause for this shortage. If there were, we probably would have been able to solve it. One of the first reasons is that we have a smaller number of people of the

use it reviews problems currently facing educators throughout the Nation.

Our Children?

Broadcast to the Nation

erick Hochwalt, and Samuel Miller Brownell

teaching age at this time than we have had because of the low birth rate in the 30's; the competition for people of the age going into teaching is high with industry and the armed services, and so on, so that actually the supply to draw from is small.

Now the second reason is that teaching has just not been attractive enough to attract as many into teaching as we need.

Mr. WARREN. Let's stop there. Why isn't it attractive—you mean from a salary standpoint?

Mr. BROWNELL. Salary is one; another reason is the load that teachers have, particularly, I think, in the elementary school where the teachers work with the same group of pupils from early in the day clear through without a break in some of our places and under conditions that are not conducive to the best work. What I mean is this: Some of our classrooms are crowded; in many of them, as was pointed out, the lighting, the heating, the ventilation, and the equipment, generally, make it hard to work. They are the kinds of conditions that most of our businessmen wouldn't permit for their employees and most of our people wouldn't want to live in at home.

Mr. WARREN. Father Hochwalt.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. Wouldn't this be particularly true, Dr. Brownell, in the rural situation? For instance, what is there to make teaching in a rural situation really attractive? The cultural opportunities are not as great as in the large city, and certainly, after teachers work hard all day—over the weekend they like to relax. What is there for them to do sometimes in these rural communities?

Mr. BROWNELL. That's another cause. It's not just confined to the rural communities. A great many of our teachers find that in the communities where they live they are not accepted the same as other people of their own age, and they feel that they are being left out of the chance for social and civic life that they would have if they were in other occupations. I think that is a fairly important consideration.

Miss WALKER. I think that's true, Dr. Brownell. The very attitude of the people in a community toward its schools and toward its teachers has a great deal to do with whether or not young people are interested in entering such a profession, and I think the attitude of our community in its interest in schools and interest in teachers could do a great deal in helping us to find capable young people for teaching. I think that is perhaps one of the reasons why you mentioned the competition factor, Dr. Brownell. It is a well-known fact that we are losing about 53 percent of the young people who prepare in college for teaching. Now, if we could just get that 53 percent into our classrooms we would certainly lessen the shortage.

Mr. WARREN. Mr. Brownell.

Mr. BROWNELL. I would agree to that. I would point out in connection with the numbers that we lose the greatest percentage of those who prepare for high school teaching. We have a much larger percentage of those who prepare for elementary teaching going actually into elementary teaching. And I also want to point out that while we have indicated in answer to your question some of the difficulties, I think many of our young people don't realize the advantages of teaching, and there are many of them. If you compare the opportunities and the salaries for young people who finish their college today, teaching is really an attractive profession, and many of our young people don't realize just how attractive it is.

Mr. WARREN. Father.

The 406th broadcast of the Georgetown University Forum discussed the topic "Who Will Teach Our Children?" Participants in the radio program and later in a telecast were Miss Waurine Walker, President of the National Education Association; Monsignor Frederick Hochwalt, Director, Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference, and Secretary General, National Catholic Education Association; Dr. Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and Mr. Matthew Warren, Moderator of the Forum.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. I wonder whether Miss Walker thinks there is any solution to this problem of the inefficient distribution of teachers. In order to get them where we want them, don't we in a sense have to intrude into their private line of judgment as to where they want to work? Aren't we practically telling them "You must work here because we need teachers here"?

Miss WALKER. Not exactly, because we find that, with the guidance program in our colleges, once you point out where there is a need for teachers, many of our young people are quite willing to prepare themselves to meet the need. Also we find that in our college preparatory program many times all we have to do is to give the prospective teacher an opportunity to work with young children. In finding the pleasure and the fun that come in teaching young children, many of our graduates, our college students, who had thought about high school teaching are very happy to make the switch over into elementary teaching.

Of course the thing that concerns me is the fact that we're losing our man part of the manpower situation in our schools. Too many of our men are dropping out of the teaching profession, and we find that in those areas in which men usually prepare, like vocational agriculture, the manual training or the industrial arts, the college graduates in those areas have dropped off by a tremendous percentage. So it looks as if our men are not going into the teaching field in satisfactory numbers.

Mr. WARREN. Father.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. I take it then, Dr. Brownell, that the problem is to prove to these men that we can make this job attractive to them and for them, and that it is professionally rewarding to the same extent that other professions are.

Mr. BROWNELL. I think that is quite true, and I think that one of our big attacks on this problem of teacher shortage is to get people to stay in teaching, making it significant enough and attractive enough so that they don't drop out at the present time. When you realize that we lose 10 percent of our teachers in the school each year, that is a terrible waste. If we could get teachers on the average to stay in teaching 12 years instead of 10, we would have 24,000 people a year that we wouldn't have to train and recruit as new teachers. That would add to the efficiency of teaching and lower the number that we need to train. And I would just add one other point; I think that this all leads to raising the question as to the rewards in teaching for those who stay on. How can we attack that problem? And how can we get more new young people? I think, relatively speaking, the earlier years of teaching are more attractive financially than the later years.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. Well, Doctor, do you think that teachers on the average are good advertisements for the teaching profession, that is, consciously or unconsciously? If I were a young person I would ask myself this question and I would ask it very seriously in terms of how the teachers I watch demean themselves: Do I want to become a teacher? Are teachers happy?

Mr. BROWNELL. Well, I think Miss Walker could answer that certainly; and I would point out that many of our teachers can do much to encourage young people to go into teaching by the attitude they have, in other words, accenting the positive, the things that they enjoy and get out of teaching, as well as complaining about the things that aren't too good.

Mr. WARREN. Miss Walker.

Miss WALKER. Yes, I should like to comment on that question that you have raised. After World War II conditions in our schools had dropped to such a low morale status for teachers and for education that we did put a great deal of emphasis on what was wrong in the teaching profession and what needed to be improved in order that we might make our communities conscious of the fact that they needed to turn their attention to improving the educational programs and the salaries of our teachers. Now I think the time has come for us to begin emphasizing the pleasure, the satisfaction, and the joy that can be found in working with boys and girls and with young people. And there is this factor: We recruit for practically every other profession in our classes when we discuss vocations, and we miss the greatest opportunity that any profession has by not selling to our boys and girls in our classrooms the advantages that could be found in teaching.

I should like to point out the fact that there are very excellent opportunities for what we would call advancement, as you might say. You've got to start in the classroom, yes. But young men particularly can rise very rapidly in our profession from classroom teaching to principalships, superintendents, college professors, and even the Commissioner of Education of the United States, because Dr. Brownell's own career points out this advancement factor which begins with classroom teaching.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. The question really was just a theoretical one, I'll have you know, Miss Walker, because I'm a pushover for teachers. I think next to my parents the people who had the greatest influence on my life were my teachers. I can remember a particular one when I was in the third grade who encouraged me to take out my first library card from the public library, and who schooled me in my reading for an ensuing 4-year period even though I was no longer in that same teacher's class. When I think of the great good that most teachers have confronting them and the challenge that they have in leading these young people along proper avenues of thinking, and taste and culture, I think it is one of the most challenging professions in the world. I would like to say it from the housetops. I'm afraid it isn't said loud enough or often enough, though.

Mr. BROWNELL. I just want to make this comment on what Miss Walker said to indicate that I am still a teacher. I don't think that I have advanced from classroom teaching. It happens that my classroom now is the United States instead of a few children, and the job of the Commissioner of Education essentially is one of teaching. What we're trying to do today is to let the people know the problem and get them interested so they'll do just what good students do anywhere—that is to be challenged by a problem and thereby become active to provide the solution.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. You are not only right, Dr. Brownell, but I'd say that Miss Walker and I are your unofficial assistants.

Mr. WARREN. Now we've established the fact of the shortage and also the many real causes. Suppose we explore a little more thoroughly the remedies that we might use to eliminate the shortages. Who would have a comment on that?

Miss WALKER. I'd like to say that one of the best ways to help overcome the shortage is to find the means by which we can keep the qualified teachers who are now on the job. As Dr. Brownell pointed out, we're losing around one-tenth of our total teaching staff each year. If we could keep the good teachers we now have, that in itself would be a tremendous help in this teacher shortage.

Mr. WARREN. How can we do that, Dr. Brownell?

Mr. BROWNELL. I'd like to suggest that the teachers, parents, citizens generally, and legislatures all have a part of the responsibility. From the standpoint of teachers I would say teachers can help this situation by staying with teaching instead of transferring to other occupations, by just realizing the importance of their service. I think they can do much to locate promising young people and encourage them to enter teaching. I think that they can make themselves better qualified and hence reduce the number who are keeping school but are less effective teachers than they could be. Our problem is getting qualified teachers, not just people who sit in classrooms.

I think parents can help in several ways. One is they can let good teachers know that their service is appreciated and thus make teachers better satisfied to teach, and they can tell citizens who have no children in the school the good things about the schools as readily as they discuss the schools' shortcomings. Thus they can make those citizens more willing to support schools adequately and thereby make teaching more attractive. Furthermore, I think they can know and work with teachers. If they do that and consider them as important people in the community, that will make a great deal of difference. Now citizens generally, of course, can increase salaries and make staying in teaching more attractive through the work conditions that I mentioned earlier and through seeing that teachers are taken into community life just the same as other citizens are taken in.

I noticed one thing that bothers teachers a good bit and that is whenever they go out in a public gathering the parents start to talk shop with them. And I've noticed that they don't start asking the doctors for medical prescriptions and the lawyers for the solution to their legal problems, the way they ask teachers to solve their home problems on that basis. I think that's one way in which citizens might make teaching more attractive; and then I think they should see to it that it is possible for teachers to have good housing conditions in the community; housing is a real problem in a good many of our places.

Now finally I should just like to comment on what legislatures can do. There is this problem of making the retirement situation a good one to keep people in teaching, and they have an opportunity now in some States of adding social security to the present retirement systems. They can also provide greater reciprocity in the teaching requirements between States so that teachers who move from one State to another will not be lost to the profession because of the difference in the teaching requirements. And finally, if they would provide their teacher education institutions with the buildings and facilities and library and student living conditions that are adequate to encourage young people to go to teachers colleges and teacher education institutions generally, that would help a great deal.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you. Father Hochwalt.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. In a sense those are long-range programs, although I suppose most of them could be shortened for the present emergency, but I wonder whether Dr. Brownell would like to say something about reaching out and influencing these young men and young women who are presently coming out of our liberal arts colleges. Perhaps they may not want to make a lifetime career of teaching but they may want to help out in the emergency, first for the experience, and secondly, to be doing something constructive. What would you say about that?

Miss WALKER. I'd like to comment on that to this effect: We have had coming into our classrooms a number of college graduates from the, what we would call, liberal arts field. They have been given a summer's course in methods and techniques and materials for teaching, and a place then in our classrooms to attempt to take over the complicated job of teaching. Unless we provide adequate supervision and help for those teachers they are going to run into so many problems that they cannot solve, that pretty soon they're going to become completely frustrated and simply give up. So I would say that whenever you attempt to take a college graduate who has not had preparation for teaching and put him in the classroom, be sure that the college and the public school give that person adequate help in supervision so that he can enjoy the work and do an adequate job.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. Would you make any distinctions for the more mature persons? The suggestion has been made—I think Dr. Brownell was one of those persons who made the suggestion—that there are mothers now in families whose children are grown and who might be used in this same situation. Would you think the same handicaps and shortcomings are present there?

Miss WALKER. Yes, I think they are to some extent. A mother probably has the child psychology that is needed in knowing how to work with youngsters but quite frequently she does not have the information and material to know how to deal with the 30 to 35 different individualities there in regard to intellect, interest, and ability.

Mr. WARREN. With respect to the remedies that you have suggested here for elimination of these teacher shortages, has anything specific been done that you can tell me about?

Mr. BROWNELL. Many things. I think that's the thing we have to keep in mind—there isn't any pat answer. It's working along all of these different lines. And in answer to the comment that Monsignor Hochwalt just made a few moments ago I see this possibility of enrolling mature college graduates whose children are in school as another one of the promising long-range solutions. We don't have an emergency that we're facing. We have a long-term increase in enrollment that has to be met. And, I would just add, the answer is not in any single way but in every way that has been mentioned here and in others to continue increasing the number of people in our qualified teaching staff.

Mr. WARREN. Let's assume for a moment that I'm the average listener—I have three children of my own—can you give me con-

(*Continued on p. 47*)

Report on Education in the United States—Part II

Continuation of a report presented at the 17th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, Switzerland, by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

LOCAL school districts in the United States provide the means for exercise of local control and operation of the schools and for keeping instructional services adapted to pupil and community needs. Changes and adaptations in the local administrative structure become necessary when social and economic conditions create educational needs which existing districts are unable to meet effectively.

School district reorganization has thus been a persistent problem, especially in rural areas. Significant progress has been made and continues to be made in establishing improved administrative units by combining small districts into larger ones. Through such procedures the total number of school districts in the United States has been reduced since 1948 by almost one-third. As an example, in one State alone, the number of districts has been reduced during the past 5 years, from 10,500 to 2,600. The new school districts are established on the basis of natural patterns of association of the people concerned. Thus a typical rural district is village-centered and includes the surrounding open countryside from which farm people come to the village for social and economic purposes.

Despite great progress along these lines, much remains to be done because many districts are still too small for best educational results. For this reason more than one-third of the States have redistricting programs currently in operation, and several others are at present considering initiation of such programs.

Developments in School Building and Equipment Planning

At present the United States faces a gigantic school-building program, due largely to increased enrollment, population mobility, school district reorganization, and wide demands for an extended and enriched program of education and community services.

Many of the new schoolrooms and other facilities are being designed and equipped as learning laboratories for pupils rather than mere recitation rooms. In such a program of "learning by doing" the size and design of instructional areas and the types and sizes of furniture and equipment for regular classrooms and for the specialized facilities, such as shops, laboratories, libraries, cafeterias, gymnasiums, and playgrounds, play an increasingly important role in making learning and teaching more effective.

Planning school buildings is becoming more and more a cooperative procedure. School administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils, and lay citizens participate in preliminary planning.

School building specialists in Federal and State Governments and in colleges and universities assist local school officials and architects on such items as floor space, lighting, heating, and sound control. Final decisions are made by local school district officials subject to State regulations.

As results of cooperative planning of school building and equipment programs, current progress is being made toward improved designs and styles for school buildings and their equipment which should contribute to the physical development, health, comfort, and safety of pupils throughout the United States.

Sources of Public School Funds

Public school funds in the United States are derived from taxation and are used by public boards of education for school building, buying necessary equipment, and paying for the operation of the program of education available to children from kindergarten through the 12th grade, or graduation from the secondary school. These taxation revenues come from taxes levied by local boards of education, by State legislatures, and by the Congress of the United States.

Local boards of education secure local funds for public schools from local taxes. All these local revenues for educational purposes total approximately 55 percent of the entire revenue available for public education.

In most of the States, the legislatures appropriate State funds for schools which are distributed to local school districts to help support the program of education. These State funds amount to approximately 42 percent of the total cost of public education. In obtaining these funds the State legislatures levy a variety of taxes, which are mostly of the indirect kind and related to business transactions.

Funds appropriated by Congress amount to about 3 percent of the total cost of public education.

Schools in Federally Affected Areas

The Federal Government assists school districts in areas of the United States affected by various types of Federal installations. In such districts with greatly increased numbers of children, approximately 1,500 school building projects have been approved for the use of Federal funds to house more than 500,000 children. Thus far a total of $466,000,000 of such funds has been appropriated by Congress for the period from 1951 through 1954 to assist some 1,000 local school districts in providing school housing for children of parents who live or work on Federal property, or both.

Payments to 2,500 such districts in the sum of approximately $70,000,000 for current operating expenses were made during the 1954 fiscal year. Districts are eligible to receive funds for each "Federally connected" child at an approved rate based on local costs. Both operating expenses and school construction are given assistance.

Race Segregation in Public Schools Unconstitutional

Recently legal controversies have arisen in a few States in the United States involving constitutionality of segregation of public school children on account of race. The cases were appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. In each of these controversies, segregation on account of race was alleged to deprive the plaintiffs of the equal protection of the laws under the 14th Amendment of the United States Constitution.

The Supreme Court on May 17, 1954, in rendering a decision on this subject stated and answered the issue in the following manner:

> 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 support of its opinion on this issue, the Court quoted approvingly from the Supreme Court of the State of Kansas in a previous decision on the subject as follows:

> Segregation with the sanction of law . . . 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.

The Court held that the plaintiffs were, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the 14th Amendment of the Constitution.

School Enrollments

Estimates of enrollments for 1953–54 as compared with those for 1952–53 are shown in the next column.

Estimates of enrollments for 1953–54 as compared with 1952–53

School	Year	
	1953–54	1952–53
Elementary schools (including kindergartens)		
Public	23,369,000	22,039,000
Private and parochial	3,117,000	3,173,000
Residential schools for exceptional children	65,000	61,200
Model and practice schools in teacher training institutions	13,600	10,900
Federal schools for Indians	36,700	34,600
Total elementary	26,931,300	25,318,700
Secondary schools		
Public	6,121,000	6,197,000
Private and parochial	818,000	771,000
Residential schools for exceptional children	11,100	10,600
Model and practice schools in teacher training institutions and preparatory departments of colleges	14,800	12,600
Federal schools for Indians	7,500	7,200
Total secondary	7,302,400	7,028,400
Higher education		
Universities, colleges, professional schools, including junior colleges and normal schools	2,500,000	2,400,000
Total higher education	2,500,000	2,400,000
Private commercial schools	131,000	131,000
Nurse training schools (not affiliated with colleges and universities)	85,000	85,000
Total other schools	216,000	216,000
Grand total	36,949,700	34,993,100

TEACHING STAFF

Maintaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers continues to be an important problem in relation to education in the United States. We can buy good classrooms, as funds become available from year to year: but we cannot buy devoted and able teachers—they are available only through years of preparation, experience, and high character.

Statistics say that the 1953–54 school year was started with a shortage of about 72,000 qualified teachers for the elementary schools alone. A large proportion of that number was needed in order to eliminate part-time daily sessions; and the remainder, to replace teachers who have less than standard certification.

Reorganization of local school districts into larger administrative units during 1953, as in other recent years, increased the availability of vocational education in communities where schools had been too small to provide facilities and personnel for vocational courses. These larger units made it possible for each teacher to serve an increased number of pupils, which in view of the shortage of teachers in some vocational fields is an important factor.

The supply of qualified vocational teachers is still short largely because of the many opportunities for employment outside of the teaching profession for persons with such training.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Increasing numbers of school improvement programs are being instituted by many school systems which indicate far-reaching implications for the mental health of children, teachers, and parents. Through in-service education of the school staff, teachers are learning more about children—how they grow and develop, and what methods are most effective in their learning motivation.

Attention is being focused upon ways for teachers to establish closer working relations with parents through parent-teacher conferences, school visitation, parent participation, and other activities involving parents in the activities of the school.

Improvements are also noted currently in the inclusion of teachers with the administrator in the planning and policy-making of the school. All such practices which involve everybody concerned in the education of children offer promising trends and progress for the schools.

Among other promising trends is the emphasizing that all children of school age learn to read and write English, and to meet the basic needs for participation in citizenship activities in local, State, and National affairs. Continuing efforts are being made in elementary schools throughout the States to make the curriculum as realistic as possible to the needs of children in the respective local surroundings. In the interest of wider understanding, experiments are at present under way to study how, in this almost unilingual Nation, children may be taught to speak and read a foreign language.

Changes in agricultural conditions during more recent years have increased the problem of educating children of migrant families. Within respective States a great deal has been done to solve the problem: but much of the difficulty crosses State lines. Thus a conference was recently held with a view to working out cooperative agreements when more than one State is involved in the health, education, family, and labor problems of the migrant families.

The elementary schools today face an urgent need for increased numbers of qualified teachers. It is in the elementary schools that the high birthrate of recent years is now being reflected.

(Concluded in January SCHOOL LIFE)

Heads Project to Aid High Schools

GALEN JONES, formerly Director, Instruction, Organization, and Services, Division of State and Local School Systems, Office of Education, has been named to head a long-range study by the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, Inc. The purpose of the study will be to discover and propose ways to assist high schools in giving economic instruction.

In defining the objectives of the study, Dr. Jones says that it will attempt to find out what knowledge and understandings are essential to economic competence. It will search for the specific functions and ingredients of our economy that can be agreed upon as being essential for all citizens to know.

"At this time," Dr. Jones said, "there is no agreement by either educators or the public on what essential minimum economic education for all citizens should include and, therefore, no agreement on what should be taught."

The study will propose how much of what is agreed to be essential can be effectively taught in secondary schools. To do this the group will need the judgments of experienced school administrators, teachers, and curriculum consultants and the views and opinions of the community's citizens.

Another objective of the project will be to cooperate with colleges and schools of teacher education in determining what is desirable in the preparation of secondary school teachers for teaching economic competence.

The study will use the findings and the contributions of other agencies and associations concerned with economic education in the preparation of instructional materials and in the promotion of their use in secondary schools.

The council's program will be financed through contributions and grants from business and industry, foundations, labor, and individuals. The entire organization will function through the National Association of Secondary School Principals, a department of the National Education Association. The National Better Business Bureau will assist in obtaining necessary funds and provide liaison between educators and business lay groups.

Dr. Jones had directed the secondary schools program for the Office of Education since 1945. Mrs. Julia F. Frere, who had worked with secondary school specialists in the Office of Education for many years, accompanied Dr. Jones in his transfer to the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, Inc.

At the Office of Education farewell to Dr. Jones, left to right: Mrs. Jones; Dr. Jones; J. Kenneth Little, Deputy Commissioner of Education; Mrs. Julia F. Frere, Secretary to Dr. Jones; and J. Dan Hull, Chief, Secondary Schools, Office of Education.

The Case for and Against the Carnegie Unit

(*Continued from p. 35*)

C. It encourages a rigid schedule of subjects and classes, which makes needed innovations in the high-school program difficult.

D. Since colleges have been slow to assign credit to certain functional subjects, the Carnegie Unit handicaps the addition of such subjects to the high-school curriculum. This causes many pupils needing instruction in these fields to avoid them.

E. It gives undue emphasis to the time served, to subjects and to textbooks, without appropriate emphasis on amount learned in subjects.

F. It fosters the assumption that all pupils can acquire the same minimum amount of learning or subject mastery in a given period of time, thus encouraging well-endowed pupils to loaf and requiring those less well-endowed to attempt to achieve the impossible and thus suffer possible failure.

G. It assumes that all pupils must earn the same number of credits to be graduated from high school, but makes no allowance for what pupils already know before they begin the study of a subject or how much they have learned when the credit is granted.

H. The credits and units earned represent a vast variety of scholastic accomplishments and teaching skills; units and diplomas cannot be equal though the quantitative values suggest that they are.

I. It provides no uniform means for measuring such qualitative learnings as social adjustment, moral and ethical development, leadership, attitudes, work experience, civic competence, and a variety of other essential and valuable human objectives.

J. It has discouraged the use of reliable tests and other instruments that may reveal the progress pupils have made toward desirable learning objectives, that may indicate the elements in which they are deficient or need strengthening, and

that may show the degree to which desirable objectives are ultimately achieved. These essential types of information help the teacher and pupil to establish guide lines for purposive learning that the Carnegie Unit neither supplies nor stimulates.

K. The Carnegie Unit has discouraged the use of available instruments mentioned in (J) because it has placed such great emphasis on the subjective marks given by teachers.

L. The Carnegie Unit has tended to give too little time and emphasis to the role of evaluation in learning; it has not recognized the importance of evaluation as an essential part of teaching and learning.

M. It has fostered the notion that pupils go to high school to get enough credits to obtain a diploma. Consequently, pupils often try to achieve the required number of graduation units in a shorter time and are inclined to regard their high-school education as over when they reach that point.

N. This tendency toward credit acceleration by pupils encourages a "Thank Heavens! That's over!" attitude. Real measures of *growth* would focus on mastery of subject matter and other desired objectives rather than on accumulation of Carnegie Units or credits.

The American School

The next time you pass a school pause a moment to think what that school means to humanity. Recall the long dark centuries when the masses were kept in ignorance—when greed and oppression ruled the world with an iron hand. From the very beginning of man's struggle for knowledge, self respect, and the recognition of his inalienable rights, the school has been his greatest ally. We refer to the school as "common" because it belongs to us all; it is ourselves working together in the education of our children. But it is a most uncommon institution. It is relatively new. It is democracy's greatest gift to civilization. Throughout the world, among upward struggling peoples, wherever parents share in the aspirations of their children, the American common school is being copied. Let us cherish and improve our schools.

From a pamphlet on the dedication of the Brentwood Elementary School, Mad River Township, Ohio.

T. V. Program

(Continued from p. 43)

crete suggestions, something that I can do in my own community to help with this situation.

Mr. BROWNELL. Yes. I would go right to the Superintendent of Schools and find out what the situation is first in reference to teaching age because it varies so much from community to community. Then I would find out what are the things that are being done. The Chambers of Commerce in some places are already carrying on programs to see about housing and things of that sort. Parents can also do something to be of help. I know some places where parents are assisting at the noon lunch period to make the day of the teacher an easier one. In other places they have other kinds of programs, such as providing a room for a teacher that will be most helpful.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you. Miss Walker.

Miss WALKER. I should like to see the parents of the community make the conditions for teaching so satisfactory and recognize the importance of teaching to such an extent that they would encourage their own boys and girls to prepare to enter the teaching profession.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you, Miss Walker. Monsignor Hochwalt.

Monsignor HOCHWALT. I think lots of parents who presently don't take an interest in the P. T. A. program should do so: and when they do, they should remember that they can be positive as well as negative about the parent-teacher relationship. I don't think teachers are happy to hear litanies of complaints all the time. They would like to hear the happy side of it too. That would be very encouraging, I think, to the teachers of America.

Mr. WARREN. Thank you.

Public Law 874

(Continued from p. 39)

year has been substantial. The Federal payments, while constituting only a small portion of the total operating budgets, have helped these school districts to provide normal programs for the influx of new pupils as well as for their own children. This would not have been possible in many of the affected districts without assistance from the Federal Government. A few school districts depend on the Federal grants for almost all of their local income because they have very little or no taxable property. In some districts the Federal grants exceeded 50 percent of the total operating budgets, and in a few cases they exceeded 75 percent.

Office of Education Conference on Exceptional Children

Eighty leaders from more than 30 States, representing the various fields of specialization in the education of handicapped and gifted children, concluded a 5-day conference in Washington, D. C., the last week in October.

Sponsored by the Office of Education, the conference considered implications of a 3-year study on Qualification and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children.

The study, planned to improve teaching standards for the more than four million school-age exceptional children in the United States, was conducted by the Office of Education, with special support of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, New York City.

Romaine Mackie, Director of the Study, and Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth, Office of Education, announced that numerous publications will report the findings of the study.

A "Creed for Exceptional Children" presented to the Conference by Dr. Leonard Mayo, Director of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, was accepted by the Conference. The creed appears on the back cover page of this issue.

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.)

GOVERNOR'S CONFERENCE ON CALIFORNIA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1954. *Donald S. Howard*, Chairman. Advisory Committee on Children and Youth. Sacramento, Calif., 1954. 126 p.

HOW CAN WE HELP OUR SCHOOL BOARDS? A Guidebook for Mutual Understanding. Limited Edition—Final Editing Not Complete. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1954. 60 p. Illus. (Working Guide No. 7) (Address: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th St., New York 36, N. Y.).

INTRODUCTION TO AMERICAN EDUCATION. *By Paul R. Mort and William S. Vincent.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954. 435 p. (McGraw-Hill Series in Education) $4.75.

LIFE PLANNING FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS. *By William J. Reilly.* New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954. 173 p. $2.50.

MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION FOR THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHER: With Implications For Corrective Procedures. *By Theodore L. Torgerson and Georgia Sachs Adams.* New York, The Dryden Press, 1954. 489 p. Illus. $4.90.

PHYSICIANS AND SCHOOLS; Report of the Fourth National Conference on Physicians and Schools, September 30–October 2, 1953, Highland Park, Ill., *Edited by Fred V. Hein and Donald A. Dukelow.* Chicago, Ill., American Medical Association, Bureau of Health Education, 1954. 103 p.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY. Second Edition. *By Edward G. Olsen.* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 534 p. $5.75.

SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. *By Mardel Ogilvie.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954. 318 p. Illus. (McGraw-Hill Series in Speech.) $4.50.

TEACHER-PARENT INTERVIEWS. *By Grace Langdon and Irving W. Stout.* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 356 p. $5.25.

TEACHING AND WORLD AFFAIRS. *Samuel Everett*, Editor, with the Assistance of the Advisory Committee on Publications. [n.p.] The Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1954. 41 p. (Volume 51.) $1.00. (Address: Business Manager, John Niemeyer, Oak Lane Country Day School of Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.)

WHAT DOES CROWDING DO? Articles from April 1954 issue of Childhood Education. Washington, D. C., Association For Childhood Education International, 1954. 29 p. Illus. (Reprint Service Bulletin No. 27.) 50 cents.

BETTER TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *By Marvin D. Alcorn, Richard A. Houseman, and Jim R. Schunert.* New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1954. 525 p. Illus. $4.25.

BUILDING A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION. *By Harry S. Broudy.* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 480 p. (Prentice-Hall Education Series.) $6.65.

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY. *By Arthur T. Jersild.* Fourth Edition. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 676 p. $8.

EDUCATING AMERICA'S CHILDREN; Elementary School Curriculum and Methods. *By Fay Adams.* Second Edition. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1954. 628 p. Illus. $5.

A HISTORY OF ADULT EDUCATION AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY: University Extension and the School of General Studies. *By John Angus Burrell.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 111 p. $2.50.

HOW CAN CITIZENS HELP THEIR SCHOOLS? A Challenge to Action. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1954. 22 p. Illus. (Working Guide No. 1.) (Address: 2 West 45th Street, New York 36, N. Y.)

KNOW YOUR CHILDREN IN SCHOOL. *By Lucy Sprague Mitchell, Claudia Lewis, Virginia Schonborg, Ruth A. Sonneborn, and Dorothy Stall.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1954. 188 p. Illus. $3.

MEASUREMENT IN TODAY'S SCHOOLS. *By C. C. Ross.* Revised by Julian C. Stanley. Third Edition. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 485 p. Illus. $6.65.

PUBLIC EDUCATION AND A PRODUCTIVE SOCIETY. *By Maurice J. Thomas.* Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1954. 95 p. (Horace Mann Lecture, 1953.) $1.

REPORT ON CAREER PLANS OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS OF THE CLASS OF 1953. A Report of Findings in a Questionnaire Survey of Almost 4,000 Public High School Seniors of the Class of 1953 and Their Parents in Philadelphia, Pa., and New Haven, Conn. *By Robert Shosteck.* Washington, D. C., B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1954. 85 p. 75 cents. (Address: 1761 R St. NW., Washington, D. C.)

SCIENCE FACILITIES FOR THE MODERN HIGH SCHOOL. *By Paul DeH. Hurd.* Stanford, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1954. 52 p. Illus. (Educational Administration Monograph No. 2, School of Education, Stanford University.) $2.

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

The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends. By Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Bulletin 1954, No. 7. 25 cents.

City School Systems: Statistical Summary of Personnel, Attendance, and Current Expenditures, 1951–52. By Lester B. Herlihy. Circular No. 410, September 1954. Free.

Curriculum Materials in High-School Mathematics. By Kenneth E. Brown. Bulletin 1954, No. 9. 20 cents.

Education Directory, 1953–54—Part 4, Education Associations. Prepared by Margaret M. Butler. 30 cents.

Finances in Higher Education: Statistical Summary for 1951–52. By Doris Holladay. Circular No. 409, August 1954. Free.

Following Graduates into Teaching. By Effie G. Bathurst and Jane Franseth. Bulletin 1954, No. 6. 25 cents.

Free and Inexpensive Aids for the Teaching of Mathematics. Prepared by Kenneth E. Brown. Circular No. 348, Rev. November 1954. Free.

Practical Nurse Training Comes of Age. By Louise Moore. Misc. 3468, September 1954. Free.

Practices to Consider for Improvement of Language-Arts Program. Prepared by Arno Jewett. Free.

Ratio of Men to Women Teachers in Public Secondary Schools. By Ellsworth Tompkins. Circular No. 413, November 1954. Free.

Recent Teaching Guides and Courses of Study In High School Language Arts: An Annotated Bibliography. Prepared by Arno Jewett. Circular No. 412, September 1954. Free.

1953–54 References on the Core in Secondary Schools. Prepared by Grace S. Wright. Circular No. 323, Supplement No. 2, November 1954. Free.

Resident, Extension, and Adult Education Enrollment in Institutions of Highr Education: November 1953: By Herbert S. Conrad and William A. Jaracz. Circular No. 414, October 1954. Free.

Social Studies in Elementary Schools. Prepared by Wilhelmina Hill. Education Briefs No. 29, Rev. October 1954. Free.

Statistics of County and Regional Libraries Serving Populations of 50,000 or More: Fiscal Year 1953. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 406, June 1954. Free.

Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1953. Prepared by Neva A. Carlson, Mabel C. Rice, and Lloyd E. Blauch. Bulletin 1954, No. 8. 25 cents.

Statistics of Libraries in Institutions of Higher Education, by Type of Institution and by Size of Enrollment: 1951–52. Prepared by Willard O. Mishoff and Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 415, October 1954. Free.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

How to Study Nursing Activities in a Patient Unit. Public Health Service. 1954. 25 cents.

The Teacher and Mental Health. A statement of the basic principles of emotional growth and human relations that will make a direct contribution to the work of the classroom teacher. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

Pamphlets of the Social Security Administration relating to the 1954 Amendments to the Social Security Law:

A Brief Report, the 1954 Amendments to the Social Security Law. 5 cents.

How to Estimate Payments to Your Family. 5 cents.

Facts for Those Who Are Disabled. 5 cents.

Facts for Household Workers. 5 cents.

Facts for Farm Families. 5 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Atomic Energy Commission

Selected Readings on Atomic Energy. A selected bibliography including books for the general reader, the advanced reader, and for young people, and periodicals for the general reader, and for the advanced reader. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of Agriculture

Motion Pictures of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1954. 25 cents.

Planting the Southern Pines. Prepared to serve the needs of administrators, extension workers, students, teachers, and investigators in the field of artificial reforestation. 1954. Cloth, $2.75.

Department of Defense

Individual Training—Defense Against Enemy Propaganda. Department of the Army Pamphlet No. 20–79. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of Labor

Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Engineering. 1954. 25 cents.

Job Guide for Young Workers. Contains descriptions of 73 beginning occupations in the fields in which thousands of job opportunities for youth occur yearly. For each occupation covered, information is provided on the duties, qualifications for the job, characteristics of the job, opportunities for employment and advancement, and methods of entry. 1954. 30 cents.

Medical Technologists and Laboratory Technicians. Presents job information and training requirements for the medical technologist and for a diversified group of medical laboratory technician occupations. 1954. 25 cents.

The Youth You Supervise. The suggestions in this booklet are written especially for supervisors of young workers. 1954. 10 cents.

Department of State

The American Citizen's Stake in the Progress of Less Developed Areas of the World. 1954. 50 cents.

Background, The Philippines, 1954. 10 cents.

The United Nations, An Appraisal for 1954. 15 cents.

Federal Civil Defense Administration

Emergency Care Where You Need It. How the improvised hospital can save lives in enemy attack or natural disaster. 1954. 5 cents.

House of Representatives

This is Your House Committee on Un-American Activities, September 19, 1954. 25 cents.

Creed for Exceptional Children

Accepted by the U. S. Office of Education Conference on the Qualification and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children, October 29, 1954.

We Believe in the American promise of equality of opportunity, regardless of nationality, cultural background, race, or religion.

We Believe that this promise extends to every child within the borders of our country no matter what his gifts, his capacity, or his handicaps.

We Believe that the nation as a whole, every state and county, every city, town, and hamlet, and every citizen has an obligation to help in bringing to fruition in this generation the ideal of a full and useful life for every exceptional child in accordance with his capacity: the child who is handicapped by defects of speech, of sight, or of hearing, the child whose life may be adversely influenced by a crippling disease or condition, the child whose adjustment to society is made difficult by emotional or mental disorders, and the child who is endowed with special gifts of mind and spirit.

We Believe that to this end the home of the exceptional child, the schools, the churches, and the health and social agencies in his community must work together effectively in his behalf.

We Believe that for the most exceptional children their parents and teachers are the master architects essential to the planning and building of their future.

We Believe, therefore, that every appropriate resource of the community must be mobilized, if need be, to aid in maintaining his family life at an adequate social and economic level, and in furnishing guidance and encouragement to his parents.

We Believe that the teachers of exceptional children must possess the personality, develop the understanding, and acquire the knowledge and skill through special preparation that will enable them to inspire and motivate, as well as teach the art of making a living and a life.

We Believe that the cooperative efforts of parents and teachers must be encouraged, sustained, and supplemented: by teacher education institutions with curricula and programs based on the knowledges and skills needed in the education of exceptional children; by State departments that will develop challenging standards of program operation, and work with teachers in establishing sound certification procedures; by local school systems that will recruit and employ teachers who are qualified by personality and special preparation; by health and welfare agencies that will provide diagnosis and evaluation, medical and psychiatric care, and social service.

We Believe that research designed to increase present knowledge of personality and the learning process, and studies aimed at the improvement of programs of special education are essential to further progress.

We Believe in the sensitive interpretation of the exceptional child and his needs by teachers and others in order that an attitude favorable to his acceptance and development may be engendered and sustained in the community.

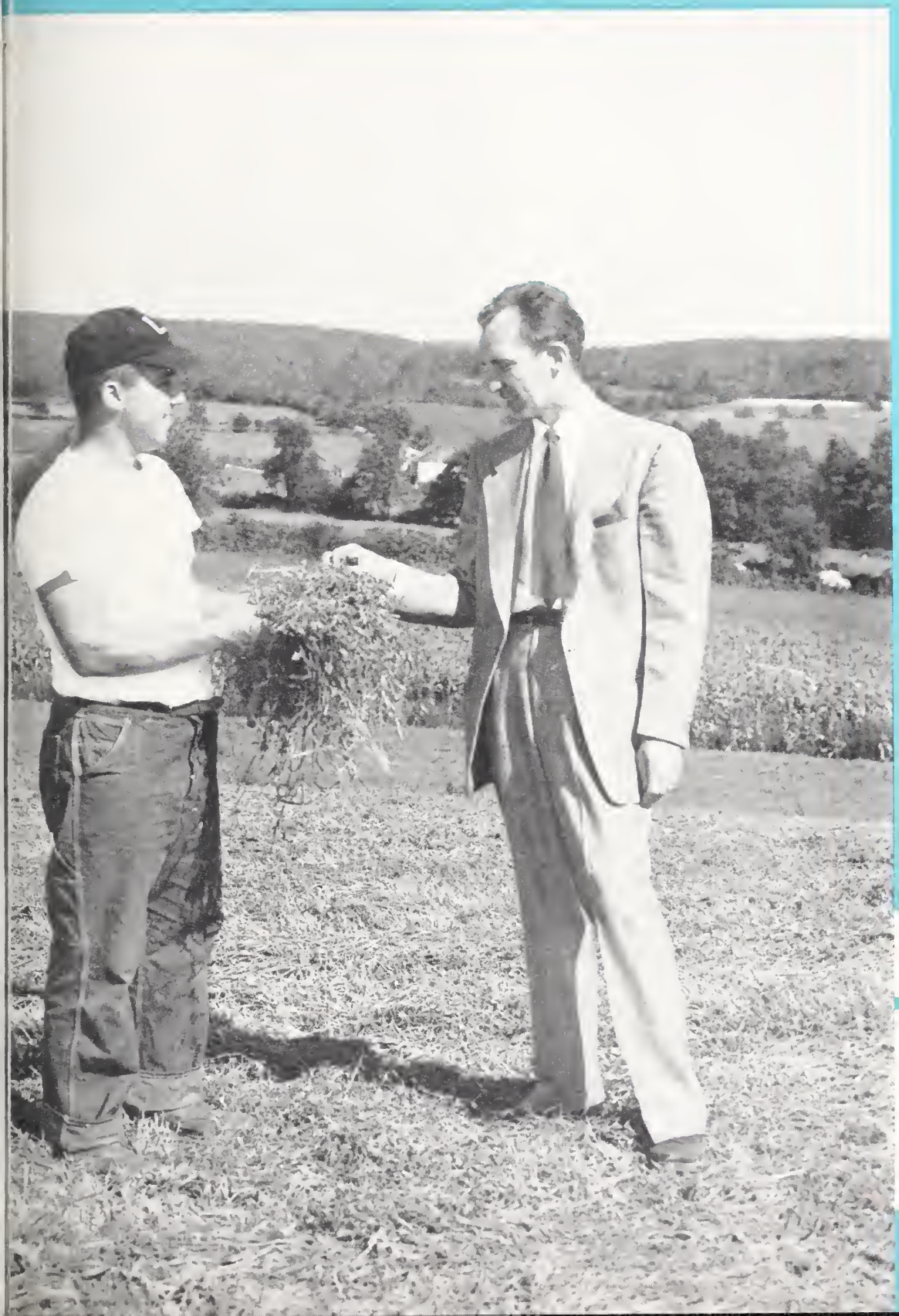
Above All, We Believe in the exceptional child himself; in his capacity for development so frequently retarded by the limits of present knowledge; in his right to a full life too often denied him through lack of imagination and ingenuity on the part of his elders; in his passion for freedom and independence that can be his only when those who guide and teach him have learned the lessons of humility, and in whom there resides an effective confluence of the trained mind and the warm heart.

This creed was presented to the Conference on the Qualification and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children by Dr. Leonard Mayo, Director of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, New York City. Additional copies are available from the Section on Exceptional Children and Youth, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

Volume 37 Number 4
JANUARY 1955

Route to

School Life



◀ Star Farmer and His Teacher

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

Challenge to Vocational Educators

by Nelson A. Rockefeller*

VOCATIONAL education, established on a sound basis of need, has flourished as a symbol of American democracy. If it is to continue to serve effectively, we need to take stock of our present status. We must remember that the program was established to fit people for useful employment in the home, on the farm, and in the trades and industries, and the distributive occupations.

There are those who claim that vocational education has fully matured and needs no more attention or cultivation. You should be aware of the implications of this idea. It is no mere academic matter. It is a question of whether vocational education is to be a steam locomotive in a day of diesels, or whether it will adjust itself to changing social, economic, and technological conditions.

Can we say that vocational education has attained its goals when only two-thirds of the schools offer vocational training—many of them in only one occupation? Has vocational education matured when less than one-half of the students in our public schools have access to vocational training, and perhaps, at that, in a field in which they are not primarily interested? Has vocational education matured when only a small fraction of the adult workers have access to training to keep abreast of the times in their occupation, and for advancement in their work?

A part of our refutation of this mistaken idea of maturity lies in the continued vitality of the original principles which underlay the establishment of the program. Another part of the answer lies in what vocational education has done and what it is doing now. You have seen the results in the lives of individuals; you have seen homes maintained on higher standards and communities benefited tremendously with the aid of vocational education.

Can a program such as vocational education that deals with the basic activities of production, distribution, and consumption of 160 million people ever really mature? We think of vocational training in agriculture, trades, and industries as primarily concerned with production; we think of vocational training in the distributive occupations as primarily concerned with distribution; and we think of vocational training in home economics as primarily concerned with consumption. Each field of vocational education makes a contribution to each of these major aspects of our economy. Can a program that deals realistically with such basic, human interests mature?

Vocational education will have matured only when it ceases to contribute further to the efficiency of production, consumption, and distribution . . . when it becomes just another subject in the school . . . when

(Continued on p. 63)

*Mr. Rockefeller, formerly Undersecretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, made this statement as part of an address before the Minnesota Vocational Association in St. Paul, October 21, 1954.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Raymond C. Heimbach, teacher of vocational agriculture at the Kutztown, Pa., High School, makes one of his regular supervisory visits to the farm of a graduate student, Burd Schantz. Young Schantz was selected to receive the top award of the Future Farmers of America in 1954 for his outstanding achievements in farming and leadership.

CONTENTS for JANUARY 1955

Volume 37 Number 4

Published each month of the school yeor, October through June

To order SCHOOL LIFE send your check or money order (no stomps) with your subscription request to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. SCHOOL LIFE service comes to you ot o 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 Stotes. Printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been approved by the Director of the Bureou of the Budget. (September 19, 1952.)

White House Conference on Education

To Be Held November 28–December 1, 1955

THE COMMITTEE for the White House Conference on Education has set November 28 to December 1, 1955, as the date for its meetings of citizen and educational leaders from across the Nation to consider the pressing problems of American education.

This national conference, first proposed by President Eisenhower in his State of the Union message January 7, 1954, and authorized by the Congress, will serve as a follow-up to conferences being held in the respective States preceding the Washington sessions.

Members of the President's Committee for the White House Conference on Education conferred with President Eisenhower at the White House on December 2. At their first meeting they announced the specific date of the conference, and formulated plans for committee action during the months immediately ahead.

Neil H. McElroy, chairman of the committee, and President of The Procter & Gamble Company, announced the appointment of an Advisory Committee of professional educators and leaders of educational organizations. His statement of the purposes of the Conference, as voted by the Presidential Committee, follows:

"Believing as it does in the traditional concept of state and local control of education while recognizing the national interest in education, the Presidential Committee for the White House Conference on Education accepts the following responsibilities:

"To assist, when invited, in planning conferences in the States and Territories.

"To organize a White House Conference on Education to be held in Washington, D. C., before November 30, 1955.

"Bringing about a more widespread knowledge and appreciation of, and interest in, education:

"Helping to create a continuing concern on the part of great numbers of citizens to face their responsibilities toward education;

"Serving to bring about an analysis of the current condition of our education system;

"Providing examples of solutions to educational problems and inspiration for an accelerated effort in planning more action programs of school improvement;

"Providing the basis for a report to the President concerning the significant and pressing problems in the field of education, and recommendations insofar as possible for their solution."

The scope of the Conference program was stated to be:

"It is recognized that education, interpreted broadly, includes education from early childhood through adult levels, as provided in the home, school, church and many other institutions, public and private.

"The most immediately pressing problems are to be found in the elementary and secondary schools since they are already faced

with the great increases in enrollment which will not affect post-high-school institutions until later. For this reason the Conference will give primary attention to the broad and general problems of elementary and secondary school education but will consider these problems in relation to our total system of education from primary school through the university.

"In concentrating on elementary and secondary education, the Conference will seek a comprehensive view of our entire educational system and may wish to recommend subsequent studies of these points of the system not adequately covered in its limited one year study."

In the photograph of the President's Committee for the White House Conference on Education taken on the White House grounds, can be seen, left to right:

POTTER STEWART, Cincinnati, Ohio, U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals; MSGR. WILLIAM E. MCMANUS, Washington, D. C., National Catholic Welfare Conference; RALPH J. BUNCHE, New York City, director, Department of Trusteeship, United Nations; FRANK C. MOORE, Buffalo, N. Y., president, Government Affairs Foundation, Inc.; H. GRANT VEST, Denver, Colo., State commissioner of education; FRANK H. SPARKS, Crawfordsville, Ind., president, Wabash College; JOHN S. BURKE, New York, N. Y., president, B. Altman & Co.; JOHN COWLES, Minneapolis, Minn., president, Minneapolis Star & Tribune; MRS. ROLLIN BROWN, Los Angeles, Calif., chairman, Recreation Commission of the State of California; JESSE G. STRATTON, Clinton, Okla., president, National School Boards Association, Inc.; MRS. CHARLES L. WILLIAMS, Miami, Fla., teacher and president, National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers; WILLIAM S. PALEY, Manhasset, Long Island, N. Y., chairman, Columbia Broadcasting System; NEIL H. MCELROY, Cincinnati, Ohio (chairman), president, Procter & Gamble; FINIS E. ENGLEMAN, Hartford, Conn. (vice-chairman), State commissioner of education; CLINT PACE, director, White House Conference on Education; MRS. OSCAR A. AHLGREN, Whiting, Ind., past president, General Federation of Women's Clubs; JAMES F. REDMOND, New Orleans, La., superintendent, New Orleans schools; MARTHA SHULL, Portland, Oreg., teacher; THOMAS LAZZIO, Paterson, N. J., UAW–CIO; JAMES R. KILLIAN, Jr., Cambridge, Mass., president, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; JOSEPH C. MCLAIN, Mamaroneck, N. Y., principal, Mamaroneck High School; ROY E. LARSEN, Fairfield, Conn., president and director, Time, Inc.; LORIMER D. MILTON, Atlanta, Ga., president, Citizens Trust Company; HERSCHEL D. NEWSOM, Takoma Park, Md., master, The National Grange; W. PRESTON LANE, Jr., Hagerstown, Md., former governor of Maryland.

Educational, civic and professional organizations are being encouraged and assisted to take part in the State and White House Conferences by Mrs. Henry Grattan Doyle, nationally known for her outstanding public service. Former President of the Washington, D. C. Board of Education and past National Vice-President of the League of Women Voters, Mrs. Doyle was appointed in December 1954 to her present post as Conference Representative for Organizations. In this position Mrs. Doyle will coordinate organizational activities with the conference program.

Future Unlimited

SIX NATIONAL WINNERS have been announced in the "Future Unlimited" Student Art Project, sponsored by the Treasury Department to focus attention on the school savings phase of the U. S. Savings Bonds Program. The six best posters from more than 1,000 entries were displayed during the national conference of the U. S. Savings Bonds Division in Washington, D. C., November 8–9. Shown above inspecting the exhibit are Mrs. George M. Humphrey, wife of the Secretary of the Treasury and active member of the National Women's Advisory Committee for Savings Bonds; and Robin Morgan, 12-year-old TV star who plays the role of "Dagmar" in the CBS dramatic series "Mama." She addressed the national conference as a representative of America's six million school children.

The winners, selected on a regional basis, are: Barb Gray, of Webster, N. Y., 15-year-old student at Mercy High School, Rochester, N. Y.; Charles Drago, 17, Roosevelt High School, Washington, D. C.; Richard Moreland, 15, Morton Memorial High School, Knightstown, Ind.; Sharyn Blanka, 15, Topeka High School, Topeka, Kans.; Bob Ozment, 18, Winslow High School, Winslow, Ariz.; and Margaret Leland, 18, Sheridan High School, Sheridan, Wyo.

The project was open to students in grades 4 through 12 in all public, private, and parochial schools throughout the country. The general theme of the artwork was what students hope that savings bonds and stamps will provide for themselves and their families. The judges were: noted cartoonists Alex Raymond, creator of the comic strip, Rip Kirby; Raeburn Van Buren, creator of the strip, Abbie An' Slats; Gib Crockett, editorial cartoonist for *The Washington Star;* and Herbert Block, better known as Herblock, editorial cartoonist for *The Washington Post and Times Herald;* Judy Holliday, stage, screen, and TV star; and Ethel Bray, art director for the District of Columbia public schools.

Education Looks at Radio and Television*

Samuel Miller Brownell, Commissioner of Education

IT IS heartening to know of the growth of educational television in the past 2 years. Radio has permeated our lives now for almost 30 years, bringing a rich reward of instant news, participation in public events, discussion of public questions, cultural and entertainment programs that provide a means of lessening the pressures of daily living and, in addition, countless means of providing education for our young people, both in and out of school. To this vast project of communication, educational organizations have contributed much that is valuable and of good report.

The American public now has the additional service of television to help keep it informed and entertained. Education is concerned with both these functions. Even though its major responsibility is to prepare the youth of this great country for living as responsible citizens, it cannot neglect the responsibility it has to provide rich and healthful experience, to stimulate the appreciation of enduring sources of wholesome pleasures in the arts, and to point out constantly to the people the significance of the advances in sciences which now affect the lives of everyone of us, privileged to live in the 20th century.

All these objectives can be immeasurably helped by a proper use of television. In addition to the services of the standard commercial stations, we now have twelve educational stations whose major purpose is to carry out these objectives. The latest one is at the University of North Carolina, with studios in Chapel Hill, Greensboro, and Raleigh. The first one was at Iowa State College. In 2 years, we have seen such services established at the University of Houston, the University of Southern California, the University of Missouri, Michigan State College, the University of Washington, the University of Nebraska, and the University of Wisconsin. Community stations, in which both universities and school systems have joined forces, are now established in Pittsburgh, St. Louis, Cincinnati, and San Francisco. Stations are now under construction at Chicago and Boston; at the University of Oklahoma in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Norman; at the University of Alabama, in Birmingham and Tuscaloosa; at Ohio State University in Columbus, and at the University of Illinois, in Champaign-Urbana.

Memphis, Atlanta, New Orleans, San Antonio, Denver, New York, Philadelphia, and Washington, D. C., are all planning now for community operation of stations with higher educational institutions and school systems of their areas participating. This is an encouraging picture for educational television. It stretches from coast to coast and from border to border.

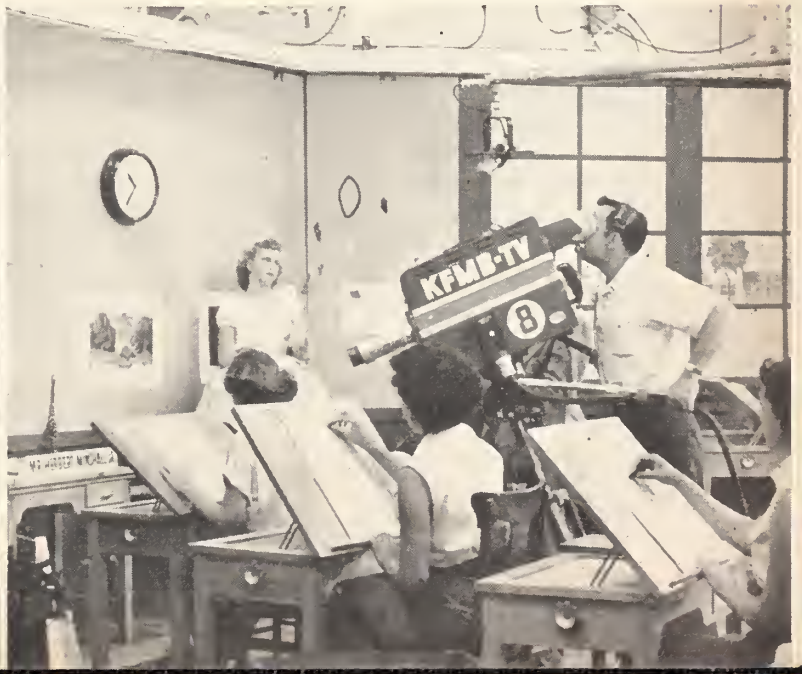
The Office of Education has been in the education business since 1867, but it's only been in radio since 1931, and in television a comparatively short time. The National Association of Educational Broadcasters is celebrating its 30th anniversary, as it has been in radio since 1924. The Office of Education has been in television since 1944, for that was about the time we all began working together.

Yet the Office has battled for proper uses of audio and visual means in education almost from the start of its existence and has interested itself in radio and television and the protection of education's rights in both since they emerged as possible tools of learning.

It began by establishing a Section on Radio and Motion Pictures in the Division of Higher Education. That was in 1931.

*Based on an address delivered at the Annual Convention of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, in New York City, October 29, 1954.

The Army gives a course on feeding the soldier, over KUHT, University of Houston. Students represent those who are receiving the course over their TV sets.



Life-class in sketching goes out to schools and homes from San Diego schools. Cameras are later trained on student results with teacher's comments.

The first survey of the field was made in the following year. In 1934, the Federal Radio Commission broadened its scope and became the Federal Communications Commission. In 1935, the Office established, with the Federal Communications Commission, the Federal Radio Education Committee.

The question then was: Should education have its own radio channels? On January 26, 1938, the FCC set aside 25 channels (6 to an area) in the 41–42 megacycle band for the exclusive use of education. By the following year, 1939, FM (frequency modulation) had come into being, and the FCC promptly set aside the 42–43 megacycle band for use by education through FM, pending further developments. In 1944, the Office of Education, after a New York City Conference on Radio Education, became a member of the Radio Technical Planning Board, set up by the FCC to make recommendations on allocations for FM broadcasting, facsimile broadcast, television broadcasting, and UHF relays. Reallocation hearings were held in the following spring, and the Office, with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters and the NEA, as well as other spokesmen for education, appeared at these hearings. The object again was the allocation of adequate channels for the use of education.

In March 1945 our combined efforts were rewarded with the allocation of 20 channels in the 88–92 megacycle band for the exclusive use of FM noncommercial educational broadcasting. In the fall of 1950, the Office again combined with educational organizations in a historic meeting held in our Office where the ad hoc committee, known as the Joint Committee on Educational Television, was formed. What is past is prologue, for after the eventful hearings of the winter of 1950–51, the FCC issued its Fourth Order and Report, which reserved one locally usable channel in each of 242 communities for the exclusive use of noncommercial educational television. This has been increased now to 251 channels, and several more are being petitioned for, to complete statewide coverage in some areas not originally contemplated.

Office of Education interest in 1931 was to explore the possibilities of sound and sight as presented on radio and pictures as a means to a richer learning experience. That is its interest today. With every other organization it has pioneered in this development of scientific aids to learning, particularly in the fields of electronics.

For the progress that has been made in electronics in education, commendation is warranted for many. For example, I would point to the Federal Communications Commission for its farsighted policy of reserving channels in both radio and television for the use of education; to education generally for its operation of these channels in the public welfare; to the Association for Education by Radio-Television for its work of utilizing programs, prepared for preschool, for school, for adult, and for higher education; to the Joint Committee and the Citizens Committee for promotion of this newest medium for education's widest uses in television; to the networks, the stations, the forward-looking States, cities, and countries who have joined forces to bring the best in education to all the people of this great land of ours; to the Program Center at Ann Arbor, set up to deliver a nationwide service to educational stations; and to all those valiant souls who have given of their time, their energy, and their money to the cause of providing and improving the educational use of these media.

Teaching methods of playing band instruments over WKAR–TV, Michigan State College. The student questions the teacher.

Many problems are perplexing us in education as we move forward to make education contribute more effectively to the welfare of mankind. They are problems which go beyond the scope of solution by educators. They call for the combined efforts and resources of both educators and citizens. By act of the 83d Congress, we are to have a White House Conference on Education. Preliminary to that conference, the various States will hold conferences of their own to face up to the major educational problems of immediate concern and to the State and local action needed to cope with them. The problems are many but as we look from State to State we see certain common problem areas that are likely to form the core of conference concern: (1) *Providing education to meet the needs of individuals and of a free society;* (2) *enlisting and maintaining an adequate supply of well-prepared teachers;* (3) *providing school buildings and equipment;* (4) *financing education;* and (5) *organizing education.*

Each State will thus have a chance to take inventory of its resources in reference to its educational needs and to consider plans for the future development of education. All States at the White House Conference can concern themselves with their programs in the light of the national perspective. Those in the field of communication are in a strategic position to assist in this great enterprise by their suggestions and by their participation as educators. The agencies of radio and television can help bring public attention to these conferences and can contribute much by alerting all the people to the need for bringing about plans for practical progress in meeting the major problems of education in each community, in each State, and thus in the Nation as a whole.

We are all concerned by the part that radio and television will play in the future of education for human welfare. A recent article titled, POSTMARK: 1979, by a science editor of one of our popular magazines prophesies the part it will play, a bit in the Jules Verne manner, as follows: (This is 1979!)

> Long before people could read and write they expressed themselves by drawing pictures. You might say we have come full cycle, for most of our education and expression today makes use of the visual medium. Our schools are equipped with television—each desk has a television repeater inset in its surface. Our textbooks are on micro-tape and are viewed on these screens. * * *

The article goes on to tell of the increased role which television has to play in business, industry, and science but the application to the classroom gives me pause. Up to now

(Continued on p. 62)

Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment in the United States 1929-30 to 1959-60

by Emery M. Foster, Head, Reports and Analysis Unit, and Carol Joy Hobson, Research Assistant, Research and Statistical Standards Section, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

FOR EACH of the school years ended in 1930, 1940, and 1950, the total enrollment in public and nonpublic elementary and secondary schools from kindergarten through grade 12 was between 28,000,000 and 29,000,000 pupils. During this 20-year period enrollments had increased to over 29,350,000 in 1934, decreased to just under 26,000,000 in 1944, and increased again to over 28,600,000 in 1950. From the low enrollment of 1944 to the high of 1960, the increase may be over 16,000,000 in 16 years. No wonder, with a continuous increase of this magnitude, facilities and teaching staff are inadequate to meet the strain.

Recent projections by the Bureau of the Census [1] show that even if birth rates should take a downward trend after 1953, we would still have a probable increase of 3,000,000 pupils between 1960 and 1965. Most of this increase would be at the high school level with the enrollments in the elementary school maintaining a high plateau.

The very high number of children born (from almost 3,000,000 to approaching 4,000,000) annually in each of the 12 years from 1942 to 1953, inclusive, should enter high school from 1956 to 1967, graduate from high school and enter college from 1960 to 1971, and graduate from college from 1964 to 1975.

The children born between 1942 and 1953, inclusive, will reach 20 years of age from 1962 to 1973. Then, their children, even at normal birthrates, will begin to cause another 12-year wave to move through elementary school, high school, and college. This group will be graduating from college through the years 1984–95, when they graduate from college at about age 22.

A possible plateau in elementary school enrollments in the early 1960's will probably be short lived and soon give way to the wave of increase due to a second generation—from the large number of children born between 1942 and 1953. We must

[1] Current Population Reports, Population Estimates, Series P–25, No. 85, December 7, 1953—*Projections of School Enrollment in the United States, 1953 to 1965.*

ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC AND IN NONPUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS: 1930, 1940, AND 1950 (ACTUAL), AND 1951–60 (ESTIMATED)*

[In thousands]

SCHOOL YEAR ENDED	TOTAL	PUBLIC	NONPUBLIC
	ENROLLMENT IN KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE 12		
1930	28,522	25,822	2,700
1940	28,202	25,542	2,660
1950	28,623	25,204	3,419
1951	29,333	25,807	3,525
1952	30,172	26,485	3,687
1953	31,825	27,888	3,937
1954	33,468	29,340	4,128
1955	35,160	30,827	4,333
1956	36,718	32,198	4,520
1957	38,237	33,530	4,707
1958	39,756	34,865	4,891
1959	41,330	36,248	5,082
1960	42,818	37,563	5,255
	ENROLLMENT IN KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE 8		
1930	23,718	21,389	2,329
1940	21,130	18,958	2,172
1950	22,232	19,507	2,724
1951	22,828	20,006	2,823
1952	23,565	20,592	2,973
1953	24,872	21,686	3,186
1954	26,265	22,915	3,350
1955	27,738	24,207	3,531
1956	29,038	25,348	3,690
1957	30,231	26,389	3,842
1958	31,413	27,423	3,990
1959	32,568	28,433	4,135
1960	33,651	29,386	4,264

(Continued on p. 54)

realize that the situation today is not a temporary condition which will be over in a few years but is a more or less permanent condition which, with some degree of let-up in the 1960's, will be with us for 40 years.

In each of the three sections of the table, enrollment data for both public and nonpublic (private and parochial) schools include residential schools for exceptional children, model and practice schools in teacher training institutions, and preparatory departments of colleges. Data for schools operated on Federal property by a Federal agency are included with data for public schools. Beginning in 1940, enrollments in Federal schools for Indians are also included with the public school enrollment; the 29,589 pupils in these schools in 1930 are excluded throughout the table because data were not available on their distribution between the elementary and secondary grades.

ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC AND NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS—Continued

SCHOOL YEAR ENDED	TOTAL	PUBLIC	NON-PUBLIC
	ENROLLMENT IN GRADES 9–12		
1930	4,804	4,433	371
1940	[1] 7,072	[1] 6,584	488
1950	[1] 6,392	[1] 5,697	695
1951	6,504	5,802	703
1952	6,607	5,893	714
1953	6,953	6,202	751
1954	7,203	6,425	778
1955	7,422	6,620	802
1956	7,679	6,850	830
1957	8,006	7,141	865
1958	8,343	7,442	901
1959	8,762	7,815	947
1960	9,168	8,177	991

*As of April 1954.
[1] Excludes postgraduate high school pupils.

NOTE: Since each figure is rounded separately, the total will not necessarily equal the sum of the parts.

State Aid for Public Schools

by Clayton D. Hutchins, Specialist in School Finance and Albert R. Munse, Research Assistant, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

GOVERNMENTS of the States and outlying parts of the United States provided about $3 billion for public school purposes during the 1953–54 school year. These funds were allocated through 409 different funds or distributions, an average of more than 7 funds per State. Four years earlier, similar aids totaled about $2 billion and were distributed through 358 State funds. A summary of the funds distributed as State aids for schools in 1953–54 is given in the accompanying tabulation. Data for the 1949–50 school year were presented in Circular No. 274 entitled, "Public School Finance Programs of the Forty-eight States," issued by the Office of Education in 1950.

According to the most recent reports, the largest amount of aid provided by any State is the $367,073,438 allocated to the school districts of California as shown in column 3 of the table. Other States having large amounts include: New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, Michigan, North Carolina, and Ohio. No other State allocated as much as $100 million to local boards of education during the 1953–54 school year.

Columns 5 and 8 of the tabulation indicate the amounts allocated as flat-grant funds and equalizing funds, respectively. Flat-grant funds are allocated in proportion to some measure of educational load such as the numbers of schools, classrooms, teachers, or pupils. This method of distributing State funds disregards local district financial abilities. In some instances the method tends to favor the more wealthy school districts. These distributions of flat-grant funds account for 54.6 percent of all State funds for schools for the 1953–54 school year.

Equalizing distributions recognize inequalities in financial potential among school districts. Funds for equalizing purposes are allocated according to formulas which allow proportionately more aid to the financially weaker school districts than to those which are relatively more able to provide school revenue from local tax sources. These distributions of equalization funds account for 45.4 percent of all State funds for schools for the 1953–54 school year.

As indicated in column 7 of the table, there were 87 of these State equalizing funds. All States reported equalizing distributions except Arizona, Delaware, Maine, South Carolina, and South Dakota. Several of the outlying parts of the United States also indicated no equalizing distributions, but these areas are not comparable since the municipalities directly support the total program and administer the local schools. More than 90 percent of the State funds distributed by Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Pennsylvania, Utah, and West Virginia are regarded as equalizing funds. Contrasted with equalizing funds, the flat-grant funds tend to perpetuate rather than eliminate the financial disparity in levels of support between the school districts.

Numbers of State aid funds or distributions for public education range from 2 in Idaho to the 15 noted for New Jersey in column 2. School finance authorities generally agree that State school finance systems would be improved if fewer distributions were provided. One, two, or three large State aid funds which help the local boards of education to finance a comprehensive foundation program of education are to be preferred over numerous State aids for specific portions of the school budget.

The table of State aids for schools is one of a number being prepared for inclusion in a new bulletin to be issued by the Office of Education, now in preparation.

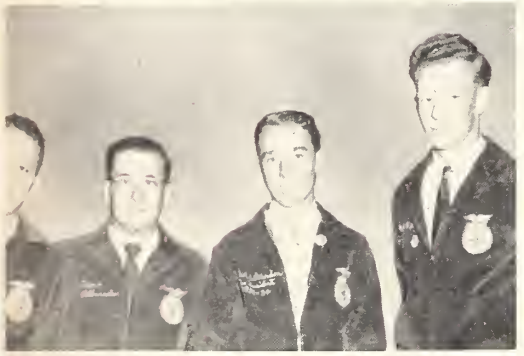
(*See table on facing page*)

STATE FUNDS APPORTIONED TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS FLAT-GRANTS AND AS EQUALIZING FUNDS: NUMBER OF AIDS, AMOUNT, AND PERCENT, 1953–54

State	Totals for State grants		Totals for flat-grants			Totals for equalizing grants		
	Number of aids	Total amount of grants	Number of aids	Total amount of grants	Percent of total State aid	Number of aids	Total amount of grants	Percent of total State aid
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES	382	$2,939,833,265	295	$1,606,200,120	54.6	87	$1,333,633,145	45.4
ALABAMA	7	66,530,400	5	8,465,400	12.7	2	58,065,000	87.3
ARIZONA	5	14,289,669	5	14,289,669	100.0	0	0	0.0
ARKANSAS	8	29,325,000	7	7,557,634	25.8	1	21,767,366	74.2
CALIFORNIA	13	367,073,438	7	262,360,304	71.4	6	104,713,134	28.6
COLORADO	6	15,362,923	4	9,104,312	59.3	2	6,258,611	40.7
CONNECTICUT	9	17,006,000	7	16,136,000	94.9	2	870,000	5.1
DELAWARE	8	13,634,677	8	13,634,677	100.0	0	0	0.0
FLORIDA	2	75,225,459	1	1,528,800	2.0	1	73,696,659	98.0
GEORGIA	9	97,684,557	7	85,449,557	87.5	2	12,235,000	12.5
IDAHO	2	7,195,478	1	132,113	1.8	1	7,063,365	98.2
ILLINOIS	11	80,636,829	10	36,254,443	45.0	1	44,382,386	55.0
INDIANA	6	64,455,000	3	1,145,000	1.8	3	63,310,000	98.2
IOWA	7	19,000,880	5	15,928,880	83.8	2	3,072,000	16.2
KANSAS	7	23,023,700	6	7,423,700	32.2	1	15,600,000	67.8
KENTUCKY	1	32,968,500	3	27,395,500	83.1	1	5,573,000	16.9
LOUISIANA	11	80,093,598	10	69,337,372	86.6	1	10,756,226	13.4
MAINE	10	7,059,882	10	7,059,882	100.0	0	0	0.0
MARYLAND	10	32,457,288	8	18,588,075	57.3	2	13,869,213	42.7
MASSACHUSETTS	9	35,677,241	7	9,552,514	26.8	2	26,124,730	73.2
MICHIGAN	13	190,333,876	12	89,992,300	47.3	1	100,341,576	52.7
MINNESOTA	12	72,651,600	10	64,271,600	88.5	2	8,380,000	11.5
MISSISSIPPI	7	27,314,614	5	14,907,191	54.6	2	12,407,423	45.4
MISSOURI	14	50,653,550	13	46,719,107	92.2	1	3,934,443	7.8
MONTANA	4	11,199,477	3	5,164,424	46.1	1	6,035,053	53.9
NEBRASKA	10	2,624,450	9	2,624,200	100.0	1	250	0.0
NEVADA	7	4,583,739	3	4,298,769	93.8	4	284,970	6.2
NEW HAMPSHIRE	4	1,092,470	3	192,470	17.6	4	900,000	82.4
NEW JERSEY	15	27,856,033	12	18,451,838	66.2	3	9,404,195	33.8
NEW MEXICO	5	33,707,584	4	33,407,584	99.1	1	300,000	0.9
NEW YORK	8	295,664,000	4	100,344,000	33.9	4	195,320,000	66.1
NORTH CAROLINA	8	173,158,257	6	133,158,257	76.9	2	40,000,000	23.1
NORTH DAKOTA	7	8,193,110	4	4,718,110	57.6	3	3,475,000	42.4
OHIO	8	120,502,400	4	80,252,400	66.6	4	40,250,000	33.4
OKLAHOMA	7	33,383,386	6	8,429,226	25.3	1	24,954,160	74.7
OREGON	8	32,850,472	6	30,843,423	93.9	2	2,007,049	6.1
PENNSYLVANIA	13	197,233,507	6	10,440,500	5.3	7	186,793,007	94.7
RHODE ISLAND	12	3,540,300	10	3,408,800	96.3	2	131,500	3.7
SOUTH CAROLINA	10	65,000,000	10	65,000,000	100.0	0	0	0.0
SOUTH DAKOTA	6	3,944,554	6	3,944,554	100.0	0	0	0.0
TENNESSEE	7	64,520,433	5	19,810,000	30.7	2	44,710,433	69.3
TEXAS	3	193,389,135	2	124,138,000	64.2	1	69,251,135	35.8
UTAH	4	19,783,832	2	590,752	3.0	2	19,193,080	97.0
VERMONT	9	4,073,747	8	753,747	18.5	1	3,320,000	81.5
VIRGINIA	13	43,880,245	11	41,510,245	94.6	2	2,370,000	5.4
WASHINGTON	5	97,476,989	2	59,383,108	61.1	3	37,793,881	38.9
WEST VIRGINIA	7	50,674,583	6	2,219,783	4.3	1	48,454,800	95.7
WISCONSIN	8	25,047,000	6	19,032,500	76.0	2	6,014,500	24.0
WYOMING	4	7,100,000	3	6,850,000	96.5	1	250,000	3.5
OUTLYING PARTS	27	61,251,869	26	60,986,484	99.6	1	265,385	0.4
ALASKA	15	8,333,532	14	8,068,147	96.8	1	265,385	3.2
AMERICAN SAMOA	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0	0.0
CANAL ZONE	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0	0.0
GUAM	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0	0.0
HAWAII	5	18,813,079	5	18,813,079	100.0	0	0	0.0
PUERTO RICO	7	34,105,258	7	34,105,258	100.0	0	0	0.0
V. I., ST. CROIX	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0	0.0

NEW NATIONAL FFA OFFICERS—Standing, left to right, Philip Brouillette, student secretary, from Richford, Vt., and Billy Gunter, president, of Live Oak, Fla. Seated are the four vice presidents, Lowell Gisselbeck, Watertown, S. Dak.; Jay Wright, Alamo, Nev.; Charles Anken, Holland Patent, N. Y., and Bobby Futrelle, Mt. Olive, N. C.

SOIL AND WATER MANAGEMENT—Wilbur Lawrence, left, Ashland, Va., won the FFA Foundation's 1954 national award of $250 for outstanding achievement in Soil and Water Management. Regional winners of $200 awards are, left to right, Wayne David, Arvin, Calif.; John R. Musgrave, Stilesville, Ind., and Frank Demarest, Lafayette, N. J.



DAIRY FARMING—Left to right, Clay Pruett, Winchester, Ky.; Titus Albarado, Carencro, La.; Arthur Willardsen, Ephraim, Utah, and William Pulver, Millerton, N. Y. Pulver received the $250 national award for outstanding achievement in Dairy Farming. Each of the other three received $200 regional awards.

FARM SAFETY—These boys represented their respective FFA chapters in receiving the 1954 awards for outstanding work in Farm Safety. Left to right, Warren Durham, Fort Pierce, Fla.; Glenn Brandjord, Bottineau, N. Dak.; Paul Smith, Ripley, W. Va., and Dale Deal, Phoenix, Ariz. The national award of $250 was won by the Fort Pierce chapter; the others received $200.

FARM ELECTRIFICATION—Outstanding achievement in Farm Electrification brought a $250 award to Donald Sanford, Jr., left, of Jasper, Ala., and regional awards of $200 each to Wayne Hughes, Knapp, Wis.; Donald M. Gehrmann, Wyoming, Del., and Rasmus E. Indreland, Harlowton, Mont.

FARM MECHANICS—National and regional winners of 1954 FFA Foundation awards in Farm Mechanics are pictured. Left to right, they are Raymond S. DeHart, Bland, Va., who received the $250 national award, and the three regional winners of $200 each, Fred V. Kruse, Kilbourne, Ill.; Homer John Yokum, Harman, W. Va., and John Weisz, Gervais, Oreg.

National Convention
For the Futur

by John Farrar, National FFA Staff, Office of Education, U. S. D

KANSAS CITY, MO., is often called the crossroads of agricultural America. It holds one of the world's largest stockyards, and is a great center of meat packing and grain milling. The railroads that serve the city fan out into the heart of the fertile midwestern and southwestern farming areas that produce a major portion of the Nation's grain and livestock.

Its annual American Royal Live Stock and Horse Show is known the world over for the high quality of the animals exhibited.

But to 375,000 high school vocational agriculture students who are members of the Future Farmers of America, Kansas City is best known as the home of their national convention. Each year in October from 7 to 8 thousand FFA members travel to the convention, accompanied by about 1,000 of their vocational agriculture instructors. These, plus parents and other guests, brought registration at the 1954 convention to more than 9,500.

In baseball terms, the national convention might be called the "world series" of FFA. It is here that national honors are awarded to members whose achievements in farming and leadership have been particularly outstanding. Official delegates discuss business and policy matters affecting the organization; national officers are elected; programs of inspirational and entertainment values are presented; and speakers of national prominence are heard.

Speakers in 1954 included A. D. P. Heeney, Canadian Ambassador to the United States; S. M. Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and W. A. Roberts, President of the Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Corporation, Milwaukee.

The delegates, award winners, officers, and others who a
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—National Honors
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artment of Health, Education, and Welfare

NATIONAL FFA BAND—Pictured marching in the American Royal Parade, these Future Farmer musicians drawn from all sections of the U. S. have had one week of practice and work as a unit. They are led by Dr. Henry Brunner, head of the Agricultural Education department at Pennsylvania State College.

ually participate in the only about 700. The tendance is by boys who y on their own initiative ne convention programs. s from outside the FFA uly surprising and sig- t the convention is the ip ability shown by the egates who conduct the

rity of these boys, their convention without slip all of us who sat on the most lasting impression of the convention on the minds of the several thousand younger FFA members who attend the convention as observers. Many national officers have stated that their first visit to the convention gave them the incentive to work harder in the development of their own leadership abilities.

C. B. Davenport, a Mt. Holly, N. J., instructor who writes a monthly column for *National County Agent and Vo-Ag Teacher Magazine*, recently commented: "I have noticed that every local boy who has gone to Kansas City has come home a better leader".

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ted Robert H. Reed, *Gentleman Magazine*, a prominent industrial- ld not have believed it ethod of training, to youngsters the clear es of leadership demon- delegates."

it is this same demon- ership that creates the

Development of leadership and good citizenship is, of course, one of the major objectives of the FFA organization, ranking in importance alongside those activities that are designed to stimulate the boy to do better work in the development of his farming abilities through study of vocational agriculture.

Because the conventions have been held there each year since 1928. Kansas Citians

(Continued on p. 59)

CHAMPION SPEAKER—Dennis O'Keefe, of Westerville, Ohio, won the 1954 national FFA public speaking contest with a talk about the achievements of the organization during the past 26 years.

The Technological Team— A Most Valuable National Resource*

by Henry H. Armsby, Chief for Engineering Education, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

WE IN AMERICA believe in education. One of the fundamental principles of our democracy is that each citizen should have an opportunity to receive the best education his natural talents and his own efforts will permit. This is of special importance today. The menacing international situation has forced us into a cold war of unknown duration, which *can* develop into a hot war. Since we cannot hope to match the possible enemy in numbers of men we must surpass him in quality and utilization of our manpower. The situation demands an adequate educational program, and the utilization of every citizen where he can make his most effective contribution to the national welfare.

The Technological Team

This is especially important for the group of people I like to call the "Technological Team," composed of our highly trained scientific, professional, and technical personnel. Each of the three is essential to the work of the team—the research scientist to plan and conduct the research which leads to new ideas, the practical scientist and engineer to develop designs and procedures for practical applications of these ideas, the technician to build and operate.

This technological team is chiefly responsible for the existence in the United States of the highest standard of living the world has ever known. This standard of living is based largely on the great industrial and technological advances which have taken place during the last 100 years. During this time the engineering applications of science to practical problems have resulted in more new developments than in all prior recorded history. This great growth in our industrial system, both as to size and complexity, has been both the cause and the result of the continual expansion of the technological team, especially in recent decades. Since 1900 the number of persons engaged in scientific, professional, and technical work has been growing almost twice as fast as our total population, but it still constitutes a very small fraction of our labor force.

This small body of men and women who have made our industrial development possible, our technological team, our engineers, scientists, and technicians, constitute our best hope of success in either hot or cold war—our prime source of progress in peace. They are a most valuable national resource.

This team has been the major cause of the doubling every 40 years of the real standard of living in America, and of the reduction in the average workweek from 65 hours in 1880 to 40 hours in 1953. This team has given America the equivalent of 60 mechanical slaves for each citizen, the largest number available in any nation on the globe. If we multiply our actual population by 60 we have what we might call a technical population of 7½ billion people. This is why we are able to produce more than the rest of the world.

Demand and Supply

The story of the shortage of engineers and technicians has been widely publicized. It became evident soon after the outbreak of hostilities in Korea. It has been with us ever since, and all available information points to its continuance for a good many years to come. It is estimated that up to 1960 engineering graduates will number approximately 177,000, compared to an estimated need for 240,000 under conditions of partial mobilization. (The need under full mobilization would, of course, be much greater.)

Various studies have indicated that industry needs from 2 to 5 technicians to each engineer. Several types of technicians are on the list of critical occupations issued by the Department of Labor, which has recently said that shortages of engineers and other scientific personnel will continue for some years, that the need for related technicians is therefore likely to rise still further, and that alert management will probably employ more technicians, in order to make more efficient use of their professional employees.

The Engineering Manpower Commission, created by the major national engineering societies to promote the production and effective utilization of engineers, has repeatedly emphasized the importance of technicians to relieve hard-pressed engineers of many tasks which can be performed as well, or in some cases better, by technical institute graduates.

A recent survey of the actual use of technicians in 8,000 metalworking plants showed wide variations in the ratio of technicians to engineers, even in plants in the same industry. The ratios ranged from 0.83 to 5, with indication that even in research organizations, where the ratio is understandably low, the employment of technicians is increasing faster than that of professional personnel.

Enrollment Trends

The output of engineering college graduates reached a low point of about 20,000 in June 1954. Current enrollments indicate a steady increase to about 38,000 in 1958. The percentage of engineering freshmen to all college freshmen fell to a 20-year low of 6.6 percent in 1950. In 1953, and again in 1954, the percentage was 10.5 percent.

Technical institute enrollments have been rising more rapidly since 1945 than have those of engineering colleges. A recent

*Condensation of Commencement Address at Capital Radio Engineering Institute, Washington, D. C., November 4, 1954.

survey of 200 institutions shows an enrollment for 1954–55 of 50,300, an increase of 12 percent over last year. These institutions expect to graduate in 1955 about 13,550, an increase of 30 percent over 1954. Evidently the need for technical institute instruction is becoming widely recognized, and people in various parts of the country are trying to do something about it.

Supply in Russia

It is interesting to compare these figures with the most reliable estimate we have on the output of engineers and technicians in Russia. The director of the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council estimates that the number of engineers has been climbing steadily in Russia, and that by next year they will be graduating about 50,000, most of whom will be graduates of 5-year curriculums, and some of 6-year curriculums. He also estimates that there were in 1952 about 3,500 technical institutes in Russia with an enrollment of 1,200,000 students and with about 350,000 graduates per year from 3- or 4-year courses, about 50,000 of whom seem to be in a field related to engineering. Compare this figure to the approximately 10,000 graduated from our technical institutes last June.

Economic Expansion

Our American way of life depends on a constantly expanding economy, and economic expansion is dependent on the advances made possible by the technological team more than upon any other single factor. The work of the team increases productivity, raises earning power, and lowers prices. It develops new products and improves old ones. It creates much of the market for new capital facilities, the equipment needed to translate ideas into more and better goods or services. It frequently reduces the amount of labor required for a specific product, with the ultimate effect of making labor more valuable. This is translated into increased purchasing power which leads to increased demands for all goods, thus creating higher living standards for all.

Future Needs for the Team

The electrical industry expects to continue its past performance of doubling in size and value of products every 10 years. About half the current sales of the chemical industry are of products which were not in existence 20 years ago. An official of the United States Steel Company recently said that 14 more plants as big as their Fairless works (the largest single steel plant ever built at one time) will be required to meet the needs of the 45,000,000 increase in population by 1975 which was predicted by the President's Materials Policy Commission, even if the per capita consumption of steel does not rise, as it always has risen throughout the century.

Toward a National Policy

These trends, and similar expansion in many other industries, will call for more and better trained scientists, engineers, and technicians—for a bigger and better technological team. Our nation needs an adequate technological team at all times. In times like these, of partial mobilization which *can* change quickly to an all-out war economy, the need is vital. The current and impending national shortages of highly trained manpower pose problems which call imperatively for a realistic, practical, and democratic national policy, which, while avoiding direct mandatory controls over the civilian population, will assure a rational distribution of highly trained manpower among and between civilian and military activities, which are always mutually interdependent.

An adequate basis for such a policy has been provided in statements by the President, by the Office of Defense Mobilization's Committee on Specialized Personnel, the Engineering Manpower Commission, the Scientific Manpower Commission, and the National Manpower Council, and in the proposed reorganization of the military reserve into an immediately recallable reserve and a selectively recallable reserve. A large number of agencies, both within and without the federal government, have become interested in the improvement of the supply and utilization of scientific and professional manpower. A recent circular [1] of the Office of Education outlines the activities and interrelations among 18 of the most active of these agencies.

Results of Organized Efforts

No accurate quantitative conclusions can be reached as to the net effect of these efforts, but the enrollment figures mentioned previously seem to indicate that at least in the field of engineering these efforts have had some effect. In any event, the activities of these organizations and agencies have served to draw the attention of the public to the seriousness of the situation. There is a growing realization among governmental agencies that there are special problems connected with the utilization of scientific, professional, and technical personnel in the national welfare which differ in important aspects from problems arising in the mobilization of larger and more homogeneous groups of people.

These problems have recently received serious study from a special inter-departmental committee at the cabinet level, which is due to report to the President in the near future. It is hoped that the recommendations of this committee will put us well on our way toward an effective national program of developing and effectively utilizing our technological team—a most valuable national resource.

[1] Circular No. 394, Office of Education, "Scientific and Professional Manpower—Organized Efforts to Improve Its Supply and Utilization."

Future Farmers

(Continued from p. 57)

probably know more about the FFA organization than the residents of any other major city. There's no mistaking when the convention begins, for on that day occurs a virtual invasion of the city by boys wearing the FFA's conspicuous blue jackets with their significant gold emblems. The city's radio and television stations and newspapers devote much time to coverage of convention activities.

At the end of the week, when all the awards have been presented, speakers have been heard, new officers have been elected, and weary leaders have packed their bags for the trip back home. Kansas City still holds a remnant of the convention. Members of the 100-piece national FFA band remain an extra day to lead the gigantic Saturday morning parade that heralds the opening of the American Royal.

Kansas City's feeling about the FFA is evident on that day. The membership of the band is drawn from all parts of the United States, and there is only one week of practice and work as a unit. It may not be the best band in the land, but the applause that follows it down the parade route tells you that it's Kansas City's favorite!

NEW PUBLICATIONS of State Departments of Education

by Willis C. Brown, Specialist, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

MANY State departments of education publish useful bulletins on subjects that are growing in public interest. Because of evident increased general interest in publications, the Office will from time to time publish annotated lists of State department of education publications.

The Office is offering the lists experimentally to learn whether they are of sufficient value to be published regularly.

Requests for sale copies should be made to the State department of education concerned. No copies are available from the Office of Education in Washington. Some publications may be printed in limited quantity for use within a State. In fact, some may be out of stock with the initial distribution.

Publications are listed in two sections, one of interest primarily to those concerned with elementary education; the other, of interest to those concerned with secondary education. Of course, some overlapping in content will be found because many bulletins are written on a grade 1 to 12 basis.

Elementary Education Aids

Alaska

Course of Study for the Primary Grades. "Elementary Course of Study Series." Bulletin No. 1, 1954. 88 p. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Juneau. Presents a revised course for kindergarten through grade three, with a general introduction chart of maturity characteristics and guides for activities in the subject fields of language arts, arithmetic, social studies, science, health, safety and physical education, industrial and fine arts, and music.

Colorado

Down South America Way. Instructional Service Bulletin No. SS–5. 1954. 42 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Denver. Suggests ways of teaching about Latin America, with special attention to Nicaragua and Peru. Contains aids for sixth-grade classroom conversation in Spanish and translations from several outstanding Latin American poets. Lists resources.

Delaware

Primary Children and Music. Revised Edition. 1954. 60 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Dover. Includes such topics as: A Talk With Teachers, Listening Activities, Rhythmic Activities, Singing Activities, Instrumental Activities, Music Reading, and Care and Storage of Music Equipment. Contains list of reference books and sources of phonograph records.

Florida

The Visiting Teacher in Florida. Bulletin No. 61. 1954. 42 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Tallahassee. Presents a manual for visiting teachers, guidance counselors, school welfare or social workers, and others concerned with the handling of pupil adjustment problems. A workshop group helped produce this guide on the activities of a visiting teacher, types of pupil problems referred, and records kept. Bibliography.

Louisiana

Handbook for School Administrators. Bulletin No. 741. Undated. 288 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Baton Rouge. ". . . designed—for the use of teachers, and administrators who have the responsibility for operating public schools in Louisiana." Contains record of standard operating procedures, regulations, policies, and recommendations governing the public schools of Louisiana.

New Jersey

Know Your Schools. Elementary School Bulletin No. 22. 1954. 57 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Trenton. Includes articles interpreting the school for parents. Designed for the use of parents, professional, and lay groups interested.

New York

Looking at the Special Services. Letter to Supervisors. Series 7, No. 8. April 1954. 4 p. THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, Albany. Stresses the role of the elementary supervisor. Lists special services: art, music, physical education, and library services.

A Letter on Letters to Supervisors. Letter to Supervisors. Series 7, No. 9. May 1954. 4 p. Contains an analysis of the letters published previously.

It Is All Important. Letter to Supervisors. Series 7, No. 10. June 1954. 4 p. Points out the importance of language arts, mathematics, citizenship education, art and music.

Room Wanted. Letter to Supervisors. Series 8, No. 1. September 1954. 4 p. Discusses problems of school housing, including types of temporary facilities, curtailed sessions, size of classes, teacher load, and help to the supervisor.

All Good Teaching. Letter to Supervisors. Series 8, No. 2. October 1954. 4 p. Traces the growth of the present day philosophy of teaching.

The Elementary School Curriculum—An Overview. 1954. 152 p. Gives teachers and administrators a quick overview of the entire program and should help local communities develop their own courses. Covers the period from kindergarten through grade six. Includes chapter on "Putting the Program Into Effect."

The Status of Kindergartens in New York State Public Schools. June 1954. 7 p. Reports a 1951 survey to determine the extent of acceptance of the kindergarten in the State; gives the practices in operation of half-day, all-day, 1-year, and 2-year kindergarten programs for 4- and 5-year-old children.

North Carolina

Child Accounting and School Attendance. Publication No. 298. 1954. 55 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Raleigh. Includes the rules and regulations of the State related to the compulsory attendance law and a discussion of many other matters of procedure and services to help children stay in school. Gives a comprehensive approach to school attendance problems.

Oregon

Handbook for Elementary School Principals in Oregon. 1954. 70 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Salem. Analyzes the administrative, supervisory, and other responsibilities of principals of elementary schools in Oregon. Developed cooperatively by the State Department of Education, study committees of the Oregon Elementary Principals' Association, and other Oregon educators.

Rhode Island

Educational Services for Very Young Children—Standards for Approval. 1954. 15 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Providence. Contains standards for approval of educational services for very young children. Prepared by a State committee appointed by the Commissioner of Education to protect the interests of children 3–5 years old and to aid administrators of schools and parents in evaluating these programs.

South Carolina

The Story of the Good School. 1954. 91 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Columbia. Pictures and describes what a good school is like in terms of program, facilities and equipment, preservice and inservice education of teachers, financial outlay, State and Federal support of special programs, and recruitment of future teachers. Tells how the schools train pupils in the fundamentals.

South Dakota

Music for the Schools of South Dakota. Bulletin No. 63. 1954. 174 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Pierre. Contains a program prepared by a committee of music educators for use in the elementary and secondary schools of South Dakota. Includes reports of singing, rhythmic, listening, playing, creative, integrative, and evaluation experiences.

Utah

Language Arts for the Elementary Schools of Utah. 1954. 253 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Salt Lake City. Prepared as a frame of reference to guide teachers in the development of language arts programs. Considers language from a viewpoint of its relation to living, problems in the curriculum field, and understandings and problems in relation to subjects.

Secondary Education Aids

New Jersey

The Life Adjustment Education Project in New Jersey. 1954. 44 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Trenton. Presents "The Progress Reports of Thirteen High Schools" which carried on experiments from 1949–53 to improve the curriculum. Each effort was carefully planned with the aid of expert consultants and followed through within a definite area, such as home and family living, English for fun, or science for life.

New York

The Activities Program in the Secondary School. August 1953. 8 p. THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. Albany. Includes a selected bibliography for teachers and school administrators as "An Aid to the Readjustment of High School Education," with annotated references to recent articles and books dealing with general and special aspects of extraclass activities.

Schools in Action, Vol. 3. No. 4. May 1954. 4 p. Describes recent curriculum activities in New York. Items include "Just About Math," "A Word on Curriculum," and "Planning a Workshop?" Gives recommendations of The Advisory Committee on Modern Languages.

North Carolina

Health Education. Publication No. 287. 1953. 409 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Raleigh. Presents a guide for teachers and others in improving health education as part of the "Curriculum Building Project." Includes al phases of school health with suggestions for each grade level—elementary through secondary.

South Dakota

A Handbook in Business Education for South Dakota. Bulletin No. 61. November 1953. 78 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Pierre. Contains a teacher's guide, outlining the total program of Business Education. Includes "The Business Curriculum—objectives, teaching suggestions, and general content." Should help school administrators evaluate local program.

A Handbook of Policies, Minimum Standards and Regulations for Accreditment of Secondary Schools. 1954. 52 p. Contains requirements for accreditment, information about special services, activities, and programs of the State Department of Public Instruction which deal with secondary education.

Vermont

Aids to Citizens' Action for the Public Schools. 1954. 24 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Montpelier. Prepared as a supplement to *A Guide to Citizens' Action for the Public Schools.* Planned to aid communities to find constructive solutions to school housing, curriculum, and organization problems.

Virginia

Music in Grades One through Twelve. Vol. XXXVI, No. 6. 1954. 132 p. STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, Richmond. Prepared as a tentative guide to curriculum development in music at the primary, intermediate, and high school levels, by a committee of teachers, principals, and music specialists under the auspices of the State Department of Education. Suggests objectives, teaching procedures, and materials to make music instruction more effective.

West Virginia

Guide for Better Reading. 1954 Supplement. June 1954. 53 p. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Charleston. Presents an annotated bibliography of 500 recent books for use in grades 1–12; groups titles according to theme and interest. Includes such groupings as "Knowing My Natural World," "Animals," "Humor," "World Neighbors," and "America: Its Land and Story." Gives both a *reading level* and an *interest level* by grade with each title and its brief annotation.

Radio and Television

(Continued from p. 52)

the greatest claims I have heard of have been made for electronic blackboards, that all in the class may see and hear. It is possible that all this may come about but what I am concerned with and I know everyone is most concerned with is what appears on those blackboards!

There is no substitute for the changes that take place in an individual. That is truly education, not the exposures to which he is subjected. Nor is there any quick means by which we can acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes beyond our comprehension level. The mind is the final television receiver, and it is in what happens there that we are all interested. That is why much of education must be entrusted to well-prepared teachers who should, if they are *good* as teachers, know how changes may be brought about most effectively in the thinking and feelings of individuals. They should understand the difference between education and communication.

When we compare radio and television, we are simply comparing two means of communication. Radio cuts off our sight and so allows greater play to the imagination. Television gives us both sight and sound and so may limit the imagination. Both give us a sense of immediacy of the event happening as we hear or witness it. Both induce a sense of realism, which tests have now proved; both tend to produce greater retentiveness in the memory. Television can, like motion-pictures, become the means of demonstrating hand skills. Television is flexible. It can produce before a battery of cameras a countless number of facets in an intricate process, such as a skillful exhibition of surgery for the benefit of medical students. These same characteristics may be utilized for any kind of demonstration, scientific or other.

It is safe to say that televison may be used whenever demonstration is called for. But, should it? Perhaps, the teacher alone in the classroom with simple apparatus of his or her own choosing may be sufficient for the lesson. A safe rule of conduct might easily be, so far as classroom television is concerned, to use it whenever the limitation of time, space, or lack of skill is present. This is the negative approach. On the positive side, the saving of time, the ability to create space, and the use of accumulated skills of many people, who through research, writing and production have brought a valuable program to a classroom prepared to receive it can be an invaluable aid to teaching. Will anyone ever forget the signing of the peace aboard the battleship *Missouri* in the Pacific or the inauguration of the President or the panoply of medieval grandeur at the coronation of the young Queen Elizabeth? This is history in the making and this is one of the singular contributions television can bring to us in the classroom or wherever we are.

I am only suggesting a small portion of the potential usefulness of radio and now television to the education of our people. Not only in school but out of school, in the home, in adult education, and yes, also, in the extension work of our colleges and universities both have a significant role to play. When do you use one or the other? I am not the technician to answer this question other than to say that it is surely not economical to merely photograph a radio program, as it would also seem futile also to produce a television program for sight alone or merely for its sound. But these are problems that education, with the help of trained technicians, is now working out. We who use these programs will be the benefactors of all their efforts.

It is easy for me to summon forth high praise for all those who have participated in the remarkable progress shown by educational television since the channels were assigned only 2 years ago. In the earlier days, too, of radio, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation, the Payne Fund, the Commonwealth Fund, the Kellogg Foundation, and many others by their foresight and their alertness gave substantial aid to experiments in developing radio and its recordings for educational use. The great radio networks like the National Broadcasting Company, the Columbia Broadcasting System, the Mutual Broadcasting System, and later, the American Broadcasting Company have all pioneered in these efforts. Universities and many colleges have maintained excellent radio services over the years. Many of them are pioneers in educational radio. School systems, some in large cities, many in small communities, have taken advantage of the channels available for FM broadcasting in the 88–92 megacycle band. More than 150 of them, operating in those frequencies, deliver a local service of culture and education to their communities. Does the coming of television mean they will now cease? On the contrary, not a month goes by that new educational radio stations are not established.

The Ford Foundation, through its Fund for Adult Education, particularly, came into being just about the same time as television. It was natural, therefore, that this Foundation, the Kellogg Foundation, and others, which have local as well as national interests in serving the people of America, would lend their support to furthering this new instrument of bringing education to the millions in home and school alike. The expenditures of the Ford Foundation in this one field alone, already exceed $18 million. Television stations are expensive to build and maintain, yet all education is expensive. Some city high schools cost several million dollars. But who would begrudge this for the purpose served?

It is heartening to find, also, that many of the States through their State departments of education, their colleges and universities, their State radio and television councils, and their school systems have acted to provide educational television services for all the people. Moreover, whole communities are now involved and are helping to raise the money necessary in many places. Many who have pioneered in radio are now pioneering in television. Many others who never used radio have sensed the values inherent in television. The industry has given tangible encouragement in professional help, advice, and money. It is no small accomplishment that the single educational television station at Iowa State College at Ames begun 5 years ago now has been joined by 11 others in various areas of the country and that they soon will have ten more to join them.

The investment, I understand, in educational television, already totals $25 million. Properly used, this will be a most significant contribution to the "increase and diffusion of knowledge" among our people.

It may not be out of place to note some of the activities of the Office of Education in this field as it has worked with the defense forces of our country in research and experimentation. For example, it has cooperated with the United States Army experiment in teaching with television at Camp Gordon, the Navy Special Devices

unit at Port Washington, N. Y., the Air Forces at Limestone, Maine, the Army Signal Corps at Fort Monmouth, N. J., the Naval Academy at Annapolis; the Department of State, through its leadership program; the United States Information Agency and the Voice of America; the Foreign Operations Administration, in its far-flung program of technical aid; the Treasury Department; the Agriculture Department's service of kinescopes for television; the Bureau of Standards; the Library of Congress, in its recording laboratory; the Smithsonian Institution in its past radio activities and its television projects; the Children's Bureau and the National Health Services, in our own Department; the Departments of Commerce and Interior, in their activities in promoting the usefulness of the media. The Office of Education is but one of the many government agencies which has a stake in radio and television. The three branches—the Legislative, as expressed in congressional action, the Judiciary, in the decisions of the Supreme Court, and the Executive, in the President and his Staff—are all engaged in the protection, the use, and the development of these great media of information and education.

The Office of Education has played only a minor role—yet, it is awake to the needs of those in communications, vigilant for their protection, intensely interested in carrying on research in their problems (which are ours, also—the people's problems), providing the services of its experts—its Chief of Radio-Television, its specialists, to help in common tasks, its publications for reference libraries, its statistics for guidance.

As President Eisenhower has said in speaking for his Administration:

> When it comes down to dealing with the relationships between the human in this country and his Government, the people in this Administration believe in being what I think would be normally called *liberal* and when we deal with the economic affairs of this country, we believe in being *conservative.**

We must save time, money, effort, in the job of broadcasting, and get the most out of that time, and money, and all of our efforts. This is the purpose of good administration.

*White House Press Conference, January 17, 1954.

Vocational Educators

(Continued from p. 2 of cover)

vocational education fails to keep abreast of social, economic, and technological changes it will not only be mature, but dead.

The accomplishments of vocational education are evidence of power to grow. Vocational education has pioneered some of the modern educational concepts, for example, the idea of developing a curriculum based on community needs; learning by doing; solution of problems in the daily life of the individual as a function of instruction; the use of community resources in the solution of those problems: cooperative training of less-than-college grade; scientific evaluation of results achieved; and among others, improved methods of supervision and teacher training.

From a purely educational standpoint, vocational education has truly made our public schools broadly democratic. The public secondary schools have accepted the idea that every American has a right to an education in the field of his choice, and that training should be available to him.

We must have broader recognition that all who need vocational education do not now have such opportunity. There is the problem of the school so small that it cannot maintain training in agriculture or home economics, let alone for distributive and industrial occupations. There is the problem of the isolated apprentice, and others needing industrial training, such as those who serve the small community in construction and maintenance of modern buildings and equipment. There are thousands of small industries and small businesses that cannot provide training for their own workers and too often depend upon haphazard or pick-up training.

We must not lose sight of the fact that the initial charter was intended primarily to train those who had already entered upon an occupation. As the Nation grows and develops in economic strength and diversity, it will need not only more trained workers, but those differently trained. As inventions and innovations reshape our industrial machine, workers, too, must be able to "retool"—to reshape their skills with the aid of vocational education.

The future thus presents challenges to all of us who deal with essentially human programs. If we regard vocational education—or any other program that deals with human needs—as static, we will at the end of one decade or two decades find that we have retrogressed. To stand still is to move backwards.

Progress is not a matter of more money or more facilities alone. It means a constant shift in program emphasis under skillful leadership and direction to keep pace with our changing material life. It means a strengthening of what is good and what *will be* needed, rather than what *has been* needed in the past.

Vocational education must always be concerned with human relationships and human values. It is dynamically concerned with the ties between the individual and his lifework and between the school and the community—the home, the farm, business and industry. The vocational educator or administrator who understands this deeply human significance of his efforts will look at the future with the enthusiasm and eagerness that have been, and always will be, so characteristic of our great Nation.

Frank G. Brewer Trophy

John H. Furbay, Director of Air World Education for Trans World Airlines, and former staff member of the International Education Division, Office of Education, was awarded the Frank G. Brewer Trophy on December 17, 1954.

This trophy is the highest honor awarded annually in the field of youth aviation education and training. National Aeronautic Association President, Thomas G. Lanphier, Jr., who presented the trophy, said that Dr. Furbay's great contribution to the education of the youth of America was achieved through his dynamic and inspirational addresses to teachers. He is a living exponent of the Air Age. Last year, for example, in 65 days he addressed 66 educational audiences in 22 countries.

For Teaching of English in Berlin

G. Kerry Smith, Executive Secretary of Association for Higher Education, National Education Association, discussing the teaching of English with Henning Borm, an English language student at the Free University of Berlin, inside the new library of the university recently completed.
Dr. Smith, on behalf of his organization had presented to the Berlin student a CARE English Language Instruction package in a brief ceremony during the recent visit of the representatives of Crusade for Freedom to Berlin.

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.)

Analysis of Teacher Tenure Provisions: State and Local. Washington, D. C., Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association of the United States, 1954. 77 p. 25 cents.

Current Books: Junior Booklist of the Secondary Education Board. Milton, Mass., Secondary Education Board, 1954. 44 p. 35 cents.

Current Books. Senior Booklist of the Secondary Education Board: Including the Ten Best Adult Books of 1953 for the Precollege Reader. Milton, Mass., Secondary Education Board, 1954. 44 p. 35 cents.

Current Literature in Vocational Guidance; An Annotated Bibliography (revised edition). By Henry L. Lash. Los Angeles, Los Angeles School Districts, 1953. 27 p. (Publication No. 521) Single copy free from: Division of Extension and Higher Education, 450 North Grand Avenue, Los Angeles 12, Calif.

Evaluation and Education of the Cerebral Palsied Child. New Jersey Study. By Thomas W. Hopkins, Harry V. Bice, and Kathryn C. Colton. Washington, D. C., International Council for Exceptional Children, 1954. 114 p. Illus. $1.60.

Five Steps to Reading Success in Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics. Especially Designed for the Use of Junior and Senior High School Teachers. This Booklet Is the Result of a 4-Year Project Undertaken by the Reading Group, a Subcommittee of the MSSC English Committee. New York, N. Y., Metropolitan School Study Council, 1954. 39 p. 65 cents.

Founding Public Junior Colleges: Local Initiative in Six Communities. By Elbert K. Fretwell. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 148 p. $3.75.

Guidance Services in Elementary Schools. By Harold Wright Bernard, C. Evan James, and Franklin R. Zeran. New York, N. Y., Chartwell House, Inc., 1954. 403 p. $5.75.

A Guide to Some Educational Resources in the City of New York. Museums, Parks, Zoos and Gardens, Public Libraries and Other Selected Sources of Special Interest to Schools. New York, N. Y., Board of Education, 1954. 107 p. (Curriculum bulletin 1953–54, series No. 7.)

How To Visit Colleges; A Handbook for Students, Parents, Counselors, and Teachers. Washington, D. C., The National Vocational Guidance Association Inc., 1954. 23 p. Illus. 25 cents.

Junior Colleges and Specialized Schools and Colleges. 2d Edition, 1955. Boston, Mass., Porter Sargent, 1954. 336 p. Illus. (Sargent handbook series.) $3.30 cloth, $2.20 paper.

Leaders' Guide to the Use and Study of Materials on Intergroup Education. By Joseph H. Douglass. Washington, D. C., The National Education Association of the United States of America, 1954. 99 p. $1.

Occupations and Careers. By Walter J. Greenleaf. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. 605 p. Illus. $4.20.

Public Education and the Future of America. Washington, D. C., Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1955. 98 p. Illus. $1.50.

Reading Aloud Effectively. By Ben Graf Henneke. New York, Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954. 481 p. Illus. $5.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1955

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 1954 Publications

Bulletins

1. State Certification Requirements for Teachers of Exceptional Children. 25 cents.
2. Education in Pakistan. 35 cents.
3. General Education Bibliography. 15 cents.
4. A Look Ahead in Secondary Education. 35 cents.
5. Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High School. 35 cents.
6. Following Graduates into Teaching. 25 cents.
7. The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends. 25 cents.
8. Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1953. 25 cents.
9. Curriculum Materials in High-School Mathematics. 20 cents.
10. Educating Children in Grades 7 and 8. 35 cents.
11. Cooperative Education in the United States. 25 cents.
12. How Children Can Be Creative. 15 cents.
13. College and University Programs for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children. In press.
14. Federal Funds for Education, 1952–53 and 1953–54. 45 cents.
15. School Library Standards. In press.

Education Directory, 1953–54

Part 1. Federal Government and States. 25 cents.
Part 2. Counties and Cities. 35 cents.
Part 3. Higher Education. (Out of Print.)
Part 4. Education Associations. 30 cents.

Vocational Division Bulletins

253. Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education. 30 cents.
254. Guiding High-School Students of Vocational Agriculture in Developing Farming Programs. 30 cents.
255. Vocational Education in Distributive Occupations—Organization and Operation of Local Programs. 15 cents.

Circulars

380. Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1952–53. 60 cents.
382. Fall Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions, 1953. 30 cents.
391. Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Large Cities, 1952–53. 25 cents.
392. Current Expenditures Per Pupil in Public School Systems: Small and Medium-Sized Cities, 1952–53. 25 cents.
404. Factors Affecting the Improvement of Secondary Education. 70 cents.
414. Resident, Extension, and Adult Education Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education: November 1953. 30 cents.

Special Publications

2. Good and Bad School Plants in the United States as Revealed by School Facilities Survey. 50 cents.
3. Planning and Designing the Multipurpose Room in Elementary Schools. 35 cents.

Miscellaneous

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815—Third Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1953. $1.00.

Annual Report of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1953. $1.00.

Pamphlets

113. General and Liberal Educational Content of Professional Curricula: Pharmacy. 15 cents.
114. General and Liberal Educational Content of Professional Curricula: Engineering. 20 cents.
115. General and Liberal Educational Content of Professional Curricula: Forestry. 15 cents.

Nutrition Education Pamphlet

6. The School Lunch—Its Educational Contribution. 25 cents.

Miscellany Bulletin

19. Supplement—Expenditures for Education at the Midcentury. 35 cents.

Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52

Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 are in preparation.
Chapter 5. Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951–52. 35 cents.
Chapter 6. Statistics of Libraries in Institutions of Higher Education, 1951–52. 25 cents.

Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952–54

Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 are in preparation.
Chapter 5. Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children, 1952–53. 30 cents.

You can plan now for

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THE DATE: November 6-12, 1955

THE GENERAL THEME: Schools - - - Your Investment in America

DAILY TOPICS:

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Monday, Nov. 7	*Your Investment in Teachers*
Tuesday, Nov. 8	*Your Investment in Classrooms*
Wednesday, Nov. 9	*Your Investment in Fundamental Learning*
Thursday, Nov. 10	*Your Investment in Better Living*
Friday, Nov. 11	*Your Investment in a Strong Nation*
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Volume 37 Number 5
FEBRUARY 1955

Route to

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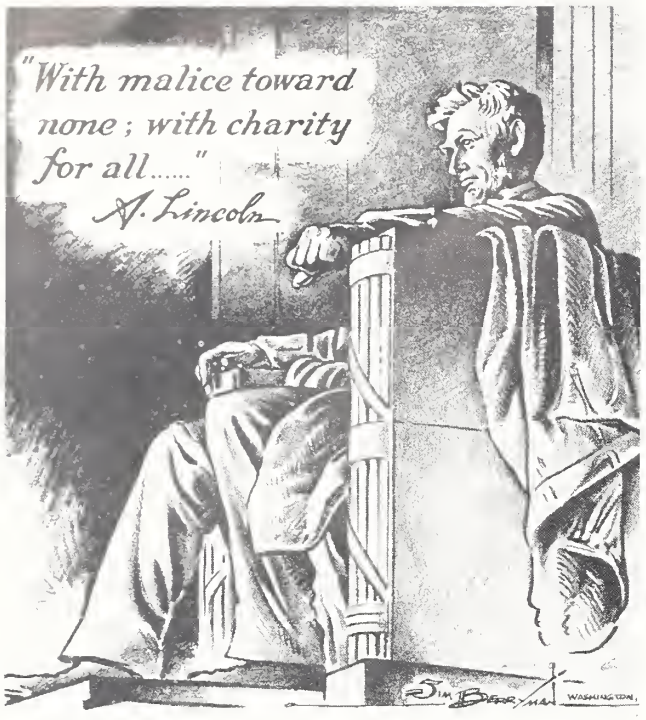
◀ Citizen Interest in Education

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



by Oveta Culp Hobby*
Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare

BROTHERHOOD doesn't come in a package. It is not a commodity to be taken down from the shelf with one hand—it is an accomplishment of soul-searching, prayer, and perseverance.

Brotherhood takes self-aware practice.

The rule of thumb is a simple one: Regard each man and woman as an individual. Not as a Catholic, a Protestant or a Jew. Not as a Negro, Anglo-Saxon, or Asiatic.

Look at the person—at the character and personality of this human being. Like or dislike that person for his own intrinsic qualities, and refuse to tinge that judgment by the irrelevant fact that he belongs to a different race or religion from your own.

The spontaneous feeling of brotherhood is a mark of human maturity. Many illiterate people have an instinctive recognition of brotherhood which is a thing of the spirit. The American Indians, when they found a white man worthy, could take him into the tribe as a blood brother. The child, left free to appreciate kindness and generosity, sets no artificial boundaries on his love for people.

Others—more highly educated, more aware of self—find the concept of brotherhood as an intellectual process.

Unfortunate are those who, in their limitations, can never sense the brotherhood of man.

Brotherhood realized is the ultimate objective of democracy—a free, just, and harmonious civilization.

*Excerpt from a statement prepared for Brotherhood Week.

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

Official Journal of SCHOOL LIFE the Office of Education

An American Education Week exhibit in St. Paul, Minn. Cover photograph courtesy Novak Studio, Minneapolis, and the National Education Association planning committee for American Education Week, November 6–12, 1955.

CONTENTS for FEBRUARY 1955

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

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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)

From the President's State of the Union Messages

1955

"Today, we face grave educational problems. Up-to-date analyses of these problems and their solutions are being carried forward through the individual state conferences and the White House conferences to be completed this year.

"However, such factors as population growth, additional responsibilities of schools, and increased and longer school attendance have produced an unprecedented classroom shortage. This shortage is of immediate concern to all of our people. Affirmative action must be taken now.

"Without impairing in any way the responsibilities of our States, our localities, communities, or families, the Federal Government should serve as an effective agent in dealing with this problem. I shall forward a special message to the Congress on February 15* presenting a program dealing with this shortage."

1954

"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."

*The President forwarded his message to the Congress on February 8 instead.

State Conferences on Education—A Progress Report

by Clint Pace, Director, White House Conference on Education

MORE than ninety percent of the 53 States and Territories scheduled to participate in the White House Conference on Education have taken some definite action in planning local conferences on educational problems.

The 49 States and Territories which have taken action are:

Alaska, Hawaii, the Virgin Islands, and the District of Columbia (under Public Law 530 the term "State" includes the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands), Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

The 83rd Congress authorized the White House Conference on Education in response to President Eisenhower's appeal in his State-of-the-Union Message January 7, 1954. The President expressed his concern over mounting educational problems. He said he hoped the States would hold conferences on these problems which would culminate in a White House Conference on Education.

Congress appropriated $900,000 to carry out the program. Of this sum, $700,000 has been allocated to the States to help defray the costs of their conferences. The minimum allotment to a State is $5,000. Allocations are made on a population basis.

President Eisenhower appointed a 32-member Committee for the White House Conference on Education under the Chairmanship of Neil H. McElroy, President of Procter and Gamble Company, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The Presidential Committee is made up of representatives from many segments of American life. Public Law 530 stipulates the WHCE shall be "broadly representative of educators and other interested citizens from all parts of the Nation . . . to consider and report to the President on significant and pressing problems in the field of education."

The Committee is responsible for conducting the National Conference set for Nov. 28–Dec. 1, 1955. It also will assist the States when requested in planning and holding State conferences on education, and will prepare the report to the President.

Four States and Territories in which no official action has been reported are Arizona, Georgia, Utah, and Puerto Rico.

Six States held conferences in 1954. They are Connecticut (Nov. 30–Dec. 1), Washington (Nov. 22–23), Wyoming (Nov. 19–20), Nebraska (Nov. 22), Iowa (Dec. 9–10), and Kansas (Dec. 9). Four States, Connecticut, Wyoming, Nebraska, and Kansas, are planning followup activities.

Thirty-four States and Territories already have applied to the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, for financial assistance pursuant to Public Law 530.

They are: Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nevada, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming, Alaska, Hawaii, and the Virgin Islands.

Reports of developments in other States show that 38 States have appointed conference chairmen and 22 States have set conference dates.

The White House Conference on Education has been notified of the appointments of the following State conference chairmen:

Arkansas
ARCHIE W. FORD, *State Commissioner of Education*

California
TOM BRIGHT, *Secretary of Planning Committee*

Colorado
FRANCIS M. DAY, *President, Colorado Citizens Council for the Public Schools*

Connecticut
ROBERT W. HOSKINS, *Chairman, President, Connecticut Council on Education; William H. Flaherty, Cochairman, Deputy State Commissioner of Education*

Delaware
GEORGE R. MILLER, JR., *State Superintendent of Public Instruction*

Florida
THOMAS D. BAILEY, *State Superintendent of Public Instruction*

Illinois
B. L. DODDS, *Vice-chairman, Dean, College of Education, University of Illinois; Vernon L. Nickell, Co-vice-chairman, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.*

Indiana
Dr. RUSSELL J. HUMBERT, *President, DePauw University.*

Iowa
ARTHUR CARPENTER, *Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction.*

Kansas
MRS. NELL RENN, *President, American Association of University Women, Arkansas City.*

Louisiana
SHELBY M. JACKSON, *State Superintendent of Public Education.*

Maine
HERBERT G. ESPY, *State Commissioner of Education.*

(Continued on page 78)

Planning for 1955 Polio Vaccine Program

by Simon A. McNeely, Specialist in Health, Physical Education, and Athletics,
Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

STAND BY FOR ACTION! The nation anxiously awaits results of the 1954 poliomyelitis vaccine field trials. *If evaluation justifies licensure of the vaccine*, we must be ready to apply this new-found knowledge promptly in order to protect many children against possible suffering, crippling, and death during the oncoming polio season. Consequently, plans are being made and vaccine is being produced NOW to enable prompt and effective action on the word. "Go!"

School administrators, teachers, and parents are being asked to cooperate in planning for and, possibly, once again, in carrying out a tremendous and significant polio vaccine program. The program calls for immunization this spring of all first and second grade children in public, private and parochial schools as well as some of last year's "polio pioneers"—children who were among the group studied in 1954 but not vaccinated.

Here are a few answers to some obvious questions.

When will we know?

The evaluative study is now being conducted at the University of Michigan under the direction of Dr. Thomas Francis, Jr. The first report is expected to be issued not earlier than April 1, 1955. It may be delayed due to the tremendous complexity and extensiveness of the project.

What do you mean by licensure?

The Laboratory of Biologics Control of the National Institutes of Health, United States Public Health Service, has control of biological products including licensing. This control and licensing are for the purpose of insuring safety, purity, and potency. Following Dr. Francis' report, the National Institutes of Health will determine whether the vaccine meets these criteria. The vaccine will be used only if it is licensed.

Answers to the questions in this article are based upon recommendations of health and educational leaders at two recent meetings. One of these meetings, held January 10, 1955, in New York City, brought together representatives of the American Medical Association, American Academy of Pediatrics, National Association of State and Territorial Health Officers, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Public Health Service, Office of Education, Children's Bureau), and the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. The other meeting held January 21, 1955, in Washington, D. C., was attended by representatives of the U. S. Office of Education, American Association of School Administrators, Catholic Education Association, and National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis.

Why were first and second graders and "polio pioneers" chosen?

The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis contracted for 27 million c. c. of vaccine last year. How can this amount best be used? There is a high incidence of paralytic polio within this age group of first and second graders. These children can be reached through the schools. An additional number of children took part in the study last spring as "controls." They did not receive the vaccine. These children contributed as much to the study as those who were vaccinated and, therefore, deserve to be included in this year's program. The amount of vaccine to be made available for this purpose is just sufficient to meet the needs of these children, who number about 9,000,000.

The selection of these children was made by representatives of the medical profession, State health officers, and officials of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis.

Will there be any vaccine for other children or adults?

The pharmaceutical manufacturers are producing an additional amount of vaccine equal to or greater than that ordered by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. This vaccine will be available commercially for use by private physicians for their patients.

How will the supply of "March of Dimes" vaccine be made available?

The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis will supply the vaccine to the State health officer in an amount sufficient to vaccinate the first and second graders and the "polio pioneers" in his State. A similar amount will be supplied to the territorial health officers of Alaska and Hawaii.

The plan of administration of the vaccine within each State or Territory will be worked out by the respective State or territorial health officer in cooperation with the State or territorial medical society and State or territorial education officials.

Will there be sufficient time for this action before school closes?

There will be precious little time between announcement of results of the evaluation and the closing of school in most parts of the country. Vaccine for use in 1955 will be administered on the same dosage schedule as was followed in the 1954 field trial, namely, in three doses given over a period of 5 weeks.

As a consequence, complete planning in advance and smooth functioning of the program seem imperative. More than likely States will need several alternative plans based upon time schedules that anticipate results of the evaluation being announced at

(*Continued on page 78*)

PART I *A second installment will deal with the ways schools are meeting the academic needs of children in grades 7 and 8.*

Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight

by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

WHAT is good education for children in grades 7 and 8? Should their work be taught by specialists in every field? Are these children grown-up enough to look after themselves? Do they resent adult interference in what they want to do? What kind of sports and games should they play? Should their academic skills be well-mastered before they come to seventh grade? How can you help children who do not read well in these grades?

Questions such as these are constantly raised by teachers and school administrators, most of them interested in really doing a good job of helping children to mature into responsible, contributing citizens.

The Elementary Section of the Office of Education has reported* a study in which research was summarized, schools were visited and teachers, administrators, parents, and children were interviewed to determine what seems to comprise good education for children in these grades.

The characteristic among these children which is most apparent even to the casual observer, it was found, is *variety* or *heterogeneity*. This is due to the fact that most children reach puberty during these years (grades 7–8–9), and that changes during this period are rapid and often spectacular. Grade 7, for instance, invariably has within it many children who are preadolescent, who look and act like "older children." In the same group are some (about one-third more girls than boys) who are entering adolescence, and reflecting this state both in physical appearance and in behavior.

Interests of preadolescents are shown to center in "gang" life: desire to be with the gang, to do what they wish to do, to think and feel as the gang does. Boys often withdraw into groups and talk "boy-talk"; girls whisper together and learn to value with the gang. Domination by adults and older brothers and sisters is resisted. Heroes in the sports and scientific worlds and in community life are admired. Rugged activity is liked, especially among boys: outdoor activities such as hiking, climbing, and camping; romping and wrestling; active games and stunts which test their strength.

Boys and girls who are entering adolescence, on the other hand, customarily show much more insecurity than do the preadolescents. They are apt to become more absorbed in trying to understand themselves, their changing bodies, unreliable feelings, and vacillating interests. Growth, it is observed, is irregular and body imbalance often results. For a time, interest in activity may wane; fatigue may be unpredictable both in work and play.

Girls, usually more mature at these ages than boys, often seek the company of girls of their own maturity and adopt fads and behaviors which serve to identify them with their friends. Gangs give way to crowds. Boisterousness and show-off-ishness seem to be ways by which they communicate with each other.

Schools which deal constructively with these children find it necessary to take into consideration the great variety among them. On the surface, the implications of these physiological differences may not be apparent. They are, however, highly significant, as any parents of a preadolescent and a child-becoming-adolescent can testify. Both must be approached from their own characteristics and interests: each must be led to accept (or at least to tolerate if not to enjoy) the interests and activities of the other. In large groups (as in school) they must be guided to live in harmony among themselves and with adult leaders while at the same time they are helped to grow in ways which satisfy them, the school, and the society they live in.

To meet physical needs of children, many schools, with the cooperation of the community, take steps to provide for children a safe and healthful environment in every respect; health examinations to detect handicaps or indications of disease; programs of physical education for all children adapted to the characteristics of these age levels; hot nutritious lunches; and experiences to encourage good health habits and a functional backlog of information and understanding about the maintenance of personal and public health. These elements of a good physical health program, it was felt, can in most instances, be made adequate for children if the school and community leadership work hard to coordinate their ideas and resources.

With mental health needs, they felt this is not always the case. Good mental health, school leaders recognize, is closely related to the personal-social lives of individuals: to having friends; being well accepted by your family, friends, and others upon whom you are dependent; feeling competent that you can make the contribution they expect you to make. Undesirable attitudes and behaviors can usually be traced to difficulty in some of these basic areas. Schools in the study have attempted to provide for the good personal-social development of seventh and eighth graders in various ways:

—by creating a friendly environment which encourages warm human relations and cooperative planning among children, staff, and parents;
—by providing guidance for children which emphasizes the needs of individuals;
—by a program of informal and formal social activities.

A Friendly Environment.—Many schools in this study radiated the sort of warmth and friendliness in which human personality flourishes. Mutual respect and good faith were usually evident in the relationships among the staff members, administrators, and children. Ideas set forth were greeted with consideration, and constructive staff-pupil planning was in process.

*Lewis, Gertrude M. *Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight.* Washington, D. C. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 10, 99 pp., 35¢.

Guidance.—In most small schools, and in classes or schools in which children are with one teacher all or most of the day, major responsibility for guidance is placed upon the teacher. It is his task to understand all children, to detect their needs, to consult with them about their progress, problems, and concerns, to consult with parents, and to secure any services needed. Teaching, testing, analyzing, diagnosing, and recording are parts of the teachers' tasks. That some teachers attempt admirably to perform these tasks well is borne out by the tributes of parents and children; that many not only do what is expected but serve "beyond the call of duty" was illustrated over and over by reports of the trouble teachers had taken to make a child acceptable to himself, to his family, or to his potential friends. Principals and supervisors helped willingly; sometimes psychologists and clinics also provided services.

In larger schools, the responsibility for guidance is often shared by homeroom teachers, guidance specialists, and teachers who are selected for ability to understand children. Sometimes a specialist in guidance devotes full time to analyzing needs, and counselling with children and parents.

In some large departmentalized schools, administrators expressed concern because children were not receiving the continuous, consistent guidance they thought was needed during these years. Some have changed the organization of the schools to keep children with one teacher for two, three, four, or five periods a day and to make the structure of the school gradually transitional from elementary to high school. Some have modified the curriculum to emphasize subject matter related to the concerns and interests of children of these ages, thus enabling teachers to do a great deal of group guidance. Some seek to improve guidance by devices which improve the staff's understanding of children: by child-study methods, utilizing every means at hand to pool information and insights about a child in question.

Social Activities.—In small schools and in other schools where children are with one teacher all or most of the time, most social activities are planned cooperatively as part of the regular work and to meet the needs of children. In large schools, and where children report to several teachers, planning often becomes difficult and is sometimes allocated to small committees.

Among the schools in this study, a wide variety of social activities appeared. Parties and dances were numerous, usually child-planned, and aimed at engaging all the children. Clubs were popular, one school using them to serve the function of electives. Approximately 9 or 10 clubs met daily, and a new club was formed when a teacher could prepare to guide it. Student Council activities were considered commendable to help children develop responsibility for the school as an institution to serve them and the community. Assembly programs were also pointed out as ways of unifying schools and of providing outlets for initiative and creativeness of students.

Special Help Needed.—Though administrators and teachers utilize all the human wisdom and technical training they have, school leaders feel that it is not always possible to identify those children in need of special help, and to identify what the needs are. Especially is this true where classes are large and where the energy of teachers is already taxed to meet the daily demands. The real problems in helping disturbed children are believed to be not only to find ways to increase teacher-skills in identification of children needing special help, but to make that help available when it is needed and for as long as it is needed.

High School Student Activities

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals (NASSP) has approved 48 contests and 12 national activities for high school students in 1954–55. The list was prepared by the NASSP National Contests and Activities Committee.

The contests approved are listed under the following classifications: Agriculture, art, essay, examinations, forensic, home economics and industrial arts, scholarships, and miscellaneous.

The national activities approved are: Junior National Red Cross, Boys' Nation, Distributive Education Clubs of America, Future Business Leaders of America, Future Homemakers of America, Girls' Nation, Key Club International, National Association of Student Councils, National 4–H Club Camp, National 4–H Club Congress, National Scholastic Press Association, and New Homemakers of America.

Educational Legislation

Eighty-Third Congress, Second Session

by Arch K. Steiner, Research Assistant in School Legislation, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

EVERYBODY is affected by educational legislation. It is of particular interest to educators. The following digests of laws enacted during the Eighty-third Congress, Second Session, relate to public education primarily of national significance. Minor laws of secondary interest or local concern have been omitted. Enactments follow in chronological order. The date appearing after each public law number at the beginning of each topic is the date upon which the President signed the bill into law.

United States Air Force Academy Established

Public Law 325 (April 1, 1954) established in the Department of the Air Force a United States Air Force Academy for the instruction and preparation of Air Force Cadets. It provided for a 5-man commission to assist the Secretary in selecting a permanent location. It further authorized the Secretary to acquire lands, construct and equip temporary quarters, and do all preparatory work necessary in construction. equipment. and organization of the Academy.

Titles to Certain Public School Lands To Transfer to States

Public Law 340 (April 22, 1954) amended the act of January 25, 1927, "An Act confirming in States and Territories title to lands granted by the United States in the aid of common public schools," by adding a new provision in reference to certain mineral section lands which have not before been granted to the States concerned because the United States maintained a prior lease on them. States concerned will now become the lessors and any revenue will be allocated proportionately between the United States and the States in question on the basis of the amount of acreage owned by each.

Graduate Aeronautical Research Funds Increased

Public Law 352 (May 6, 1954) amended Section 6 of Public Law 472 (81st Cong.), by increasing from $50,000 to $100,000 for each fiscal year the total sums which may be expended for graduate research in aeronautics by selected personnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.

Benefits of Civil Air Patrol Act of May 1948 Enlarged

Public Law 368 (May 27, 1954) amended the first Section of the Civil Air Patrol Act of May 26, 1948, by authorizing the Defense Establishment to make available to the Civil Air Patrol through gift. loan, sale, or otherwise, greater services and newer and better equipment and supplies.

Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag of the United States Modified

Public Law 396 (June 14, 1954) amended the act pertaining to the pledge of allegiance to the flag of the United States of America by adding to the original pledge the additional words "under God." The pledge now is: *"I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands, one Nation under God, indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for All."*

Columbia Institute for the Deaf Changed to Gallaudet College

Public Law 420 (June 18, 1954) amended the act of Congress of February 16, 1857. by providing that the Columbia Institute for the Deaf shall continue as a body corporate under the name of Gallaudet College. It also prescribed other powers pertaining to property rights and administrative matters.

Board of Fundamental Education Incorporated

Public Law 507 (July 19, 1954) created a body corporate with perpetual succession under the name of Board of Fundamental Education. The act named the persons incorporated under the name of the board and authorized the adoption of a constitution. It established objectives to "foster the development of fundamental education through programs and projects" and outlined administrative procedures in organization, policy, records, audit, reports to Congress, and other matters.

White House Conference on Education Authorized

Public Law 530 (July 26, 1954) authorized appropriations for a White House Con-

ference on Education to be held by the President in Washington before November 30, 1955. Membership of the Conference will represent educators and interested citizens throughout the Nation and consider "significant and pressing problems in the field of education." A report of the findings will be made to the President.

The act further authorized that $1,000,000 be appropriated to assist States to bring together prior to the White House Conference "educators and interested citizens" to discuss educational problems in the States and recommend action to be taken at local, State, and Federal levels. It stipulated that funds to States be allocated on the basis of population and that no State will receive less than $15,000 for its State conference.

This legislation authorized that such sums of money as Congress determines necessary be made available to the Commissioner of Education for each fiscal year ending June 30, 1955 and 1956, for the Federal administrative expenses in making available to the public the findings and recommendations of the Conference. (Public Law 663, approved August 26, 1954, amended the July 26 act by limiting the appropriation to $700,000 for grants to States and established a minimum of $5,000 to each State.)

Cooperative Research in Education Authorized

Public Law 531 (July 26, 1954) authorized the Commissioner of Education to enter into contract or jointly financed cooperative arrangements with universities, colleges, and State educational agencies for research, surveys, and demonstrations in the field of education. As a prerequisite to such contract the Commissioner must seek the advice and recommendations of educational research specialists on the soundness of such proposal. He must also report annually to the Congress, outlining services initiated under this act. Annual appropriations of such sums as Congress determines necessary to carry out the purposes of this act were authorized.

National Advisory Committee on Education Established

Public Law 532 (July 26, 1954) established in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare a 9-member National Advisory Committee on Education to meet at least three times annually, initiate studies, and advise the Secretary on the conduct of studies and problems of national concern in the field of education. Members are to be appointed without regard to Civil Service status, will not be in the service of the Federal Government at the time of appointment and will hold office for a term of 3 years. The Commissioner of Education will be an ex officio and nonvoting member.

The Secretary is required to outline studies initiated under this committee and transmit recommendations of the committee and Secretary to the Congress annually.

Vocational Rehabilitation Act Modified by Increased Scope and Improved Services

Public Law 565 (Aug. 3, 1954—effective July 1, 1954) amended the Vocational Rehabilitation Act to extend and improve its services and make a more effective use of available Federal funds. A part of the appropriation is made available in the form of grants to States, public and other nonprofit organizations and agencies to assist them in research, demonstrations, training, and other projects which may contribute toward the solution of vocational rehabilitation problems common to a number of States.

The law further requires the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to study existing programs for teaching and training handicapped persons. She is to ascertain whether additional or supplementary programs or services are necessary in order to provide proper ameliorative and vocational training for handicapped persons and forward her report to the Congress not later than 6 months after the date of enactment with her recommendations for any changes she considers desirable.

John Marshall Bicentennial Month and Commission Established

Public Law 581 (Aug. 13, 1954) designated September 1955 as "John Marshall Bicentennial Month" in commemoration of the 200th anniversary of the birth of Chief Justice Marshall and requested the President to issue a proclamation calling upon agencies to observe the month with suitable ceremonies. It created a 19-member commission to supervise the observance of and prepare appropriate plans for the celebration by receiving and coordinating plans from the States.

Members are to serve without compensation for their services but may be reimbursed for expenses incurred.

Alexander Hamilton Bicentennial Commission Established

Public Law 601 (Aug. 20, 1954) established a 19-member commission to consider, coordinate, and prepare plans for the 200th anniversary of the birth of Alexander Hamilton. The Commission may communicate with other nations through the State Department in securing their participation. It will submit its plan of celebration to the Fine Arts Commission for approval and then report to the Congress by March 1, 1955. It provided for appropriation of a sum not exceeding $10,000 to carry out the provisions of the act and stipulated that members will serve without compensation but may be reimbursed for expenses incurred.

Training and Education Benefits for Veterans Enlarged and Extended

Public Law 610 (Aug. 20, 1954) amended sections of the Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952 by enlarging or extending certain education and training benefits to veterans as follows: By extending to 3 years (instead of 2) after separation from military service the time during which a veteran may initiate a program of training under this act; by extending to 8 years (instead of 7) after separation from service the expiration time of all education and training initiated under this act; and by extending to 13 years (instead of 9) the time a disabled veteran may initiate or complete a training program. This applies in the case of a veteran who otherwise is eligible but has been prevented from entering or completing training because of physical or mental conditions beyond his control. The act further amended the act of December 1, 1950, by extending vocational rehabilitation to a 9-year period of time for physical and mental reasons as described above.

National Fund for Medical Education Incorporated

Public Law 685 (Aug. 28, 1954) authorized the incorporation of the National Fund for Medical Education. It also authorized the completion of the organization of the corporation, established its purposes, designated its corporate powers, stipulated requirements for membership and voting, prescribed for its board of directors and officers, and set up other administrative procedures.

(*Continued on page 79*)

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Guatemalan Educators Visit the United States

Observe Teaching Methods—Participate In Community Activities

by John W. Grissom, Assistant Chief, Teacher Training Section, Division of International Education, Office of Education

GUATEMALA'S return to the family of free nations has been sudden, decisive, and enthusiastic, and the democratic spirit of this resurgence has inspired the educators of the country as much as any other element of society. A recent indication of this was the request of President Castillo Armas, of Guatemala, that 100 Guatemalan teachers receive special instruction in the philosophy and principles of education in the United States during their vacation period. The Foreign Operations Administration then asked the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, to develop a brief, intensive program for this special group.

In view of the anticipated language problem of the Guatemalan teachers, the Office considered it advisable to utilize southwestern institutions of higher learning. Also, it was decided that the group should be divided into five sections so as not to tax the resources of any one institution, in view of the demands on staff in midsemester and the lack of suitable housing. Approximately two months was all that could be allowed for the project as the teachers had to return to Guatemala in time for their own school session.

A special program was developed at each cooperating institution, consisting of two basic seminars: teaching methods, and the preparation of and use of teaching materials; and the philosophy and principles of education in the United States. Attention was to be given to making practical adaptation of methods and materials to meet the needs of the local situation in Guatemala. These two seminars were to be supplemented by selected regular courses and by visits to schools, homes, rural projects, industrial installations, and community activities in the vicinity of the institutions.

The teachers arrived in Dallas on October 24, where they were met by staff members of the Office of Education, Foreign Operations Administration, and the universities concerned. A brief orientation program was held for them there. From Dallas the teachers were escorted to the following institutions: elementary teacher groups to the University of New Mexico and Arizona State Teachers College; secondary teacher groups to the Universities of Texas and Arizona; and a vocational teacher group to Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College. Each institution received its group warmly and made them feel at home. For two months the Guatemalans were to experience school and community life of this country.

1. Elementary group detraining at Arizona State Teachers College.

2. G. D. McGrath, dean of education at Tempe, Arizona, greets teachers.

3. Discussion on teaching methods.

4. Three teachers compare notes on preparation of teaching aids.

5. Bolling Air Force Ceremonial Band presents the national anthems of the two countries.

6. Teachers at an American home.

7. Dr. del Valle presents record of national anthem to the Office. *l.* William Shamblin and John Grissom of the Office staff. *r.* Armando Dieguez, First Secretary of Guatemalan Embassy.

8. Off for a cultural adventure.

9. A native Indian dance of Guatemala.

10. Frederico Paiz, Deputy Secretary of Education; Jorge del Valle, Minister of Education for Guatemala; Oliver Caldwell, U. S. Assistant Commissioner for International Education; Ramon Burgos, Chief of Primary Education in Guatemala.

11. Athletics—North American style.

12. Group receives explanation on cultural background of Southwest.

13. Seminar lecture on teaching aids.

During this period, the teachers attended lectures on many topics pertaining to education, for example, "Survey of the Development of Secondary Education in the United States," "Integration of Secondary and Elementary Education," and "Student Participation in School Government." They saw many educational films and visited elementary and secondary schools, including Indian schools, which were of particular interest. All were received in a number of homes of American families and observed this fundamental element of our social structure. Special tours to outlying areas were arranged for the groups in order that they might also become acquainted with the natural beauty and resources of this country.

An effort was made to interpret each activity in relation to its historical and philosophical background. Adaptation and modifica-

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Report on Education in the United States—Part III

Continuation of a report presented at the 17th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, Switzerland, by Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

HIGH schools of the United States during the 1953–54 school year gave evidence of a strong revival of interest in providing more substantial and effective education for rapid learners—those students who rank in the upper 15 percent of their age groups in intellectual capacity.

Some stimulus for this interest was no doubt provided by an extensive study made of successful instructional provisions being used in 1,200 high schools with enrollments of 300 or more students each. Results of this research, conducted by the Office of Education, are being published. The report deals with administrative, guidance, and instructional provisions for both rapid and slow learners in junior, senior, and regular high schools.

School athletics was a field of significant action in 1953–54. The Educational Policies Commission concluded a 3-year study with a publication resulting—"School Athletics—Problems and Policies." The Commission stresses the need for increased sports opportunities for all boys and girls and sets forth recommendations.

Articulation between school and university is an ever important challenge in American education. At present four projects in this area are being sponsored through The Fund for the Advancement of Education, established by the Ford Foundation.

One of the most outstanding changes taking place in secondary education in the United States today is the incorporation of grades 7 and 8 into the junior high school segment of the secondary school program. The 8–4 plan seems definitely on the decline.

The chief growth in the number of students attending public day high schools has been due apparently to the increased "holding power" of the high schools.

Secondary education always needs the strongest possible holding power. It can be reported this year that between 1946 and the present, the holding power of high schools in the United States indicates an increase of around 17 percent. The United States Office of Education, recognizing the seriousness of the high school "drop-out problem" called a national conference to study the whole matter and to mobilize State and local resources to find solutions. More recently a National Commission and 20 State Commissions have been established to continue activities along this line. In fact, eight national conferences have come together to mobilize specific action on the "drop-out" high school problem.

Resulting from all this, a cooperative study is under way between the Office of Education and 20 large cities and 11 statewide groups to seek further for effective solutions.

The number of high schools with extremely large enrollments is decreasing in the United States. Latest complete figures show that those with more than 5,000 enrolled declined from 41 schools in 1938 to 5 in 1952.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Approximately 3,000,000 persons were enrolled in vocational education programs during the school year. About one and two-thirds million adults were enrolled in vocational education programs of less than college grade.

Most vocational education, except in the large cities, is offered as part of the program of the comprehensive high school. The amount of vocational education offered for post-high school groups in community colleges has increased. New school buildings are including facilities for vocational education, and in 1953 a large number of new buildings for separate vocational schools were constructed. During the year some States built area vocational schools to serve students coming from several school districts.

The emphasis in preservice teacher education in vocational fields continues to be on providing students with supervised teaching experience in actual school situations—often away from the college campus. Many States are arranging for student teaching experience to include work with adults as well as with in-school groups. Student teachers make home and farm visits, participate in community activities, and assist with such youth organizations as the Future Farmers and Future Homemakers of America.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Statistically, higher education gives the following current information concerning enrollments, degrees, and costs of education in that field:

- Enrollments (estimated for 1953–54), 2,445,000
- Degrees granted (1953), bachelors, 303,049; masters, 60,959; doctors, 8,307
- Cost of current operations (latest 1951–52), $2,500,000,000
- Cost of capital outlay (latest 1951–52), $409,080,075

Effective efforts are being made in the United States so that increasing numbers of capable but financially needy students may be provided assistance in attending higher institutions. Scholarships and fellowships are available in public as well as private institutions. Total funds of this nature have reached more than 41 million dollars. Some States have set up State scholarship programs. Public institutions sometimes provide such assistance by reducing tuition and fees to a low amount or remove these charges entirely.

While scholarships and fellowships are offered on a nationwide basis by such Federal agencies as the Atomic Energy Commission, the National Science Foundation, Public Health Service of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and by the Department of Defense to prospective military officers, the most far-reaching nationwide program of financial assistance to students is that of the Veterans Administration. Full cost of education is provided for disabled veterans of World War II and of the recent fighting in Korea. Veterans choose their own institutions and courses of study.

A phenomenal development in the financing of higher education which has taken place in the United States during the past 2

years has been the organization of a single foundation by the private colleges of a State for the purpose of jointly soliciting funds from corporations and individuals. Such foundations are now organized in 31 of the States. The corporations likewise have formed a Council for Financial Aid to Education, Inc. While all this pertains to the private higher institutions in the United States, it needs to be borne in mind that these private institutions do represent two-thirds of the total.

Coordination of higher education is largely accomplished through professional membership associations and a variety of self-regulatory bodies known as accrediting associations. The respective States are increasing their coordinating efforts through State boards of control, but there is no one pattern for these boards.

The problem of providing balance in professional curriculum between professional subjects and general educational subjects has long concerned educators in the professions. Certain professions, including particularly engineering and pharmacy, have been alert to the need for an education that will enable these professional persons to live satisfactory lives as citizens as well as perform effectively as professional men and women. Considerable attention is being given to the imbalance in curricular problems, and it appears that nothing short of rather drastic curricular revision and perhaps reorganization of courses and methods of instruction will be necessary in order to create a much larger place for the social sciences and the humanities than they now occupy.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

During the 1953–54 school year, the United States continued its exchange of teachers, of trainees, of leaders, and of technical persons with many other countries. The exchange program for the year involved 977 persons from 61 countries. The Office of Education administers this particular program for the Department of State.

Cooperating with the Foreign Operations Administration of the United States Government, the Office of Education arranged assistance this year for more than 500 teachers and trainees from 32 countries; it recruited teachers for 31 overseas missions providing the necessary educational and technical assistance to these missions. Fifty-six technicians were added during the 4-month period alone, from January 1 to May 1, 1954.

Approximately 2,300 foreign credentials of students were evaluated during the year by the Office of Education for universities throughout the country. Of the 2,300 credentials, more than 1,100 were from European countries; around 900, from Near and Far Eastern countries; and more than 300, from Latin American countries.

In addition to these services the Office of Education has established through its clearinghouse functions, a permanent file of all persons entering and leaving the United States under the various Federal Government sponsored exchange programs such as the Fulbright Act, the Smith-Mundt, and others. Including individual grantees under the Foreign Operations Administration program also, this file lists some 15,000 individuals by name and on punch cards.

To date, some 50 different statistical studies have been prepared giving data concerning numbers and types of persons entering and leaving about 76 different countries, the different States, and institutions being visited in this country, and the various fields of specialization and occupations represented.

AUXILIARY AND OTHER SERVICES

Libraries

Although in the United States public libraries are locally operated by their respective cities, towns, counties, and some school districts, they are important educational factors throughout the Nation. Recent statistics show that there are now some 7,400 public library systems in the United States, and that they have nearly 150,000,000 volumes available for their communities.

Among points noted in a current study of school libraries may be mentioned:

An almost unanimous adoption by the respective State departments of education of library standards or recommendations for secondary schools and widespread extension of standards to elementary schools.

An increased emphasis on functions and services of the library in contrast to former emphasis on quantitative requirements.

Trends toward giving opportunity to assist in administration and selection of materials to pupils and having faculty committees share responsibility with the librarian for policy making and library improvements.

Exceptional Children

Within a 5-year period local public school systems reported an increase from some 330,000 to nearly 500,000 exceptional children in special classes in schools throughout the United States. The Office of Education in collaboration with the departments of education in the various States just recently completed a study concerned with "State Certification Requirements for Teachers of Exceptional Children," and "College and University Programs for the Preparation of Teachers for Exceptional Children."

Educational TV

In the field of television, although 242 channels were set aside exclusively for the use of education and made permanent in 1953, nine more station areas have been already added by the Federal Communications Commission, bringing the total today to 251.

More than 100 universities and 79 school systems of the United States are putting TV programs on the air. More than half of all the programs originating from the schools are to show the public what is going on in their schools, but there is a trend in school programming toward a close tie-up with the curriculum.

IN CONCLUSION

The 1953–54 school year brought forth new and renewed emphasis on the great importance of increasing citizen interest in educational problems and their best solutions, in communities throughout the country.

New and renewed interest has also been focused upon preparing for the rapidly growing numbers of children who are making our school population soar to new highs each year with an outlook of possibly some 45,000,000 enrolled in all levels of education by 1960. By way of comparison, in 1945, a low point, there were but approximately 26,000,000 enrolled; and this year, an estimated 37,000,000 in all levels.

Continuing widespread public interest in international affairs constantly emphasizes the need for the schools to give adequate attention to the teaching and encouraging of increased understanding of the peoples of other countries. From the elementary schools and on through the secondary schools and colleges, efforts to meet this need are increasingly being reflected in the curriculum and in many out-of-school activities.

Robert Ambrose, senior at Northwestern High School, Prince Georges County, Md., who won first place in the Eighth Annual Science Fair, Washington, D. C., for his project on increasing protein content of algae.

Alan Haught, now attending Amherst University, and winner of the $2,800 top scholarship award in the Twelfth Science Talent Search conducted by Science Service for the Westinghouse Education Foundation. Then a senior at Bethesda Chevy Chase High School, Montgomery County, Md., Alan won first place in the Eighth Annual Science Fair, Washington, D. C., for his project on spectographic analysis of catalytic reactions.

SCIENCE FAIRS STIMULATE SCIENCE EDUCATION

by Dewey E. Large, Science Fair Representative, Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies, Oak Ridge, Tenn.

THE need for more scientists in all fields of specialization, coupled with the need for a better understanding and more appreciation of the total aspects of science by the lay public, is receiving active attention from the Nation's scientists and educators.

Institutions of higher education, industry, agriculture, research foundations, and government need more men and women who have interest, education, and experience in science. Scientists should not have to be imported. A problem exists which must be approached realistically for solution.

Primarily, the problem is one of education. Basically, the need can be met by elementary and secondary teachers and students being given opportunity, recognition, and compensation. A wholesome stimulation of interest in acquiring a knowledge of science, including mathematics, must be furnished not only to this country's pupils and teachers but to the entire general public. Opportunities for discovering and encouraging talent in all the fields of science are absolutely necessary in order that adequate numbers of scientists and teachers may be made continuously available to meet the country's increasing requirements.

One of the relatively new programs of activity in science education concerns the medium of more and improved science fairs. A science fair is a collection of exhibits, each of which is designed to show a biological, a chemical, an engineering, a mathematical, or physical principle; a laboratory or other procedure; or an industrial development. It is a means whereby potential scientists may be sought out among our American youth and encouraged, to a great degree, to select a science career and obtain advanced training.

The science fair provides opportunities for all participants and observers to advance their knowledge and appreciation of science and of those people connected with its applications and improvement. Most educators concerned with public, private, and parochial schools recognize science fairs as being of utmost importance in educational stimulation.

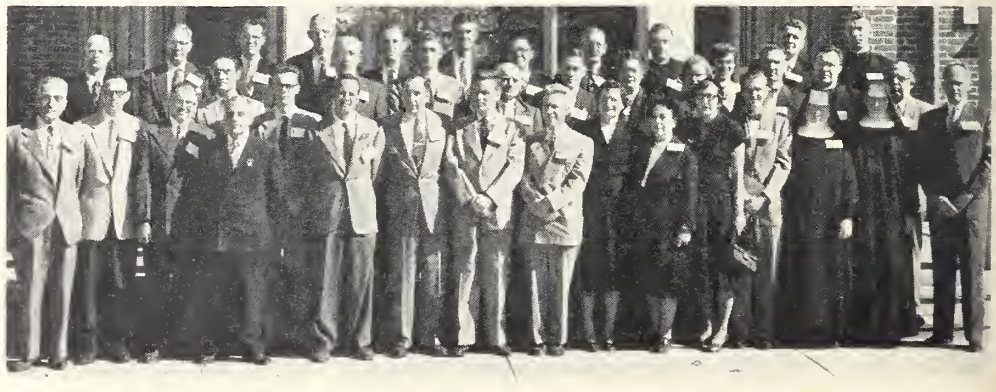
Exhibits for a science fair should be designed and made by elementary and secondary students, with interested teachers providing inspiration, information, and guidance. Many other people will be involved in the fair activity, thus making it a highly desired overall educational accomplishment.

In the interest of carrying out this program successfully, many educational institutions and State academies of science in the South are cooperating with the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies in encouraging the institution of more and improved science fairs. The Institute is a nonprofit educational corporation owned by 32 cooperating universities located in 13 southern States and Puerto Rico, and is operated at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, under contract with the United States Atomic Energy Commission.

For several years, the Institute has served as a special training organization, research institution, and academic liaison agency for disseminating education directly related to atomic energy. This new education endeavor is concerned with all branches of the pure physical and biological sciences in all their related and applied aspects.

In undertaking to help educational institutions meet the challenging problem of advancing science, the Institute has offered its facilities to promote local and regional science fairs. Currently, concentration is upon the execution of a series of Science Fair Work Conferences designed to stimulate interest in science through these fairs.

The conferees are people representing elementary and secondary school teachers, educational administrators, instructional supervisors, institutions of higher education, communication media, State departments of education, industrial organizations, and academies of science.



Alabama delegates attend regional science fair conference, University of Mississippi, November 12–13, 1954.

The purpose of the conferences is to provide inspiration and instruction in organizing, administering, and coordinating science fairs. This is done with the expectation of the science fair's becoming a common activity as an educational tool in the advancement of science and mathematics.

On October 15 and 16, 1954, a Regional Science Fair Work Conference for the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia was held at the University of North Carolina in cooperation with the North Carolina State Department of Education and the North Carolina Academy of Science. On November 5 and 6, 1954, a Regional Science Fair Week Conference was held at the University of Georgia in cooperation with the Georgia Academy of Science for a region composed of parts of Alabama, Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, and Tennessee. On November 12 and 13, 1954, a Regional Science Fair Work Conference was held at the University of Mississippi for a region made up of parts of Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee in cooperation with the State departments of education and the academies of science of all those States.

More than 600 professional people were involved in these conferences. The creation of many new science fairs and the improvement of others already in existence are expected as a result of these conferences.

In addition to the foregoing, several district and education system conferences have been held, especially in the States of Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia. State Science Fair Work Conferences are now being planned for the States of Florida and Texas. These are to be held along the same lines as those previously mentioned.

In carrying out conference followup work, the Institute endeavors to provide only a minimum of personal assistance, preferring that the bulk of this work be accomplished by those persons directly involved in handling the local fair. On the other hand, a maximum amount of encouragement is provided by supplying inspirational and instructional aids and materials for organizing and executing local and regional science fairs.

For his project on an advanced photographic study of emission nebulae in hydrogen-alpha light, Philip Lichtman, senior at Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D. C., won first place in the Eighth Annual Science Fair, Washington, D. C. He also won first place at the Fifth Annual National Science Fair held at Purdue University, in May 1954.

First-place award in the field of health at the Eighth Annual Science Fair, Washington, D. C., was won by Betsey Johnson, then a senior at Bethesda-Chevy Chase High School, Bethesda, Md. Her exhibit on insulin and epilepsy represented the Washington Fair at Purdue University.

Photographs courtesy Washington Science Fair Committee, S. B. Detwiler, Washington Chemical Society.

OE SCIENCE EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS

Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science. Bulletin 1952, No. 15. 15c.

Science Facilities for Secondary Schools. Miscellaneous Bulletin No. 17, 1952. 25c.

The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States. Bulletin 1952, No. 9. 25c.

The Teaching of Science in Public High Miscellaneous Bulletin No. 17, 1952. 25c.

Order these publications from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. (Enclose check or money order.)

Guatemalan Teachers

(*Continued from page 73*)

tion were emphasized in the hope of preventing the complete acceptance of ideas and techniques which might prove inappropriate for conditions in Guatemala.

On December 11, all of the teachers were reunited in Washington, D. C., for visits in the Capital City and for final discussions and a sharing of experiences with each other and with staff members of the Office of Education and FOA. This last week included a tour of Mount Vernon, Arlington National Cemetery, the Capitol, and other places of interest in the area.

In addition to the cultural activities, the Office arranged a special ceremony in honor of the teachers. Jorge del Valle Matheu, the Guatemalan Minister of Education, who had recently arrived in this country, and Oliver J. Caldwell, the Office's Assistant Commissioner for International Education, spoke on behalf of their countries about education and the need for fostering mutual understanding. Two of the Guatemalan group, the Under Secretary for Education and the Chief of Elementary Education, spoke for the teachers in appreciation of the opportunity to become better acquainted with the people of the United States and their educational system.

The Guatemalan teachers then presented a program of national songs, dances, and literature which was very colorful and entertaining.

It was during the discussions with subject specialists of the Office that the teachers indicated the real success of the project. They expressed particular interest in our school-community-family relationship, student government, and the variety of subjects available to students. Our care of handicapped children and our adult education program stimulated numerous questions, as did our emphasis on extracurricular activities.

It is believed that the Guatemalan teachers will make a real contribution to better teaching and better citizenship in their country. This highly successful cooperative educational enterprise is one of many related projects involving visits to the United States by educators from some 40 nations. The enthusiastic interest and support of these programs indicate the increasing importance of education in contemporary world affairs.

State Conferences

(Continued from page 66)

Maryland
THOMAS G. PULLEN, JR., *State Superintendent of Schools.*

Massachusetts
JOHN J. DESMOND, JR., *State Commissioner of Education.*

Michigan
CHARLES S. MOTT, *Director, General Motors Corp., Flint, Mich.*

Minnesota
DR. MYRON CLARK, *Chairman, Commissioner of Agriculture.*

Mississippi
J. M. TUBB, *State Superintendent of Public Instruction.*

Missouri
HUBERT WHEELER, *State Commissioner of Education.*

Montana
RUSS B. HART, *Chairman, Pilot Committee.*

Nebraska
MRS. A. E. HANNEMAN, *Past President, Nebraska Congress of Parents and Teachers.*

Nevada
M. E. LUNDBERG, *Pres. and General Manager, Elko and Lamville Power Co., Elko, Nev.*

New Hampshire
AUSTIN J. MCCAFFREY, *State Commissioner of Education.*

New Jersey
F. M. RAUBINGER, *State Commissioner of Education.*

New York
KENNETH C. ROYALL, *Former Secretary of War.*

North Carolina
CHARLES F. CARROLL, *State Superintendent of Public Instruction*

North Dakota
MRS. HAROLD BELCHER, *Pres., North Dakota Council on Education, Fessenden.*

Pennsylvania
JOHN LUMLEY, *Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction*

Rhode Island
MICHAEL WALSH, *Commissioner of Education*

South Carolina
JESSE T. ANDERSON, *State Superintendent of Education*

South Dakota
RUSSELL B. CREASER, *Secretary, State Board of Education*

Tennessee
DR. A. D. HOLT, *President, University of Tennessee*

Vermont
NORTON BARBER, *Vermont Council on Public Education.*

Virginia
DOWELL J. HOWARD, *State Superintendent of Public Instruction*

Washington
DR. HENRY SCHMITZ, *President, University of Washington*

West Virginia
W. W. TRENT, *State Superintendent of Free Schools*

Wisconsin
N. E. MASTERSON, *Hardware-Mutuals, Stevens Pt.*

Wyoming
MRS. FRED D. BOICE, *Chairman, Wyoming Citizens Committee*

District of Columbia
ROBERT V. FLEMING, *President, Riggs National Bank*

Territory of Hawaii
ROBERT CRAIG, *Business Consultant, Honolulu.*

The affirmative action of the States in responding to President Eisenhower's appeal for cooperation reflects the nationwide awareness of the urgency of our educational problems. The President again stressed his concern in his State-of-the-Union Message January 6. He said:

". . . Today, we face grave educational problems. Effective and up-to-date analyses of these problems and their solutions are being carried forward through the individual State conferences and the White House Conference to be completed this year. . . ."

In his February 8 message to the Congress proposing ways to meet the Nation's classroom shortage, the President again referred to the State and White House conferences and the "long-range solutions" for the problems of American education which will grow out of them.

The success of the White House Conference on Education will depend in large part on the results of the State conferences. Their surveys and recommendations will help influence the nature of the discussions at the National Conference. Ultimately these findings will play an important role in the considerations of the Presidential Committee as it prepares its report to the President.

Polio Vaccine Program

(Continued from page 67)

varying times following April 1, 1955. For example, if the vaccine is not licensed until May 9 and schools in a particular section close on the 1st of June, some arrangement would have to be made for the children to receive their third "shot" outside of the usual school time.

What are the schools going to be asked to do this time?

Plans will vary from State to State and for sections within the State depending upon local conditions and available resources. Educational leaders on the State level will be asked to cooperate in developing the overall plan or plans. Local administrators and teachers will be asked to contribute to the plans, to assist in having the children available for efficient administration of the inoculations, and to make the most of all opportunities for enriching the educational experience of children and parents.

No extensive nationwide evaluation of the 1955 vaccine program is contemplated. From the national standpoint, no involved record-keeping will be required and it is hoped that administrative procedures for giving the vaccine will be as simple as possible. Some States may be in a position to conduct a follow-up study of their own, but this will be determined by each State individually.

School administrators and teachers may wish to keep in mind such matters as the following:

1. Helping children and parents understand the results of the evaluative study when made public—bases of evaluation, degree of effectiveness, who may be considered immunized and for how long, and the like.

2. Helping children and parents understand how the limited supply of vaccine available in 1955 (if licensed) can be used most effectively, based upon the incidence of polio in the various age groups and the accessibility of the individuals or groups for immunization; encouraging parents to cooperate in having children vaccinated where vaccine is available, yet to refrain from making demands upon public health authorities or private physicians that cannot be met.

3. Coordinating the polio vaccine program with ongoing school health services by considering vaccination for polio as part of the total immunization program, by using existing health records, wherever feasible, and by other means.

4. Preparing children for the inoculations in advance so that they will understand the purpose and value, will cooperate, and will be relieved of fears and apprehensions.

5. Capitalizing upon the interest created by the vaccine program for effective health teaching relating to many concepts (on the appropriate level of maturity) of which the following are but a few examples: disease transmission; viruses; types of immunizing agents and the way the body uses each; difference between polio vaccine and gamma-globulin; intelligent use of morbidity (incidence of illness) and mortality statistics; values of keeping health records and health histories (including continuous, accurate, up-to-date information on all family members); services of public and voluntary health agencies; cooperation among these agencies and private physicians; contributions of research to healthful living and medical care; relation of polio prevention to general health practices.

Will the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis continue to provide vaccine?

No. The 1955 vaccine program has been initiated by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis for the purpose of making possible the early and widespread application of a newly established preventive measure against paralytic poliomyelitis. After completion of this program, the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis will not participate in the production, distribution or administration of polio vaccine.

Suppose the results of the 1954 vaccine trials do not justify licensure?

In this unhappy eventuality, plans for the 1955 polio vaccine program would be canceled and we would all work together anew to find additional information and ultimately to conquer poliomyelitis. The knowledge gained from that great cooperative endeavor, the 1954 vaccine trials, will take us one step further toward this objective. The time and energy spent in planning for vaccination of children in 1955 will be written off as a service that we could ill afford to be unprepared to render.

The following references may be useful to those desiring additional or related information:

Miller, Marion V., Pupils Pioneer Against Polio, SCHOOL LIFE, Vol. 37, No. 1, October 1954.

Schneider, Elsa, and Simon A. McNeely, Teachers Contribute to Child Health, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 8, Price 20 cents. Available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Health Education Guides and informational materials available from State and local Departments of Education and Departments of Health.

National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis materials incident to State plans available through State health officers. Other related materials obtainable from local chapters of the Foundation.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Children's Bureau, and Public Health Service). Write for lists of publications.

American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 16th St., NW., Washington 25, D. C.

Bureau of Health Education, American Medical Association, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago 10, Ill.

Educational Legislation

(Continued from page 71)

Educational Institutions Required To Provide Bond for the Use of United States Property by Reserve Officers Training Corps Units

Public Law 688 (Aug. 28, 1954) amended Section 47 of the National Defense Act, as amended (10 U. S. Code 389), by making it mandatory that the Secretary of the Army or Air Force require bond or other indemnity of not less than $5,000 for the care and safekeeping of Government property issued to an educational institution. This does not apply to items of uniforms, expendable articles, and supplies for operation, maintenance, or instruction.

Woodrow Wilson Centennial Commission Established

Public Law 705 (Aug. 30, 1954) established the Woodrow Wilson Centennial Celebration Commission, consisting of 12 members, to develop and execute suitable plans for the 1956 celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Woodrow Wilson. The commission is authorized to employ the services of such employees as are necessary, to accept donations, report to Congress, and dispose of property remaining after the celebration or turn it over to the Secretary of the Interior for use of the National Park Service. Appropriation of not to exceed $10,000 is provided for travel and other expenses of the commission.

Klamath Indian Reservation Public School Facilities Construction Provided

Public Law 716 (Aug. 30, 1954) authorized an appropriation of $206,880 to the Secretary of the Interior for constructing and equipping new public elementary school facilities on the Klamath Indian Reservation at Chiloquin, Oregon. The law specified that the following conditions must be met: 40 percent of the cost must be contributed by Klamath County School District; facilities must be available to all Indian children of the district; cost of plans for construction must be a part of State or local responsibility; construction must have local supervision; and payment for construction completed must be paid in monthly installments.

New England Board of Higher Education Compact Authorized

Public Law 719 (Aug. 30, 1954) gave consent of the Congress to any two or more of the States of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont to enter into a prescribed compact and agreement relative to higher education under the name of New England Board of Higher Education with certain requirements as follows:

It established the purpose of providing greater educational opportunities and services through a coordinated program in various fields of education; determined factors of administration as to officers, meetings, seal, voting, quorum, record keeping, and restrictions; designated powers of board; provided for raising of funds on per capita population basis; empowered the board to receive gifts and administer property; declared the validity of any remaining part of a contract in the event any part is declared unconstitutional; made the compact binding until properly rescinded; and provided for penalties and restoration to membership in good standing in event of default of a member State.

Commander Air University Authorized To Confer Degrees

Public Law 733 (Aug. 31, 1954) authorized the Commander Air University upon accreditation of the United States Air Force Institute of Technology to confer appropriate degrees upon persons who meet all requirements in the resident college of the United States Air Force Institute of Technology.

Minnesota School District Recoupment Acts Invalidated

Public Law 726 (Aug. 31, 1954) made inapplicable that part of the acts of October 8, 1940, and July 24, 1947, pertaining to the unpaid balance of school funds. The original acts authorized Federal appropriations for the construction of educational facilities for Indian children in certain school districts, placed limitations on transfer of funds, and prescribed conditions under which the United States would reenter or submit title to this property.

Federal Assistance for School Construction Program Extended Additional Two Years

Public Law 731 (Aug. 31, 1954) amended Public Law 815 (81st Cong.) and Public Law 226 (83d Cong.) by rewriting certain phrases in Title III of the acts so as to extend for the next 2 years, 1955–56, the same sums of money and contingencies as for 1954 in the program of assistance for school construction in areas with substantial increases in the number of federally connected school children.

Social Security Act and Internal Revenue Code Benefits Increased

Public Law 761 (Sept. 1, 1954), known as the "Social Security Amendments of 1954," amended certain sections of existing Social Security Acts and the Internal Revenue Code (Public Law 591) by enlarging benefits and extending coverage to a wider range of educational employees under the political subdivisions of the States who meet certain conditions of agreement (Section 218–"d" et al.).

Three Percent Absorption for Local Educational Agencies Affected by Federal Activities Postponed for One Year

Public Law 732 (Aug. 31, 1954) invalidated sections pertaining to 3 percent absorption requirements of Public Law 874 (81st Cong.), as amended by Public Law 248 (83d Cong.), by requiring that the amounts payable to a local educational agency for the school year ending June 30, 1955, shall be computed on the same basis as that used for fiscal year ending June 30, 1954.

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 Public Education: An Introduction. By Calvin Grieder and Stephen Romine. Second Edition. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 424 p. (Douglass Series in Education) $4.75.

Applying Research in Educational Administration. A Report of a Conference Held at the University of Chicago, July 19–23, 1954. William W. Savage, Editor. Chicago, Ill., Midwest Administration Center Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, The University of Chicago, 1954. 42 p. 50 cents.

Approaches to an Understanding of World Affairs. Howard R. Anderson, Editor, with the Advisory Assistance of I. James Quillen and Robert La Follette. Washington, D. C., National Council for the Social Studies, 1954. 478 p. (Twenty-fifth Yearbook) Paper-bound $3.50, Cloth-bound $4.00.

Basic Concepts in Vocational Guidance. By Herbert Sanderson. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. 338 p. $4.50.

Curriculum Study in Basic Nursing Education. By Ole Sand. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1955. 225 p. (Basic Nursing Education Curriculum Study Series, Volume I) $3.75.

Education and Health of the Partially Seeing Child. By Winifred Hathaway. Third Edition. Published for the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, Inc. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 227 p. Illus. $3.75.

The Emotional Problems of Children: A Guide for Parents. By Harry Joseph and Gordon Zern. New York, Crown Publishers, Inc., 1954. 310 p. $3.75.

Financing the College Education of Faculty Children. By Francis P. King. A Study Conducted by Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association for the Fund for the Advancement of Education. New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1954. 115 p. $1.75.

The Peer Status of Sixth and Seventh Grade Children. By Frances Laughlin. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 85 p. $2.75.

Public Education in Nevada. Survey Report. Nashville, Tenn., Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1954. 363 p.

Public Education in Nevada. Digest of the Survey Report. Nashville, Tenn., Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1954. 84 p. Illus.

Social Understanding Through Literature: A Bibliography for Secondary Schools. By G. Robert Carlsen and Richard S. Alm, Assisted by Geneva Hanna. Washington, D. C., National Council for the Social Studies, 1954. 111 p. (National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin Number 28) $1.25.

Techniques of Counseling. By Jane Warters. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954. 384 p. $4.75.

Your Public Relations: A Guide for Vocational Educators. Prepared by the Committee on Research and Publications. Washington, D. C., American Vocational Association, Inc., 1954. 88 p. Illus. $1.25.

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 Adolescent in Your Family. Children's Bureau. 1954. 25 cents.

Parents and Delinquency, A Report of a Conference. Children's Bureau. 1954. 20 cents.

Report on the National Conference on Juvenile Delinquency, Held June 28–30, 1954, in Washington, D. C. Children's Bureau. 1954. 25 cents.

Screening School Children for Visual Defects, Report of a Study Conducted in St. Louis, Mo., 1948–49. Children's Bureau. 1954. 35 cents.

Selected Bibliography of Publications Relating to Undesirable Effects Upon Aquatic Life by Algicides, Insecticides, Weedicides. Public Health Service. 1954. 15 cents.

State Cancer Control Programs. Public Health Service. 1954. 25 cents.

Office of Education

Fall 1954 Statistics on Enrollment, Teachers, and Schoolhousing in Full-Time Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools. By Samuel Schloss and Carol Joy Hobson. Circular No. 417, November 1954. Free.

Guiding High-School Students of Vocational Agriculture in Developing Farming Programs. By E. J. Johnson and W. N. Elam. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 254, Agricultural Series No. 65, 1954. 30 cents.

Schools—Our Nation's First Line of Defense Against Juvenile Delinquency. By Leonard M. Miller. Reprint from **School Life**, November 1954. Free.

Speed as a Factor in 50 Years of Aviation Progress. Prepared by Willis C. Brown. Aviation Education Series, Circular No. 416, January 1955. Free.

State School Systems: Statistical Summary of Pupils, Instructional Staff, and Finance, 1951–52. By Samuel Schloss and Carol Joy Hobson. Circular No. 420, December 1954. Free.

Statistics of County and Regional Libraries Serving Populations of 50,000 or More: Fiscal Year 1953. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 406, June 1954. Free.

Studies in Comparative Education: Education in the German Federal Republic. By Gordon W. Prange and Alina M. Lindegren. November 1954. Free.

Teaching Aids for Developing International Understanding: Latin America. Prepared by Delia Goetz and Edith Harper. November 1954. Free.

Vocational Education in Distributive Occupations, Organization and Operation of Local Programs. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 255, Distributive Education Series No. 19, 1954. 15 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Cauliflower and Broccoli Varieties and Culture. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Corn Production. 1954. 15 cents.

The Farmer's Share of the Consumer's Food Dollar. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Fire Departments for Rural Communities, How To Organize and Operate Them. 1954. 5 cents.

Green Vegetables for Good Eating. 1954. 10 cents.

Marketing—The Yearbook of Agriculture, 1954. Cloth, $1.75.

Snap Beans for Marketing, Canning, and Freezing. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Department of Defense

Honesty and Integrity, You and Your USA Series 7. Office of Armed Forces Information and Education. 1954. 10 cents.

Pocket Guide to Great Britain. 1954. 25 cents.

Pocket Guide to Italy. 1954. 30 cents.

Pocket Guide—Northeast to the Arctic—Iceland, Greenland, and New Foundland. 1954. 25 cents.

United States Navy Safety Precautions. A safety engineer's manual on accident prevention. 1954. $3.00.

District of Columbia

A Guide for the Teaching of French in the Elementary Schools (Public Schools of District of Columbia). 1954. 55 cents.

Department of the Interior

Gulf of Mexico, Its Origin, Waters, and Marine Life. 1954. $3.25.

Transplanting Trees and Other Woody Plants. Revised 1954. 25 cents.

Department of Labor

Changes in Women's Occupations, 1940–1950. 1954. 35 cents.

Employment Opportunities for Women in Professional Engineering. 1954. 20 cents.

Fact Book on Manpower. 1954. 50 cents.

1954 Handbook on Women Workers. 1954. 30 cents.

Wages and Related Benefits, Major Labor Markets, 1953–1954. 70 cents.

United States Senate

Action by the 83d Congress Affecting Education and Educators. An analytic summary of laws enacted, bills reported but not enacted, other proposals introduced, investigations, budget recommendations, appropriations, and policy considerations probably affecting future legislation in this field. 1955.

Federal Aid to States and Local School Districts for Elementary and Secondary Education. 1954. Both reports prepared in the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress for the Subcommittee on Education of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. Free from Committee as long as supplies last.

The CONSTITUTION

of the United States of America

What Does It Cost?

A letter recently received by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, asked the price of

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THE price quotation was requested for the convenient, vest-pocket size edition of "The Constitution of the United States of America," first published by the Office of Education in the year 1921.

Thousands of copies of this publication have been purchased by teachers, educational organizations, and others since its first issuance 33 years ago.

But the recent request for the price of one and three-quarter million copies of a single Office of Education publication was most unusual.

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ORDER YOUR COPIES of this historic publication TODAY. Enclose check or money order with your request addressed to: The Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Volume 37 Number 6
MARCH 1955

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School Life

◀ Practical Training in Thailand

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

Recruiting the New Teacher *

THERE is little reason to wonder that our young people have been turning away from a teaching career in droves. Nobody seems to have given a thought to trying to "sell" teaching as a career for the college graduate. All the emphasis has, instead, been on the negative. If a store, or a manufacturer, or an advertising agency tried to sell goods with the methods our educators have been using to fill teaching vacancies they would go bankrupt in a week. "Wanted: Young men and women, at starvation wages, for a job without a future. Long hours. Hard work. Applicants are warned that they will be regarded as social inferiors in the community. Do not apply if you have any ambition to better yourself. Faithful service not appreciated. Please apply, regardless of these conditions, as you are badly needed."

This is the style in which teaching as a career has been advertised, not only stressing the adverse, but sometimes exaggerating and misrepresenting it. The reason is, of course, that school administrators, teacher organizations, and other elements in the community have been trying to obtain better financial support for schools from government, and to equalize educational opportunity. That is the worthy purpose, and we have joined in it. At the same time our schools now reap an unexpected and unwelcome harvest. We have so emphasized the adverse that our young people have been misled into thinking that there is no other side. Suppose, for a change, the case were put this way, as it could be in New York City: "Wanted: Young men and women to enter attractive profession. Starting pay immediately out of college, $2,500, or $2,700 if master's degree. Steady, automatic increases. Pleasant associations. Make new friends. Be paid while learning. Three-month vacation each year. Retirement pension. Leave of absence every seventh year. Advancement to high executive positions possible . . .

Yes there is an attractive side to the teaching profession and more needs to be said about it. Yet, to get teachers, good teachers, we shall have to emphasize the high mission of the profession. It is not the expected pay that brings young men into the ministry, some of them great, inspiring preachers. Nor are great doctors made that way.

We shall not attract great numbers of young people to the teaching profession with material rewards alone, though these should be adequate, but rather by pointing out an opportunity for great service, lived in a setting which is not unattractive for those so disposed. We shall have to clothe the profession with a new dignity, and in this the teacher himself will have to play his part.

*Reprinted from the *New York Times*.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph: Boys in a Thailand primary school make a model chicken coop as part of a unit of work on "Increasing our supply of food at home."

Volume 37 Number 6

CONTENTS for MARCH 1955

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.)

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

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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)

American Education on a New Horizon

by Raymond C. Gibson, Director, Education Missions Branch, Division of International Education, Office of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

IN NOVEMBER 1953, it was my privilege to talk with a devoted Buddhist Priest in Chiengmai, Thailand, and discuss the basic principles of our respective religions. When asked to enumerate the important precepts of Buddhism the priest replied: "Avoid evil; do good; serve your fellow man." These are the ideals that have motivated the followers of Buddha for 2,497 years—ideals that are in harmony with our finest Christian heritage.

One of the greatest men of our time, Mahatma Gandhi, believed that the ultimate values and realities are love and truth. His victory for India through the pursuit of these virtues stands as one of the miracles of modern times.

No one can study the teachings of Buddha, Christ, Confucius, and Mohammed without realizing the cultural interdependence of societies. The concepts of justice and virtue running through the great religions have motivated men to seek, through social and political organizations, the implementation of man's spiritual aspirations.

In the West these manifestations have taken the form of democratic societies with great emphasis upon the values of freedom, justice, and dignity of man. The industrial revolution, which brought material blessings to all peoples in the technologically advanced countries, has had the unfortunate result of shifting our emphasis from ultimate ends to means. As we approach the problem, therefore, of uniting peoples of the East and the West we must try to keep in balance materialistic means and spiritual ends.

Eastern Leaders Turn to U. S.

With the new upsurge of independence in the Philippines, Korea, Indonesia, India, and the countries of the Near East since the Second World War, there has emerged a group of indigenous leaders committed to the policy of education and economic development for the benefit of all the people.

These leaders recognize the relationship between education and economic development, and they have turned to America for assistance in applying knowledge and skills toward the solution of their problems.

Are the American people qualified to provide leadership in these programs of economic and social development in nations less fortunate than ours? I believe that the answer lies in the motivation and long-range objectives which characterized the settlers of this country. They came to establish a new world in accordance with the fruits of the Renaissance and the Reformation and later to take full advantage of the industrial revolution. In short, they came to establish homes with religious freedom, equality among men, the dignity of labor, and political and economic independence as the foundation of their culture. They came because of a desire to break with Old World restrictions upon freedom.

If we are qualified at all to assist in the development of leadership necessary for the countries recently become independent, it is because we adopted the philosophy of the Declaration of Independence 178 years ago. And, following the War of Independence, the Founding Fathers, having thrown off the yoke of a foreign government, were wise enough to adopt a constitution which would protect the people against their own Government. Thus was established the proper environment for the development of public education, resourcefulness, initiative, and free enterprise which are the benchmarks of our "coming of age" as a world power in this century.

Early development of the common schools in an atmosphere of freedom and at public expense guaranteed the flourishing of ideas and dynamic progress in institutions, commerce, industry—and in everything we hold dear as "the American Way of Life."

The preamble to the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 proclaimed that "Religion, Morality, and Knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." That policy has been incorporated in the constitution or statutes of every one of the 48 States and has been implemented through the development of universal public schools as a basic necessity for the economic and spiritual life of the Nation.

During recent months the Supreme Court of the United States has reiterated our fundamental allegiance to education as the birthright of every individual without regard to race or color. While we were slow in recognizing this right of a minority group, the recent decision indicates the tremendous progress that has been made during these 167 years and has called attention to the fact that the principle of universal education has been firmly established.

Educators Accept the Challenge

With this heritage of freedom in our country American educators accept their challenges and opportunities on a new horizon, confident that education, properly related to the needs of the people, can help in the solution of their problems. For as Booker T. Washington said, "We shall prosper in proportion as we learn to dignify and glorify labor and put brains and skill into the common occupations of life." The free nations of the world, less fortunate than we in the development of educational opportunities, need men like Booker T. Washington, and others who have followed him, who subscribe to the practice of education for free men in a society where all men are free, and where at least part of those men must work in occupations that require manual skills. American educators serving around the world need to see clearly their dual purpose of preparing people to work and to live. One of the great tragedies in many of the so-called underdeveloped countries is that institutions of higher learning are designed primarily to educate men for leisure rather than for useful work.

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Let me describe the conditions which our technicians face on this new frontier. Fifty percent of all the adults in the world are absolutely illiterate. Another 15 percent have received less than 4 years of formal education. Most of these people live in countries along the periphery of the Iron Curtain—on both sides—and in Latin America. They populate the vast new republics of Indonesia, the Philippines, Burma, India, Israel, Pakistan, Afghanistan, and the Arab countries.

They comprise most of the peoples of China and of Africa. They follow the ancient agricultural pursuits of their forefathers in Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

I have observed the Indians of Peru as they prepare the soil for corn, using the spade, the wooden stick, or heavy hoe as the only tools for cultivation. I have watched them thresh their grain by driving oxen over it or by flailing it by hand. I have seen the indigenous peoples of Cambodia and Siam cultivating their rice paddies in water 3 feet deep, using the water buffalo as the beast of burden and wading after the crude wooden plow all day long. I have seen whole families as they pull the stalks of rice from the plant beds and set them by hand in hundreds of acres covered with water. Most of the energy for agriculture in these regions is provided by human beings. Because their methods of producing food have remained the same for two thousand years or longer, most of the people are hungry and undernourished.

A vast majority of all these people suffer all of their lives from diseases—preventable diseases such as malaria, trachoma, dysentery, yaws, smallpox, typhoid, cholera, and leprosy. Because of undernourishment, disease, poverty, and unsanitary living conditions life expectancy is only 30 years.

Common Schools Are Needed

In education there are many almost insurmountable problems—lack of schools, books, and teachers for the rural areas; inadequate facilities and skilled teachers for vocational education; traditional approach to higher education and the dichotomy between education and work; and finally the heavy incidence of illiteracy at the adult level which will never improve until common schools have been developed for all the people.

We enter these countries to provide technical assistance only upon the invitation of their governments. Our work in education is upon the invitation of ministries of education.

The development of common schools for the masses is one of our basic objectives. A few examples of present elementary school opportunities lend meaning to this objective. During my 2 years in Peru, I saw as many as 100 children huddled together in one classroom at 13,000 feet elevation in the cold, bleak Andes. Their teacher was not well-prepared; they had only notebooks and pencils—no books. Their school was without windows. They sat either on the dirt floor or on benches made from dried mud. They memorize and repeat what the teacher dictates. After a few years in school, they lapse into illiteracy. It is not surprising that children leave these schools to work on their parents' farms at an early age.

I have observed the same conditions in the jungle of the Amazon, on the Nile, and in primitive communities of Thailand and Cambodia. In traveling by automobile from Siem Reap in Northern Cambodia, to Phnom Phin in the South, I passed through some of the most primitive country I have ever seen. Yet there were new schoolhouses in almost every village—little schools constructed by the people without any tax support. Many of these new schools were tragically vacant in the middle of the school year, because there were no teachers for them.

The new republic of Indonesia has proclaimed in its constitution that education is to be the birthright of every child. And they are so determined to make this objective a reality that thousands of graduates of the primary schools are being prepared through correspondence courses to teach others in the new schools.

In the Philippines the common schools, designed to service community improvement, have pioneered in the development of better vegetable gardens, poultry, fish ponds, and other sources of food. The diet of all the people is being improved through these efforts.

In Thailand I visited a junior high school near the border of Burma where boys using the simplest hand tools, had constructed an adequate building for manual arts. The pride with which they told their story would have inspired the Sphinx. In another secondary school, near Bangkok, for more sophisticated boys, there was no opportunity to learn any manual skill. And I found that in a carpentry school for boys, there was no opportunity to take any academic course—only carpentry all day long. One group is educated to work—the other to live—and neither is successful. Only 7 percent of the children go beyond the 4th grade and 1 in 1,000 goes to the university. But the curriculum from the first grade through high school is designed to prepare students for the university.

In my work with the teachers colleges in Peru, Indochina, and Thailand, I discovered that they are very near the same conditions as prevailed here in the United States in 1850. I found that of 256 teachers in provincial normal schools of Thailand, only 9 are college graduates. No teachers college can give a bachelor's degree, and the work taken in them has little value toward a degree in the local university.

New Diplomacy Is Created

In Latin America, Asia, the Near East, and Africa, American educators are quietly and patiently helping ministries of education and the common people to develop rural schools to eliminate illiteracy and provide reading materials for the next generation; and to teach health and agriculture in order to improve the general living conditions. Vocational schools are being organized to teach indigenous people the skills necessary to increase production and the general standard of living. And, above all, we are helping the people in reorganizing and making more effective their institutions for preparing teachers.

American educators, agriculturalists, physicians, engineers, and businessmen are creating a new kind of diplomacy—an understanding of people that comes from working cooperatively on problems, the solutions to which can mean longer, healthier lives and a greater degree of freedom. American colleges and universities have responded to Mr. Stassen's call for help in providing technical assistance to institutions around the world. Moreover, our educational institutions are working diligently with 30,000 foreigners who are now studying in this country. Incidentally, these foreign scholars in our schools offer the greatest opportunity we have ever experienced in correcting our own cultural lag.

The underdeveloped countries constitute an economic, cultural, and political vacuum. They are susceptible to commercial exploitation, political propaganda, and military conquest. Preventable diseases, poverty, and ignorance are enemies of man that can and should be conquered.

(Continued on page 94)

How Educational Can Educational Television Be?*

by Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio-Television, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

ESSENTIALLY, television is only a carrier system—*a means of communication.* It can carry sight and sound, gestures, facial expression, voice, and pictures. It can interpret action, personality, music, art, literature, science, philosophy, mathematics; and it can draw on any of the other reservoirs of human knowledge. That is why television is important to us today.

Entertainment, news, great human events, and sports are all an essential part of our daily living. Other mediums of communication—the stage, books, magazines, newspapers, and the radio—bring them to us, but television brings them to us more completely and with greater speed.

Have We Found A Magic Formula?

So we have wondered, could it be that we have here, in addition to a quickened means of communication, a quickened means of education? We are always searching for the Golden Fleece in education—have we found it? Virginia Gildersleeve, dean emeritus of Barnard College, tells us in her admirable autobiography:

"There is no magic formula of education . . . no fruit of the tree of knowledge which swiftly eaten makes us as wise as God, knowing good and evil. Even in these critical days, when educated persons are so desperately needed, the process of education requires time and work and striving. The ability to think straight, some knowledge of the past, some vision of the future, some skill to do useful service, some urge to put that service into the well-being of the community—these are the most vital things education must try to produce. If we can achieve them . . . we shall have brought to America the wisdom and the courage to match her destiny."

Most educators will readily agree with Dean Gildersleeve that we have not yet found an educational magic formula in television. We must all agree, however, on the values of television which have already been demonstrated in education. Therefore, we must steer a middle course in using it. *First*, we must understand our audience. *Second*, we must apply our best and most acceptable teaching methods. *Third*, we must test our results.

Understanding our audience is more difficult than understanding our classroom students—because television is a mass medium. By and large, we don't know who our television students are, unless we have telecourses in extension education or captive audiences in classrooms. Is it wasteful to use television for minimum highly selective audiences only? A stamp club, on the air for years by radio only, had millions of listeners in history, geography, economics, and world affairs! Can we discount the mass audience, hungry for knowledge, in an attempt to train the relatively few? Let us study our audiences first, find out who they are, where they are, what they want, and what they would want if they only knew about it. We should have programs for specific interest audiences but not so specific that they could be assembled in a few classrooms. For these audiences it would be better for us to use motion pictures selected from well-organized catalogs which list many pictures made at a great output of time, effort, and money. Or we might use closed-circuit television with live programing for the small audience, but we need not waste valuable broadcasting facilities for a minor effort, regardless of its apparent immediate importance.

What Programs Serve Education?

What then can an educational television station legitimately do to justify its very existence? What can we do to make that agency the most important in modern communication to serve mankind? And, of the dozen educational stations on the air, which ones are doing it?

As you will see from the chart and its legend, ten major types of programs are now being televised. All are familiar with the first four types of programs: (1) Entertainment features, (2) news, news comment, (3) sports, and (4) special events. The other six types deserve special comment.

*Based upon an address made before the Educational Television Research Association at the University of California, Berkeley, January 15, 1955.

No. 5, Cultural.—This type of program begins to look interesting to educators. It includes programs of great cultural value—operas like Amahl and the Night Visitors, by Menotti, produced in the past few years by NBC: and Sister Angelica, by Puccini, also produced by NBC; concerts by symphony orchestras like San Francisco Symphony and the New York Philharmonic of CBS; programs of current cultural values, like Omnibus; and dramas like Studio One, Robert Montgomery Presents, Philco Hour, CBS Workshop, and many other fine, cultural, and entertaining features.

No. 6, Developmental (for want of a better word).—This type includes programs like Heritage done by the National Gallery of Art and NBC, Adventure, Medic, The Search, You Are There, See It Now, Now and Then, with Frank Baxter, who presents the great permanent literary works of the world, utilizing the photographic element in television to take us places and to let us see things. It also includes reviews of current books, with the views of authors on their own and others' work, and music appreciation, with explanations of the values achieved through trained listening and viewing through supplemental visual aids and the reading of scores.

No. 7, News background.—In presenting news on this type of program authorities give background material which aids the viewer in understanding it; this type also includes high-level discussion programs.

No. 8, Talks.—Under this classification are talks like those on the BBC, in many subject-matter fields to cover a wide variety of special interests.

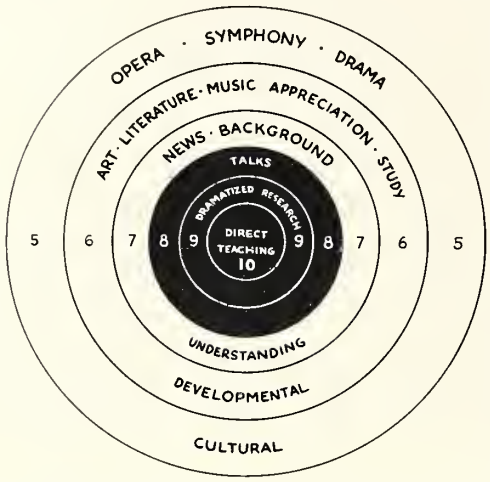
No. 9. Dramatized research.—Through televising dramatized research many people can be informed of the work in countless industrial and engineering enterprises in many fields contiguous to human needs—like child welfare, health, recreation, housing, and food—and, particularly in university and college research laboratories and extensive research institutions which bring the fruits of study and invention to bear on the welfare of humankind. An example of this type of program is the Johns Hopkins Science Review.

No. 10, Direct teaching.—Through this type of program television makes possible not only the extension of teaching to millions heretofore unable by circumstances to receive it conveniently, but the illumination of the mind by the audio and visual faculties possessed in television.

To these means of education must be added reference books, written and graphically illustrated notes, proper tests for achievement, and when justified, credit toward advancement in the fields of study and accomplishment.

The chart classifies the types of programs by source. Those which must come from standard commercial stations are in the outside area: those which might be done equally well by standard commercial or educational stations are in the white area; and those which seem to be the obligation of educational stations are in the black.

Types 1 through 4, which are not shown on the chart, are in the outside area. Numbers 5, 6, and 7 are in the white, and numbers 8, 9, and 10 are in the black area.



Types of television programs: (1) Entertainment; (2) News: newscasts, comment, and discussion; (3) Sports; (4) Special Events; (5) Cultural: opera, symphony, drama; (6) Developmental: art, literature, music appreciation; (7) News: background, understanding, and discussion; (8) Talks: by authorities in subject-matter fields; (9) Dramatized Research: Johns Hopkins Science Review; (10) Direct Teaching: extension and classroom. (Types 1–4 are not shown in the chart.)

Who Pays the Bills?

A number of notable programs are being produced by educational television stations. Among them are the following: At Ames, Iowa (WOI-TV), *Iowa School Time* for elementary and secondary students; at Houston (KUHT), a course in home nursing; at Los Angeles (KTHE), a dramatic program in which children act out a story called "I Play Like"; at the University of Wisconsin (WHA-TV) the children's program "The Friendly Giant"; at Pittsburgh (WQED), the High School Continuation course; at St. Louis, "The Finder"; at the University of North Carolina, "The Bible"; and at San Francisco (KQED), who can forget "Buckskin Bob?"

These are only a few of the programs produced by educational stations. Such stations cost from $250,000 to $750,000. It costs from $60,000 (minimum at Houston) to $300,000 to run them every year.

Where do they get their money? The first source is support from the public memberships in the station and general contributions. The second is the paid programs, sealed and delivered from associates using them. The third is sale of books. This is an unlimited field of legitimate exploitation. What is an education without books? The fourth is the sale of courses (telecourses at regular tuition rates). Western Reserve University has supported its entire TV project from this source. The fifth is sale of course materials. Many universities provide $2, $3, or $5 packets. The sixth is foundation and industry support, and the seventh, tax support.

Will TV Affect Methods?

When we speak of research, we go back *first* to our audience, *second*, to our teaching methods; and *third*, to our results. Our audience has certain learner characteristics. Experience has taught us to recognize some of these characteristics in the individual. The first of these is *curiosity*—what we want to know is his relative awareness of his environment, his urge to find out the "why" of things. The second is *the nature and accuracy of his perceptions.* We want to know whether he sees in a situation merely the reflection of his own prejudices or whether he perceives accurately the component elements of the broadcast, the lesson. We want to know whether *when he looks, he really sees, when he hears, he really listens.* If he doesn't, we must teach him to see, to center his attention on details and not on conglomerate picture. If he doesn't listen when he hears, we must teach him how to listen. The third is *character and intensity of motivation.* We should be interested in whether his motivations have increased in maturity, commensurate with his assumed social and intellectual growth. The fourth is *reaction to problems.* Here we want to know whether, when faced with a problem of immediate concern, he is able to find a reasonable and practical solution.

We should like to discover: (*a*) *What imagination* does he possess? (*b*) can he *improvise and invent?* (*c*) has he the *ability to select, discriminate,* and *apply techniques* that have demonstrated effectiveness? (*d*) we should like to know what his standards of thoroughness and accuracy are, and (*e*) finally, we should like to know whether he possesses that God-given quality of *persistence* to keep everlastingly at it—to stay with the program until it is finished. Here a test may be made of the mass-audience as well as of the individual.

The Navy tests, at Port Washington Special Devices Center, which compared regular classroom kinescope and live television, revealed that live television was incomparably better than the other techniques. The Army tests at Camp Gordon showed that TV, with periodic class sessions, led to greater retentiveness, more attention to detail, and greater total understanding.

How does this affect any method of teaching? WFIL-TV University of the Air at Philadelphia offered a course in logic. Father Gannon, of St. Joseph's College there, gave the course. He had never used visual illustrations before, but when the art department of the station provided him

(*Continued on page 94*)

Part One appeared in School Life, February 1955

*PART II**

Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight

by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

WHEN CHILDREN are in grades 7 and 8 (and 9) the tremendous urge away from adult restrictions and the striving to attain adulthood give the school a golden, if sometimes turbulent, opportunity to help children grow toward independent, self-reliant maturity. Most school educators know that the major problem which schools face during these years is how to encourage children to use their initiative and desire for independence in ways that will help them grow in understanding, in skills, and in responsible citizenship. Much of the activity of good schools is pointed toward the end of helping children achieve greater academic and social skill, greater knowledge of their own nation and of other nations, and greater ability to contribute to the happiness and well-being of others. The following account will attempt to show how educators in 76 schools are trying to achieve growth for children.

Many teachers are aware of their responsibility to help children grow in every way. Teachers who have the same children for all or part of every day find it relatively easy to help children understand their strengths and weaknesses and to help them make individual and group plans for improvement in basic skills, physical development, and social and emotional behavior. Teachers who deal with many groups of children daily, on the other hand, find it more difficult to gain intimate knowledge of each pupil's strength and shortcomings, to analyze causes, and to help students plan programs for individual and group development.

Growth in Language Arts

Educators understand that in reading, for instance, the great variety in growth patterns of human beings precludes that many children will read well at 12, 13, and 14, and that, no matter how skillful previous teachers have been in teaching children to read, some will come to the seventh and eighth grades (and subsequent years as well) still in need of help and of planned opportunity to improve their reading skills. To know the sort of help each pupil needs, to provide it for each one, and at the same time to make it possible for each to use reading materials which enable him to keep up with the subject matter dealt with in his classes is the challenge. This requires a careful and continuing testing program, records of progress and of efforts made to analyze defects and to achieve success; it requires that the teacher be acquainted with these records; and it requires a program of materials and methods which can be adapted to need.

In the schools included in the present study records are available. Some schools are able, through central or room libraries at school, mobile or mailing services, or good use of the community library, to provide rich resources in reading, such as encyclopedias, reference and research materials, related and purely recreational fiction, magazines, and newspapers.

Some teachers extend this principle of variety into the daily work of the class. Cooperatively, studies or "projects" are planned to include the major interests of most students, and informative materials are corralled from libraries, other classrooms, homes, friends, and other sources. In this setting, it is possible to "pitch the reading level to suit the reader," whether he is a superior or slow reader, and to vary the approach so that "slow" readers have opportunities to learn through other avenues.

Several schools in the study provide planned help for children to improve their reading. Many teachers described adaptations they are making, such as individualized help in building reading vocabulary in a subject field, reading clubs to stimulate interest in all children, and challenging ways to exchange opinions on books. Several schools are placing "slow" readers for a period with especially trained teachers who try to find ways to coordinate their reading practice with the work in subject-matter classes.

Growth in the ability to express oneself in speech and writing and to gain command of the structure of the English language is commonly a part of the program, too. Opportunities to express ideas and opinions differ with the degree to which children are brought into discussions about operating the school, the class, social affairs, and their own school lives, and the degree to which ideas and opinions are gleaned from all sources and interchanged in classes. Education in outlining, composing, and delivering reports is given: tape and disk recordings are often used as evidence. Many opportunities are utilized to lead children to express in writing what they themselves observe, feel, think, and imagine. School newspapers, cooperatively produced by students, are among the popular ways to encourage good writing as well as school interest. Letters, invitations, acknowledgments, and requests give practice in necessary business and social forms.

Attention to spelling continues, with many children meeting easy success, and others requiring much help. As in the previous grades, teachers use numerous devices to help pupils having difficulty in developing phonetic control which may be functional in spelling new words. This is difficult in our language, and visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and associative memory must be relied upon where phonics fail. For this reason, teachers seek to combine sounding, listening, looking, and writing in sentences words which are to be learned.

*Both articles refer to a study which is summarized in a bulletin. *Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight*, by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C. (Bulletin 1954 No. 10, price 35 cents.)

Growth in Mathematics

In the teaching of mathematics, as in previous grades, a noticeable effort is made to make experiences practical in order that the skills children learn may function in modern life. Activities such as banking, measuring for needed construction, budgeting, marketing, traveling, insurance, home purchase and management, and school business are used in schools to help children see how mathematical processes are used in life.

Growth in Social Studies and in Science

Citizenship, civics, history, geography, science, and other subjects which deal with the lives and achievements of people and nations are frequently grouped under some such title as social studies or social science. Subject-matter content varies and is usually dependent upon what has preceded in the years below seventh grade and what is to follow. Customarily, during these 2 years, children are expected to gain better understanding of the local, State, and National Government, and their own growing civic responsibilities. In some schools, a sequential study of the development of our Nation is placed here; in others attention is given to highlights in our history, but the sequential study is placed later.

Some of the schools visited utilize the self-interest which characterizes children in these grades to help children understand themselves better, and to help them understand their relationships to others. Responsibility to home and family, friends, school, community, the Nation, the world is examined in units organized for the purpose. The following themes (taken from the bulletin) illustrate the diversity of units studied in some of these schools during these years: Understanding Myself, Personality and Appearance, Beliefs and Superstitions, Problems of Living in Our School, Exploring Educational Opportunities, Achieving Good Intercultural Relations, Our Shrinking World, The State, Western (or Eastern) Hemisphere, Living in America.

In social studies, more particularly than in other areas, many teachers deliberately help children learn more about how to plan, to carry out plans, and to evaluate what they are doing and achieving. Children are expected to help the teacher plan (1) what we are going to study, (2) just what we want to find out, (3) where we will look for information, (4) how we will organize our class for the study, (5) how we will pool what we are learning and doing, and (6) how we can make suggestions to each other for improving our work. One of the rich experiences carried out by a class working in this way was a visit to the State capital city in which they observed the legislature. On returning they reenacted the whole experience of governing insofar as they could see it. Legislative districts were studied by their child representatives, campaigns were run, senatorial elections were held in proper voting booths, and travel and living expenses were computed. Bills were formulated, hearings held, and votes taken. Following this, a gubernatorial and a presidential election was also held. In connection with this type of integrated study, children may gain much information and learn or strengthen many skills. Reading, interviewing, observing, experimenting, reporting, discussing are basic activities, each one containing a constellation of skills which profit by functional reinforcement.

Practically all schools included make an effort to help children keep up with the modern world. Newspapers, magazines, current maps, radio and television programs are utilized several times a week. Occasionally a solid block of the year is devoted to this, as in the school which treated the theme: Keeping Up With Current Affairs.

Music, Art, and Physical Education

Every school in the study places value upon music, art, and physical education in the education of children. Choruses, glee clubs, orchestras, bands, talent shows, and group singing testify to the recognition of music as a way of relating children to each other, and of increasing a sense of comradery or "belonging." Art, too, is used in group expression: To produce scenery, costumes for a play, school or home improvement, or outdoor landscaping. In one or two schools it includes the community as well; for example, one school annually invites great artists to send a showing, encouraging the community to appreciate (and buy) some of the paintings. Opportunity is provided in both art and music for individual expression as well. Clay and soap modeling, finger-painting, textile design, block-printing, puppetry, mobiles, and other activities are in frequent evidence; and opportunity for instrumental practice is provided in many schools.

Physical education consists in most schools of a program which involves all children in games, sports, rhythmic activities, self-testing activities, and which provides as well for the type of activity that marks a "quiet evening at home," activities such as table games, ping-pong, and social dancing. The former usually takes place in the regularly scheduled daily physical education periods; the latter during the noon hour as part of the recreation program. Some school leaders express conviction that children of these ages should be protected against the ravages of strong, exciting competition; many of those whose children engage in these activities express regret that this is so, but think they cannot diplomatically protect children against it.

Growth Through Homemaking and Shop Experiences

Experiences in these areas are offered children in many schools, sometimes as part of an integrated program and sometimes as separate courses. Experiences vary with the locality, often reflecting local needs and opportunities and the interests of children. In homemaking classes observed, both boys and girls frequently take part in studying and practicing meal preparation, personal grooming, sewing, room arrangement and decoration. In some schools children study child care. Shop experiences are also extended in some schools to both boys and girls. These experiences include work with plastics, leather, metal, wood, paint, and other "craft" enterprises; sometimes they include exploration into mechanical drawing, electrical tools and machines, auto and airplane mechanics, and agriculture.

Problems Remain To Be Solved

Interviews brought to light many problems with which educators and parents need help in dealing with children of these ages. These problems are listed in the bulletin. Consideration of them shows that many call for research, experimentation, and agreements by educators themselves. Others require cooperative study and agreement by parents, educators, and other community leaders. Interviews with parents and children reveal that they are appreciative of the intelligent, tireless, and sometimes creative ways in which schools provide for these children. They, too, are eager to cooperate with school people to make our schools even more effective in developing healthy, resourceful, intelligent young people.

Credit Union for Teachers

by Roy Q. Strain, Instructor, Compton Junior College, Compton, California *

IN 1937 A TEACHER in the schools of Compton, California, which was then a community of from 10,000 to 12,000 persons, decided to move from a furnished apartment to an unfurnished house. He had to buy furniture, and he needed about $500 in addition to the money he had, but he found it impossible to obtain this money at a reasonable cost. In talking his situation over with other school employees he found that most of them faced the same problem—they needed money, but had no reasonably priced source from which to obtain it. Then he heard about credit unions. (Incidentally, it was from a five-line "filler" in SCHOOL LIFE.) He told his associates about his discovery, and 17 of them organized a credit union to serve their needs.

The credit union opened for business with $250 invested and three loan applications totaling $200. It has grown steadily ever since. During the intervening 17 years over 7,500 loans totaling nearly $4,000,000 have been made; members' savings have risen to $750,000; assets have passed the $1,000,000 mark; about $100,000 in dividends has been paid; a building worth over $30,000 has been purchased as an office and has been furnished with $10,000 worth of equipment; nearly $30,000 in reserve funds has been accumulated; membership has risen to over 1,600 (Compton is now a community of about 75,000 population); $250,000 has been collected in loan interest.

In addition to the usual savings and loan services of a credit union this credit union devised a special "Twelve-Month Salary Service" in 1939, which has proved valuable to members. Compton teachers, like so many teachers, are paid during the school year but not during the summer, which makes budgeting difficult. This credit union acts as a trustee for those members wishing to join its "Salary Club." It receives their pay warrants directly from the school district and pays the members one-twelfth of the annual salary each month.

The preceding sketch shows the solution which the school employees of one medium-sized community found for their money and budgetary problems. It is only an example. The same solution has been found by several hundred school employee groups all over the United States and Canada who have also organized and effectively operated credit unions for their mutual benefit. Other employee groups have also found the same solution. What, then, is this new institution?

A credit union is a cooperative savings and loan association organized by a group of people with some common bond of association to provide themselves with an institution in which they can deposit savings, particularly small savings, and from which they can borrow at reasonable interest rates. A group as small as 100 can operate a successful credit union. The common bond of association is usually an employee group, but it may also be a church group, a lodge group, a labor union group, or the residents of a small community for example. A credit union is a corporation which is granted a charter in accordance with either Federal or State law, as the case may be, and is operated in accordance with either Federal or State regulations and is supervised by either Federal or State officials in much the same manner as banks or building and loan associations.

The organization of a credit union is relatively simple, and assistance is always readily available from the organized credit union movement. There is a Credit Union League in nearly every State. The larger leagues have field men whose duties include the organization of new credit unions. The National Education Association has a "Committee on Credit Unions," which can give organization assistance. There is also the Credit Union National Association with headquarters in Madison, Wis., which has field men available to help new credit unions get started. The Bureau of Federal Credit Unions has a staff of trained examiners to assist groups that choose a Federal charter whenever a volunteer or an employee of the League or Credit Union National Association is not available. Thus organization help is available merely for the asking.

Credit unions are cooperatives. They are managed by a board of directors which is elected by the members at an annual meeting, each member having one vote regardless of his investment. The officers are elected by the board of directors from among their number. The members of the credit union also elect a credit committee, which has the responsibility of approving loan applications, and a supervisory committee, which has the responsibility of auditing the records of the credit union periodically. A credit union is directly managed by the treasurer. He is the only member of the official family who can be compensated for his services, and he may only be compensated by vote of the members of the annual meeting. Treasurers of young credit unions are usually underpaid, and many perform their duties largely as a service to their fellow employees. Treasurers of well-established credit unions are often paid at commercial rates for their time. All other credit union officials donate their time for the good of the organization.

A well-managed credit union provides its members with personal loans at a substantially lower interest rate than would otherwise be available to them, and at the same time pays its shareholders a dividend rate materially higher than is available elsewhere with equal security. These financial aspects of the credit union are important, but not as important as its ethical, moral, and spiritual aspects. It is a democratic institution which conforms with the fundamental principles of our form of government in every way and supports that form of government in all of its activities.

Credit unions are relatively new institutions and as a result are not generally known or understood by the public. Superintendents, principals, and teachers can serve the public by including credit union materials in appropriate courses of study, such as business training, home economics, economics, and senior problems.

*Dr. Strain is Treasurer of the Compton District Schools Federal Credit Union, Past President of the California Credit Union League, and a director of the Credit Union National Association.

How To Obtain U. S. Government Films, 1

by Seerley Reid, Chief, Visual Education Service, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AGENCY	KIND OF FILMS[1]	HOW TO BORROW OR RENT FILMS[2]	HOW TO PURCHASE FILMS	FOR FURTHER INFORMATION WRITE
Department of Agriculture	230 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips—on agriculture, conservation, forestry, home economics, and related subjects.	Borrow from Forest Service. Rent from USDA film libraries and from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 200 motion pictures from United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y. Purchase filmstrips from Photo Lab., 3825 Georgia Ave., Washington 11, D. C.	U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Information, Motion Picture Service, Washington 25, D. C.
Department of the Air Force	160 motion pictures and 70 filmstrips—public information and training films on various aviation subjects.	Borrow public information films from the Air Force. Rent training films from CAA film depositories and from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 70 motion pictures and 30 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
Department of the Army (including Corps of Engineers)	750 motion pictures and 90 filmstrips—public information, medical, and training films on various subjects.	Borrow public information and medical films from the Army. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 490 motion pictures and 55 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense Office of Public Information, 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.)	Rent from CAA film depositories.	Purchase 6 motion pictures and 3 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington 25, D. C.
Coast Guard (Department of the Treasury)	45 motion pictures and 45 filmstrips—public information and 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 30 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	70 motion pictures—about the Armed Forces.	Borrow from Army, Navy, and Air Force film libraries.	Purchase 50 films from UWF.	U. S. Department of Defense Office of Public Information, 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 Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 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 Interior, 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 Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington 25, D. C.
Institute of Inter-American Affairs (Foreign Operations 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 FOA.	Foreign Operations Administration, Washington 25, D. C.

The following chart explains how to borrow, rent, and purchase those motion pictures and filmstrips of the U. S. Government which were available for public use in the United States on January 1, 1955. Agencies with fewer than 10 such films have been omitted.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AGENCY	KIND OF FILMS[1]	HOW TO BORROW OR RENT FILMS[2]	HOW TO PURCHASE FILMS	FOR FURTHER INFORMATION WRITE
Office of Inter-American Affairs (terminated in 1946)	108 motion pictures on Latin America; 5 on Ohio.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints.	Purchase 66 films from UWF, 43 films from FOA.	U. S. Information Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
Bureau of Mines (Department 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.
Foreign Operations Administration	40 motion pictures—about United States 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.
Department of the Navy (including Marine Corps)	725 motion pictures and 200 filmstrips—public information and training films on various subjects.	Borrow public information films from the Navy and Marine Corps, aviation training films from CAA film libraries. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have purchased prints.	Purchase 575 motion pictures and 160 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Defense, Office of Public Information, Washington 25, D. C.
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics	30 motion pictures—on technical aeronautical subjects.	Borrow from NACA.	Obtain authorization from NACA.	National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Washington 25, D. C.
Public Health Service (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare)	150 motion pictures and 160 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 90 motion pictures and 75 filmstrips from UWF. Other films not for sale.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington 25, D. C.
U. S. Information Agency	60 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.
Veterans Administration	65 motion pictures and 6 filmstrips—mostly on medical subjects, some on VA activities and programs.	Borrow from VA.	Purchase 40 motion pictures from UWF. Other films not for sale.	Veterans Administration, VA Central Film Library, Washington 25, D. C.
Office of War Information, Domestic Branch (terminated in 1945)	32 motion pictures—on World War II activities.	Not for loan. Rent from 16-mm. film libraries that have acquired prints.	Purchase 28 motion pictures from UWF.	U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.
Office of War Information, Overseas Branch (terminated 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.

[1] See also "3,434 U. S. Government Films," Bulletin 1951: No. 21, compiled by USOE Visual Education Service and distributed by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 70 cents.

[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 Office, Washington 25, D. C. Price: 50 cents.

New Mental Health Insights——

——Implications for the Schools

by Hazel F. Gabbard,* Specialist for Extended School Services and Parent Education,
Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

ALTHOUGH there is a wide and increasing public interest in the field of mental health, there is still little understanding of what mental health is and how to maintain it. A well-known definition states: Mental health is directed toward bringing about a condition where each individual gives his best to the world and knows the deep satisfaction of a life richly and fully lived. In reaching this objective the schools have an important role as members of the mental health family.

Joined with the educators in this work are members of other related professions, such as psychiatrists, psychologists, nurses, sociologists, counselors, judges, clergymen, health and welfare workers. The problems of mental health cannot be solved by the experts of any one discipline. There is need for many professions to pool ideas to give breadth in outlook and independence in approaching the complexities of human life.

Releasing Human Resources

The mental health movement is based on the belief that we have no more begun to tap the the full possibilities of human development than we have begun to tap the resources of the rest of the natural world. Just as the results of scientific inquiry can enable us to use atomic power where we used water before, and the airplane can speed our travel across this country in a few hours, when the same distance took many weeks in the horse and buggy days, so we can apply our knowledge of human behavior to create greater untapped sources of human potentiality. Those who work with youth in the schools know that there are millions of children today who, if not actually stunted and deformed in mind and body, are nevertheless far from developing as they might develop with good care and education.

For Important Tasks

An important mental health task to which schools must give more attention is in helping youth face the drastic changes which are going on in the world and which bring with them physical and mental strain too heavy for some individuals to withstand. While it is probably true that the point where an individual may break down mentally is determined originally by the constitution he is born with, it is thought that this point can be greatly lowered by unwholesome ways of behaving which he picks up in his early life. Behavior like sulkiness, extreme shyness, oversensitiveness, self-pity, bullying, anger outbursts, bossiness, lying and stealing is evidence that a child isn't handling his life very well. If help can be brought to children in their early school years there is some hope of decreasing the number of people who become so maladjusted that they may need treatment in hospitals. It is in early identifying these needs of children that schools can make a tremendous contribution in the preventive work to be done.

The close link of mental health with education was highlighted at the Fifth International Congress on Mental Health, which recently convened in Toronto. An eminent educator from Egypt speaking before a plenary session said: "It is indeed very elementary to know that mental health can only be achieved through education and that education which does not lead to mental health is definitely wasteful and useless. By this I mean, that in the present state of civilization, mental health without education is not possible and education not leading to mental health is not justifiable."

Good School Described

Dr. El-Koussy, of Ibrahim University of Cairo, in describing a good school drew this picture of a traditional and modern school:

"In a really good school they have abolished the old desk which was very much like a combination of a cell and a straitjacket. Such desks were designed in such a way as to make the pupils unable to move and yet they can receive with their eyes drawings and symbols from the blackboard no matter how meaningful or meaningless they are, and with their ears some sounds, no matter how sensible or senseless they may be. This is a dictating, obeying atmosphere; it is a prison atmosphere. The material taught in the traditional school is mostly verbal material which stands as vague symbols for somebody else's experience.

"In other words, the pupil in a traditional school lives as a parasite on somebody else's firsthand experiences. That is one of the reasons why very few people become really mature. *The majority suck the food from their mother's breasts when they are babies and in the same manner they suck information from the books of the grownups when they are pupils.* In some places when they grow up further they expect the government to feed them, clothe them, shelter them, and take care of all their problems. Such people are not fit for a really free democratic community which calls for a good deal of active purposeful cooperation and active purposeful fair competition. They fit in admirably in a master-slave situation.

"In a good school there is very little dictating and very little passive obeying. There is free and active searching, free and active doing, and active, creative construct-

*Miss Gabbard was the official representative of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, at the Fifth International Congress on Mental Health held in Toronto, Canada, August 14–21, 1954.

ing. The pupils discuss their problems together and with their teacher. They carry out experiments to find out. They even design their own experiments and when they get stuck they make their own laboratory apparatus. They question the books, the newspapers and the various sources of information and search them with enthusiasm. The pupils construct their boats in the workshop for the boat race. They make the shelves for their library and for their exhibits. When they want to act a play, they sometimes read all the plays available to them; they study them; they subject them to a good deal of literary criticism; they study themselves and their fellows to decide who is most suitable for this or that role. They play games and music and entertain each other. They make their own stage curtains and stage dress. They print their own journal, their invitation cards and paint their posters. They even sell tickets for their shows to raise funds to help needy pupils or improve on the school. They make a practical study of the neighboring or other communities and establish strong relations which are usually useful to both sides. They even meet as court to correct each other and correct the school. In this way they fulfill the three criteria of a good society; first, the society being able to understand and criticize itself fully and freely; and secondly, the society being able to assimilate and incorporate the creations of its leaders, and thirdly, the society being progressive, productive and useful to itself and other societies.

"The pupils in such a school are alive, happy, active, occupied, creative, responsible, cooperative, independent and mature. They work very hard and that makes them very happy and lively because through their activity they develop self-confidence and self-understanding which are realistic, productive, directive and self-perpetuating.

* * * * *

"We find that the good school emphasizes the smooth transition from school life to community life. At one end the home curve and the school curve must make one smooth continuous curve, and similarly at the other end the community curve and the school curve must also make one smooth continuous curve. This implies one principle and that is the principle of security and confidence; but in actual practice it also implies a very large number of problems. The main problem arises from the fact that a parent or a teacher who has been brought up in the past is asked to handle the child in the present and prepare him for life in the future. The past has gone, the present is going and the future will soon be gone. The gravity of the problem is growing bigger and bigger because the rate of change is accelerating all the time, although the rate as well as the acceleration varies a great deal from society to society.

"In every society there are some people who try to resist change, and who think that security lives in conservatism. There are others who encourage creativeness, development, and progress. The conservatists like to use education largely as a means of preserving traditional culture. But within that framework we have seen some brains which get petrified to the extent that they do not know how to protect and preserve their own tradition within such a very quickly changing society. Such brains are sometimes in some places taken down from the museum shelves and there are attempts to have them dusted, activated, reactivated, and modernized, but the results are usually monstrous. I am not advocating here a breakaway from the past but I am attacking the tendency to stagnation, petrifaction, and loss of life. In fact a good firm background built up from the past and present elements is a great help for future development. What I am trying to emphasize is the big change taking place and the enormous change that is to be expected."

Teacher's Role—A School Responsibility

Speaking of the dilemma which teachers face the world over in helping youth maintain mental health, Dr. El-Koussy spoke of the pressures placed on them:

"The teachers are of course agents to the whole society irrespective of its divisions and subdivisions. For this, they have to concentrate on method; general ability to think, collection of data, weighing of pros and cons, and helping pupils to arrive at their own conclusions. This is usually only possible with the very intelligent who form a small proportion. But even when it is possible for the teacher to take that attitude at a certain stage it is usually not made possible for him all along. The individual is usually besieged with highly erected walls of ideas and values.

* * * * *

"It is obvious that all these factors make it difficult for the individual to think on his own. What I have just said is summarized in the following statement: "*The thought I think is not my thought, but is the thought of one who thought I ought to think his thoughts.*' "

In visualizing the good school this educator would place emphasis not alone on the 3R's but on human relations, the education of the whole personality. "It is not a mind, not a body that we have to educate, but a man and we cannot divide him," sums up the task of the school.

For a number of years educators have believed that youth should adjust to the environment in which they live. Dr. Sidney Smith, president of the University of Toronto, in opening the Congress sessions, questioned the wisdom of forcing the individual "to adjust to the norms and habits of an existing society." Such an education, he believes, tends toward deadening uniformity. "In this 20th century there is no society that does not need individuals who will be maladjusted to its norms and habits; who will be searching and critical; who will measure the life that they see against a standard of eternal values; who will seek practical ways through education and discussion, suggestion and compromise, to attack the existing inequities of their society and to strengthen the existing forces for good."

Scientific Study Needed

There is need for the application of science to the problems besetting all who are concerned with mental health. But in the search for objectivity in measurements, exactness, scientific integrity, let us not lose sight of a correlation that cannot be reduced to a formula; that is the correlation *beween mental and spiritual health.*

"As lovers of wisdom we must abandon neutrality and we must have the courage to express disagreement. . . . We hear much these days of tolerance. . . . But the cult of tolerance produces congenial, polite groups who listen eagerly to every conceivable side of a question and never make up their minds.

"A young man graduating from Harvard Law School recently made this observation of youth today: 'Most of us have been brought up in a well-mannered atmosphere of tolerance; we have been trained to respect the beliefs we do not ourselves share. The sort of indiscriminate tolerance that robs its adherents of the power to affirm their own beliefs seems to me to be a greater menace in many ways than most forms of prejudice. I think we are in danger of

drawing our own convictions in a great swamp of sweetness and light by being so infernally kind to our neighbors . . . rarely do we say what we believe to be right; instead we say what we know will be pleasant.' "

* * * * *

"Let us not forget the words of Jefferson: 'That every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle.' And let us remember, too, that life is not a popularity contest and that most of our great achievements have boiled up out of clashes between tough-minded people.

"Tough-minded people, tough-minded individuals are the bane of the behaviorist, the doom of the determinist and the stumbling block of the statistician. They are not predictable. Surely that very unpredictability, that uniqueness, is something exceedingly valuable for human association, for human nature and for mental health. If adjustment could be attained simply by injecting some wonder drug that would iron out the eccentricities of individuals, the price would be too high."

Mental Health Goals

Dr. Smith gave this word of caution: "There are those in mental health who look on the future in terms of more controls, more conditioning and more manipulation of human beings by the specialists. Yet, if one has a great liking for the unorganized, inconsistent human race as it is, one will oppose any concepts of mental health in public affairs that would impose on future generations anything in the nature of uniformity."

Another challenge to mental health thought came from Sir Geoffrey Vickers, a great health leader of Great Britain, who warned that it was dangerous for the layman to think of the role of science as the removal of hazards rather than to fit people to face them. Speaking of developments in the health field, he emphasized that preventive medicine has shifted from the lowering of hazards to the raising of immunity, and in doing so it has shifted *from things which can be done for people to things people can do for themselves.*

Sir Geoffrey Vickers thought that in equating man with his environment it has been the pride of progressive man to make his environment *fit* him. "To accept the environment and learn to be equal to it is by no means orthodox, but is refreshingly sane. By all means let us reduce the occasions for stress; but stress will remain a characteristic of human life and it may be that if we could remove it, we should lose what most we need. *Security is not to be found in any aspect of life by eliminating challenge, but only in an inner assurance which no challenge can disturb; and this is outstandingly true in the field of mental health.*

* * * * *

"Life is an individual affair for each one of us. We cannot fight each other's battles, feel each other's pain or see each other's visions. The social condition which is integral to us does not make us less than our individual selves. For each of us, as well as for society, and posterity, *the need to struggle is the chance to grow.*"

Here are recorded some of the highlights of international leaders in mental health which have implications for the schools. Educators may find it worthwhile to ponder these ideas in order to refocus our professional efforts to meet the mental health needs of children and youth. These statements from leaders in other countries, who view the world from a different perspective, present a point of view with a freshness and clarity that people in the United States need to stimulate their own thinking and doing.

Elementary Teachers Salaries UP Secondary Teachers Salaries DOWN

by Lester B. Herlihy, Specialist, Education Statistics, Research and Statistical Standards, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

SALARIES paid to elementary school teachers were increased 5.8 percent from 1949–50 to 1952–53.

In dollars, the amount of the increase was $242.

On the other hand there was a decline of 1.8 percent over the same period of time in salaries paid high school teachers, exclusive of those teaching vocational high schools. The decrease amounted to $85. Salaries of teachers in vocational high schools gained 3.6 percent, or $189.

This information is based upon an Office of Education study of teacher salaries in 158 cities of different population size in four geographic regions. The figures have been adjusted to the value of the 1952–53 dollar.

Forty-two cities of 10,000 to 25,000 population reported the largest elementary teacher salary increase—9.7 percent, representing an average rise in salary of $310. The largest salary increase for high school teachers was 7 percent, reported by 33 cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population.

Cities in the West reported the highest percentage of salary increase over the 3-year period. In this region the upturn was 12 percent, averaging $460. High school teacher salaries in this region also increased 7.8 percent, or $348.

Los Angeles, Chicago, Detroit, New York, and Philadelphia, all cities with a population of one million or more, report an increase of $227, or 4.9 percent, in salaries of elementary school teachers from 1949–50 to 1952–53. High school teachers' salaries in these cities declined 4.8 percent during the same 3-year period. At the same time the salaries of teachers in vocational high schools in these cities increased 4.9 percent or $251.

It should be pointed out that "disposable personal income," which is personal income after payment of all taxes and which has been adjusted to the 1952–53 dollar value, increased from $1,442 to $1,541, or 6.9 percent, between 1949–50 and 1952–53. It is also pointed out that teachers in this study are defined as teachers and other instructional staff members such as librarians and guidance personnel, and psychological personnel. Supervisors and principals are not included in this analysis.

Average salary of teachers in full-time day schools in 158 city school systems, by region and city-sized group: 1949–50 and 1952–53

Region and group	Number of identical city school systems reported	Average salary of teacher [1]									Percentage of change between 1949–50 and 1952–53, adjusted to 1952–53 dollar	
		1949–50 (adjusted to the 1952–53 dollar) [2]						1952–53				
		Elementary [3]		High school [4]		Vocational high school [5]						
		Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Nonadjusted dollar	Adjusted dollar	Elementary [1]	High school [2]	Vocational high [3]	Elementary	High school
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Total (including cities with a million population and more)	158	$3,719	$4,187	$4,254	$4,791	$4,646	$5,232	$4,429	$4,706	$5,421	5.8	−1.8
All regions:												
Group I (cities of 100,000 to 999,999 population)	34	3,397	3,826	3,946	4,444	4,188	4,717	4,126	4,496	4,767	8.0	1.2
Group II (cities 25,000 to 99,999 population)	44	3,129	3,524	3,605	4,060	3,664	4,126	3,698	4,122	3,694	4.9	1.5
Group III (cities of 10,000 to 24,999 population)	42	2,833	3,191	3,315	3,734	.....	.....	3,501	3,957	.....	9.7	6.0
Group IV (cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population)	33	2,599	2,928	3,011	3,391	.....	.....	3,171	3,625	.....	8.3	6.9
Total	153	3,300	3,716	3,810	4,291	4,165	4,691	3,990	4,359	4,721	7.4	1.6
Northeast:												
Group I [6]	7	3,580	4,032	4,077	4,592	5,381	6,060	4,488	4,732	5,001	11.3	3.0
Group II	17	3,234	3,642	3,618	4,075	3,664	4,126	3,900	4,247	3,924	7.4	4.2
Group III	17	3,007	3,386	3,481	3,920	.....	.....	3,763	4,175	.....	11.1	6.5
Group IV	6	2,524	2,843	3,129	3,524	.....	.....	3,193	3,619	.....	12.3	2.7
Total	47	3,407	3,835	3,870	4,357	4,243	4,778	4,214	4,515	4,812	9.8	3.6
North Central:												
Group I [6]	12	3,435	3,868	4,124	4,644	4,299	4,842	4,240	4,731	4,831	9.6	1.9
Group II	14	3,113	3,506	3,587	4,040	....	.....	3,732	4,349	....	6.6	7.7
Group III	17	2,723	3,067	3,213	3,618	.....	.....	3,357	3,874	.....	9.5	7.1
Group IV	15	2,655	2,990	2,920	3,289	.....	.....	3,336	3,730	.....	11.6	13.4
Total	58	3,319	3,738	3,890	4,381	4,299	4,842	4,086	4,538	4,831	9.3	3.6
South:												
Group I [6]	9	3,224	3,631	3,626	4,084	3,914	4,408	3,653	3,844	4,163	.6	−6.2
Group II	7	2,754	3,102	3,082	3,471	.....	.....	3,141	3,254	....	1.3	−6.7
Group III	3	2,577	2,902	2,741	3,087	.....	.....	2,974	3,129	.....	2.5	1.4
Group IV	6	2,384	2,685	2,475	2,787	.....	.....	2,880	2,907	.....	7.3	4.3
Total	25	3,123	3,517	3,512	3,955	3,914	4,408	3,543	3,720	4,163	.7	−6.3
West:												
Group I [6]	6	3,427	3,859	4,007	4,513	3,939	4,436	4,420	5,004	5,182	14.5	10.9
Group II	6	3,436	3,870	4,669	4,583	.....	.....	4,061	4,572	.....	4.9	−.2
Group III	5	2,885	3,249	3,485	3,925	.....	.....	3,626	4,034	.....	11.6	2.7
Group IV	6	2,757	3,105	3,463	3,960	.....	.....	3,160	3,947	.....	1.8	1.2
Total	23	3,392	3,820	3,981	4,483	3,939	4,436	4,280	4,831	5,182	12.0	7.8
Systems in cities of a million population and more:												
Los Angeles, Calif.	1	4,003 [7]	4,508	4,561	5,137	.....	.....	[7] 4,797	5,368	.....	6.4	4.5
Chicago, Ill.	1	4,123	4,643	5,173	5,826	6,109	6,880	4,623	5,152	6,457	−.4	−13.1
Detroit, Mich.	1	4,414 [8]	4,971	4,880	5,496	6,194	6,976	[8] 5,079	5,618	6,780	2.0	2.2
New York, N. Y.	1	4,346	4,894	4,898	5,516	4,797	5,402	5,153	5,951	5,772	5.3	7.9
Philadelphia, Pa.	1	3,278	3,692	3,861	4,348	3,592	4,045	4,316	4,733	4,422	16.9	8.9
Total	5	4,148	4,671	4,744	5,343	4,867	5,481	4,898	5,108	5,750	4.9	−4.6

[1] Does not include salary expenditure for principals and supervisors; includes school librarians and guidance and psychological personnel.

[2] Based on Consumer Price Index figures series A1 (1947–49=100) Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

[3] Includes kindergarten teachers.

[4] "High school" includes all the various types of high school organizations, for example: Junior, junior-senior, senior, and regular 4-year.

[5] Includes trade and technical high schools.

[6] Cities of 100,000 to 999,999 populations, excludes the 5 cities of 1,000,000 population and more.

[7] Includes "special welfare high schools" and "special high schools" for the handicapped.

[8] Includes intermediate, comprehensive and commercial, trade and technical high school organizations.

Nationwide Financial Accounting Project Gets Under Way

FIVE NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS are cooperating with the Office of Education in the development of a financial accounting manual for local and State school systems. These organizations are American Association of School Administrators, National School Boards Association, Department of Rural Education of the NEA, Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, and Council of Chief State School Officers. On September 30, at the call of Commissioner Brownell, the executive secretaries of these organizations met in the Office of Education to develop an overall plan for the financial accounting project.

Decisions Made

At this meeting important decisions were reached on the conduct of the project, the ways in which each organization would share in its development, and methods which would be used in its implementation. The project plan calls for the participation of hundreds of designated representatives of the cooperating agencies. These representatives, at national and regional conferences, will make the decisions which determine the contents of the accounting manual. Staff members of the Office of Education will act as facilitating agents in the compilation of the materials and preparation of the handbook but will not vote in deciding the issues involving the contents.

The second step in the development of the project was a national planning conference held on November 22 and 23. Here the representatives of the cooperating agencies decided significant issues involving the general format of the proposed manual as well as technical issues regarding its contents. General agreement was reached on the underlying purpose of the manual. The manual will be designed to serve local and State school officials as the basic reference in the field of financial accounting for public education in the United States.

The proposed financial accounting handbook will fit in the general plan of the record and reporting series and be identified as Handbook II. *Handbook I, The*

Common Core of State Educational Information, was published in 1953. It contains the items with definitions that every State department of education should have available. The third and fourth handbooks in the series will deal with personnel accounting and property accounting, respectively.

Practical Handbook Insured

In the immediate future the staff in the Office of Education will compile the material for preliminary Handbook II in accordance with the instructions of the planning conference. School business officials from local school systems and representatives from agencies such as the Census Bureau will provide technical advice and suggestions in the preparation of the preliminary document. The preliminary document will be considered at a national conference, and then it will be revised. It will later be considered at regional conferences throughout the United States and again at a national conference. Hundreds of persons in key positions in local and State school systems who will be its users will participate in the development and perfecting of this manual. It is hoped that this method will insure the production of a handbook which is practical and usable by the entire profession.

Educational Television

(*Continued from page 84*)

with pictures and complete graphs of syllogism and sequences, he took them back to his classes and said he would never teach logic in the old way again. Not many can use models as Frank Baxter uses them, or handle an interview or documentary as effectively as Edward R. Murrow. We can, however, *improve* over our methods by observing them. And that is where the master teacher comes in—he should simply be the teacher of teachers; it is true, he can teach millions if millions want to see and hear him. But let us teach the thousands who expectantly want something besides entertainment from their television sets or let us use television to illustrate our regular curricular subjects in a way that we cannot do in the classroom. Possibly, the best test of the use of any scientific aid to learning is whether it can do what we cannot do ourselves. In this test, television takes its place alongside the other audio and visual aids we already use. If intelligently directed, it will not be found wanting.

American Education On a New Horizon

(*Continued from page 82*)

Science has given us the means for alleviating the conditions which I have described. Two opposing groups in the world are in competition to fill the vacuum. On the one hand there is the Communist world dominated by the most ruthless dictatorship ever known. Their scheme is to enslave the minds of all people everywhere and to exploit them in building a worldwide dictatorship. The scheme includes America. Its methods are intrigue, internal revolution, chaos, frustration, and starvation if necessary.

The United States is cooperating with other free-world countries, both through the United Nations and our own bilateral programs, in the development of local leadership for the alleviation of the miseries of millions of people whose countries have not yet gained their economic and social potentialities. This then is the new frontier for American educators—for men experienced in agriculture, health, industry, and engineering. Basic to our technical assistance in all of these areas is the concept of education as fundamental to improvement in agriculture, health, industry, public administration, and other areas of economic and social development. It is equally fundamental that education be used as an instrument of freedom—that men and women who for generations have known the evils of suppression may be liberated through their own power.

The method of helping these people is essentially one of sharing ideas. It is not a give-away program. The purpose is to share our skills, knowledge, and freedom with those who are impoverished in body, heart, and spirit.

America alone cannot lead the world out of the great despair into which the science of war has delivered mankind. We can be of great help providing we dust off the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights and let the world know that they continue to apply—at home and abroad. Moreover, we need to approach this task humbly and in the spirit of that Great Teacher of our heritage who proclaimed, "But he that is greatest among you shall be your servant."

NATO ESSAY COMPETITION, 1955

A FREE ROUND-TRIP air passage, with a week's accommodation, to NATO headquarters in Paris, SHAPE, and other NATO installations will go to the winner of a nationwide essay competition. The American Council on NATO, a group of citizens organized to support the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, is conducting the competition among two age groups: those under 19 and those between 19 and 30 years old. The winning essay from each age group in the United States will be placed in competition with those from each of other member NATO nations. The international winner in each age group will get the top prize. The Council is offering additional prizes to United States winners.

Contestants may select one of three prescribed subjects. In not more than 3,000 words, they may (*a*) contrast the North Atlantic Treaty with other multilateral alliances in history; or (*b*) examine the possibilities of the NATO as an instrument for political stability and well-being; or (*c*) write a letter addressed to an imaginary young Communist behind the Iron Curtain dealing with the accusation that NATO is part of a capitalist conspiracy against "true" democracy, and explain the way of life which NATO exists to defend.

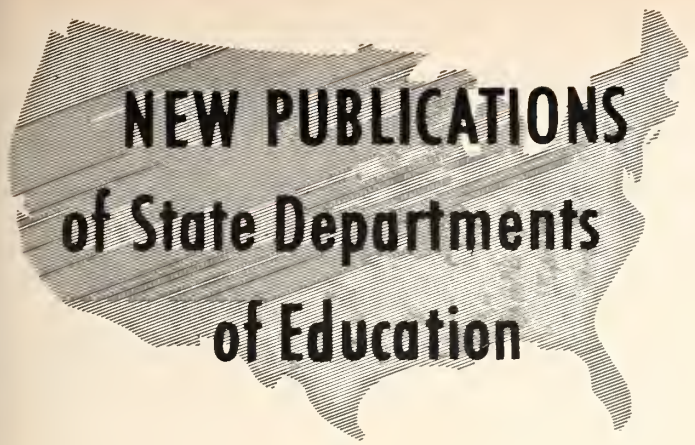
Entries from within the United States must be submitted by April 10, 1955; those from outside the United States, by March 25, 1955. Information about the NATO Essay Competition may be obtained from:

Miss Frances Barry,
Assistant Secretary, American Council on NATO,
8101 Empire State Building,
New York 1, N. Y.

"Believe, Belong, Build"

The 1955 Girl Scout Week, March 6–12, was developed on the theme "Believe, Belong, Build." This special week was scheduled to include March 12, the anniversary of the day in 1912 when Juliette Gordon Low called together the little group of girls in Savannah, Ga., to form the first Girl Scout troop.

About 1,750,000 girls are enrolled in the Girl Scouts of the U. S. A. They are guided by a half million devoted men and women who are registered members and by countless others who work with and for the Girl Scouts. Since the organization was set up with a little group of neighborhood girls, it has grown into a nationwide influence for better citizenship among girls and women.



by Willis C. Brown, Specialist, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE accompanying lists, entitled "Elementary Education Aids" and "Secondary Education Aids," are the second in a series of recent publications of State departments of education.

Increasingly we find that similar educational problems appear in various parts of the country. Their analyses and solutions, governed by local conditions, written in bulletin form, are of prime importance to many.

This is a random listing of publications contributed by the State departments of education. No evaluation has been made. It should not be inferred that the reports are all considered to be of top importance by the States concerned. Some, indeed, are, but there are many other reasons for issuing publications.

Correspondence regarding any publication should be with the publishing agency listed under each State heading. Some items may be for sale, others may be out of stock. No copies are available from the Office of Education in Washington.

Elementary Education Aids

Delaware

TEACHING TO LIVE. *Bulletin No. 84. 1954. 171 p.* State Department of Public Instruction, Dover. Prepared to help classroom teachers in the fields of health, physical education, and safety. Discusses organization and administration of these areas and presents instructional materials.

Florida

MUSIC FOR FLORIDA CHILDREN. *Bulletin No. N40. 1954. 129 p.* State Department of Education, Tallahassee. Discusses what constitutes the music education program and presents a 3-year plan for initiating and developing such a program.

Maryland

SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN MARYLAND. *Vol. 33, No. 2. 1954. 107 p.* State Department of Education, Baltimore. Presents purpose and function of the library in elementary and secondary schools. Outlines specific services and responsibilities of administrators, librarians, and teachers in developing a program offering rich learning opportunities. Recommends policies and practices for the inservice education of librarians and teachers.

Massachusetts

PHONICS AT WORK. (*Supplement to Reading Section, Massachusetts Curriculum Guide.*) *1954. 46 p.* State Department of Education, Boston. Quotes from research findings in discussing the teaching of phonics, principles of teaching, phonics in relation to the various levels of skills and abilities, and phonetic power in relation to spelling ability. Contains summary and bibliography.

Mississippi

A SUGGESTED PROGRAM OF ORAL COMMUNICATION FOR MISSISSIPPI SCHOOLS. *1953. No. 139. 174 p.* State Department of Education, Jackson. Part I discusses elementary school problems of reading, speech improvement, testing, the integrated program, teaching aids, and suggested criteria for evaluation in relation to oral communication. Part II deals with similar secondary school problems.

Washington

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE EDUCATION—LANGUAGE ARTS. *1954. 32 p.* Office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia. "Prepared to assist elementary school faculties in studying and developing their programs for the improvement of communication." Emphasizes reading and oral and written expression. Bibliography.

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE EDUCATION—WORKING WITH NUMBERS. *1954. 56 p.* Designed to encourage creative teaching and serve as a basis for developing arithmetic skills and planning content to teach. Tells how to relate arithmetic to other experiences and how to teach arithmetic in schools with combined grades. Bibliography.

West Virginia

COAL MINING AND OTHER INDUSTRIES IN WEST VIRGINIA. *A Curriculum Bulletin for Teachers. Grades 1–12. 1954. 245 p.* State Department of Education, Charleston. Provides resource material for teaching about West Virginia's industries, with suggestions for teaching at the various grade levels. Bibliography.

Secondary Education Aids

Alaska

ENGLISH FOR ALASKA HIGH SCHOOLS. *Bulletin No. 2 (Revised). 1954. 106 p.* Department of Education, Juneau. Presents outline for standard 4-year English course and outlines for public speaking, journalism, and dramatics courses.

Florida

A GUIDE TO TEACHING SPEECH IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *Bulletin No. 34A (Revised). 1954. 100 p.* State Department of Education, Tallahassee. Includes units on developing speech awareness, voice and diction, listening, conversation, group discussion, parliamentary law, extempore speaking, debate, oral reading, radio, and dramatics. Units may be used in sequence for speech course or separately in other courses. Contains suggestions for speech program in seventh and eighth grades.

Tennessee

A REPORT OF THE STATE STEERING COMMITTEE OF THE TENNESSEE PRINCIPALS' STUDY COUNCIL. *1954. 24 p.* State Department of Education, Nashville. Briefly describes the studies recently completed by the Principals' Study Council and lists troublesome unsolved problems and plans for an action program for 1954–55.

West Virginia

CLASSIFIED HIGH SCHOOLS AND APPROVED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS. *1954. 43 p.* State Department of Education, Charleston. A list of West Virginia public and and private secondary schools approved for the school year 1953–54.

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.)

Applied Principles of Educational Sociology: A Functional Approach to Understanding Community and Educative Processes. Edited by Harold R. Bottrell. Harrisburg, Pa., The Stackpole Company, 1954. 392 p. $4.50.

Arithmetic—Children Use It! By Edwina Deans. Washington, D. C., Association for Childhood Education International, 1954. 56 p. Illus. (Bulletin No. 94 of the Association for Childhood Education International.) 75 cents.

Each One Teach One: Frank Laubach, Friend to Millions. By Marjorie Medary. New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1954. 227 p. Illus. $3.00.

Educators Guide To Free Tapes, Scripts and Transcriptions. Compiled and Edited by Walter A. Wittich and Gertie L. Hanson. Randolph, Wisconsin, Educators Progress Service, 1955. 144 p. $4.75.

Evaluation In General Education. Edited by Paul L. Dressel. Dubuque, Iowa, Wm. C. Brown Co., 1954. 333 p. $4.

Films for Public Libraries. Selected by a Committee of the American Library Association Audio-Visual Board. Chicago, American Library Association, 1955. 60 p. $1.50.

Financing Adult Education in America's Public Schools. By Edward B. Olds. Washington, D. C., Adult Education Association of the U. S. A., 1954. 20 p. 25 cents.

A Foundation for Art Education. By Manuel Barkan. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 235 p. $4.00.

Foundations of Secondary Education. By Carl G. F. Franzen. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 492 p. $4.50.

The Functional Body Measurements of School Age Children. A Handbook for Manufacturers, Design Engineers, Architects, and School Officials for Use in Planning School Furniture, Equipment, and Buildings. Prepared by W. Edgar Martin; Measuring and Analysis Data by Fred P. Thieme. Chicago, Ill., 1954. 90 p. Illus. $1.00. (Address: National School Service Institute, 27 East Monroe St., Chicago, Ill.)

The High School Department Head In Business Education. By Edward H. Goldstein. Cincinnati, Ohio, South-Western Publishing Company, 1954. 80 p. (Monograph 89.)

A History of Teachers College, Columbia University. By Lawrence A. Cremin, David A. Shannon, and Mary Evelyn Townsend. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. 289 p. Illus. $4.25.

Growth of Art in American Schools. By Frederick M. Logan. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 310 p. $3.50.

The Magic World of Books. By Charlemae Rollins. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 40 p. Illus. (Junior Life Adjustment Booklet.) 50 cents.

Need A Lift? Educational Opportunities for Children of Veterans. Indianapolis, Indiana, Scholarship Information Service, National Child Welfare Division, The American Legion, 1954. 56 p.

101 Questions About Public Education. Chicago, Ill., National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1954. 95 p. Illus. $1.00.

Oral Decision-Making: Principles of Discussion and Debate. By Waldo W. Braden and Earnest Brandenburg. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1955. 572 p. Illus. $4.75.

Physical Education for High School Boys and Girls—A Handbook of Sports, Athletics, and Recreation Activities. Washington 6, D. C. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1955. 384 p. $3.50.

Reaching Teen-Agers Through Group Work and Recreation Programs. Observations on Work with Teen-agers in Agencies Cooperating with the Youth Board. New York. New York City Youth Board, 1954. 43 p. Illus. (Youth Board Monograph No. 1.)

The School and The Community. Educational and Public Relations. By J. E. Grinnell and Raymond J. Young. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 444 p. Illus. $5.50.

Sponsored Research Policy of Colleges and Universities. A Report of the Committee on Institutional Research Policy. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1954. 95 p. $1.50.

Sportsmanlike Driving. (Third, Revised, Edition) Washington, D. C., American Automobile Association, 1955. 480 p. Illus. $2.10 to schools.

Staff Relations in School Administration. Washington, D. C., American Association of School Administrators, 1955. 470 p. (Thirty-third Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators.) $5.00.

Starting The Second Half Century. Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee for the Year Ending September 30, 1954. By Gertrude Folks Zimand. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1954. 18 p. Single copy free.

With Perspective on Human Relations. A Study of Peer Group Dynamics in an Eighth Grade. By Hilda Taba. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1955. 155 p. (Studies in Intergroup Relations.) $1.75.

Technical Recommendations for Achievement Tests. By Committee on Test Standards, American Educational Research Association and Committee on Test Standards, National Council on Measurements Used in Education. Washington, D. C., American Educational Research Association, National Education Association, 1955. 36 p. $1.00.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1955

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

Health Abroad a Challenge to Americans: An Opportunity for Nurses. Gives objectives of the nursing program, typical country programs, in Indochina, Jordan, Peru, and Greece, and tells how to join the overseas health program. Public Health Service. 1954. 20 cents.

Health Abroad a Challenge to Americans: An Opportunity for Sanitary Engineers. Describes technical cooperation, the major problems, sanitary engineers on the job, and appointments and assignments. Public Health Service. 1954. 20 cents.

Health Abroad a Challenge to Americans: Brazil—Twelve Years of Progress. Gives information relating to Brazil, land of the future, United States operations mission to Brazil, Operation Amazon—development of local health services, sanitation, and keys to a healthy future in Brazil. Public Health Service. 1954. 20 cents.

Health Abroad a Challenge to Americans: Door to International Health, Training, and Education. Presents information relating to the Foreign Operations Administration-Public Health Service education and training program, the international participant, the program, and training facilities abroad. Public Health Service. 1954. 20 cents.

Training Personnel for Work With Juvenile Delinquents. This report is concerned with one of the most important and difficult-to-solve problems in this field: That of providing education and training for certain key groups of personnel—mainly in courts and institutions—who work directly with delinquents. Children's Bureau. 1954. 35 cents.

Your Premature Baby. A pamphlet for parents who have a premature baby in the hospital. Children's Bureau. 1954. 10 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

Care and Management of Dairy Cows. Revised 1954. 20 cents.

First Aid Guide, Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1954. 20 cents.

Food for the Family with Young Children. Presents information relating to food to fit the family, planning meals, food for the expectant mother, a family's food plan for a week, family's food supply for a week, and menus for a week. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Our Forest Resources, What They Are and What They Mean to Us. 1954. 20 cents.

Protecting the Forests from Fire. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of Commerce

Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1954. 75th Anniversary Edition. 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, 77 agencies of the Government, and 46 private firms and research organizations cooperate in furnishing their statistics and in reviewing the material each year. $3.75.

Department of Defense

The Bill of Rights, You and Your USA Series 9. Office of Armed Forces Information and Education. 1954. 10 cents.

How to Buy Surplus Personal Property from the U. S. Army, U. S. Navy, U. S. Air Force, U. S. Marine Corps. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of the Interior

Arkansas, A National Wildlife Refuge. 1954. 15 cents.

Department of State

How Foreign Policy is Made. Describes the roles of the President and Congress, the State Department, and the average citizen in the formulation of our foreign policies. 1954. 15 cents.

Foreign Relations of the United States, 1938, Volume 3, The Far East. 1954. Cloth, $3.50.

Our Southern Partners: The Story of Our Latin American Relations. 1954. 25 cents.

Your Opinion Counts. This pamphlet describes the methods of communication between the State Department and the American public, and the importance attached to the views of individual Americans and organizations. 1954. 10 cents.

Office of Education

The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends. By Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumnitz. Bulletin 1954, No. 7. 25 cents.

Cooperative Education in the United States. By Henry H. Armsby. Bulletin 1954, No. 11. 25 cents.

Curriculum Materials in High-School Mathematics. By Kenneth E. Brown. Bulletin 1954, No. 9. 20 cents.

Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight. By Gertrude M. Lewis. Bulletin 1954, No. 10. 35 cents.

Factors Affecting the Improvement of Secondary Education. Edited by Howard H. Cummings, J. Dan Hull, John R. Ludington, and Berenice Mallory. Circular No. 404, 1954. 70 cents.

Federal Funds for Education, 1952–53 and 1953–54. By Clayton D. Hutchins, Albert R. Munse, and Edna D. Booher. Bulletin 1954, No. 14. 45 cents.

Following Graduates into Teaching. By Effie G. Bathurst and Jane Franseth. Bulletin 1954, No. 6. 25 cents.

Home Economics in Schools and Colleges of the U. S. A. Misc. 3306 Rev. 3. November 1954. Free.

How Children Can Be Creative. By Wilhelmina Hill, Helen K. Mackintosh, and Arne Randall. Bulletin 1954, No. 12. 15 cents.

List of Educational AM and FM Radio and Television Stations by State and City. Prepared by Gertrude G. Broderick. January 1955. Free.

A Look Ahead in Secondary Education, Education for Life Adjustment. Report of the Second Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth. Bulletin 1954, No. 4. 35 cents.

State Certification Requirements for Teachers of Exceptional Children. By Romaine P. Mackie and Lloyd M. Dunn. Bulletin 1954, No. 1. 25 cents.

Statistics of Libraries in Institutions of Higher Education, by Type of Institution and by Size of Enrollment: 1951–52. Prepared by Willard O. Mishoff and Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 415, October 1954. Free.

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

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

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Two New Publications of the Office of Education

1—Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight

PART ONE of this 99-page publication by Gertrude M. Lewis, Office of Education Specialist for the Upper Elementary Grades, reports results of research into characteristics and needs of children commonly found in Grades 7 and 8. It projects some characteristics of desirable programs for seventh- and eighth-grade children.

PART TWO reports some of the things 54 school systems throughout the Nation are doing for children in these grades. Also presented are some of the ways in which schools work with parents and the community.

(Bulletin 1954, No. 10) . . . . *35 cents*

2—Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis

This Office of Education publication was prepared by Walter H. Gaumnitz and a committee of other Secondary School Specialists on the Office of Education staff, including John R. Ludington, Kenneth E. Brown, and Simon A. McNeely. In six parts, the 71-page report, in SCHOOL-LIFE-size page, and utilizing an effective analytical graph presentation, furnishes facts and statistics on the current status of the junior high school State by State, and focuses attention upon the variety of unsolved problems at this level of American education.

(Misc. No. 21) . . . . *50 cents*

Order these publications from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office Washington 25, D. C. (Enclose check or money order with your request)

Volume 37 Number 7
APRIL 1955

Route to

School Life

◀ They Spoke For Democracy

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

For Our Nation's Children

IN LINE with its mandate to "promote the cause of education throughout the country," the Office of Education brings together in conference each year educational leaders in many different areas of school and college specialization to discuss their common problems and to consider ways of improving educational programs for the children and young people of our country.

A most recent four-day meeting in the Office of Education brought together supervisors of elementary education in large cities throughout the United States. Seventy supervisory officials whose work is carried on in 56 cities of 31 States for 2½ million children reported progress and problems in their efforts to provide the day-to-day instruction boys and girls require for modern learning.

Addressing the conference at its first general session, S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, called for "adequately prepared teachers" to instruct the Nation's children today and in the years immediately ahead.

"One of the problems you face is trying to get along with the inadequately prepared teachers you have in some places because you can't get adequately prepared teachers." Dr. Brownell told the visiting educators.

"Another baffling problem," the Commissioner of Education said, "is how educators can keep themselves up-to-date so that educational opportunities are current instead of historic."

Dr. Brownell, who recently served as Vice Chairman of the U. S. Delegation at the 8th Session of the General Conference of UNESCO in Montevideo, Uruguay, said: "There is a universal demand to improve education for young people. The pressure is greatest from many underdeveloped nations who want to go immediately from where they are to where we are in the United States at present.

"By and large these nations would like to get assistance from our country and from other western countries, but other countries, which have ideologies different from ours, also are offering their help. The nations seeking assistance will get help where it is most readily available to them. If we believe in the dignity of the individual and not the exploitation of the individual," Commissioner Brownell said, "we as educators have a responsibility to help whenever we can. In the long run this could be advantageous to our own children as well as to the children of other countries.

"Through teacher participation in exchanges with teachers of other countries, or by service on missions abroad, American education can play an important role not only in international education but also in the strengthening of our own national welfare," Commissioner Brownell said.

Chairman of the opening session was Dr. Helen K. Mackintosh, Chief of the Elementary Schools Section, Office of Education. A report of the conference considerations and findings will be prepared for future distribution.

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

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

David Walker receives from Commissioner of Education S. M. Brownell a certificate as one of four co-equal national winners in the 1954–55 Voice of Democracy contest. See story on page 104. Photography by Reni Photos, Washington, D. C.

CONTENTS for APRIL 1955

Volume 37 Number 7

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.)

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

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SAMUEL MILLER BROWNELL ..... Commissioner of Education
WARD STEWART ..... Assistant Commissioner for Program Development and Coordination
JOHN H. LLOYD ..... Chief of Reports 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)

IT COULD HAPPEN HERE

by John R. Ludington, Chief, Civil Defense Education Project, Office of Education
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE TIME is 8:15 on the morning of August 6, 1945. The place is Hiroshima, Japan.

In a small cottage near the center of the city, Mr. Fumare Hashimoto listened apprehensively as the air raid siren howled its warning for the second time that morning. The first alert had been nothing but the usual American B–29 weather plane, to which the residents of Hiroshima had become accustomed. The all-clear had been quickly sounded after its passing.

Now another alarm. Would this be the Americans' first large scale attack on Hiroshima? After all, they had been bypassing it all summer.

Never one to become unduly alarmed, Mr. Hashimoto stepped outside to take further stock of the situation. At a great altitude he spied the familiar outlines of three B–29's. Reflecting that this must surely be only another reconnaissance he reentered his fragile dwelling, poked up the little charcoal fire on which he intended to cook his morning meal, and began to get down to the serious business of breakfast.

Suddenly Mr. Hashimoto's room was filled with a blinding light, and his house fell on top of him, burying him in the debris. His little charcoal fire immediately ignited the highly flammable building material, producing a fire. The flames spread quickly to those of his neighbors' houses, resulting in a terrific conflagration accompanied by the phenomenal "fire wind" and the complete saturation of the city's fire defenses.

The casualties produced at Hiroshima have been variously estimated as being between 60,000 and 100,000. The normal population of this city was about 240,000, but the population had been increased by the influx of the military and war workers. The Japanese estimated that there were about 300,000 persons in the city when the bomb exploded.

It is now known that many people died unnecessarily. The Japanese had only a skeleton organization to cope with any disaster, and under the impact of this blow, it broke down completely. Of 300 registered doctors in the city a total of only 40 remained effective after the blast. Nurses remained available in about the same proportion. Fires raged unchecked for 16 hours. No organized medical care reached the city for 48 to 72 hours and it was 5 days before such aid reached any significant proportion of those needing it. Very likely a considerable percentage of those who died might have been saved if there had been a well-trained organization to cope with the disaster.

Disaster Plays No Favorites

Disaster is not confined to periods of war, nor does it favor one area of the world over another. Striking violently and unexpectedly on June 8, 1953, a tornado caused the most serious disaster central Michigan has ever experienced. In its wake lay 115 dead, more than 800 injured, and the remnants of millions of dollars worth of property. The full horror of the experience could only be sensed by those not directly involved. This feeling was adequately projected by hapless victims wandering pathetically through the rubble the next morning, some still looking for members of their family.

The skeletons of trees, the twisted tortured remnants of automobiles, refrigerators, and washing machines, the bare, scarred walls of dwellings still partially standing marked the relatively narrow path of the tornado. And everywhere there were sticks—the pulverized remnants of furniture, beams, trees, and walls.

In the stricken area at least 600 homes were damaged or completely destroyed. After the tornado had struck, the injured and dead were strewn over a wide area—some of the bodies thrown for distances of 600 yards. Clocks stopped at 8:20 p. m. gave mute testimony to the moment of impact. In the descending darkness, periodic rain storms added to the gloom. Power and communications lines were lying about. Here and there were small fires. Sirens wailed, and out of the darkness came the rescue workers. Despite the confusion and the weight of traffic, most of the victims were evacuated within a relatively short period. Hospital facilities were taxed as victims were driven to them in private cars, trucks, and ambulances. Some of the victims were treated and discharged; others remained for long periods. The National Guard Armory was converted into a morgue. It was 3 days before the last of the victims was identified and 5 before the last of the missing was accounted for.

Almost from the beginning, relief and rescue workers started to pour into the area. Public officials rushed to the scene; law enforcement officers from all parts of the State were called; and the National Guard, already in action, was formally mobilized by the Governor. In spite of the efforts of rescue workers there were 927 casualties which resulted in 116 deaths.

Some people feel that such disaster as befell Hiroshima and the State of Michigan will not happen again. We hope they are right. Others think war will come at any hour. We hope they are wrong. Still others are so frightened by both war and natural disaster that they, ostrich-like, don't even want to think about it and have resigned themselves to the inevitable.

All Must Learn Survival Measures

Many educators recognize that these uncertain times cause all of us serious concern. They agree that knowledge of civil-defense and of personal- and family-sur-

vival measures in an emergency should be "built-in" to the thinking of all our people.

Most human beings possess heroic capabilities for quick adjustment and unusual effort under the pressure of immediate danger. When the neighbor's house is on fire, all hands pitch in to rescue its occupants, protect personal property, and put out the fire. Uncertain challenges of today, however, require a different kind of action and heroism. The effort and adjustments they impose will vitally affect our lives for a long time. Dangers against which our efforts must be directed, because most of us have not experienced disaster of any kind, are difficult to visualize.

It may be too late for purely spontaneous heroism after any type of bomb falls and violently destroys thousands or millions of our fellowmen in our Nation's greatest population centers.

It is imperative that all school personnel, students and teachers alike, understand how to care for themselves and others in an emergency. Such understanding should be broader than civil defense and so basic that it can be applied to any emergency—fire, storm, accident, or bombing raids. It should be built into the curriculums and courses of study of schools, not handled as an extra activity.

To facilitate the preparation of materials useful in schools by teachers, the Federal Civil Defense Administration has delegated authority to the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, "for the planning, development, and distribution of materials through appropriate channels in order to integrate the teaching of civil defense skills, knowledge, and fundamentals of behavior during emergencies, in all possible courses."

In order to carry out this responsibility, the Office of Education has organized a small staff in its Division of State and Local School Systems to work on this important project. Agreements have been reached with three State departments of education—California, Connecticut, and Michigan—to establish three pilot centers for the development of units of study, lesson plans, instructional materials, and workbooks for teachers in various subject areas and at all levels. These instruction materials on individual and group protection in natural and wartime disasters will be prepared by teachers, supervisors, administrators, and curriculum specialists in State and local school systems.

The Office of Education will aid the pilot center staffs by reviewing and evaluating technical reports developed by the Federal Civil Defense Administration and other Government and nongovernment agencies and organizations. This basic source material will be made available to persons working in the pilot centers and to other educators interested in civil-defense education. The materials developed as a result of this cooperative project will be ready for use, evaluation, and revision by teachers in classroom situations during the school year 1955–56.

The fourth "R" of Responsibility could well be applied to this area of education, to be added to the traditional 3 "R's". Who knows? The fourth "R" could turn out to be the most important "R" of all, both in our classrooms and in our communities across the Nation.

Information Sheets Prepared By the Office of Education

CIVIL DEFENSE EDUCATION PROJECT

Information Sheet No. 1:

Coordinators of Civil Defense Education in State Departments of Education.

Information Sheet No. 2:

Civil Defense Education Manuals and Handbooks Prepared or Distributed by State Departments of Education.

Information Sheet No. 3:

Some Aspects of Civil Defense in 1957.

Information Sheet No. 4:

Public Opinion Survey: Use of Radio in CD Emergency.

Information Sheet No. 5:

Residual Radiation in Relation to Civil Defense.

Information Sheet No. 6:

Civil Defense in Elementary and Secondary Schools: A Bibliography of Articles in Education Journals (1950–55) Describing School Programs and Practices.

Information Sheet No. 7:

Human Behavior Under Stress Conditions: A Bibliography of References Useful to Teachers and Other Education Personnel in the Development of Instructional Materials Related to War and Natural Disasters.

Information Sheet No. 8:

Questions and Answers on Civil Defense.

Information Sheet No. 9:

Announcement of the Establishment of the Connecticut Civil Defense Education Project.

Information Sheet No. 10:

Selected List of Publications on Civil Defense of Interest to Educators: Available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Information Sheet No. 11:

Civil Defense Public Action Signals.

Inquiries about Civil Defense Education should be directed to: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Civil Defense Education Project, Room 4247, Washington 25, D. C.

1954-55 National FFA Officers Visit the President

National FFA officers, in Washington for annual winter meetings of the Board of Directors and Board of Student Officers, visited with President Dwight D. Eisenhower on February 2. The officers are left to right: Philip Brouillette, Richford, Vt., student secretary; Jay Wright, Alamo, Nev., vice president for the Pacific Region; Bobby Futrelle, Mount Olive, N. C., vice president for the Southern Region; Bill Gunter, Live Oak, Fla., national president; Lowell Gisselbeck, Watertown, S. Dak., vice president for the Central Region, and Charles Anken, Holland Patent, N. Y., vice president for the North Atlantic Region.

Toward Progress In Secondary School Physical Education

by Simon A. McNeely, Specialist for Health, Physical Education, and Athletics, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

EDUCATORS and other informed citizens nowadays see physical education as an important phase of schooling. They believe that experiences in the gymnasium and on the playing fields may significantly help the school child toward physical, social, and emotional development. At the same time, they realize that physical education, to be effective, must have competent leadership, must be carefully planned, and must provide a broad and varied program of activities carried on in a setting conducive to learning and favorable to optimum growth and development. This article describes a few of the ideas and efforts of educators, parents, and community leaders, working cooperatively, to overcome persistent problems and to improve physical education in their schools. It particularly emphasizes the developments on the secondary school level.

The "Total-School" Approach

Many high school faculties believe that a "wholeness" should pervade all school experiences—that programs such as physical education, even though unique in some of their functions, must be integrated into the overall purposes and general character of the school. Such faculties work as teams in attempting: (1) To define common goals; (2) to share their knowledge and understanding of boys and girls; (3) to help youngsters see the relatedness of their various school experiences; (4) to avoid undesirable duplications in schoolwork; and (5) to assist each youth in profiting from a rich and balanced school program, according to his individual needs, abilities, and interests. Thus, the physical education teacher and coach participate in faculty case conferences; work as a member of school-community committees; communicate effectively with guidance personnel; have access to, use, and furnish data for school records on individual youngsters. They also establish good interpersonal relations with colleagues in academic subjects, dramatics, art, music, industrial arts, and other areas; and deal with students in a manner reflecting full regard for their total growth and developmental needs.

School and Community Work Together

Forward-looking school people not only see the necessity of a "total school" approach but also realize the value to youth in coordinating school and community programs. These administrators and teachers know and work with colleagues in other public agencies; with leaders of youth-serving organizations; with voluntary and private health, sports, and recreation groups; with the clergy and church workers; with leaders in civic and service organizations.

Enlightened physical education personnel in these progressive communities are concerned about the problems of youth. They help in developing programs to meet the out-of-school needs of youth. They work with others of the community to provide programs for every boy and girl; to avoid duplications or competition for their time; to guide them in attaining a balance of work, recreation, and other purposeful activities. Such physical educators assist in combating local conditions that contribute to unwholesome surroundings and delinquency. To put it positively, they work for a community that encourages each youth to develop social responsibility, respect for individual dignity, and a breadth of wholesome interests.

Enlightened Program Concept

In schools and communities where physical education is believed to be a positive influence in youth's development, there is a concept of program that encourages maximum outcome. A variety of developmental activities makes up the physical education program so that each boy and girl may benefit from their cumulative values. There are team games; individual and partner sports; swimming, diving, and lifesaving; relays; stunts and tumbling; corrective exercises; conditioning activities; achievement tests; square, folk, social, and contemporary dance; combative sports; hiking; camping, hunting, shooting, fishing, and other outing activities; and many other kinds. The program concept [1] is one of "complete and balanced diet of activity," incorporating experiences that help each boy and girl.

1. To develop and maintain maximum physical efficiency

A physically efficient person enjoys sound functioning of the bodily processes, is free of remediable defects, possesses such qualities as strength, endurance, quick reaction, speed, a sense of balance, agility, and good posture and efficient body mechanics. He employs these qualities according to his age and physical condition, maintaining a bal-

[1] American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. *Physical Education—An Interpretation.* Washington, D. C. The Association. 1952. p. 3–4. 50 cents.

ance of activity, rest, work, and recreation. A person who has defects that cannot be corrected learns to adjust and compensate for his infirmities and develops his capabilities in order to live a happy, useful life.

2. To develop useful physical skills

A skillful person is proficient in many fundamental skills, such as walking, dodging, gaging moving objects, and lifting, which are essential to living safely and successfully. He has abilities in a variety of activities, such as swimming, other individual and team sports, and dancing, which contribute to physical and social efficiency at each stage of life. Young people, particularly, find status and belonging with their contemporaries when they are skillful in physical activities that are valued by the group.

3. To act in socially useful ways

A socially mature person works for the common good, respects the personalities of his fellows and acts in a sportsmanlike manner. He manages his emotions satisfactorily even in intense situations: he is courageous and resourceful. He finds socially acceptable outlets for feelings and aggressions which sometimes build up under the pressures of living. Games, sports, and other physical education activities that are often stimulating and emotionally charged help the individual develop social maturity. Understanding and capable leadership is essential in making the most of these opportunities. A socially adequate person enjoys, contributes to, and is at ease in a variety of wholesome social situations. Coeducational sports, dancing, swimming, and similar activities provide learning experiences that help the individual develop these social qualities.

4. To enjoy wholesome physical recreation

A person who has acquired a fund of recreational interests, knowledge, appreciation, and skills will include, in daily living, activities that are creative, relaxing, or stimulating.

Some of these values are unique to physical education. Many are values shared with other school experiences. All of these values may be derived, in greater or lesser degree, from activity—usually *vigorous* activity—which takes place in social situations that are inherent in high-quality physical education.

Effective School Administration and Organization

Instruction is considered basic for a high school having a sound physical education program. *All* boys and girls are scheduled for physical education in groups of reasonable size (25–40). Classes are made up of children in similar grades or by some other grouping which will insure progression and breadth of program as each student goes through his high-school years. Effective assignment of students to classes avoids wide ranges of maturity, skill, or interests within any group.

Additional opportunities are provided through intramurals, play days, sports days, clubs, or interscholastic activities to explore interests and abilities, to gain added skill, to find satisfying physical and social outlets, or to participate on a high level of performance.

The place of athletics in physical education and in the total school program is coming in for serious cooperative study by educators and townspeople in some localities. They are using such resource material as the recent report of the Educational Policies Commission, *School Athletics—Problems and Policies*, to guide their thinking. The "Checklist on School Athletics" of that document has proved particularly helpful in appraising opinions and practices. The approach is usually positive. That is, the persons making such studies are asking themselves, "How can we preserve the many fine values of school athletics and at the same time upgrade the physical education of *all* our boys and girls?"

Study of other administrative problems is going on, too. Thinking school leaders and parents differentiate between the purposes and nature of physical education and those of other student activities such as ROTC, 55–C, band, and pep squads. Substitution of one for the other is neither condoned nor permitted.

No Substitute for Good Teaching

The quality of physical education is measured primarily by the character of interaction among instructor and students. Effective school administration and organization, as well as an adequate school plant, facilitate good teaching but do not insure that it will take place.

Good physical education teaching is purposeful, well-planned, and individualized. Student-teacher planning is honored in the practice as well as in verbal expression of the idea. Leadership opportunities for students are plentiful. Coeducational instruction is carried on in the many activities where such instruction is valuable and appropriate.

The very nature of the physical education setting makes for close interpersonal relationships and encourages identification of the adolescent with his or her instructor. Conscientious physical educators are aware of this responsibility and strive to be worthy of emulation by the youngsters in their charge.

Good Teaching Materials Make Good Instruction Better

Successful physical education is dependent upon a minimum supply of educational "tools." However, an adequate program may be enriched by a wide and selective assortment of things to work with. Although the student uses his own body as "a great instrument of creative expression," the range and nature of his movements are enlarged through response to musical accompaniment or the use of balls, bats, golf and archery equipment, tennis racquets, apparatus, mats, and a number of other learning aids. The acquisition of skill in use of these various items is in great measure proportionate to the degree of opportunity that the student has to use them for practice, for analysis of performance, and for application within the context of a game, a dance, or other social setting. This point of view regarding materials is shared with the physical educators by progressive school administrators and interested citizens. They are willing to work for a more-than-minimum supply of "teaching and learning tools."

These people also realize that a good teacher can do a better job when he has at

his disposal some of the more recently developed instructional equipment to augment his traditional teaching aids. In addition to charts, chalkboard, opaque, filmstrip, and 16-mm movie projectors, phonograph, piano, and similar instruments, such equipment as loop film, high-speed photographs, and daylight screen is made available for visual analysis of skills and for other purposes. A tape recorder is provided to serve a variety of educational uses. In some localities, television is being used in physical education.

The physical education profession itself has done something about the dearth of printed material that may be used by the high school student as a handy reference. The American Association for Health. Physical Education, and Recreation has recently published *Physical Education for High School Boys and Girls—A Handbook of Sports, Athletics, and Recreation Activities.* Written by experts for boys and girls in grades 7 through 12, the Handbook treats almost every important sport and game. all phases of the dance, corecreational activities, parties, intramurals, interscholastics, and physical education and recreation as careers. It is profusely illustrated.

School and Community Tackle the Facilities Problem

In many communities. the problem of providing adequate facilities for high school physical education is closely related to the rising tide of youngsters now engulfing the Nation's secondary schools. With enrollments in public secondary day schools (including seventh and eighth graders in junior high schools) expected to increase from roughly 7.500,000 in 1949–50 to at least 10,900,000 in 1959–60, the need for adequate educational facilities, great as it is today, will be even greater in the next 5 years. A community straining to house its ever-increasing bulge of students may require an extraordinary appreciation of the values of physical education to provide sufficient gymnasiums. showers. dressing rooms. and outdoor play areas—not to mention swimming pools—conducive to effective teaching. Yet there are outstanding examples of localities making that effort.

In some places where these facilities are being built, school personnel and townspeople are taking a hard look at the relative expenditures for physical education teaching stations and teaching materials as compared to space and facilities for spectators. Priority in expenditures is being given to "doing and learning" by youngsters rather than "sitting and looking" by oldsters.

In like manner, appropriations for school facilities for physical education, including athletics and recreation, are being articulated with expenditures for related community facilities, for example, parks, playgrounds, and swimming pools. Coordinated planning among agencies, both public and private to get the most from the "community dollar" is growing increasingly important in the face of heavy tax rates and expanding public services.

Meanwhile, in some places where school facilities are presently limited, school people are arranging with community organizations or private owners to use existing nonschool facilities. The gymnasium, multipurpose hall, or warehouse of a nearby industrial plant supplements the overcrowded school gym. The recreational hall of a church or the YMCA swimming pool is sometimes made available during school hours. Operators of commercial bowling alleys and other recreation places allow use of their facilities for instructional purposes at modest rates during slack hours. The fairway of a local golf club or the outfield of a professional baseball park extends the school's playing fields. A blocked-off street or hard-surfaced parking area, fitted with sunken sleeves to hold removable goals and uprights. is used for various games. The indispensable school bus or chartered public transportation speeds the students back and forth.

Finding, Preparing, and Keeping Good Teachers

Several problems affect the quality of physical education leadership. There is the great and increasing shortage of teachers, including teachers of physical education. While high school enrollments grow rapidly, the number of young people who go into teaching becomes proportionately smaller and smaller. In addition, students prepared in physical education are finding an increasing number of attractive job opportunities open to them outside the school. Furthermore, many men and some women trained in physical education go into military service as a career. The period of service of women physical education teachers is particularly transitory; many marry after a year or two of teaching and leave the profession.

In some States and communities much effort is being extended to attract alert, intelligent, young people to the physical education profession through individual guidance and counseling; through the good example of considerate capable teachers; and through brochures, films, visits to schools and colleges, and other means sponsored by official and professional organizations. Some communities are holding their teachers by providing year-round employment in school programs coordinated with summer recreation, camping, and extended school services.

There is another problem, that of the number of small high schools in the Nation whose limited faculties do not allow for a full-time man and woman teacher of physical education. Recognizing this situation, many teacher education institutions are attempting to prepare teachers who are qualified to teach physical education. to coach one or more sports. and to teach one or more additional high school subjects. In some school systems the high-school physical education teacher is assigned as consultant to teachers of nearby elementary schools, thus rounding out a full workload. An increasing number of teacher education institutions are preparing young men and women for such responsibilities in elementary schools. Some thought is being given to assigning teachers of physical education to two or more schools within reasonable traveling distance of one another, the teacher serving as a part-time but fully responsible member of each school faculty.

The profession is continually working for improved leadership. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has sponsored national confer-

(*Continued on page 111*)

First Inter-American Conference on Secondary Education

by J. Dan Hull,* Chief of Secondary Schools, and Ellsworth Tompkins,* Specialist in Secondary Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

LATIN AMERICAN countries are facing serious problems in secondary education, and they are working together to do something about them. Their secondary schools are having growing pains: more pupils are seeking admission; additional buildings are needed; and competent teachers have to be provided to staff them. The major reasons for the expansion are the desire to make schooling available to greater numbers of youth, to develop a more functional curriculum for them, and to operate schools more democratically. That the Ministries of Education in Latin American nations intend to improve the role and services of their secondary schools was demonstrated recently in a hemisphere conference on secondary education in South America.

The First Inter-American Seminar on Secondary Education was held in the Instituto Pedagogico Nacional, Santiago, Chile, from January 3 to 22, 1955. It was under the sponsorship of the Organization of American States (better known here as the Pan American Union) and the Government of Chile.

Although this was the first seminar on secondary education, four Inter-American Conferences on Education had been held, all of them sponsored by the Organization of American States. The first (1948) dealt with problems in fundamental education; the second (1949), with literacy and adult education; the third (1950), with elementary education; and the fourth (1952), with vocational education. The 1952 Conference was held at the University of Maryland.

Purpose

During recent years many Latin American Ministries of Education have been planning revisions of their secondary school programs. Before inaugurating new programs in secondary education, they wished to meet with representatives of all the American States to (1) exchange ideas on secondary education and (2) draw up comprehensive recommendations that would be useful to them in improving their secondary programs.

In attempting to fulfill these purposes they believed the Seminar would disseminate good practices and clarify and support proposed educational programs in Latin American States. In addition, it would provide opportunity for full discussion of the objectives of secondary education and thus make possible some consensus on the nature and goals of secondary education in the Americas.

The various ministries of education in the Latin American States were deeply interested in the Seminar on Secondary Education and were responsible for the calling of the conference.

Working Papers

Papers prepared in the United States and translated into Spanish were:

Secondary Education in the United States, by Thomas H. Briggs, Teachers College, Columbia University; *Organization and Administration*, by Galen Saylor, the University of Nebraska; *Curriculum*, by Nelson L. Bossing, University of Minnesota; *Teaching Methods and Techniques*, by Thomas M. Risk, University of South Dakota; *The Nature and Aims of Secondary Education*, by Howard Cummings and Arno Jewett, United States Office of Education; *A Look Ahead in Secondary Education*, by Howard Cummings.

Participation

The 50 official delegates came from all the American States except Argentina, Honduras, and Guatemala. In addition the Ministry of Education of Chile provided 35 professional consultants, and UNESCO, Spain, France, and Italy sent official observers. In addition to the staff members of the Education Division of the Pan American Union, consultants sponsored by the Organization of American States were Agustin Nieto Caballero, Rector of the Modern Gymnasium (liceo) of Bogota, Colombia; Carlos Cueto Fernandini, Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of San Marcos, Lima, Peru; and Thomas H. Briggs, Professor Emeritus of Secondary Education at Columbia University.

The delegates and observers were guests of the Government of Chile and were housed in residences at the Instituto Pedagogico Nacional of the University of Chile. The Honorary President of the Seminar was Oscar Herrera, Chilean Minister of Education; the Director was Guillermo Nannetti, Chief of the Division of Education, Pan American Union.

Organization of the Conference

During the first week delegates met in plenary sessions and heard summaries of work papers and reports on secondary education in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, France, Puerto Rico, Spain, the United States, and Uruguay. At the beginning of the second week Seminar delegates and consultants were organized into working committees, corresponding to the 5 topics of the agendum. By the end of the second week, each working committee had prepared recommendations on all items listed in its particular section of the agendum. During the third week the Seminar, again meeting in plenary sessions, heard the reports of the five working committees. Each report was criticized in the plenary session and then reviewed and amended in the appropriate working committee. The amended report was sub-

*United States delegates to the Seminar. Mr. Augusto Bobonis, Director of Secondary Education in Puerto Rico, was also a member of the United States delegation.

mitted to the plenary group for final approval.

The full reports of the working committees as approved in the plenary sessions are being prepared for publication by the professional staff of the Pan American Union.

Recommendations and Findings

Work of the Committees

The recommendations, as approved, represent the views of the delegates on an ideal program of secondary education. It remains for each country to determine next steps toward this ideal program: undoubtedly, many aspects of this program are now beyond the reach of some of the States.

Although all of the conclusions reached cannot be presented here the following recommendations indicate the general tenor of the hopes and ideals of the delegates.

Nature and Aims of Secondary Education

Equal educational opportunities should be provided for all youth regardless of economic status or geographical location.

As individuals differ greatly, the goal of equal opportunity often means different rather than identical educational opportunities for all youth.

Secondary education should provide the functional process by which students can achieve the goals of good health, worthy home membership, good citizenship, high ethical character, adequate vocational preparation, and worthwhile use of leisure time.

Ministries of education might adjust procedures in order for secondary schools to meet conditions which are peculiarly local.

Ministries of education might well give study to the possibility and desirability of establishing coeducation in secondary schools.

Secondary schools are defined as schools devoted entirely to the aims of general education (a definition which would be unacceptable in the United States); each State needed in addition to secondary schools the following—vocational and comprehensive schools to serve the educational needs of all adolescents not served by the secondary school. Secondary and vocational schools are considered in the category of middle schools (Educacion media).

Organization and Administration

Secondary education is an important function of the State; and the State should supervise all schools, including private schools.

Improved organization and collection of statistics and facts form a sound basis for the development of educational policies.

Curriculum and Programs

Within each school system there should be established a permanent curriculum council which shall have responsibility for diagnosing local needs and making recommendations to the Ministry.

Membership on these curriculum councils should include school officials, teachers, and lay citizens.

Increased study of international relations should be provided at the secondary level.

Teaching Methods and Techniques

Secondary schools should use a wide variety of teaching methods including the organization of content into units of work and systematic procedures for cooperative teacher-pupil planning.

Pupil failure should be examined carefully and systematically with a view to discovering the causes of failure.

The Secondary School Teacher

Part-time teachers in secondary schools should be replaced by full-time teachers as quickly as possible.

In Latin American countries more teacher-training institutions at the university level should be established.

The Organization of American States should prepare a glossary of educational terms in order to improve communication among the different ministries of education and teaching staffs.

Comments on the Recommendations

As was indicated elsewhere, most of the recommendations represent ideal goals toward which schools in Latin American countries may strive in the years ahead. These goals are now accepted by professional educators, but it will take a long time to translate them into practice. Nonetheless, a necessary step is the formulation of long-term goals.

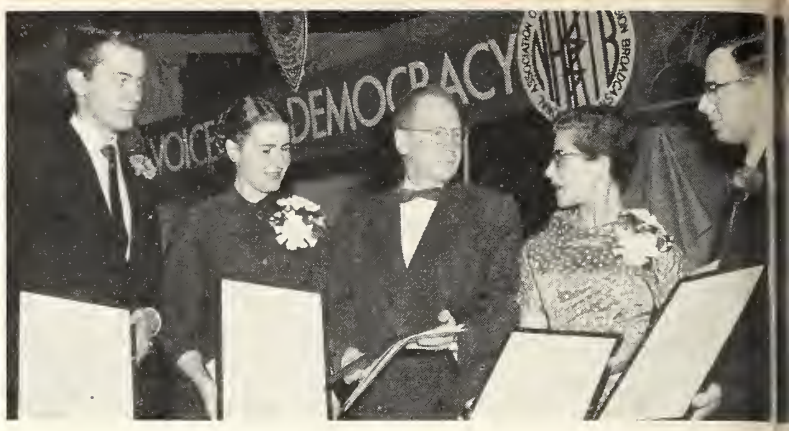
The definition of secondary education as adopted by the Seminar hardly appears acceptable to secondary schools in the United States.

The recommendation that the State supervise private as well as public secondary schools in Latin American States was adopted only after prolonged and bitter controversy.

Although the emphases of the recommendations apply only to Latin American countries, the presence of the United States delegation reflected the interest of our country in Latin American educational problems. Furthermore, the delegation from time to time presented the United States viewpoint of secondary education, and came to know more or less intimately and at first hand the educational problems faced by various ministries of education in other American countries. Because of the language difficulty—all discussions and speeches were in the Spanish tongue—certain restrictions were placed on more extensive participation by the United States delegation in the plenary sessions.

Inter-American Seminar on Secondary Education, Santiago, Chile, January 3 to January 22, 1955. Reading from L. to R.: Ellsworth Tompkins; Manuel H. Zamorano, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Education, Chile; J. Dan Hull; Bernice Matlowsky, Division of Secondary Education, Pan-American Union. This picture was taken outside of the conference hall at the Instituto Pedagogico Nacional, University of Chile, Santiago.

Voice of Democracy Presentations, 1954-55



Commissioner Brownell with Voice of Democracy contest winners.

MORE than a million and a half Americean boys and girls in all the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico entered the 8th Annual Voice of of Democracy Contest.

This year's contest not only stimulated American youth to think of the demoeratic philosophy and heritage traditional to a free, inquiring people, but also gave opportunity for the presentation of demoeracy as an international ideal.

Stating her belief in individual freedom and respeet, one of the 1955 Voice of Democracy winners, a New Zealand exchange student, reminded Amerieans that we "do not stand alone" in our love of democracy. She said, (that) "Democracy extends further than America" and that democracy is "the truth of free people everywhere."

The four co-equal national winners of this year's contest were Judy Abramson, 17-year-old senior at Yuba City Union High School, Yuba City, Calif.; Avron J. Maletzky, 16-year-old senior at Nott Terrace High Sehool, Schenectady, N. Y.; Catherine E. Styles, 18-year-old exchange student from New Zealand, a senior at Southwest High Sehool, Minneapolis, Minn.; and Dwight D. Walker, 17 years old, a senior at Oskaloosa High School, Oskaloosa, Iowa.

At the National Awards Dinner in Washington, D. C., the four high sehool students delivered their winning presentations to leaders in government, education, and the communication arts. As guests of the cosponsoring organizations, the U. S. Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers' Assoeiation, and the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, the students also were welcomed at the White House by President Eisenhower. They visited their Senators and Congressmen and other Government offices. They took part in the annual Democracy Workshop for Youth in Williamsburg, Va., and also participated in the CBS television program, "Youth Takes a Stand" at New York.

S. M. Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, introduced the Voice of Democracy winners at the National Awards Dinner, and on behalf of the sponsors presented to each of them a $500 contribution toward their college education, a TV set, a trophy and a certificate of merit. The Commissioner in turn received from the winners a silver plaque for his untiring devotion to education and for his efforts to stimulate young people to speak for democracy.

Because of the Nation-wide interest in the Voice of Democracy contest the winning 1955 presentations are quoted in full.

Judy Abramson, age 17

Yuba City Union High School
YUBA CITY, CALIFORNIA

I speak for Democraey!

And why am I doing so?

Because I am an American, enjoying to the fullest the benefits of demeeracy. The greatness of this democracy is not to be found in the waters, the mines, the fields, or the mills, but must be sought in the hearts and the minds of the people. It isn't something that can be weighed or measured by any device yet known to man. It has a value that eannot be detected—yet has infinite value. We possess it, here in Americea, in such abundance that we might, at times, display an unpremeditated eontempt for it. Yet other nations who have lost it—find it impossible to regain.

None of us could describe it in the same terms, yet, each senses its power, its importance, and the eonviction that it must be preserved at all eosts. For want of better expression, let us call it the "American way of life." For it can mean different things—to different people. This way of life is like a gigantic tree with many branches extending in all directions. The tree—its branches and its fruit—give comfort and support to the weak, food to the hungry, strength to the small. The tree, like democracy, has fought for survival through the ages, and shows scars resulting from this treatment. When lacking water or sun for survival it begins to wither—and sueh is democraey. There is no country in the world, nor any human being, who, in its span of duration, has not been affected by the many facets of demoeracy.

Wars have been fought for it.
Laws have been made for it.
Schools are founded upon it.
Rights have been declared for it.

But in order to benefit the people, it must be guarded and protected by all who wish to share in it. Without help and support, democracy—as the tree—would die. Its many branehes offer a hope and a promise to all people. For through demoeraey we can attain our only hope for lasting world peace—the brotherhood of man.

This brotherhood will come about only through freedom and equality for each person. And so the greatest attribute de-

mocracy has is that it releases the full potential of each individual. Our characteristics, as people living in a democracy, show that we strive hard to do this not only because we have the opportunity, but because it is our obligation to ourselves, our God, and our country.

The key to this democracy we possess is our faith in the dignity and the worth of each human life, and our determination that in every phase of our society we shall build from the bottom up, and not from the top down. The only true happiness is that which the individual creates for himself—and values—because it is his own. To fulfill his own ambitions and to satisfy the needs which are his own expression—that is the goal of each human being. And this can be accomplished only under democracy.

It was once said that there is a destiny that makes us brothers, and none shall go his way alone. For that which we send into the lives of others comes back—into our own. Democracy is our destiny—sending to each one of us, and our coming generation, a free sense of being that brings with it security and a knowledge that each and every man is equal.

This destiny—democracy—has given us a rich inheritance. Our forefathers fought for it. And through them—and democracy—we have been given the richness of the earth and its resources—personal freedom, equality, justice.

Working as a democracy, our Union of States, and nation of people, can work together to create and to achieve—to make this democracy stronger, constant, and ever enduring. May God will it so.

Avron Joseph Maletzky
age 16

Nott Terrace High School
SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK

I speak for democracy—a force that means life, liberty, and freedom for millions of human beings—a force that elevates the dignity of man toward the divine—but a force that defies definition.

Scores of interpretations do not embrace the meaning of democracy, and none of us know where to find the words to express our belief in it. Perhaps the fact that we have not yet achieved democracy is the key to the whole situation, for true democracy is a quality toward which one strives, rather than a concrete object which one encloses in a glass case. Then how is it possible to defend something that is as basic as the world we live in, but must be thought of as a goal never quite attained?

It was not until we faced the possibility of its loss that we began to visualize the meaning of this precious inheritance. It was not until we saw other democratic countries filled with people, not unlike ourselves, submerged and conquered, that we began to appreciate democracy as both a moral ideal and an historical institution.

The theme of democracy goes back much farther historically than the great documents of the American, French, and English revolutions. The idea goes back to the Hebrews with their theories of divine justice; to the early Christians with their ideal of brotherhood; to the Romans with their stress on equality and justice. Those who feel that democracy is young, and thus is an unstable force, forget what a long history it has, and how deeply it is imbedded in the culture of nations.

Today, we are beginning to think of democracy not as a political institution, but as a moral ideal, and a way of living together. The early Christians had an appropriate saying—"We are all." as they put it, "members of one another." We must, if our democracy is to succeed, believe as they did. We must realize that no one can stand alone. True, society recognizes a person as an individual with his individual liberties and freedoms, but only if the person recognizes society as a brotherhood of individuals. To be part of a democracy, one must fight the natural tendency to demand equality and freedom for oneself, and not for others.

Of course, there are those who say that because it opposes, or conflicts with, man's natural desire for personal gain, democracy will defeat itself. But democracy has its own peculiar strength. This strength lies in the fact that democracy tends to bring men together into agreement—it satisfies and reconciles all involved. Its strength thus lies in the justice, humanity, and loyalty which are evolved from this agreement between men.

To be sure, as long as democracy exists, there will always be a mild state of confusion and conflict. But what are these conflicts? Conflicts are the instruments of change and progress—they are the propelling force behind democracy.

For democracy there is always a future, and a bright one, too. Its potentialities have never been fully realized, and it would take a person gifted with a fertile imagination to think of all the many possibilities that democracy has in store for a nation of the twenty-first century.

As the well-known philosopher, Irwin Edman, has written: "It is by the fire of this dream (democracy), that the future is lighted, rather than by the flames of destruction that now, as often in the past, have violated—but never for very long—the faith in the human dignity of each man in a society of brotherhood and freedom."

Democracy is a powerful force. It represents a gigantic struggle toward some unattainable goal. But even if this struggle never succeeds entirely, out of it can come the courage and the faith that will maintain democracy as a dynamic force for eternity.

Catherine Esther Styles,
age 18

Southwest High School
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

I am not an American. My people are not American. And yet I, too, speak for democracy.

Not much over a hundred years ago, the race that founded America began to found another nation. Surrounded by the vastness of the Pacific Ocean, a new land had been discovered. The brown-skinned people who already lived there called it "Aotearoa," "the land of the long white cloud." Today we call it New Zealand. It is a young country, a virile and growing country. It is a

country of sea and sunshine, of snow on the mountains, of trout lakes and primitive fern forest; of weird pools where the boiling mud leaps and bubbles, cracks in the rock where the steam comes white from the insides of the earth.

The people who live there are a people who love freedom.

The people who live there are my people, and when I speak for democracy, I speak for them.

I have seen something of America.

I have watched the crowds in the streets at night, seeing the advertisement signs flashing on the saw-edge of the horizon saying: "Buy my product; no, buy mine; mine is finer yet." I have seen, back home in the early morning, the man with his horse and his dogs, driving sheep. I remember the jostle and pattering rush of the delicate forefeet, and the clean smell of the bracken, and the sharp barking of the dogs. I remember this, and I know that those crowds with their faces colored by the glow of the advertisements, and that man out early with his flock, although they are seven thousand miles apart, are people, with the same ideals and beliefs, the same love of individual freedom. And I am glad that I can say this, and I speak with all the sincerity in my power. I know that people, these people, all people, are the most terribly important thing in the world. I know that to make as many people as possible as happy as possible is the greatest ideal in the world. And I know that this is the ideal of democracy.

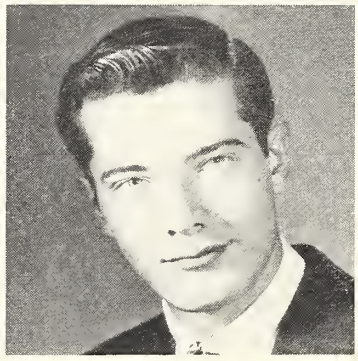
You people of America do not stand alone. Democracy extends further than America. Two thousand years ago the Christian doctrine proclaimed the equality of man. Belief in the equality of man means acceptance of all races, all creeds. Belief in democracy means belief in the equality of man. It means respecting the individuality of every human being.

At home, in the summer evenings, near the time of Christmas, I would sit on the low verandah steps, and hear the baby owls calling in the darkness, and the cows coughing and stamping in the paddock, and see the white bobs of the rabbits scuttle in the half-light. And by the gate I would hear the voices of a couple murmuring together, the young man and woman. And I would think—this is good; this is good, this life, this land, this people. All this is good; the best that ever was.

I still believe it is good, but I know now it was no single nation I was believing in, but the truth of free people everywhere. And I know that the most wonderful thing in the world is the freedom of the individual—in my country, in your country, and in every country.

Not as an American, not as a New Zealander, but as a free citizen of the world in which I have faith, I am speaking to you now. I am not remembering that you are American and I am British. I am not remembering that our voices are different, and our manners, and the cut of our clothes. I only remember that, together, we believe in the individual freedom and right.

I only remember that, together, we speak for democracy.



Dwight David Walker, age 17

Oskaloosa High School
OSKALOOSA, IOWA

My name is democracy! I am the beacon of hope in a troubled world.

I can be found in an abandoned foxhole in Korea; in the Senate of the United States, and at a meeting of the PTA. I am present when you spend a quiet evening at home with your family, and when you go to church on Sunday. Yes, I can even be found in the broken spirit of a Russian peasant as he goes about his menial tasks under the surveillance of his government.

I cannot tell you my exact age, for no one knows just when I was born. First, I was an attitude in the minds, a gleam in the eyes, a hope in the hearts of men who sought a new way of life, free from the oppression of a tyrannical ruler, by "divine right." These men were my fathers.

These men brought me, when I was still but an idea, with them to found a new land. The land was called America. It is my land—the land of democracy. It was here that my life began. America and I grew up together.

My fathers loved me. They developed me, nursed me, and even fought a war that I might live and continue to grow.

The torment and anguish which my fathers endured for me, left it's permanent mark on my history. Guns roared, armies battled, and fires raged through my land, taking an immense toll of blood and human life.

But I lived, experiencing myself and bringing to my people a richer and fuller life! For, from out of the blood which my fathers shed for me, emerged the greatest document ever conceived in the mind of man—the Constitution—which gave substance to the ringing declaration . . . "that all men are created equal, and that they are endowed by their creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

My horizons widened. Countless people, imbued with the ideals of freedom, braved the wilderness, fought the Indians, endured hardships and death, and all for the sake of me—democracy.

However, there continued to be threats to my security. My history has been blackened by a succession of wars. From the struggle for the emancipation of slaves and the preservation of my union, to the "bloodbath" of World War I. I emerged triumphant from all these trials, but my people failed to acknowledge the opportunity that fate had laid in their hands. They looked to idealistic remedies to guarantee peace to man forever.

The result was the rise of Hitlerism, and ultimately, World War II. Now it is communism, and the cold war.

But I have learned through bitter experience. I have grown from my infancy, to take my rightful place as leader of a troubled world. I have seen and assumed my duties. May I remind you of a few of my accomplishments? The Marshall plan, food trains, the Point 4 program, the Berlin air-lift, and military aid to Greece.

I have grown—until now I am adult. But I shall never become aged as long as my people continue to value the principles for which I stand. As I was the child of my fathers, so am I now the father of my own children. As the minds of men gave birth to a great idea, so has this idea given birth to certain of my principles.

Election of public officials by all the people is one of these principles. Others are our public school system, the four freedoms, representative taxation, racial equality—countless proofs of my greatness.

This has been my past. But what about

(*Continued on page 108*)

State School Legislation, 1954*

by Arch K. Steiner, Research Assistant in School Legislation, Office of Education,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

DURING 1954, regular legislative sessions were held in 14 States, while the same number convened special sessions. This period was highly significant in educational legislation. More than 300 bills were enacted into law. Louisiana surpassed all other States by enacting 91 laws.

Particularly notable were laws enacted by the various States providing for increased State funds for expanding public education programs. Equally important were provisions for higher minimum salaries for teachers and broader retention, retirement, and welfare provisions for all employees.

This brief résumé, arranged alphabetically by States, includes those States enacting educational laws which are likely to have major effects on State programs of education or which might provide clues as to possible future trends.

Arizona.—PROVIDES DISTRICT REORGANIZATION. Appropriated additional State aid of $20 per pupil in ADA and funds for pensions to teachers who retired before becoming eligible for social security benefits; established a 5-member board of education in school districts having a minimum of 1,800 population; prescribed qualifications for voters in school elections; appropriated funds for a homebound teaching program; prescribed improved administrative and budgetary forms; placed motor vehicle tax in the county school fund; and provided a new district reorganization law.

California.—CONTINUES SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION. Modified procedure for school district reorganization. Provided an additional $100 million bond issue to extend capital outlay for school construction during next biennium and after present funds become exhausted. Guaranteed equal benefits to members of the teacher retirement system, that is, members retired at 60 for disability and those retired for service. Authorized transportation of certain junior college students and a study to be made of capital outlay needs for California State colleges.

Colorado.—INCREASES STATE AID. Authorized high school districts to levy not more than 8 mills on the dollar of all taxable property for taxes levied for the years 1954 through 1958, and not to exceed 5 mills after 1958; appropriated $11,500,000 increase in State aid for schools; and provided $100 per month pensions for certain retired personnel at State institutions of higher learning.

Kentucky.—ESTABLISHES A FOUNDATION PROGRAM. Provided a foundation program based on per capita and equalization funds, including per classroom unit ranging from $1,500 to $3,500 for salaries of teachers, $600 for other current expenses, $400 for capital outlay, and $1,600 for transportation. Increased the common school fund by $3 million and the minimum annual retirement for teachers from $480 to $630; and established a medical scholarship fund.

Louisiana.—ENLARGES FACILITIES AND BENEFITS. Provided a salary schedule for teachers' minimum salaries ranging from $1,600 to $4,800. Provided retirement benefits for teachers, bus drivers, and cafeteria personnel; old age assistance for teachers 60 years of age if they are not eligible for retirement benefits; group employee insurance; sick leave for bus drivers; and tenure for teachers at teachers colleges.

Appropriated $150,000 for the establishment and maintenance of an educational television station. $1,300,000 for additional construction at 10 State educational institutions, and $359,400 annually to members of the legislature and the governor for State college scholarships. Authorized State reimbursement for surveys and studies on school district reorganization, and permitted school boards to grant 1 year's leave of absence without pay to employees. Prohibited employment of subversive persons. Provided that under police power of the State all public elementary and high schools shall be operated separately for white and Negro children and that all lands deeded to administrative boards for educational purposes become public property after 10 years.

Approved over 30 other laws pertaining to higher education appropriations: sale of bonds, taxation, transportation, and clinics and special education of handicapped children.

Maryland.—ACCEPTS WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION FOR EMPLOYEES. Provided a salary schedule for local superintendents ranging from $8,000 to $10,000 and supplemental payments to retired teachers receiving less than $900 per year. Placed all employees under Workmen's Compensation Act; and required Legislative Council to study the possibility of formulating uniform safety regulations.

Massachusetts.—ESTABLISHES FISCAL SURVEY COMMISSION. Established a fiscal survey commission to study major education problems and special commissions to study retirement, educational television, teachers college needs, and child delinquency and rehabilitation. Provided for further State regulation for private and proprietary schools and for tenure for teachers of State teachers colleges. Established in the State Department of Education a special division to supervise education of retarded children. Authorized State reimbursement for surveys and studies on school district reorganization, transportation of children with cerebral palsy, employment of athletic coaches on a 3-year basis, automobile driver instructions for people under

*A part of this information, edited by Fred F. Beach and Arch K. Steiner, was published in the January 1955 issue of *The School Executive*.

25 years of age. and funds for additional construction at four teachers colleges.

Michigan.—PROVIDES PENSION FOR EMPLOYEES. Authorized school boards to appeal local decisions concerning school district valuation to the State Tax Commission. Provided increases in State aid and a minimum pension for public-school employees. Broadened coverage of the teacher retirement system; and appropriated funds for a State tenure commission.

Mississippi.—EXPANDS FACILITIES AND ACTIVITIES. Provided a salary schedule for teachers' minimum salaries ranging from $700 to $2,600. Appropriated $2,218,092 for constructing and equipping a 4-year medical school as a part of the University of Mississippi, $100,000 for constructing and equipping a petroleum production laboratory at Mississippi State College, $12,000 additional for providing public school instruction for children hospitalized for orthopedic care, increased funds for higher education, and additional $200 per teacher unit for supplementing superintendents' and principals' salaries. Standardized transportation facilities for white and Negro pupils and appropriated additional State aid for transportation.

Provided a 20-percent increase in teacher retirement benefits, and established a scholarship fund for students of nursing.

Abolished all school districts and directed authorities concerned to complete a statewide school district reorganization by July 1, 1957. The legislature proposed, and the voters approved, a constitutional amendment to "abolish public schools, to sell and dispose of school buildings and property, make appropriations of public funds, and do such other acts deemed necessary to aid educable children of the State to secure an education."

Nebraska.—REORGANIZES TAX STRUCTURE. Provided that a State tax commission replace the present board of equalization and that taxes be spent for the purpose for which collected. Granted permission for appointment of county assessors and boards of equalization.

Nevada.—ESTABLISHES EDUCATIONAL SURVEY. Amended State apportionment law so as to base State aid on current A. D. A. instead of that for the previous year; appropriated $30,000 for a State educational survey to be made by the Citizens Committee appointed by the Governor, a report of which is to be made to the 1955 legislature. Appropriated additional funds to meet obligations and retired a previously authorized high school bond issue.

New Jersey.—INCREASES TEACHERS' SALARIES. Established a salary schedule for teachers' minimum salaries ranging from $3,000 to $5,400 and authorized a minimum of 10 days sick leave per year, with mandatory accumulation. Enacted a new State aid program, including aid to handicapped persons, funds for which will be obtained from revenue derived from increased taxes on horserace betting, franchises, investment companies, and motor fuels. Authorized colleges to award work scholarships up to 25 percent of full-time enrollment and established a State Library Commission.

New York.—CREATES FINANCE COMMISSION. Created a 15-man commission on educational finance and appropriated $150,000 therefor. Authorized retirement credit for employees with Korean War service and an increase in State aid for vocational boards and emergency school buildings. Permitted retired teachers to earn a maximum of $1,500 as substitute teachers in lieu of present $1,000. Provided for school districts to contract with the Commissioner of Education for education of Indian children. Established and appropriated $50,000 for financing an experimental program for mentally retarded children. Granted Board of Regents powers to regulate educational television.

Rhode Island.—IMPROVES HIGHER EDUCATION. Authorized bond issues of $3,500,000 to build a new college of education and $600,000 for a State vocational school, both subject to and approved by the November 1954 popular vote. Provided for a committee to study the feasibility of establishing a permanent school for practical nursing.

South Carolina.—EXTENDS SOCIAL SECURITY. Provided for a minimum pension of $60 per month for retired teachers and for State aid for physically and mentally handicapped children. Authorized the State to enter into social security arrangements for all employees other than retired personnel. Increased the limit on State school bonds for construction from $75 million to $100 million. Appropriated additional $500,000 from State surplus funds to match county funds for school bus operating expenses and $99,330 for matching county purchase of school buses. Established automobile driver training schools; and enacted numerous laws pertaining to education in specific counties.

Texas.—INCREASES SALARIES. Enacted a flat increase of $402 for all "approved" education personnel and authorized reciprocity between teacher retirement and State retirement systems subject to and approved by the November 1954 popular vote.

Virginia.—STUDIES DIVISION OF TEACHER TIME BETWEEN SCHOOLS. Provided a salary schedule for teachers' minimum salaries ranging from $2,400 to $3,600, which increased State aid $13 million for the biennium. Raised minimum annual retirement allowance from $720 to $850, extended retirement coverage; and increased other benefits. Created an advisory council on and expanded special education. Placed public and nonpublic kindergartens and nursery schools under the general control of the State Board of Education; and as a possible solution to certain teacher shortages authorized that a study be made of a plan whereby teachers of critical subjects would teach part of a day in one school and part in another.

Prospects in 1955.—From the precedent established during 1954, we may expect significant State educational legislation in 1955. During the year all State legislatures, except Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Virginia, will convene in regular session. Forty-two of these began early in January; Florida started April 5, and Alabama will convene May 3.

Voice of Democracy

(*Continued from page 106*)

my future? It has been said that my greatest enemy is indifference on the part of my people. We have seen that neglect of their duties and obligations led my people into the second World War. Citizens of America. don't let this happen again!

Speak, act, and think democracy. Live it. Breathe it. Support it. Defend it and believe in it! But above all, do not take it for granted.

Don't become careless to the point that you lose your most precious heritage.

A great American patriot once said that I am the last, best hope of the earth.

But who am I? What kind of a power am I that I am the hope of the world?

I am democracy. I am the power of the people.

The Story of Toltec*

by Mary McCollom Martin

I AM a classroom teacher. I like the rural schools, and I believe that any type of rural teaching is interesting and challenging. I have always found teaching full of happy, intriguing problems and experiences. I have taught in many schools in several States, but the best of all has been the last 12 years among the migratory workers in Arizona. I teach in the heart of the cotton lands. Pinal County is the fourth-largest cotton-producing county in the United States.

I live at Eloy. Eight years ago it was a camp. Now it has a permanent population of about 5,000. There is a fine high school with a very large modern auditorium, a new library, a community house, two large elementary schools with 50 teachers, and a restricted residence section with expensive houses. It is a city of contrasts. In the winter the migratory workers swell our numbers. Last winter for several months the Eloy post office served 15,000 persons. There are lively times on Frontier Street when the cotton trucks roll.

The principal of the elementary school has a real job. One night he remarked to his wife, "Well, I'm tired, but I think I got it all straightened out. I shifted them around and I don't think any room will be too crowded." It was good that he got a night's rest. The next morning he found that 200 new children had moved in. Eloy has a community-centered school—the PTA is active and efficient, but Eloy is not yet an education-centered community. We need to think less about cotton and more about children. Every agency, every businessman, should be proud to promote education of children as his major business.

Persian Carpet

I teach at Toltec School 3 miles down the highway. It is a 4-room school. The teachers live in Eloy. Our principal drives one bus and picks up from 20 to 48 children as we drive about the great cotton, alfalfa, and barley ranches. You never see little cotton patches; everything is big. Millions of gallons of water flow from an underground supply that depends on the snows and rains of northern Arizona mountains. Ten years ago the land was a desert, with here and there a cattle ranch. Then men with foresight and money looked over that land. They saw millions of wild flowers spring up after a rain; they observed how deep the mesquite bushes went for water. There lay the desert after a rain like a great Persian carpet with colors of red, white, brown, yellow, and black.

Because they were men of vision and know-how they could see the potential wealth that development would bring. They put down wells. Where Coronado traveled east to find the seven cities of gold, and the Forty-niners struggled west to find the gold of California, today is harvested the gold of the finest carrots in the world, and white gold piled high in cotton trucks.

Today there is another Persian carpet spread over the land. Its colors, too, are red, white, gold, brown, and black. It is vibrant, living—with constant mobility. It, too, has a potential value. Its growth and development mean much to the strength of our democracy. This new carpet is an army of migrant workers who come from everywhere. It is time we realize that the children of these red, white, yellow, brown, and black workers are the potential voters, the future adult citizens of our country.

The Office of Education has a continuing project on the education of children of migrant agricultural workers. Collecting and distributing stories of successful school practices is a part of this project. In this article Mrs. Martin, in a very human way, has presented the problems which migrant children and families face. She has told how she manages to help the children in spite of the many difficulties. Shining through the article is evidence of the kind of spirit and outlook which a person must have to be a good teacher of migrant children.

Self-Realization

Every child of every race, color, or station has a right to complete self-realization. Self-realization is probably our most primitive drive. It is achieved when every agency, the home, schools, and the church provide the environment, a proper emotional climate, and the encouragement that will enable a child to fulfill his highest potential. Of course there is a limit to the development of the handicapped or retarded child. But often that limit is far beyond what some teacher thinks it is. Often the superior child needs help also. Some indifferent teachers just "let him sit." We must stimulate each child to as full development as his capacity will allow.

Changes We Can Make

A change must be effected in the thinking and attitudes of the migrant people themselves. We can remedy some physical conditions by legislation for a better code of sanitation and more available medical care. But the migrants must make a change within themselves. Many have apparently lost their ambition and initiative. Yet others are beginning to realize that their children will need to know more than they do. The children will need to know how to read directions, write orders, and how to think through a problem.

We cannot think for them, but in our schools we can create an environment that will nourish and facilitate growth and thinking. I may have the children with me only a few weeks or days; but I want each one to go away with some lasting impression—some vision of the future that is better. Poorly trained boys and girls will become the kind of men and women who cannot think straight. If in our schools and in the other agencies that influence

*Based on a talk given at the National Conference on Rural Education, Washington, D. C., October 5, 1954. Mrs. Martin is a teacher at the Toltec School, Eloy, Ariz.

children we fail, then our entire democracy will suffer.

Education of Rural Children

Our job is with the children; we may not be able to do much for the adults. Our schools can encourage and give hope to the children. If a child is to become efficient in the economic world, he must learn early habits of thrift and the social forms necessary to our way of living. Children need acceptance, love, security, and confidence. They want a certain amount of routine; they want to finish a book; they need to feel that they are wanted; that they are accepted in the group; and that they have an important job to do.

And most of all they need teachers with *awareness*. Awareness is something animals or plants do not have. It is more spiritual. It is something every good teacher has. If you have cultivated awareness, you will not try to take advantage of your friends and neighbors.

It is not enough to say we will educate the rural child so that he will be better able to assume the responsibility of citizenship in his rural community. We must think big. We cannot foretell the future. A little Mexican boy I taught in an isolated school became a quartermaster in the Army in London and when he returned he became manager of a large home appliance company in Louisiana.

They come to us from everywhere. Arizona enforces attendance during school hours. Many of these children have had less than 25 days of school during the previous year. They slip along from Texas, through Arkansas, and evade attendance officers. One family entered my school just before Thanksgiving. The little girl remembered, "Last year mama would not let us start away until after the Valentine party." I said, "Where have you been from Valentine's Day to Thanksgiving?" and the little boy said, "Oh we've just been a-coming."

These boys and girls—some half-starved, many scantily clothed—are dragged about from one camp to another, in school this week and on the road the next. There is no time for the mother to sit down and assure them that this is home and all is well, no life nor companionship with boys and girls they have known a long time, often only the cruel struggle of cotton, hot sun, long hours from daylight to dark or worse, rainy days when no money comes in. The one-room cabin with dirt floor becomes an untenable place of crying babies, quarreling, hungry children, a dog or two and a man discouraged and cross because there is no work. No wonder some become "winos"; no wonder fights break out. Yet there are thousands of our potential citizens, bright alert girls and boys. What changed the desert to a productive garden can change the lives of these future citizens.

Story of Toltec

I arrived at the school on the second bus one cool December morning. We had picked up 44 children. I had one little child on my lap the last mile, and the principal had to return to pick up 10 more he had left on the road. Donnie, Norma, and little Mary came running. The other bus driver had arrived about 15 minutes before and had driven off for another load.

"Oh, Mrs. Martin, we've got four new ones. One is a big tall Mexican boy—says he's in the 4th grade, but I tried him in the green book *Streets and Roads*, but he can't read them, so I tried the red book *Friends and Neighbors* and he can't read them. He said he had a blue book, you know that would be *Our New Friends*."

"Yes, Donnie, it could be, but it probably is *Fun with Dick and Jane*."

"Well, he don't know nothing; I guess you'll have to put him back to the first grade."

"Oh, no, Donnie, he wouldn't be happy back there; besides we need a big, tall boy. He could help you maybe."

"Yes, that's right, he could help clean the top shelf. I can't reach it."

And so the boy was accepted before I had seen him. That's what they need—acceptance and love and a job to do in a group.

"But Mrs. Martin," says Norma, "that makes 69 and you said yesterday you just had 65 presents wrapped up for the homeroom Christmas party."

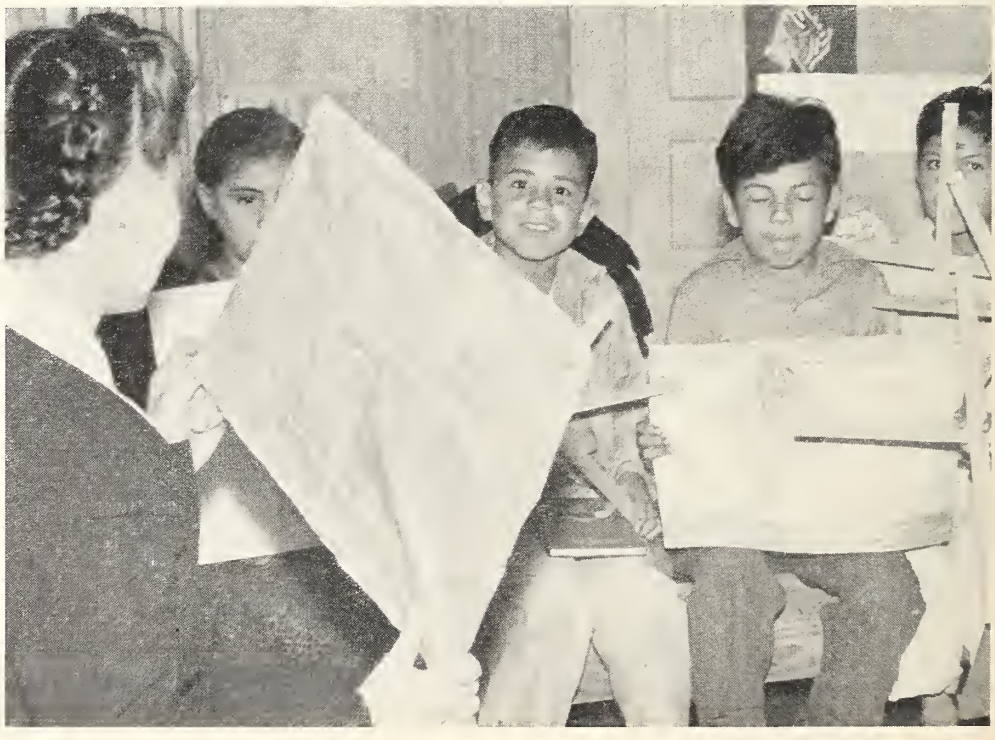
"Oh! never mind Norma, I can stop in town tonight and get some more."

"Maybe some will move away tonight."

But nobody did. We had all 69 next day and each got a present. They needed socks and T-shirts, but Christmas must be bright and gay. So I gave the girls shiny barettes and hair bows and the boys got nice combs in little cases and a red bottle of hair tonic. And everyone got a balloon that blew up into a funny animal. We sang a few Christmas songs, and they went home happy to get ready for the program that evening. We had the most considerate school board I have ever known. We had grand treats of candy, oranges, apples, nuts, and cookies for every child in school and all the little brothers and baby sisters. Each teacher puts on a little skit or operetta. It is fun to make costumes. The mothers cannot do this because they work from dawn until dark. But they quit early that night so they could come to see their children in the program.

I went in. There he was—a tall, hand-

First-grade children illustrate a story with kites they have made in class.



some Spanish-American from South Texas. "Buenos dias, como esta ustedes?" He turned quickly. No hearing difficulty, I thought, and nothing the matter with those bright eyes that are looking me over so quickly. He bowed politely. "Muy bien, and you?" Oh, these lovely polite Spanish-American children—how dear they are. That was Felipe. Have you a card? Yes, he had. It was marked 4th grade, but down in the corner between the printing, the teacher had written "vocabulary difficulty in reading." Transfer cards, they so seldom bring one. They lose them, but if you rode in the back part of a contractor's truck, you'd probably lose one too. "That's fine," I said, "I'll get you a blue book; you help Donnie."

I turned. The girls were writing their names for Norma—tall, thin girls, twins from Tennessee, so pale beside our suntanned Arizona little guys and gals.

"Why, honey, you don't belong here, you're so little!"

"Yassum, I'se Jesse. I can read in that red book pretty good."

Old worn sandals—girl's—too big for him—blue patched jeans, clean, and thin blue shirt washed, not ironed. How could a cotton picker's wife iron a shirt when there is no electricity? And she probably had gone to the field before the child was out of bed. I could feel that there was not a stitch of underwear and it was cold that December morning! I thought—I wonder if there is in that clothes bag a sweater small enough for Jesse. Jesse never did read too well, but he memorized and he was a hit in every play we had last year.

The bell rang, we introduced the new pupils. "This is Felipe from South Texas." Somebody jumped up. "Hi! Did you cross the Rio Grande River?" "No, I didn't cross the Rio Grande River. I live on it. I live at San Benito, Texas." And then several took him over to the big map and they found the Rio Grande. Then someone asked, "Did you cross the Mississippi?" I don't know why—they always do. To their surprise that morning, the twins got up. "We crossed the Mississippi. We come from Tennessee." More map hunting.

Do we teach social studies in third grade? Oh, no! But you can have readiness and word recognition about history and geography. Then those social science books that are written 2 years above the vocabulary level of our pupils will not seem so difficult.

We accept everyone in our group so easily. We seat the new ones among the more alert pupils and in a few minutes they are all at work. We stood and faced the back of the room, where the big flag hangs. I like to think of its protection over their thin backs. I look at its 48 stars—48 States. I have had a child from almost every State. Dear Lord, help me to give all of them a square deal.

College Housing

ADEQUATE HOUSING on college and university campuses continues to be a problem for college administrators. About 13 percent of all college and university students living on campus are housed in temporary facilities furnished from World War II surplus.

To relieve this college housing need, which has been accumulating for many years, the College Housing Program was authorized under Title IV of the Housing Act 1950, Public Law 475. A maximum of $300 million was authorized as a loan fund. Loans may be approved to colleges on application at a low interest rate, approximately 3.25 percent, and for 40 years.

Under the provisions of this act, the Housing and Home Finance Agency administers the programs, and by agreement the Office of Education advises.

Since its inception in 1950, the College Housing Program has lent or obligated $156 million. During the fiscal year 1954 approximately $74 million was approved in loans or reserved for construction of residential facilities on college and university campuses. Through December 31, 1954, colleges and universities had been approved for loans to construct residential facilities for 37,000 single students, 260 student families, 490 faculty members.

Two factors accentuate the housing problem: (1) The increased enrollments, and (2) the obsolescence of the private housing which is being used by college and university students living away from home.

A total of $150 million still remains in the authorized funds for loans in the future: applications have already been received for a large part of the remaining funds. It is believed that construction of new and added facilities will be expedited during the fiscal 1955.

Physical Education

(*Continued from page 101*)

ences on undergraduate and graduate professional preparation and has developed evaluative criteria for use by institutions preparing leaders in this field. Institutions of higher education, individually and in groups, are applying the evaluative criteria and are implementing recommendations of the aforementioned conferences. In several instances, representatives from colleges and universities within a State or region have met at a given institution which has served as a "guinea pig" for interpretation and application of evaluative instruments. These representatives, in many instances, have returned to their own institutions and have spearheaded self-evaluation efforts. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation is also cooperating with other professional organizations in furthering the work of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Many teacher education institutions are enlarging upon opportunities for students to observe and work with children in practical situations during and before their senior year. Many institutions are also providing for student teaching in a school-community setting. The prospective teacher not only works with school children in the regular school program, but also has the opportunity of visiting and working with several community agencies, for example, recreation department, Scouts, and YMCA.

How Good Are Our Programs?

There is considerable interest in evaluation of physical education. The *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary Education has been used by visiting teams from regional accrediting bodies and by high schools carrying on self-study. The Laporte score card has had wide and varied use as, for example, in a current extensive survey of secondary school physical education for boys, under the direction of Dr. Carl Bookwalter, University of Indiana. Publications of State departments of education include evaluative instruments as well as teaching guides in physical education. Among these is Utah's *Score Card for the Evaluation of Physical Education Program for High School Boys*, developed by Dr. Vaughn Hall and associates. The statement on school athletics of the Educational

Policies Commission has been mentioned previously. Several publications of national professional organizations reflect efforts to recommend standards for high-grade programs. These are identifiable by title in the accompanying list of references.

Toward Greater Progress

Many additional heartening signs of progress in high school physical education might be sighted. Many problems to be overcome might be listed. The main hope for continued improvement is to be found in the willingness of physical educators, coaches, school administrators, parents, and other citizens to work together, keeping in mind our common goal: The full growth and development of our youth into responsible guardians of our way of life.

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Susan O. Futterer

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

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

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SHORT PLAYS FOR ALL-BOY CASTS; Thirty Royalty-Free Comedies and Skits. By Vernon Howard. Boston, Plays, Inc., 1954. 186 p. $3.

SIXTY-THREE TESTED PRACTICES IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS. A Report Prepared Under the Sponsorship of the Commission on Public Understanding of the Metropolitan School Study Council, by Bernard Campbell. New York, N. Y., Metropolitan School Study Council, 1954. 67 p. $1.50.

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Office of Education

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Importance of Nutrition to Good Health, Health Information Series 31. Explains that good nutrition is necessary for good health, and tells what food to eat to gain needed vitamins. Public Health Service. Revised 1954. 10 cents.

Introducing a New Health Education Unit on Rheumatic Fever Prevention, A Discussion Guide, New Publications. Presents information relating to the film, "Stop Rheumatic Fever," for television or group showings, the discussion guide, which gives suggestions for users of the film, and the list of publications for the public on rheumatic fever prevention. Public Health Service. 1955. 5 cents each, $2.50 per 100 copies.

Other Government Agencies

Civil Service Commission

Working for the U. S. A., Applying for a Civil Service Job, What the Government Expects of Federal Workers. Presents information relating to number of Federal employees, the merit system, the Civil Service Commission, kinds of examinations given, filling out the application forms, veterans' preference, mistaken ideas about the Federal service, kinds of appointments, affidavits, pay, hours of work, advancement, vacation and sick leave, and employee unions. January 1955. 10 cents.

Department of Agriculture

Money-Saving Main Dishes. Contains recipes and suggestions for about 150 main dishes—easy to make, hearty, and economical. 1955. 20 cents.

Department of Labor

Marilyn Wants To Know, After High School What— In answer to the question raised by high school girls everywhere—Should I prepare for a job or for marriage?—this bulletin considers choice of a career or marriage, and summarizes briefly education needed for various types of jobs. It emphasizes consideration of personal qualifications and interests and the value of work experience, and advises as to ways of finding a suitable job. 1954. 10 cents.

Department of State

New Opportunities in the U. S. Foreign Service. The Foreign Service of the United States, the diplomatic defense of the Nation's security, needs intelligent and representative young Americans. This pamphlet presents information relating to life in the Foreign Service, work and training of the Foreign Service officer, classes, pay, and promotion in the Service, allowances, leave, and other benefits, the examination, and the security investigation. 1955. 15 cents.

Federal Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth

When the Migrant Families Come Again—A Guide for Better Community Living. Migrant workers, 1 million or so, follow planting, cultivating, harvesting, and processing jobs from one part of the country to another. They perform a vital economic function for our communities and for the Nation as a whole. This pamphlet is designed to help you to see how you can make life in your community more enjoyable and good for migrant families. 1955. 15 cents.

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MAY 1955

Route to

School Life

◀ On A Historic Day
—April 25, 1955

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

An Educational "Bottleneck"

by Henry H. Armsby*

WHETHER we like it or not, we are in a race for technological supremacy with the Communists.

We have been too complacent in our assumption that we are far ahead of them. We have not given sufficient recognition to their sources of raw materials, to their vastly greater population, to their willingness to sacrifice everything else to advance their ambitions for world domination.

They have been willing to use a larger share of their resources, human and material, for war-supporting industries, and to leave a smaller share for consumer goods than we are willing to accept as a steady diet. They have greatly increased their output of engineers and scientists to a level which, if continued, will soon eliminate our accumulated advantage.

We urgently need to take stock of our resources of scientific and professional manpower, our most precious commodity. We need to be sure we are developing and using it to our best advantage.

It is interesting to compare the output of our engineering colleges with the most reliable data we have on the output of engineers and technicians in Russia.

The Director of the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council estimates that the annual output of Russian engineering colleges has been climbing steadily, and that this year they will graduate about 50,000, most of whom will be graduates of 5-year curriculums, and some of 6-year curriculums.

He also estimates that there were in 1952 about 3,500 technical institutes in Russia with an enrollment of 1,200,000 students and with about 350,000 graduates per year from 3- or 4-year courses, about 50,000 of whom seem to be in a field related to engineering. Compare this figure with the approximately 10,000 graduates from our United States technical institutes last June.

In the face of growing needs for the technological team we find a diminishing interest in high school science and mathematics, subjects which are basic to engineering and science. The percentage of high school students studying chemistry declined from 10 in 1890 to 8½ percent in 1948, and to 7½ in 1952. The percentage of students studying physics declined from 22½ in 1895 to 5½ in 1948, and to 4½ in 1952. In 1948, 50 percent of the high schools were offering the course. In 1952 only 47 percent of the schools offered this subject.

This condition is both the cause and the result of the shortage of qualified teachers, which has existed for a decade, and is growing worse, especially in science and mathematics. While high school enrollments go steadily

(*Continued on page 127*)

*Excerpted from an address by Dr. Armsby, Chief for Engineering Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, before the Purdue University Branch, American Society for Engineering Education, Lafayette, Indiana, April 28, 1955.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph: Two of the Nation's millions of children vaccinated on April 25 as a possible protection against poliomyelitis were photographed for SCHOOL LIFE. They are Deborah Robinson and Marvin Miller, first-grade pupils at Oakridge Elementary School, Arlington, Va. Dr. Dominick J. Addonizio, of Georgetown University Medical School and Arlington Hospital administered the vaccine to many of the children at Oakridge Elementary School. The photograph was taken by Archie Hardy, photographer, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

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Why Have a Board of Education?

by Fred F. Beach, Chief, State School Administration, and Robert S. Will, Research Assistnat, State School Administration, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

BOARDS OF EDUCATION are one of America's greatest contributions to the science of public administration. The type of control which has come to be expected from these boards is representative of the democracy in which we live. Developed by the people in the early days of our Republic to carry out the people's will in educational matters, these boards have become the most significant agencies in Government solely concerned with the management of the Nation's schools and colleges. An overwhelming majority of the 63,000 local school districts in the United States are governed by boards of education. All State institutions of higher learning are governed by education boards and the great majority of other State programs of education are headed by boards.

The people did not decide upon boards of education in preference to other types of agencies as their policymaking bodies by chance. In the relatively small number of cases where boards of education are not the policymaking bodies but where, instead, an individual has been given this responsibility, there is frequently agitation to change the system and replace the individual with a board. Where boards of education exist, there is a notable absence of any effort to change the system.

A recent study [1] summarizes the reasons that boards of education have been preferred by the people over individuals as policymaking agencies for education.

A board of education is more representative of the total population it serves than an individual policymaking agent is.—A board more adequately represents a geographical area and the various groups and interests within the area than a single agent does. This is only natural because the board is composed of several persons. Representation implies personal knowledge and understanding resulting from personal contact. Obviously, several persons are likely to have more direct contacts with the people being served than a single agent has.

A board of education can make wiser and sounder policy decisions than a single individual can make.—The board of education as a deliberative body is not confined to an individual viewpoint which might be fettered by biases and prejudices. The very act of discussion and debate within the membership brings out points of view beyond the experience of any one member. Thus, board decisions may be based upon broad understandings of the problems confronting the varied interests of all persons being served. Recognizing the limitations of the individual, the people feel that no one individual is likely to have the experience and detailed knowledge of conditions essential to make valid policy decisions on all educational matters. This likelihood is doubly applicable when the individual policymaker is also the executive agent.

A board of education serves as a safeguard against the abuses of discretionary powers.—The people employ a board when they have been firmly convinced that the discretionary powers required to conduct a governmental agency should not be entrusted to an individual. Most powers of a board of education are vested in the entire board rather than in a single member. Motives of personal and political gain, which may appeal to the individual policymaking agent, are less attractive to the board as a whole, and immeasurably more difficult of attainment by individual members of the board. Collusion is difficult when decision-making requires all members of the board to participate. Then, too, board actions are generally open to the public. Under these circumstances there is less chance for a board to abuse discretionary powers than there is for an individual policymaking agent to do so.

A board of education acts as a safeguard against the involvement of education in partisan politics and the spoils system.—Experience has clearly shown that political considerations and favoritisms inimical to education are much more likely to be present when an individual is in complete control of policymaking activities than when the same activities are controlled by a board. Convinced that partisan politics and the spoils system should never gain a foothold in their schools, the people have overwhelmingly accepted the board as the best instrument for combating this evil.

A board of education is a safeguard against needless disruption in the continuity of an educational program.—With every change of individual policymaking agent, the educational program is likely to be disrupted. Long-term objectives, carefully laid plans, and partially completed projects are frequently swept aside for new objectives, new plans, and new projects. Such a complete change can seriously damage the ongoing educational program. A board of education, on the other hand, can make desirable changes while retaining continuity in the overall program. The general practice of overlapping terms for board members, with terms of sufficient length to insure an experienced majority on the board at all times, provides boards with the stability required to keep on a steady course.

A board of education provides an economical means for management and control of the educational program.—Keeping the cost of government to a minimum has always been a matter of

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[1] Fred F. Beach and Robert S. Will. *The State and Education. Part I, The Structure and Control of Public Education at the State Level.* U. S. Government Printing Office, 1955. (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Misc. No. 23.) (In press.)

City Supervisors Discuss Educational Problems

by Gertrude M. Lewis, Specialist for Upper Grades, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

FROM APRIL 4 to 7, 1955, 70 educators responsible for the instruction of elementary-school children in the public schools in 56 of the largest cities in 31 of the 48 States, met at the invitation of the Elementary Schools Section, Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch, U. S. Office of Education, in a lively conference. There they exchanged information and viewpoints about some of the most pressing problems they are dealing with in trying to provide good educational opportunities for all of their children. The first conference for Supervisors of Elementary Education in Large Cities, in April 1954, met with such enthusiasm among participating educators that the 1955 conference was in reality a "request performance."

Opening the 1955 conference, United States Commissioner of Education Samuel Miller Brownell, pointed out the need for educators who are responsible for the instruction of children to keep focusing on the quality of education. In the present struggle to provide children with a "place to sit," a good teacher, books, and other materials, he said, it is hard for the school leader to "keep his eye on the ball" to see that children receive the best quality of instruction. He called to mind that the instruction of children has been made difficult by the rapid changes in living in our times fully as much as by shortages of school building space and teachers. Not only are these changes technological; they are social as well, he said.

Instructional leaders need to work hard, the Commissioner said, to keep themselves and classroom teachers "up-to-date" so that educational opportunities provided for children may be "current instead of historic." He called attention to the need for increased international understanding, suggesting that the role of the school in this respect be examined to see what can be done to increase among our own people understanding of the world as well as of the communities at home. There is also need to reexamine the role of the elementary school, he suggested, in the preservation of American values (particularly respect for the individual) and in the communication of these values to other countries. Through illustrations from his recent experiences at the UNESCO meeting in Montevideo he showed that many countries of the free world are struggling to grasp the full meaning of these concepts and to translate them into the processes of their own societies.

Helen Mackintosh, Chief of the Elementary Schools Section, and Elsa Schneider and Wilhelmina Hill, Specialists in the Section and cochairmen of the conference, were responsible for its organization. All members of the section gave assistance. Participants, who were selected by their superintendents, were informed of the nature of the conference several months in advance. Materials of instruction which had been developed in their cities and sent ahead for display became a vital source of interest to educators working in similar circumstances. Problems which were suggested by the supervisors in correspondence with the Office formed the agenda for the conference.

Among problems which commanded attention was the following: How can supervision in large city systems be organized and carried on so that the school program may be well coordinated for children, so that progress from kindergarten through high school may be well articulated, and so that communication may be effective throughout the city, between the individual building and the central office, and among staff members within large buildings? Involved in this discussion were matters of organization and assignment of duties in the central office. It was felt that the individual interests of assistant superintendents and both general supervisors and supervisors of special subject-matter areas sometimes stand in the way of a well-coordinated program for children, and that effort expended by the central office to secure a common philosophy, mutual understanding, and good human relations would be well repaid.

The largest cities (750,000 and above) were most concerned about this, although all other groups (250,000–750,000, 100,000–250,000, under 100,000) also reflected some concern.

Among the 25 to 30 cities under 250,000 the majority had a person in the central office with the title, Director of Curriculum, or a similar title, with administrative authority over the entire system to coordinate the complete program. Supervisors work "under him," with responsibility for restricted geographic or instructional areas. Most of the supervisors work citywide, but a few work in restricted geographic areas or designated buildings. On the average, a supervisor is responsible for from 200 to 600 teachers.

The principalship was pointed out as a key position in the operation of an elementary school and in the quality of its instructional program. In some of the cities represented individual schools are practically autonomous. In these the principal is al-

S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, addresses the opening session of the Elementary Supervisors Conference in the Office of Education. To the Commissioner's left, are left to right, Helen K. Mackintosh, Acting Chief, Elementary Schools Section, Office of Education; J. Dan Hull, Acting Director, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, and Elsa Schneider, Elementary Education Specialist, Office of Education.

most entirely responsible for the school: for coordination of the staff, relations between the school and community, the instructional program, materials of instruction, the well-being and progress of the children, orientation (sometimes procurement) of new teachers, and on-the-job improvement of all staff members.

How the supervisory staff can help the principal meet the responsibilities of his job received much attention. Practically all of the conferees considered it important to select for the principalship one who has had broad training and experience in elementary education, and who has demonstrated that he has ability for leadership and for administration. Several cities have plans to give new principals a good introduction to their jobs. One system sets the "selected" principal free from teaching 6 weeks before school is out. He spends one full day in each department of the central office, and 4 weeks internship with a successful principal of a school similar to his. Another selects the principal early in the year preceding assumption of duties, and helps him make a self-development plan for the year. Others have demonstrations and discussions for prospective and beginning principals.

For principals on-the-job, it was found that most cities provide ways to come together in small groups to study and discuss what comprises a good instructional program. In the largest cities, study groups are from geographic areas (sometimes districts) of the city. Supervisors are sometimes invited to meet with principals, and "good teachers" occasionally demonstrate for them and stay for discussion. These conferences are sometimes held within school time, after school, or before school opens in the fall; sometimes an extended workshop of several days is planned for demonstrations, examination of materials, and discussions leading to better understanding of a good school program.

Working on committees which are revising the curriculum was considered valuable experience for principals, although one principal who attended the conference humorously injected the thought that some principals receive so much of this valuable experience that it interferes with their administration of the local school, while others are deprived of it.

There seemed to be unanimous feeling that principals cannot do the total job expected of them in the school without adequate help. Full-time clerical help was agreed to be a "must." An assistant principal was recommended for a school of approximately 600–1,000 children, and a curriculum consultant as well for schools of more than 1,000. It was considered a good plan to release some good teachers from teaching duties for 2 or 3 years to serve as "helping-teachers," especially to work with new teachers.

One of the discussion groups during the Elementary Supervisors Conference.

The work of supervisors, they felt, should be as much "on-call" as possible, at the request of principals, and their services should be consultative rather than mandatory.

As a way to increase communication, school bulletins were considered effective if they are not so numerous or detailed that reading them becomes an additional burden to principals and teachers who are already too busy. A circular written by principals for principals is used in one city; another uses a school district bulletin to which supervisors, principals, and teachers of the elementary and secondary schools contribute. Other means mentioned were staff meetings, curriculum committees and councils which represent both elementary and secondary schools, employees' councils, school-community councils, and newspaper, radio and TV programs.

Should children be grouped along ability lines for educational purposes? Most of the educators present favored grouping children heterogeneously insofar as this is possible, but with classes of reasonable size and consultative help for the teachers so that opportunities and materials might be well-designed to challenge the interests and meet the needs of all children in the school.

The entrance age into school was considered an important factor in the progress of children through school. Although the consensus of the group favored at least 6 years for entry in grade one, entrance ages in the cities represented range from 5.5 to 6 in practice. The question was raised as to whether too early entrance might be responsible in part for children's difficulty in reading in later childhood. Though there is no research to throw light on the matter, there was conviction that too early entrance does children no good. (The Office of Education will make a preliminary report soon on a study which the staff is making of entrance ages into schools. Some facts were collected at this conference.)

Methods of reporting to parents about the progress of their children was a center of great interest. Confidence was expressed practically unanimously in parent-teacher conferences as a way of securing mutual understanding and trust. Letters and report cards were thought useful and perhaps necessary but secondary in effectiveness to person-to-person consultation. Children are sometimes included in the conferences, and frequently have opportunity to evaluate their own work and behavior.

The rapid-fire question and answer method used at this conference, the keen listening to find out what the cities represented were doing and thinking brought out many other professional interests, among them: How do you secure enough teachers: How do you orient your new teachers?

(*Continued on page 125*)

Geiger Counters to Scholarships and Fellowships

by Theresa Wilkins, Research Assistant, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

WHEN, more than 100 years ago, gold was discovered in California, no further incentive was needed to insure the westward trek which in truth caused the youthful United States of America to stretch "from sea to shining sea." Today prospecting for gold is merely the theme of an occasional Hollywood movie. The excitement that grips the minds of men is not to strike it rich through discovery of new and fabulous gold deposits or diamond mines. The magic word is uranium, whether in pitchblende deposits in Colorado, the Belgian Congo, Canada, Czechoslovakia, or in stocks on Wall Street.

The scientist uses a Geiger counter or a scintillometer to search for uranium ore. Uranium being radioactive causes clicks in the headphone of the counter. If all other reasons for the clicking are eliminated, the scientist can tell when uranium is present, and, depending upon the speed of the clicking, how much. Geiger counters may be used for other purposes besides detecting uranium. They may be used to measure the speed of life processes in animals and plants. They may follow the flow of water or oil through pipes and detect leaks. A particular kind of pitchblende, scholarships and fellowships, and some of the detectors—Geiger counters—to be used in search of scholarships and fellowships are discussed in this article.

It frequently comes as a shock to the high school graduate who is fortunate enough or sufficiently industrious to rank in the upper quarter of his graduating class that half a dozen colleges are not vying with each other to persuade him to join their student bodies in the September following his graduation. Parents of the outstanding high school graduates are likewise often surprised that it is necessary to explore the possibility of obtaining a scholarship, preferably several months or even a year before graduation. Rumors of unclaimed scholarships and of federally sponsored grants serve to add to the amazement. Few college students have the competence and the time to earn all expenses incident to attending college. Loan funds are reported to be abundant, but rarely are they available to beginning college students. The more advanced college student, although eligible for loans, is often unwilling to obligate himself before his occupational career begins. Financial assistance in the form of scholarships and fellowships is needed and some is available, although not always in the amount or with the freedom of choice in institution or curriculum the recipient might desire.

The major sources of financial assistance for college students, graduate and undergraduate, are government, foundations, industry, and other agencies and individuals. Governmental sources include foreign, Federal, State, and local. Foundations include the giants—Ford, Rockefeller, Carnegie, Duke, Kellogg, Commonwealth, Kresge, which customarily operate through other agencies—and the smaller ones which frequently administer grants directly. A few of the industrial corporations that have come to the aid of higher education in recent years are Bethlehem Steel, Columbia Broadcasting System, Du Pont, Ford Motor Co., General Electric, General Motors, Gulf, Mobile and Ohio Railroad, Radio Corporation of America, Standard Oil of Indiana, Standard Oil of New Jersey, Union Carbide, United States Steel, and Westinghouse Electric. Other agencies are labor unions, associations, fraternal organizations, religious groups, and the institutions themselves.

Governmental Sources

An example of scholarship aid available from a foreign government is the program of Marshall scholarships offered by Great Britain, the announcement of which states in part:

"Twelve Marshall scholarships at British universities are offered yearly by the British Government to United States graduate students. The awards are an expression of the United Kingdom's gratitude for the generous and farsighted program for European recovery and are made to students of either sex, who must be citizens of the United States. Candidates must be graduates of a degree-granting college or university of the United States."

Current Federal activities in higher educational fall roughly into the following categories:

(1) aid to special groups of individuals, such as veterans;
(2) aid to individuals for study in special fields, such as military science;
(3) aid to individuals for study (in nonspecified fields) to promote some policy of the Government, such as the development of international good will;
(4) annual grants to particular institutions for special purposes, such as agricultural education in the land-grant institutions; and
(5) grants and contracts for research, including funds for the construction of research facilities, in certain fields, such as the physical sciences.[1]

Last July the Congress enacted the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954 (Public Law 565, 83d Congress), designed to carry out the President's recommendation to strengthen and substantially expand the Nation's resources for the rehabilitation of handicapped people. At present grants are being awarded to institutions offering graduate training in rehabilitation counseling, counseling psychology, vocational counseling, social work (including specialization in social work), and undergraduate training in physical and occupational therapy. Through these grants, research fellowships,

[1] *Federal Scholarship and Fellowship Programs and Other Government Aids to Students.* A report prepared in the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress. Printed for the use of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950.

predoctorate and postdoctorate, are available. Traineeships are awarded to students by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation upon recommendation of the training center collaborating in the training program of the Office. Lists of participating centers and information about research fellowships may be obtained directly from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The eligibility requirements of these training and research opportunities are similar to those of the older program of the National Science Foundation except that for the present year no deadline for the receipt of applications has been set and no age limit has been established.

There is no general scholarship or fellowship program financed by the Federal Government. Opinion is sharply divided on the issue, one school of thought holding that it is the responsibility of the Federal Government to equalize educational opportunity; the other that education is the function of the State and the danger of Federal control would be inherent in Federal support. The urgent need for a solution to problems of shortages at the elementary school level has reduced to a place of minor interest the question of the needs of students in higher education.

Two-thirds of the States have made provision for some kind of scholarship aid. The need is acute, however, in those States where support for higher education has been inadequate. New York administers an extensive program at a cost of $4 million a year. Illinois administers a similar program. The valedictorian of each graduating class in an accredited high school is entitled to a scholarship in certain States. In other States, tuition is free in the State teachers colleges to a designated percentage of the entering class. Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia offer grants to encourage medical students who agree to practice in their rural districts. These grants are in the form of loans which may be canceled at an established rate for each year of service to the State; if the graduate fails to perform such service, they are repaid with interest. Florida maintains the same kind of program for persons willing to become teachers or to enter government service within the State.

Local governmental agencies have more frequently established junior and community colleges than they have awarded scholarships. Awards that are available from this source are usually not widely publicized and are restricted to residents of the local community.

Foundation Contributions

According to John Price Jones, Chairman of the John Price Jones Co., Inc., fund-raising counselors, "Toward the support of . . . privately controlled institutions, the generous American public makes philanthropic gifts of approximately $215 million a year." [2] But the need for scholarship assistance alone has been estimated at $226 million annually.

Foundation giving for individual grants is frequently channeled through other agencies. The Ford Foundation, for example, has established the Fund for the Advancement of Education through which programs of grants are administered. The Fund itself operates through colleges and universities in administering the early admissions program and the college faculty program and through public school systems for the high school teacher program. The Fellowship Office of the National Research Council serves as the screening agency for certain foundation, industrial, and governmental programs. The Council actually administers the grants in some cases. In others it screens applicants and makes recommendations to the donor. The Institute of International Education serves as an international clearinghouse for exchange of persons programs sponsored by public and private agencies. Over the years it has developed skills and techniques that need not be duplicated at an economic disadvantage to the agencies sponsoring the grants.

New foundations are constantly being established and old ones have their assets augmented by new contributions. In October 1953 the Eisenhower Exchange Fellowships were established in honor of the President. The Board of Trustees plans eventually to provide 75 fellowships each year to bring foreign students to this country and to permit United States citizens to study abroad.

Corporation giving

In 1935 the Congress passed a Revenue Act which exempted from tax contributions of corporations to charitable agencies up to 5 percent of their net income. Corporations have been hesitant to contribute to educational institutions for various reasons, one of which was the legality of such giving. In May 1953, Justice Stein of the New Jersey Superior Court rendered a decision holding that the corporation in the test case could legally make a contribution to Princeton University. The decision was unanimously upheld in the New Jersey Supreme Court in June of the same year.

Since World War II many corporations have established plans for giving to educational institutions. One example is the program of General Motors. In January of this year General Motors issued a statement describing its expanded financial support to higher education. The new program includes two plans of interest to undergraduates: The college plan and the national plan. The college plan affords 250 four-year scholarships to be awarded by 107 private and 39 public institutions in 38 States. The selection of the private institutions was based on a formula giving weight to the number of graduates of the institution employed by General Motors. The National Plan affords 100 four-year scholarships to high school seniors who have distinguished themselves in their secondary school careers and who are winners in a competitive examination conducted by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N. J. Scholarship awards will range from $200 to $2,000 in both plans, depending upon demonstrated need. The first 350 students receiving scholarships will enroll as freshmen in the academic year beginning in September 1955. When the program is in full operation in its fourth year, 1,400 students will be receiving benefits.

Other Grant-Making Agencies

Approximately 5 years ago the Office of Education compiled a report on scholarships and fellowships available at institutions of higher education. The reports, received from approximately two-thirds of the institutions, gave ample evidence of the generosity of professional and educational associations, fraternal organizations, religious groups, labor unions, small businesses, institutional alumni, other individuals, and the institutions themselves. The most generous donor, based on information furnished by a majority of the reporting institutions, was the educational institution. One-third of the funds administered for scholarships and fellowships by the institutions were from their unrestricted income.

[2] John Price Jones. *The American Giver: A Review of American Generosity.* New York: The Inter-River Press, 1954. p. 60.

Frequently a question is asked about the total amount available for scholarships and fellowships. Another question usually asked is the extent of the need for financial assistance. A completely satisfactory answer is not available for either question. We know that the colleges themselves report approximately $40 million annually as expenditures for scholarships, fellowships, prizes, and other forms of student aid, but we do not know how much more is not channeled through the colleges. Perhaps an agency which combined the investigative powers of the FBI with the tabulating skills of the Bureau of the Census would be able to ferret out all the big and little grants and produce a total that would be almost valid for a week or two, but it is doubtful if the changing statistics would justify the expenditure of time and money. The Bureau of Internal Revenue collects a great deal of information from the incorporated organizations, but there is no central clearinghouse for the unincorporated organizations all over the country which budget varying amounts for scholarships and fellowships periodically or occasionally.

The Commission on Financing Higher Education attempted to discover the size of the scholarship job in the country. Assuming that the enrollment goal of higher education should be the highest quarter of the 18-year-old group in intellectual promise, the Commission estimated that an able group of 453,000 students might be induced to go to college. For a 4-year period, at an average cost of $500 a year, the total cost would approximate $226 million annually.[3]

Geiger Counters and Scintillometers

There is no single source of all the information available about scholarships and fellowships, but there are several sources—Geiger counters—which, combined, afford fairly adequate coverage. The most nearly complete guide to foundation activity in the area of grant making is the seventh edition of *American Foundations and Their Fields* (now in press), which lists more than 3,500 foundations and trusts, giving the name, address, size of assets, grants, and to the fullest extent obtainable, donors, purposes, methods, limitations, fields of interest, officers, and trustees. Other compilations are *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans* by Feingold; *Your Opportunity* by Jones; *Scholarships and Fellowships Available at Institutions of Higher Education*, the Office of Education publication issued in 1951; and *Study Abroad*, the UNESCO publication now in its sixth edition, which lists over 45,000 fellowships, scholarships, and other subsidized opportunities for educational travel.

In addition to the general directories, there are numerous special directories. The Council on Social Work Education publishes annually a compilation of *Social Work Fellowships and Scholarships in the United States and Canada.* The National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students has issued *Opportunities in Inter-Racial Colleges—A Handbook*, which gives information about requirements for admissions and scholarship opportunities in more than 200 interracial colleges. The Board of Education of the Methodist Church issues *National Methodist Scholarships*, which describes the scholarships it makes available and contains rules governing their administration. The State University of New York has published a *Directory of Scholarships and Loan Funds* which lists all types of student aid available in the form of scholarships and loan funds at the several units of the university. Other institutions of higher education, either in their catalogs or in separate bulletins, publish information about financial aids available to students. Professional and educational magazines carry announcements relating to fellowships available for study in various fields. Newspapers, particularly the Sunday editions, carry as news items announcements of grant-making agencies and institutions.

The consistency with which scholarship and fellowship announcements refer the prospective candidate to the committee on scholarships and fellowships or to the dean of the graduate or professional school suggests the importance of the institution itself as an appropriate place to which inquiries should be directed for information about the availability of financial aid. The advice most frequently given to individuals requesting the Office of Education for information about scholarships or fellowships is: Write to the college or colleges of your choice for information concerning financial assistance. When it is remembered that approximately one-third of the money used for scholarships and fellowships comes from unrestricted income of the institution, the wisdom of this advice can be appreciated.

Two developments which will influence the scholarship picture in the future merit brief mention. The College Entrance Examination Board has established, at the request of participating colleges, a College Scholarship Service. The service has prepared a confidential form on which all family information and financial data pertinent to a candidate's application for aid are entered. It is the aim of the College Scholarship Service to develop procedures which will assist the colleges in computing the actual extent of a student's resources so that they may take steps to meet his need. In recent years colleges have begun to bid against each other for talented students, and this new cooperative effort is designed to adjust aid to need, reduce bargaining, and insure that the greatest possible number of promising high school graduates will attend college.

Competition Is Keen

A second development is one which will render acute competition for both admission to college and scholarship assistance. The increasing birthrate of the past 9 years has led to the prediction that an impending tidal wave of students may be expected to engulf the colleges and universities. The predictions range from 4 million to 6½ million by 1970 depending upon whether there is no increase in the percentage of college-age youth attending college or whether the present rate of increase becomes accelerated by as little as 1 percent per year. Unless facilities, faculties, and finances can keep abreast of the projected increase, the requirements for qualifying for financial assistance, and the requirements for admission will be considerably higher than they are today.

Some years ago the president of a large Midwestern university was discussing with the faculty his opposition to tenure. He held forth at some length to his line of argument: Good faculty members did not need tenure and poor ones did not deserve it. Too much security induced complacency. Lack of tenure, he concluded, kept a man on his toes. One of the senior members of the faculty, deeply moved and holding a point of view in utter contrast to that of the president arose and said,

[3] John D. Millet. *Financing Higher Education in the United States.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.

"Mr. President, you mean on our knees!"

During the earlier part of the century, philanthropy was considered synonymous with charity and the genuflection was believed to be the appropriate gesture to indicate appreciation. The picture has changed. Philanthropy now stems from big business—in fact, is big business. The student who would qualify for a scholarship or a fellowship today must seek it not on his knees but on his toes.

Ed-Writers Present AWARDS

THE EDUCATION WRITERS ASSOCIATION, at its 7th annual awards luncheon in Washington on April 21, presented awards and special citations for outstanding achievement in educational journalism during 1954.

Awards went to the following newspapers: *The Providence* (R. I.) *Sunday Journal*, with special commendation to James K. Sunshine, education editor; *The Columbus* (Ohio) *Dispatch*, for feature articles written by Mary McGarey, education writer; *The Quincy* (Mass.) *Patriot-Ledger*, for articles written by Fred Pillsbury, editorial page editor; *The Rochester* (N. Y.) *Democrat and Chronicle*, with special commendation to Clifford E. Carpenter, editorial writer.

Special citations were presented to Mrs. Richard J. Jarvis, *The Sheboygan Press;* Noel Wical, *The Cleveland Press;* Hal Tribble, *The Charlotte* (N. C.) *Observer;* Ann Russell. *The Cincinnati Enquirer;* John Mason Potter, *The Boston Post;* Ruth Dunbar, *The Chicago Sun-Times;* and the *New York World-Telegram and Sun.*

Judges for the awards were: Joseph B. Cavallaro, chairman of the New York City Board of Higher Education; Belmont Farley, director of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association; Roy E. Larsen, president of Time, Inc., and chairman of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools; John H. Lloyd, managing editor of *School Life*, United States Office of Education, and David G. Salten, Superintendent of Schools, Long Beach, Long Island.

Annual Expenditure per Pupil for 215 City School Systems

1939–40—1952–53

by Lester B. Herlihy, Specialist in Educational Statistics, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE TREND in the annual current expenditure per pupil for 215 identical city school systems for the 13 years from 1939–40 through 1952–53 is shown in the accompanying table according to a distribution of cities by 4 population groups.

In the period under review, the 56 school systems of the group I cities (population 100,000 or more) used for this study increased the total amount of the current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance by $23, or from $243 in 1939–40 to $266 by 1952–53. This represented a 9.5 percent increase for the 13-year period on the basis of a 1952–53 dollar value. In the 59 group II cities (population 25,000 to 99,999) the increase was $63 per pupil, or 32.5 percent; as compared to $81 per pupil increase or 48.5 percent for the group III cities (population 10,000 to 24,999); and $73 per pupil, or 47.7 percent increase recorded for the 48 city school systems in the group IV cities (2,500 to 9,999). 9,999).

Thus, during this period of 13 years the small and medium-sized cities increased their current expenditures per pupil by amounts at least three times greater than that reported for the large city school systems. Relatively, the increases by these school systems in group II, III, and IV cities were from 3 to 5 times as great. Despite the relatively greater increases shown for the less populous cities of group II, III, and IV, the group of large city systems still reported an average expenditure per pupil greater in amount by 3.5, 7.3, and 17.7 percent than that expended per pupil by the medium-sized and 2 small groups of city school systems.

Annual Total Current Expenditure per Pupil, Full-time Day Schools, by City-size Group: 1939–40 Through 1952–53

[Adjusted to the 1952–53 dollar] *

School year	EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE							
	GROUP I (56 systems) [1]		GROUP II (59 systems) [2]		GROUP III (52 systems) [3]		GROUP IV (48 systems) [4]	
	Amount	Percent of change over 1939–40	Amount	Percent of change over 1939–40	Amount	Percent of change over 1939–40	Amount	Percent of change over 1939–40
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1939–40....	$243	.....	$194	.....	$167	.....	$153	.....
1941–42....	235	−3.4	194	.....	171	+2.4	154	+0.7
1943–44....	236	−3.0	201	+3.6	172	+3.0	158	+3.2
1945–46....	251	+3.3	221	+13.9	192	+15.0	181	+18.3
1947–48....	252	+3.7	234	+20.6	200	+19.8	193	+26.1
1949–50....	252	+3.7	246	+26.8	236	+41.3	213	+39.2
1951–52....	258	+6.2	239	+23.2	243	+45.5	216	+41.2
1952–53....	266	+9.5	257	+32.5	248	+48.5	226	+4.77

**On basis of Consumer Price Index figures taken from Series A1 (1947–49=100) U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington 25, D. C. (Monthly Labor Review, February 1953).*
[1] Cities of 100,000 population and more. [2] Cities of 25,000 to 99,999 population. [3] Cities of 10,000 to 24,999 population. [4] Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population.

Focus on the Junior High School

by Walter H. Gaumnitz, Specialist, Rural and Small High Schools, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE SECONDARY EDUCATION STAFF of the Office of Education has increasingly become convinced that the junior high school should receive more thought and study than in the past. Discussions at staff conferences have from time to time considered what could be done to focus more professional attention on this neglected segment of the school system. This article sketches the results of this planning to date and points out some of the results achieved.

One of the most outstanding efforts resulting thus far is the greater scrutiny given to the data gathered, compiled, and published as "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools," [1] which was formerly made biennially but is now on a 6-year schedule. This restudy of the available statistics resulted first of all in a somewhat clearer classification of the types of reorganized high schools and the rearrangement of the tables to show more clearly the grade combinations and the location of the separately organized junior high schools and those combined as junior-senior high schools. It also resulted in the survey's giving greater emphasis to the reorganization trends of these types of secondary schools during recent decades.

In addition to these increased emphases upon this segment of education in the general biennial survey report itself, a number of studies were published. One of the most revealing reports of this type is contained in a document recently issued under the title "Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis." [2] This report presents the available data in graph and chart form, showing the origin and progress of this reorganization movement in secondary education not only for the Nation as a whole but for each of the States. It also shows the various forms this reorganization is taking and suggests certain unsolved problems in providing suitable programs and services for educating the younger adolescent. The graphs also point to both comparison and contrasts among the States. Both approaches are obviously needed for a clearer understanding of this movement.

The 42 tables and graphs resulting from this study are divided into 5 major sections: (1) The junior high school; its beginning, primary purposes, and trends; (2) the status of the junior high school by States; (3) attendance, retention, and employment facts relating to junior high school youth; (4) indices of junior high school services and programs; and (5) characteristics and problems of the junior high school youth. To round out this study a section of 8 pages of selected and annotated references concerned with "junior high school status and trends" was added.

In preparing this report, "Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis," it was necessary to compile 10 tables of statistics in secondary education which were not published in the *Biennial Survey of Secondary Day Schools* in the specific form needed. These supplementary statistics were published under the cumbersome title "Supplementary Statistics of Public Secondary School, 1951–52, With Special Emphasis upon Junior and Junior-Senior High Schools." [3]

At present the staff of the Secondary Education Section has two additional major projects underway. One of these is a report growing out of the proceedings of the National Conference of Junior High Schools, held February 24–26, 1955. Forty leaders in this field from all parts of the United States attended. They devoted their attention chiefly to the major problems, strengths, and weaknesses of the junior high schools. They also took stock of the nature of junior high school organization, where it is going, and what needs to be done to improve its development. One of the major outcomes expected from this conference is that these leaders will find cooperative ways of working together to

Cover illustration from *Junior High School Facts*, Office of Education Publication.

[1] *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1951–52*, Chapter 5, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1954, 81 pp., 35 cents.

[2] Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 21, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1955, 91 p., 50 cents.

[3] Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Circular No. 423, 10 p. Free.

solve the problems peculiar to this field. In addition, it is sure to cause an intensification of interest in this whole segment of the schools.

Another important project, recently launched by the Office of Education to implement the recognized functions to the junior high schools, is the preparation of 11 annotated bibliographies.[4] The series is devoted to the following basic junior high school subjects: Organization and supervision, guidance and pupil personnel problems, student government and activities, curriculum problems, core curriculum, the language arts, mathematics and science, art, industrial arts, aviation, and a group of sources relating to health, safety, athletics, and outdoor education of junior high school youth. The sources listed are limited almost entirely to those published since 1945.

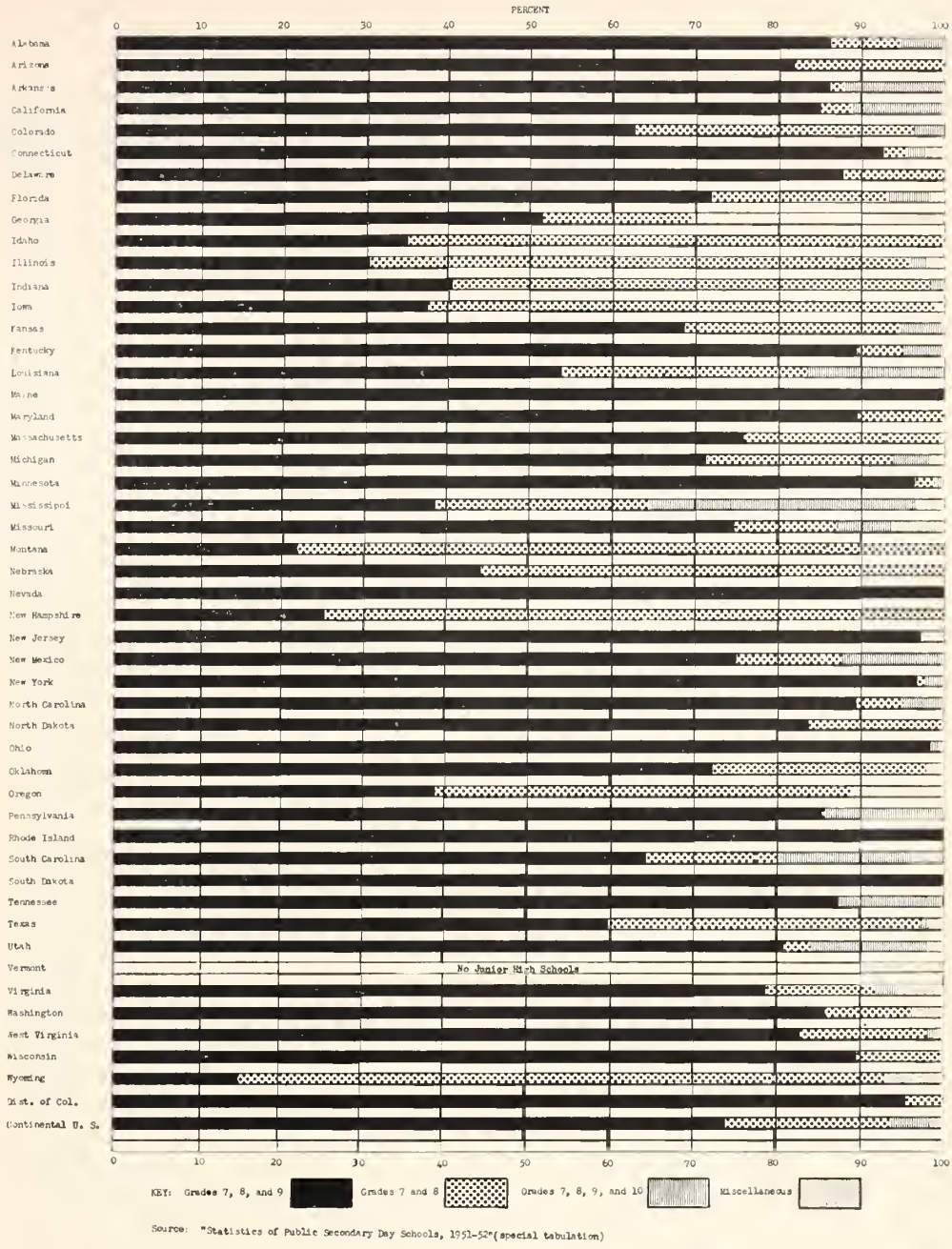
The staff members of the Secondary Education Section of the Office of Education have also projected several additional studies relating to the nature and services of the junior high schools. A project already under way is a study concerned with the status and trends of State policies which govern the developing role of the junior high school. It makes a lot of difference, for example, whether grade 9, despite its inclusion in the junior high school organization, continues to be grouped with the regular or senior high school grades in the State and local record forms, in the graduation requirements, and in the accreditation plans; or whether this grade is treated as an integral part of the junior high school, primarily devoted to serving the distinctive educational needs of young adolescents.

Still another project in the long-range plans of the Office of Education involves a questionnaire study to determine the significant practices followed by a representative group of junior high schools in replanning and vitalizing their work with these young adolescents.

Finally, some thought is being given to a study of State activities and plans for the improving of the programs and techniques of instruction of the junior high schools. That study will primarily center on the State departments of education in this field. Some attention is also to be given to existing provisions for the pre- and in-service education of the principals and teachers who man the junior high school.

[4] Circulars, Nos. 425–35. Single copies will be available from the Publications Inquiry Unit of the Office of Education. They may, of course, be freely duplicated by anyone wishing to do so.

Percent of Public Junior High Schools by Grade Combinations, by States, 1952



Source: "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951-52" (special tabulation)

There seems to be general agreement that the education of young adolescents is of such far-reaching importance as to warrant special attention at this time. The reorganization of secondary education to include some form of junior high school has gone far, and the process seems to be speeding up. During the last 9 years, the separately organized junior high schools have increased by roughly 100 new schools per year; the junior-senior high schools have been growing by nearly 400 new schools per year.

Too often, however, it appears to those appraising this movement that the more this level of education changes, the more it remains the same. New grade combinations are formed and new buildings constructed, but the program of instruction and the teaching methods remain largely unchanged. The proportion of boys and girls remaining in school becomes greater year by year, the social and economic system grows more complex, and our knowledge of how youth learns increases. All of these developments point unerringly to the fact that young adolescents must now have both more and different types of educational opportunity than in the past. The junior high school fails significantly, indeed, if it does not fit its services to the many new educational needs inherent in these changing conditions.

America's Resources of Undeveloped Talent*

by Ralph C. M. Flynt, Acting Director, Student Personnel Services Branch, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

I SHOULD like to describe to you the current program and a few pertinent activities of the Office of Education in the field of pupil and student personnel.

We are just now bringing to a conclusion two large-scale pieces of research which are essentially student personnel focused, although they have both fiscal and program implications.

Office of Education Studies

The first of these studies, entitled "Cost Students Incur in Attending College," is based on 16,000 student questionnaire responses from a scientifically selected sample of 110 higher institutions and is thus expected to have validity on a nationwide basis. Of especial interest for counselors will be the information to be presented on the number receiving financial assistance, their distribution. the amount and character of such assistance, the level at which awarded, and the correlations with family income. This study will be reported in full late this spring.

The second study nearing completion, entitled "The Study of College Student Retention and Withdrawal," is based upon 13,630 student questionnaire responses from a scientifically selected sample of 153 higher institutions. It will also be reported in full in the late spring or early summer. A summary will be presented by Robert E. Iffert of our staff on April 18 at the meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers in Boston. We expect the results to be invaluable to both higher institutions and secondary schools. It will be the first nationwide study of student mortality in higher institutions since 1936 when the Office of Education made a similar study.

We have plans for an early beginning on two studies which we also expect to be useful to counselors at all levels. They are, first, a study in depth of the student assistance programs in 25 representative cooperating higher institutions; and second, a revision of Bulletin 1951, No. 16, *Scholarships and Fellowships*, which is widely used by secondary school counselors as well as by prospective college students. The revised bulletin will be amplified to include additional summary financial data and information on the availability of student assistance from noninstitutional sources.

These research projects have been mentioned here because we expect them to be helpful in solving the problem implied by the subject of my remarks.

I acknowledge my debt to Dael Wolfle for the use of the words of the subject, "America's Resources of Undeveloped Talent," for they paraphrase the title of his recent book, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent.*

I have selected a particular aspect of the problem of our undeveloped talent to lay before you who are concerned with counseling in the secondary schools. It has to do with that considerable body of youth of the highest level of ability who graduate from high school but fail to attend college, and of that smaller but still considerable body of equal ability who fail even to graduate from high school. I shall also suggest a few tentative approaches to the solution of the problem posed.

200,000 Unable To Attend College

According to estimates, 150,000, or approximately one-half of the highest ranking quarter of those graduating annually from the high schools do not attend college, it is believed principally for economic reasons. It is further estimated that 60,000 students of equivalent ability do not even graduate from high school. These figures establish a rough order of the numbers involved in what I have termed America's Resources of Undeveloped Talent. They have been prepared for me by our Research and Statistical Standards Service and have been cross-checked with estimates made by Byron S. Hollinshead in his volume, *Who Should Go To College*, prepared for the Commission on Financing Higher Education, by Professor Robert Havighurst of the University of Chicago, and by Dael Wolfle. These estimates should be regarded as tentative and subject to constant checking and rechecking as we proceed with future planning for secondary and higher education.

The estimates quoted indicate that about 200,000 young persons who rank in the highest one-fourth of ability do not receive a college education. When the figure 200,000 or any significant part of it is placed against the current total of high school graduates, now about 1,200,000, and first-year college enrollments, now more than 550,000, it assumes important proportions. We face in the United States today the problem of finding a way to draw into further education significantly larger numbers of these young people of highest ability.

The failure of large numbers of the ablest persons in our population to secure a college education is not only a serious loss to the personal development of such individuals, but also a serious loss to the Nation of critically needed manpower at the highest level of training. In 1940 there were 2,580,000 18-year-olds in the total United States population of approximately 132 million. In the estimated United States population for 1954 of 162 million there were only 2,160,000 18-year-olds. The 18-year-old population level of 1940 will not again be reached until 1960, when it is estimated that our total population will be 175 million. From this present minimum manpower pool we must fulfill our immediate needs not only for additional scientific, technical, and other leadership, but also for the rank and file of trained personnel.

Some observers have assumed from the gross numbers of our college population that all is well. It is true that there has been

*Based on an address before The Massachusetts Council of Private Schools, Boston, Massachusetts, on March 18, 1955.

a considerable increase in the proportion of the age group 18–21 attending college, from 15.3 percent in 1940 to 24 percent in 1953. The total numbers have also increased, from 1,364,000 in the fall of 1939 to 2,475,000 in the fall of 1954. These significant increases, both in proportion and in number, have not included the considerable body of undeveloped talent to which I refer.

A number of factors combine to prevent the attendance at college of the optimum percentage of those of highest ability, and indeed of many of less conspicuous talent. Despite rises in the average family income, the increased tuition and fee charges, together with the rising cost of living on higher institution campuses, have excluded many able but needy students from college. The years of high employment since World War II have caused many young people to begin work early and thus to forego college.

Research Needed

I suggest that these rather facile and seemingly pervasive reasons do not go very far toward answering the question of why many brilliant youths do not reach an optimum level of education and training. The more elusive but more fundamental reasons for this phenomenon, I submit, are those which must interest and challenge the counselor. These reasons are rooted, I believe. in the subtle setting in which the fragile flower of motivation is nourished.

I take it that we can assume that two factors work strongly to induce college attendance: Indication of high intellectual ability as shown, for example. in test scores, and markedly good work in secondary school. These alone do not do the job, as I have indicated earlier in these remarks.

Two other factors are of greater importance in preventing college attendance. certainly in the instance of the top-level student who fails to reach college. They are, first. money; and second. "desire." a word which Eddie Erdelatz. who coaches the successful football team of the United States Naval Academy. has given new currency.

We have a good deal of rather satisfactory data which correlates college going with family income versus college costs versus other pertinent data. and we are gathering new and more comprehensive data all the time. Such correlations are generally clear and revealing. but they do not tell us one thing we badly need to know, and that is how many students of good intellectual ability but poor financial ability would go on to college if adequate funds could be provided them. We have some good studies such as the one Ralph Berdie did in Minnesota. It indicates that probably one-half of the able students who do not attend college for lack of financial resources would do so if funds could be provided.

These studies, as good as they are, can not be added together to give us a reliable nationwide picture. This we badly need and must have. I expect that we shall find ourselves a long way on the road to this goal when the results of the study now being carried out by the Educational Testing Service at Princeton, N. J., for the National Science Foundation are reported. The report of the study is expected this summer. This study includes responses from approximately 60,000 students in a scientifically selected sample of high schools drawn from the entire country, and thus should be valid for general application. If we could fix with accuracy the numbers who would attend college if money were available, we could measure the size of the total financial effort which the institutions, the States, private philanthropy, corporate giving, and other sources, should make in order to reach the indicated number of youth. I predict that when all the evidence is in we are going to find the view of one witty observer who said, "Money is not everything, it is just the only thing," substantially corroborated. I suspect also that we will find after we have passed beyond the category where money is the controlling factor that it is highly correlated with other factors.

The question of desire for college attendance is rooted in a very complex matrix of psychological and sociological factors. I suspect that counselors know more about the substantive character and the interrelationships of these factors than any other group of professional persons who work in the schools. I therefore commend to you the most searching study of them and their effects. I can only suggest some examples.

I suggest as one example the fact which is brought out in Dr. Wolfle's study that almost three times as many children of professional people attend college as of craftsmen and unskilled factory workers.

Another example is found in 8 States and the District of Columbia. where from 22 to 30 percent of the 18- to 21-year-olds are in college, while in 5 other States only 10 to 11 percent of the same group attend. Twenty-one percent of Massachusetts youth of this age group were in college in the year for which these data are valid. But this does not give us a very refined picture. The range between rural and urban is great. Parts of some States do not send as many youth to college as other areas.

Enrollment of women in our colleges is only about one-third of that of men. Since girls usually excel as high school students we are clearly losing a large potential here. In many geographical areas and among some racial groups college going is not encouraged among girls.

Our Negro youth represent another very large segment of unrealized potential. Psychologists have long since exploded the fallacy that Negroes distribute themselves differently throughout the ability curves from whites. Thus there is no valid reason for our neglect of this unrealized potential.

So much for examples of factors which affect the urge. desire. or motivation for college attendance. These factors vary in intensity and degree, are frequently found in multiple combinations, and again appear to reside in some personal equation which seems wholly to elude even the trained specialist.

Recommended Activities

Finally, I should like to propose a few courses of action which would, I believe, help us markedly to insure that all able youth receive optimum education and training.

First, I assume that we shall be able with reasonable accuracy to determine the additional numbers who would attend college if funds were available to them. We should then review our prevailing student assistance practices with a view to overhauling them where necessary, and create by the unified or parallel efforts of the institution, the States, private donors, and other additional programs of student assistance which will reach with certainty those whom we can determine to require money only as the viable factor in the decision to attend college.

Second. we should attempt some kind of talent identification program on a large scale. at least as large as a State. Perhaps it should be a testing program. perhaps it should go further. At any rate it should reach down into the early years of the high school and identify potential talents. The results should be available on a large-scale basis, and early efforts begun to remove all blocks to effective motivation.

Third, we must find ways to create an acceptable and effective methodology for study and analysis of the factors which control motivation in individual cases. This methodology must, moreover, be capable of being administered as a part of a functioning school program by school people, and not alone by highly specialized sociologists and psychologists working under laboratory or near-laboratory conditions.

Fourth, we must seek greatly improved coordination between counseling and all other student personnel services in the secondary schools and in the colleges in order that the effectiveness of one may not be lost in the transition to the other.

Fifth, the schools and colleges together must enlist community participation and support in establishing a matrix in which superior talent is quickly recognized and its optimum motivation positively fed, for education cannot do this without the help of other community institutions.

In conclusion, I wish you to be assured that I make no claims that college going should be the only goal of the bright student. Those walks of life which do not require college preparation must also have their fair share of brains. I do suggest, however, that college attendance should be a possible goal of this group for personal development and better civic service.

I have frequently used the word "optimum" today, and it is my conclusive judgment that the brilliant youth, estimated to reach 200,000 in numbers, who do not now reach college, should receive "optimum" education and training and that we should take the indicated steps, whatever they may be, to accomplish this objective, which is desirable in the interest both of the individuals concerned and of our country.

New Teachers for Our Schools

AT LAST, steps are under way for a concerted attack on one aspect of the teacher-shortage problem. Last May, top-flight educators, civic organization leaders, and representatives of communities throughout the country set to work on a plan for "recruiting, training, and delivering to the Nation's overburdened and understaffed schoolrooms mature, qualified women, holding bachelor's degrees, but without previous professional preparation or experience in teaching."

For a long time, AAUW has been pointing out that a promising source for augmenting our inadequate teacher supply is to be found in the large number of women college graduates who have reared their families and could consider teaching. Two AAUW staff members, Christine Heinig and Winifred Helmes, have represented AAUW on the nationwide committee which was called by Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Director of the Women's Bureau, and Dr. Samuel M. Brownell, U. S. Commissioner of Education, to develop this approach.

After the committee's first meeting in May, a subcommittee, of which Miss Heinig was a member, undertook field surveys in fifty community groups in Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri, Minnesota, Kansas, Kentucky, Tennessee, Oklahoma, Texas, New Jersey, and Maryland, "to explore teacher resources among mature persons holding bachelor degrees. . . ." These surveys revealed not only an awareness of the acute shortage of fully qualified teachers, but also a real need "for a program of this type which could be worked out on the local level."

A second meeting of the full committee, on August 6, voted to create a permanent committee "representing the institutions and agencies attending this conference" to assist Mrs. Leopold and Dr. Brownell "in promoting active programs for recruiting and training mature college graduates who lack qualifying teacher education."

This article, originally published in the Journal of the American Association of University Women, is republished in SCHOOL LIFE as evidence of how one national organization is working at the State and community level to help solve the Nation's growing teacher shortage problem.

Tailormade Plan

This development seems to offer a plan almost tailormade for AAUW. Indeed in the discussions and field work AAUW was often referred to by both educators and citizens as *the* group in the community to find candidates for training and to serve on screening committees.

A college course especially planned to lead to the certification for teaching of the mature liberal arts graduate has frequently been suggested by AAUW members who have themselves undertaken refresher courses in order to re-enter the teaching field. Some of these suggestions for the improvement of training courses, as well as an expression of the satisfaction gained by mature women in teaching, were reported in the AAUW JOURNAL, March 1954, under the heading "To Teach or Not To Teach" (page 160).

Many branch reports for 1954 indicate AAUW's alertness in seeking to recruit teachers from the heretofore little-used resource of mature women who are able to take jobs in addition to home responsibilities. Summary statements from branch reports will illustrate:

Green Bay, Wisconsin: "Several members were encouraged to become properly certified."

Wichita Falls, Texas: "Survey shows twelve have returned to teaching in past year, twenty-five returned to midwestern university in past 4 years to complete education and retrain for teaching."

Kaysville, Utah: "Branch has been 'very instrumental' in interesting five women in finishing their education to relieve teacher shortages in county."

Virginia City, Minnesota: "Interviewed superintendent of schools as to possibility of refresher courses in education being offered at Duluth Branch, University of Minnesota."

Euclid, Ohio: "We are now engaged in a study of teacher recruitment—trying to ascertain specific ways in which we may help in our local community to encourage well qualified mature college women whose families are now fairly independent to return to the profession."

Oakland, Michigan: "Education Committee has fortified itself with background material

on the present need for teachers in our local schools. It has used every opportunity to urge AAUW members, whenever possible, to return to or enter the teaching field. Local superintendents of schools have been alerted to the resources within our membership. In turn, members were referred to the superintendents for guidance in refresher or enabling courses. Many members have already begun, or are planning in the near future, to serve either as contract or substitute teachers."

El Paso, Texas: "Cooperated with State Chairman in survey of courses being offered to refresh former teachers and to train college graduates for teaching."

Fort Worth, Texas: Education Committee mimeographed and distributed to members of the branch a list of recommendations on action members might personally take to correct teacher shortage situation. One recommendation reads: "We can emphasize the service motif in encouraging capable men and women to enter the teaching profession."

Boise, Idaho: The branch "hopes to help to organize a refresher course for next year."

The work done in the Tulsa, Oklahoma, Branch, is especially interesting. Two hundred letters sent to branch members in 1954, asking whether the recipient would be interested in teaching, were answered in the affirmative by 34 members who were able to consider full-time teaching. Twenty-six members indicated interest in substitute teaching; 11 were able to consider full-time teaching. Twenty-three expressed interest in and need for training.

In Wisconsin, AAUW branches made a survey last year of members willing to return to teaching and found upwards of 350 women who were interested.

Flexible Program

The "new" idea for teacher recruitment emphasizes adding highly qualified persons to the ranks of the teaching profession by drawing from a new resource of manpower, the college graduate who has never taught or prepared for teaching. Such teachers will give stability to the staff of a local school because they will probably teach in 1 school system continuously for a period of 10 to 20 years. Such stability is much needed in many school systems where the turnover in the ranks of the younger teachers is exceedingly high, from 30 to 50 percent yearly.

The national committee does not plan to work out the details of any given program nor does it expect to find funds to enable a local group to undertake it. Indeed, this program must be flexible and should be developed locally according to the individual needs of the specific people who are to take the training. All indications are that the program will not be expensive and that funds to finance it can be provided locally, by institutions and by individual tuitions.

It is expected that citizens' groups, educational and civic, school administrators and directors of teacher-training institutions will work jointly to develop such a plan, but the start will of course have to be made by some persons or groups who see the importance and practical possibilities of this idea and who will take the initiative therefor to gain community support for it. Several AAUW branches and some State divisions seem already to have done groundwork that will make this plan a "natural" for them to sponsor. Correspondence about the program may be addressed to Dr. Brownell or Mrs. Leopold or to Miss Christine M. Heinig, AAUW Associate, at Headquarters, 1634 Eye St. NW., Washington 6, D. C.

Supervisors Discuss Educational Problems

(*Continued from page 115*)

How long is your school day? How do you encourage self-improvement in the professional staff? What processes do you use to improve the curriculum? How do you know that what you do really improves opportunities for children? Do children do better when taught by one teacher or when taught by a number of more specialized teachers? How do you keep friendly and mutually helpful relations with the public?

Evaluations of the conference were invited. All those received by the chairmen have been favorable. The most rewarding tribute, however, was from a man who had traveled 2,000 miles to the conference: "I have dreamed for many years of such a chance to meet the type of people present at this conference."

A full report of the conference is being prepared in processed form. It will be sent to all participants at the conference, and a limited supply will be available to others who wish to have it.

Why Have a Board of Education?

(*Continued from page 113*)

public concern. Boards of education discharge the important policymaking functions without excessive expenditures of public funds. It is general practice for members of boards of education to serve without pay and to receive compensation only for their expenses.

A board of education provides a safeguard against fraud and malfeasance.—It is more difficult for 2 or several persons to commit a dishonest act in collusion with each other than it is for 1 person to perpetrate a fraud alone. This fact lies behind the centuries-old principle that internal checks must be employed to safeguard public funds.

Practical Nurse Training Schools

In the United States and its Territories, 391 schools offer practical nurse training in 331 different localities. Public education authorities operate 244 of these schools in 217 different localities; private agencies operate 147 schools in 133 different localities. In many localities more than one school is offering training in practical nursing, consequently the number of schools exceeds the number of localities in all categories. States and Territories with no schools of practical nursing under public education are: Alaska, Canal Zone, Maine, Maryland, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Virgin Islands, West Virginia, and Wyoming. States and Territories with no schools of practical nursing are: Canal Zone, Maine, Virgin Islands, and Wyoming. Practical Nursing is without licensure in Colorado, Delaware, Nebraska, Ohio, West Virginia, Wyoming, District of Columbia, and Canal Zone.

The Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education, made public this and additional information on practical nurse training in the States and Territories in Misc. 3473–3474, October 1954.

Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment in the Public School System of the United States, By Grade, 1949-50 Through 1959-60

by Emery M. Foster, Head, Reports and Analysis, and Carol Joy Hobson, Research Assistant,
Research and Statistical Standards Section, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

IN THE past few years, much concern has been expressed over the mounting enrollments in public schools and the problems of preparing to cope with the expected continued increases in enrollment for the years to come. Two recent SCHOOL LIFE articles [1] by the authors presented information on general enrollment trends, teacher shortages, and expenditures. This article presents specific data on the anticipated distribution of the public school enrollment for use in planning for additional teachers and facilities to meet the increases in enrollment at various levels.

[1] "Vital Statistics of American Education: 1954–1960," Vol. 36, No. 1, October 1954; and "Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment in the United States 1929–30 to 1959–60," Vol. 37, No. 4, January 1955.

Total Enrollment

There will be, according to Office estimates, an increase of 12,293,000 pupils in the enrollment in the public school system between 1949–50 and 1959–60, of which 9,826,000 will be in the elementary grades (K to 8) and 2,467,000 in the high school grades (9 to 12). This increase is equal to the entire 1950 population of New York City, Chicago, and San Francisco.

The 12 million increase is about equal to the entire enrollment of 12,264,216 in the fall of 1954 in the 7 States with the highest enrollment plus that of Kansas. This means that to meet the increased enrollment in these 10 years (12,293,000), the Nation will have to provide an entire school system equal to that serving the fall 1954 enrollment of the States of California, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, Ohio, Michigan, North Carolina, and Kansas combined (12,264,216).

The 12-million increase is equal to more than 5 times the 1954 fall enrollment in either California or New York State, or 7 times the enrollment in Texas, or 9 times the enrollment in Michigan, or 12 times the fall 1954 enrollment in North Carolina.

Another comparison that shows the size of the problem of providing for the *10-year increase in the number of pupils* may be made by using the school enrollment in the fall of 1954 in the smaller States. The entire school enrollment in 33 States and the District of Columbia was 12,292,419 pupils. This is fewer than the 12,293,000 pupil-

Estimated Public School System Enrollment for Continental United States, by Grade, 1949–50 through 1959–60 [1]

[Thousands]

Grade	SCHOOL YEAR										
	1949–50 [2]	1950–51	1951–52 [2]	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
K	1,034	941	1,272	1,312	1,237	1,237	1,228	1,280	1,308	1,344	1,298
1	3,170	3,053	2,957	3,319	4,152	4,285	4,267	4,250	4,369	4,481	4,602
2	2,645	2,739	2,670	2,978	2,886	3,617	3,741	3,731	3,723	3,834	3,938
3	2,396	2,601	2,718	2,769	2,855	2,767	3,468	3,587	3,578	3,571	3,677
4	2,254	2,358	2,559	2,559	2,700	2,783	2,698	3,382	3,497	3,489	3,482
5	2,151	2,211	2,320	2,397	2,483	2,619	2,700	2,618	3,281	3,394	3,386
6	2,056	2,117	2,166	2,229	2,361	2,447	2,581	2,661	2,580	3,234	3,345
7	1,947	1,995	2,083	2,103	2,180	2,311	2,394	2,526	2,604	2,525	3,165
8	1,752	1,885	1,936	1,906	1,940	2,014	2,138	2,215	2,338	2,410	2,338
K–8	19,405	[2] 19,900	20,681	21,572	22,794	24,080	25,215	26,250	27,278	28,282	29,231
9	1,756	1,781	1,820	1,903	1,964	1,998	2,073	2,199	2,279	2,404	2,479
10	1,512	1,548	1,582	1,661	1,722	1,782	1,815	1,887	2,006	2,079	2,194
11	1,274	1,313	1,338	1,401	1,439	1,500	1,559	1,592	1,660	1,770	1,835
12	1,123	1,127	1,111	1,202	1,264	1,304	1,364	1,423	1,456	1,519	1,624
9–12 [3]	5,665	[2] 5,769	5,851	6,167	6,389	6,583	6,811	7,101	7,401	7,772	8,132
K–12	25,070	[2] 25,669	26,532	27,739	29,183	30,663	32,026	33,351	34,679	36,054	37,363

[1] *Does not include enrollments in residential schools for exceptional children, noncollegiate departments of colleges (preparatory or training schools,) and Federal schools or enrollments in the outlying parts of the United States.* [2] *Reported data; not estimates.* [3] *Excludes postgraduates.*

increase expected in the public school system in the 1950–1960 decade. From the smallest to the largest, the 33 States are as follows: Nevada, Delaware, Wyoming, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Idaho, Maine, Oregon, Arizona, Nebraska, Connecticut, Kansas, Arkansas, West Virginia, Oklahoma, Maryland, Washington, South Carolina, Mississippi, Iowa, Louisiana, Minnesota, Kentucky, Florida, Massachusetts, Virginia, Alabama, Tennessee, and Missouri.

What will this mean for the coming school year?

The indicated increase for 1955–56 over the school year 1954–55 is 1,363,000 for the school system as a whole, of which 1,135,000 will be in grades K–8 and 228,000 in grades 9–12. To provide for this 1-year increase would take the entire school system of the State of Michigan, which enrolled 1,314,681 pupils in the fall of 1954, or twice the school systems of Massachusetts, or 3 times that of Arkansas, or 5½ times that of Nebraska, or 10 times that of South Dakota, or 21 times that of Wyoming.

To provide for the 12-million increase in pupils from 1950 to 1960 will take about 440,000 additional teachers. However, when we think in terms of the total number of teachers that will have to be recruited during this 10-year period to replace deaths, retirements, turnover, and substandard emergency teachers the number will be much greater. The problem is complicated by the needs for specific types of teachers and by the gradual shift from elementary needs to high school needs as the peak of the enrollment passes from grade to grade through the school system. The school year 1955–56, beginning this fall, starts the second half of this decade of increase.

Grade Enrollment

Projections of grade enrollment in the public school system show increases in the total elementary grades and in the total high school grades for each school year from 1949–50 through 1959–60. The occasional slight decrease in a particular grade for a year or two probably reflects a smaller number of children born in the year from which these enrollments originate. For example, there were 3,649,000 births in 1949 and 3,632,000 in 1950, a decrease of 17,000. Thus the number of children entering our elementary schools from 5 to 7 years later reflects this slight drop, and the first grade in 1955–56 is slightly less than in 1954–55. In general, however, each grade is larger each year than the year before.

The largest single year increase in the first-grade enrollment occurred between 1952–53 and 1953–54, when the enrollment in this grade increased by more than four-fifths of a million (25 percent). This increase reflected the large increase in the number of births at the end of World War II in 1946 and 1947. From 1953–54 to the end of the decade the changes in the first-grade enrollment will be slight, reaching a high in 1959–60 of 4,602,000, or about 7 percent higher than the current first-grade enrollment. The increases in the first grade cause increases in successive grades in subsequent years as each group of pupils progresses through the school system. Hence, in 1959–60 the 8th-grade enrollment will be about 16 percent higher than it is at present.

Method

The general method used in making these estimates has been to apply age-grade specific ratios to the single year of age projections of the population to arrive at a total first-grade enrollment for all schools for each year for which estimates were to be made. The proportion of the total first-grade enrollment that would be in the public school systems was then estimated by using data from the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States. Enrollments in grades 2 through 12 were then obtained by applying retention ratios to the public school system's first grade. The first-grade enrollment is comprised of pupils in this grade for the first time as well as those pupils who are repeating the grade.

An Educational Bottleneck

(*Continued from inside front cover*)

upward, the proportion of college graduates who qualify to teach high school science and mathematics continues to decrease.

Between 1950 and 1954, the total number of college graduates meeting certification requirements to teach in high school dropped 42 percent, and the number qualified to teach mathematics and science dropped 51 percent and 56 percent, respectively. Of those qualified, many actually find employment in other fields. A recent study showed that only 40 percent of the 1953 college graduates qualified to teach science and mathematics were teaching in November of that year. This is the most serious "bottleneck" in efforts to increase the supply of engineers and scientists.

The supply of engineers might be increased if, by intensive guidance procedures in junior and senior high schools, a larger percentage of the students preparing for college could be induced to study engineering. However, this would raise an important question as to the possible effect of such action on other professions. There is some evidence that the number of students in engineering colleges, expressed as a percentage of their age group, has about reached its maximum.

A much more promising method of attack is to attempt to change the proportion of capable high school graduates who go to college. The recent report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training shows that 47 percent of the top fifth of high school graduates in ability do not go to college at all.

Their reasons are many, but the two most important ones are financial inability and lack of interest, stemming in many cases from family tradition. If we can find some way of getting more of these competent youngsters into college we can safely assume that engineering will attract its fair share of them. It has done so in the past, as is evidenced by the results of the Selective Service Qualifications Test every time it has been given.

The key persons in such an effort are the high school teachers of science and mathematics, especially the inspiring teacher who brings out latent talents in his or her students, and who helps each student discover his aptitudes and abilities and encourages him to make the most of them through continued education.

To high school guidance counselors I should like to offer a few concrete suggestions as to things which high school teachers and administrators can do to help in this situation. I believe that these are practical suggestions, and that they will need little if any explanation.

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.)

ADMINISTRATION IN PROFILE FOR SCHOOL EXECUTIVES. By Harlan L. Hagman and Alfred Schwartz. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955. 315 p. $3.50.

AN APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF MOTIVATION PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION. By William W. Lynch, Jr. Bloomington. Ind., Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1955. 48 p. (Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, vol. 31, No. 2) $1.

CHOOSING FREE MATERIALS FOR USE IN THE SCHOOLS. Washington, D. C., The American Association of School Administrators, A Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1955. 24 p. Illus. 50 cents.

COLLEGE CREDIT BY EXAMINATION: An Evaluation of the University of Buffalo program. By Edward S. Jones and Gloria K. Ortner. Buffalo, The University of Buffalo, 1954. (The University of Buffalo Studies, vol. 21, No. 3) 50 cents.

FINANCING PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE DECADE AHEAD. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1954. 62 p.

HANDBOOK ON INTERNATIONAL STUDY 1955. A Guide for Foreign Students on Study in the United States and for U. S. Students on Study Abroad. New York, Institute of International Education, Inc., 1955. 350 p.

IMPROVE YOUR LEARNING ABILITY. By Harry N. Rivlin. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955. 47 p. Illus. (A Life Adjustment Booklet) 50 cents.

IMPROVEMENT OF LIVING THROUGH EDUCATION. The Sloan Project in Applied Economics in Vermont. A Report by Maurice B. Morrill and Bennett C. Douglass. Burlington, Vt., Published by The University of Vermont and State Agricultural College as a part of the Experiment in Applied Economics Made Possible by a Grant from The Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Incorporated, 1954. 108 p.

INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS. By Gordon McCloskey, Zeno B. Katterle, and Delmar T. Oviatt under the Editorship of Willard B. Spaulding. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954. 470 p. Illus. $5.25.

LET'S TEACH ADULTS. Prepared by A Group of Adult Educators. Tallahassee, Fla., Florida State Department of Education, 1954. 55 p. Illus.

MATERIALS FOR THE RETARDED READER. By Cloy S. Hobson and Oscar M. Haugh. Topeka, Kans., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1954. 21 p.

MODERN PHILOSOPHIES AND EDUCATION. The Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I. Prepared by the Yearbook Committee, John S. Brubacher, Chairman, Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1955. 374 p. Paper, $3.25; Cloth, $4.

PERSONALITY ADJUSTMENT OF INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN. By Ralph H. Ojemann. Washington, D. C., Department of Classroom Teachers and American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1954. 32 p. (What Research Says Series, No. 5) 25 cents.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. By N. P. Neilson and Winifred Van Hagen. New York, A. S. Barnes and Co., 1954. 552 p. Illus, $4.50.

PLAYTIME IN THE FIRST FIVE YEARS. By Hilary Page. Philadelphia, J. P. Lippincott Co., 1954. 178 p. Illus. $3.50.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF ACCREDITED MUSIC INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES. By Lillian Mitchell Allen. Washington, D. C., The Catholic University of America Press, 1954. 127 p. $1.50.

READING LADDERS FOR HUMAN RELATIONS. Revised and Enlarged Edition 1954. By Margaret M. Heaton and Helen B. Lewis. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1955. 215 p. $1.75.

THE ROLE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR IN THE ANALYSIS AND IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION. Editorial Committee: Fred C. Ayer, Roy M. Hall and Alfred T. Little. Austin, Tex., The Southwestern Cooperative Program in education administration, The University of Texas, 1954. 90 p.

THE SLOW LEARNER IN THE AVERAGE CLASSROOM. By the Subcommittee on the Slow Learner. New York, Metropolitan School Study Council, 1954. 34 p. Illus. 50 cents.

THE SPRINGFIELD CITIZENS SCHOOL SURVEY. A Survey of the Springfield, Ill., School District. By Citizens of the Community with the Assistance of Consultants from the University of Illinois. Springfield, Ill., The Citizens School Survey Committee, 1954. 114 p. Illus.

STATE AID FOR EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NEW YORK CITY. Report of the Fact Finding Committee on State Aid for Education. Joseph D. Fackenthal, Chairman, Julius B. Maller, Director of Research. Brooklyn, N. Y., Board of Education, City of New York, 1954. 431 p.

THE TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP. By Robert Nelson Bush. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. 252 p. $3.95.

TEAR SHEETS FOR TEACHING. (Designed To Help Teachers Use Inexpensive Pictures More Effectively in the Classroom.) By Charles H. Dent, Leonard B. Ambos and Nancy M. Holland. Austin, Tex., The Visual Instruction Bureau, Division of Extension, The University of Texas, 1954. 24 p. (Bridges for Ideas Series, No. 1) $1.

THE TECHNIQUES OF READING: An integrated program for improved comprehension and speed. By Horace Judson in Consultation with Kenneth P. Baldridge. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954. 406 p. $4.75.

TRENDS IN THE PRODUCTION OF CURRICULUM GUIDES: A survey of courses of study published in 1951 through 1953. By Eleanor Merritt and Henry Harap. Nashville, Tenn., Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955. 43 p. 50 cents.

UNIT TEACHING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Lavonne H. Hanna, Gladys L. Potter, and Neva Hagaman. New York, Rhinehart and Co., Inc., 1955. 592 p. Illus. $5.50.

ILLUSTRATED GAMES AND RHYTHMS FOR CHILDREN—PRIMARY GRADES. By Frank H. Geri. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. 196 p. Illus. $3.95.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1955

EDUCATIONAL AIDS FROM YOUR GOVERNMENT

HOW TO ORDER

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Edna K. Cave, Reports and Technical Services

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Stop Rheumatic Fever, Health Information Series 66. Presents information relating to damage produced by rheumatic fever, how it gets its start, and its prevention. Public Health Service. 1955. 5 cents.

United States Participation in International Health. Basic facts regarding the role of the United States in the improvement of world health conditions. Public Health Service. 1954. 30 cents.

Office of Education

Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language. By Robert Lado. Bulletin 1955 No. 3. 65 cents.

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1953–54. By Mabel C. Rice and Neva A. Carlson. Circular No. 418. 1955. 50 cents.

Engineering Enrollments and Degrees, 1954. By William A. Jaracz and Henry H. Armsby. Circular No. 421. 1955. 25 cents.

Fall Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions 1954. By William A Jaracz. Circular No. 419. 1955. 30 cents.

Longitudinal Study of the Relationship Between Certain Predictive Factors and Pupil Drop-Outs. A descriptive manual of the research design and procedures being followed in eight cities cooperating with the Office of Education. By David Segel. Circular No. 424. January 1955. Free.

Public School Finance Programs of the United States. By Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse. Misc. No. 22. 1955. $1.50.

Statistics of City School Systems: Staff, Pupils, and Finances, 1951–52. By Lester B. Herlihy. Chapter 3, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1955. 45 cents.

Statistics of Higher Education: Faculty, Students, and Degrees, 1951–52. By Henry G. Badger and Mabel C. Rice. Section 1, Chapter 4, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1955. 35 cents.

Statistics of Higher Education: Receipts, Expenditures, and Property, 1951–52. By Henry G. Badger and Mabel C. Rice. Section 2, Chapter 4, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950–52. 1955. 35 cents.

Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 100,000 or more: Fiscal Year 1954. By Mary M. Willhoite. Circular No. 439, March 1955. Free.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education. An annotated bibliography of studies in agricultural education with classified subject index. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 256. 1955. 35 cents.

Other Government Agencies

Department of Agriculture

List of Available Publications of the United States Department of Agriculture. 1954. 45 cents.

Multiflora Roses for Fences and Wildlife. Gives information on uses of multiflora rose, spreading, where to plant, what, when, and how to plant, how to maintain the planting, and where to get planting stock. 1954. 5 cents.

Department of Labor

Counseling and Employment Service for Special Worker Groups. The purpose of this handbook is to describe the policies, principles, tools, and procedures of job counseling and placement services provided by public employment offices in the interests of special applicant groups. 1954. 40 cents.

Counseling and Employment Service for Youth. Supplement 1 to above publication. This booklet describes the procedures which more uniquely apply in the Employment Service work with young people. 1954. 30 cents.

Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Second Edition, Supplement 1, March 1955. $1.

Equal Pay for Women, Sound Practice, Good Policy. A brief summary of information relating to the importance of equal pay for women. Revised 1954. 5 cents.

Department of State

The American as International Traveler and Host. A discussion outline and work paper prepared for citizen consultations initiated by the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO. 1954. 45 cents.

Federal Civil Defense Administration

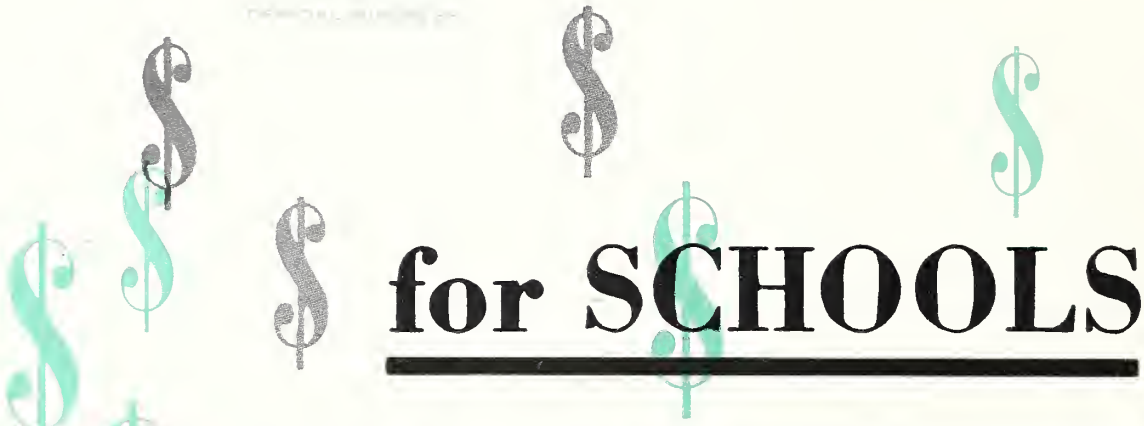
Basic Course for Civil Defense. This guide presents a basic course covering information needed by all civil defense workers. 1955. 30 cents.

General Services Administration

United States Government Organization Manual, 1954–55. Issued annually, this manual covers the creation and authority, organization, and functions of all the branches of the Federal Government. It contains a literal print of the Constitution, a section on the Courts, Congress, and separate chapters on the executive departments and agencies. Numerous organizational charts are included for the reader's convenience. 1954. $1.

National Science Foundation

Manpower Resources in the Earth Sciences. A study conducted jointly by the National Science Foundation and the Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. 1954. 45 cents.



for SCHOOLS

What are the nationwide trends in public school support?

What are the Federal, State, county, and local contributions to public schools in your State?

What educational programs and services are given State financial assistance?

How does your State determine the amount of aid for each school district?

How much State aid is allocated to equalize educational opportunity?

What are the limitations on revenues which may be obtained for schools?

These and other questions are answered in a comprehensive report just issued by the Office of Education. The 251-page publication, prepared by Clayton D. Hutchins, Specialist in School Finance, and Albert R. Munse, Research Assistant, is titled:

Public School Finance Programs of the United States (Misc. No. 22)
Price $1.50

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JUNE 1955

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School Life

◀ Teacher of the Year—1955

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

"Spectatoritis" or Education*

by David D. Henry,

Executive Vice Chancellor, New York University

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION AND RADIO is a misnomer. We should instead speak of televised and broadcast education, so that the purposes, methods, and outcomes will be measured by educational standards, not by entertainment or recreational standards, no matter how laudable or worthwhile the latter may be.

Confusion of objectives has plagued the educational television stations in the initial stages of development. Pressed by inadequate finances to have a community appeal instead of an educational appeal, in a good many instances, the strictly instructional programs are not a proper proportion of the total. Further, the influence of the commercial broadcaster's experience often unnecessarily dilutes the substances of educational programs for he cannot understand that the size of the audience, beyond a certain minimum, is not a major concern.

We do not need to apologize for the inherent appeal of educational programs for those who are eager to learn and who are thus to be served by them. That audience is a larger one than is commonly recognized and justifies the existence of educational broadcasting. We do not need to sugarcoat the message or encapsulate it. We do not need to talk down to the audience. Good teaching is always interesting to those who want to be taught.

Let us be sure we are broadcasting good teaching to an interested audience with an educational objective—and we can forget the false stimuli, the faked format, the "souped up" tone, the implied apology. Those who advocate calling the noncommercial station a community station because they assume people would not respond to an educational description do not understand the nature of education and the very purpose of the educational broadcast movement. Unless educational quality and purpose dominate the educational broadcasting station, it might as well be operated by the city recreational department or a benevolent organization for cultural entertainment.

There is a common ground between educational and commercial broadcasting—in the understanding of technical use of equipment and in management and administration. The differences, however, are vital and must not be obscured.

There is the difference in purpose—the one entertains, the other teaches.

There is the difference in technique—the one depends upon showmanship to command attention, the other upon concern of the listener to learn.

There is the difference in measured achievement—the one counts ears, the other counts minds.

(*Continued on page 143*)

*Excerpt from address "Educational Broadcasting—A Look Ahead," by Dr. Henry before the 25th Institute for Education by Radio-Television, at Columbus, Ohio, April 15, 1955.

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

Official Journal of School Life the Office of Education

Cover photograph: Miss Margaret Perry, Monmouth Elementary School, Monmouth, Oregon, selected as Teacher of the Year for 1955. Photograph courtesy of McCall's Magazine.

Volume 37 Number 9

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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.)

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

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Address all SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the
Director, Publications 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)

TEACHER of the Year for 1955—

Miss Margaret Perry, Monmouth Elementary School, Monmouth, Oregon

"A TEACHER affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops."

This quotation by Henry Adams appears on the bulletin board in the entrance to the Monmouth Elementary School, a school in Monmouth. Oreg., which numbers among its teachers one who has been signally honored as *McCall's* Teacher of the Year for 1955.

She is Miss Margaret Perry, fourth-grade teacher of 35 pupils, who serves also as supervisor of student teachers for Oregon College of Education.

With two of her pupils, selected by their classmates, Miss Perry was welcomed at The White House on May 19 by President Eisenhower. She was presented to the President by S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, who said, "The career of the 1955 Teacher of the Year—Miss Perry—is an outstanding example of useful service and is illustrative of the high satisfaction which comes to a person who has dedicated herself to the teaching of American youth."

What prompted Margaret Perry to go into teaching? What were the educational influences that turned her toward the classroom?

She says that to teach has been her ambition from as early in her own school career as she can remember. She treasures impressions of her first-grade teacher in a South Dakota farm community rural school. She also recalls the pleasant association and guidance of a public librarian in Winner, S. Dak., as she worked to help pay the cost of her high school education. As a student assistant in the library at Dakota Wesleyan University in Mitchell, S. Dak., she earned part of her expenses as she began her preparation for a career of teaching.

It is probably Miss Perry's own philosophy, which she sums up in one sentence, that doubtless explains her success in the classroom and in the community—the type of educational achievement that has brought her and her school into national limelight. This sentence and her philosophy is, "The most important thing I do is teach children."

Dr. William F. Wagner, principal of the Monmouth Elementary School, says "Miss Perry is a happy blending of the traditional and the modern teacher. Children are glad to be in her room," he says. "They want to talk about what they do in school."

A typical school day for Miss Perry begins when the first pupil arrives in her classroom. This is 8 a. m., or earlier. The classroom is large, well lighted, and colorful in a way that appeals to children. A variety of materials and equipment makes it a convenient and efficient workshop. Several children arrive quite early and start activities of different kinds. Miss Perry does her share of preparing the room for the day. She adjusts the modern lighting and window blinds for the comfort of the children and the protection of their eyesight. She chooses a book to be laid on one child's desk, perhaps a picture for another. When a child knows that she has made a selection just for him, he feels confidence in her interest. In this way, too, she can help the boy or girl meet an individual need.

The boys and girls arrive, one at a time or in small groups. They are a typical fourth-grade class. Some of the children obviously are out-of-school friends, perhaps neighbors. Some seek companions, while others work alone. They have emotional and mental differences, as well as physical and social ones.

As he arrives, each fourth-grader has something very personal to relate to Miss Perry, or she to him—about the violin he is carrying, his recent tooth surgery, news from mother and daddy who are away from home on a business trip, a shorter hair style, a sick mother, a new rock for the science table collection, or a TV program from Walt Disney's "Vanishing Prairie." Each child feels that Miss Perry is a friend who is interested in what he does; she

listens to him when he is troubled, and she will hold in confidence the things he tells her in confidence. And Miss Perry does not forget throughout the day that Johnny's thoughts may sometimes be about his mother who is ill or that Mary may be wishing she were making the trip with her parents.

These boys and girls help each other and learn how to be friends. Each one feels that his "being" there makes a difference, that he is missed when he is away. At Miss Perry's suggestion one very young pianist helps another "would-be" musician at the piano in the corner. The latter young lady has no piano in her home but has such a desire to learn to play that Miss Perry teaches her a little before school now and then. Children, too, have their part in the housekeeping. Someone arranges the collection on the science table; another boy places a picture on the bulletin board. All help to see that chairs and tables are arranged satisfactorily. Children who wish to tell the whole class about some personal interest or family activity list their names on the chalkboard. Good housekeeping means more efficient work, and Miss Perry and the children have planned together who will be responsible for various tasks.

When the last bell has rung, the morning session is duly called to order by the pupil-president of the class, and the Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag is led by the vice president. The treasurer counts those pupils who will enjoy the school-lunch menu at noon and collects the lunch money for the report to the school office. Invitations and announcements from other classes are quickly handled by the class secretary. Those pupils who previously indicated their desire to do so share their new or unusual home and family experiences with the class for a short period of time. Guests who may be present are introduced by an official host. The hostess answers the knock of any callers at the classroom door.

These are all factors in the feeling that the room belongs to the children, not to the teacher alone. Moreover, each boy and girl is learning that his work is important to the group. Once he accepts responsibility for something he is able to do and which is needed by the group, he must carry through. With the exception of the student council representative and the fire chief, two positions for which the children themselves decided competent services were needed for a longer period of time, class officerships and committee memberships are changed each month through class elections.

Voting on a United States Senator and a Governor of Oregon preceding this year's general election was not, therefore, an unfamiliar procedure for the boys and girls. An interesting chart and several photographs on a bulletin board challenge the serious interest of these nine- and ten-year-olds in the government of their State and Nation. Under a photograph of the President of the United States are these words: "Who is this man? What State was he born in?" Under Governor Paul Patterson's picture are the words: "This man was elected by a large margin. He now goes to Salem to fill his office there."

Bulletin boards are used effectively to display the creative expressions of the boys and girls and to permit them to enjoy and evaluate each other's efforts. Their mural depicting snow-covered Mount Hood, in which all Oregonians take much pride and joy, is about something that is familiar to them and therefore a good way for the children to get real feeling into their art. Through murals and other drawings they can express their own feelings and get their ideas across to one another. The caption under a group of imaginative autumn scenes done with pastels reads: "We saw a college class drawing with pastels. We thought it looked like fun so we tried it ourselves."

Several centers of interest are found in the classroom. The usual collection of items from nature in Oregon is found on the science table, but interesting notes and questions make it more than an ordinary classroom activity. For example: "How do trees make new trees? On the table are many ways that trees and even plants grow into new trees and plants. Notice the cones—full of seeds. Are all the cones shaped alike? Do they all look alike? Maybe not, but they all do the same job." Or "Why is the grass green? Why are leaves green? They are green because the 'thing' that manufactures their food is green. This thing is called 'chlorophyll.' How many of you use 'chlorophyll toothpaste'? Are trees' leaves and your toothpaste the same color?" Thus science becomes meaningful. It is useful out of school as well as in school.

The Teacher of the Year is selected by nomination of chief State school officers (State superintendents and State commissioners of education) with the cooperation of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Council of Chief State School Officers. The project is sponsored by *McCall's Magazine*.

During the past three years Teachers of the Year have been named from California, Connecticut, and Illinois. These teachers have been Mrs. Gerry Jones, teacher of the first grade at Hope Public School, Santa Barbara, California; Mrs. Dorothy Hamilton of Milford High School, Milford, Connecticut; and Mr. Willard Widerberg, seventh grade teacher in the Junior High School of DeKalb, Illinois.

Criteria for the selection of the Teacher of the Year include: Sound professional education, successful teaching experience, personal qualities—skill in human relations, intellectual ability, emotional maturity, good health, community participation—being an active citizen and helping to make children better citizens, love of children, and wide cultural interests.

In addition to the Teacher of the Year, McCall's selects an honor roll of other outstanding teachers throughout the Nation which this year includes the following: Miss Elsie May Cimino, Union High School, Hillsboro, Oreg; Mrs. Nan Temple Davis, Huntington East High School, Huntington, W. Va.; Mrs. Mona R. Janes, Staley School, Wayne County, W. Va.; Miss Lillian Larson, Senior High School, Grand Junction, Colo.; Miss Elsie M. Lindgren, Senior High School, Twin Falls, Idaho; Mrs. Edith Edwards Means, Flint School, Shawnee, Kans.; Miss Rita A. Murphy, Senior High School, Bismarck, N. Dak; and Miss Elizabeth Schnurr, Westwood Elementary School, Denver, Colo.

These materials are more than a display of things. Here boys and girls have an opportunity to learn how to arrange and label collections. Ability to organize materials for interesting reading and study may mean the difference between a lifetime hobby and one that fails to hold interest. Moreover, such work can be an incentive for children to learn to read better and to write more legibly.

These fourth-graders work in small groups as they are introduced to new skills in reading and in using numbers. They like to read. With a favorable attitude toward reading, the children overcome reading difficulties through word analysis, attention to content, and phonics. Not all the children have difficulties. Miss Perry helps those who do to look carefully at unfamiliar words, to analyze parts that are familiar and parts that are new, and to decide

(*Continued on page 138*)

New Staff Members and Organization Plan for the Office of Education

To strengthen its services to the profession and the public

THE Commissioner of Education, S. M. Brownell, recently announced staff and organizational changes for the Office of Education to strengthen its services to the educational profession and to the public.

In the newly announced organizational plan, all Office of Education programs and functions are coordinated in three major areas—Educational Research, Educational Services, and Administration of Grants.

"Under this plan of organization," Commissioner Brownell said, the entire Office can mobilize for study of major educational problems and for service to the States and local communities as they endeavor to find solutions to their school and college problems.

"Our plans include major research projects, with a corresponding increase in services to citizens and education agencies concerned with all levels, from early childhood through higher and adult education," the Commissioner said.

To study and develop the program for the Research area, in cooperation with Office of Education staff members, Dr. Julian Butterworth, formerly chairman of the Department of Education at Cornell University spent several months at the Office. Dr. Butterworth concluded his consultative service on May 20. It was announced at this time that an Assistant Commissioner for Research will be named to coordinate educational research in the Office of Education.

Included in the Research area will be research functions of the National Advisory Committee on Education, the program of cooperative research with colleges, universities, and State educational agencies, and special research projects of the Office of Education. Statistical studies of the Office, reported periodically on the status and trends of elementary, secondary, and higher education, and special statistical studies as required, also are a Research area responsibility, directed by Dr. Herbert S. Conrad, Chief of Research and Statistical Standards.

Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems, and coordinator of the area of Educational Services.

Rall I. Grigsby, Assistant Commissioner for School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas, who will coordinate the Administration of Grants area.

Dr. Wayne O. Reed, Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems, is responsible for coordination of Office of Education programs and functions in the second major area—Educational Services.

Activities in the Educational Services area continue and expand the programs of the Divisions of State and Local School Systems, Vocational Education, Higher Education, and International Education. Services of these divisions include program studies, service publications, and services to citizens, educators, and governmental agencies on educational problems.

Educational Services encompass such varied fields as curriculum and instruction, school administration, guidance and student personnel, adult education, school laws and legislation. This area also embraces education of the mentally and physically handicapped and the gifted, civil defense, education, library service, and educational uses of radio, television, and visual aids.

Dr. Rall I. Grigsby, Assistant Commissioner for School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas, serves as coordinator of the Administration of Grants area. A major responsibility of this area is the administration of funds authorized by the Congress for construction, maintenance, and operation of school buildings in federally affected areas. Grants for vocational education and for land-grant college education are administered by the Divisions of Vocational Education and Higher Education.

James H. Pearson, a veteran staff member of the Division of Vocational Education, has been named Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education. Mr. Pearson had served as Acting Commissioner for Vocational Education since September 1953. He will administer the Federal funds for vocational education appropriated by the Congress to promote and develop programs of vocational education for youth and adults in the several States. The vocational education programs are organized and conducted by State boards for vocational education and local school systems.

John P. Walsh, of Suncook, New Hampshire, has been appointed Chief of the Trade and Industrial Education Branch, Division of Vocational Education. Mr. Walsh had

Left to right: Herbert S. Conrad, Chief, Research and Statistical Standards; James H. Pearson, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, and Ambrose Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner and Chief of the Adult Education Section.

been State director of Vocational Education in New Hampshire since July 1, 1951. He entered upon his new duties in the Office of Education on June 1.

Commissioner Brownell announced other staff appointments and organizational plans.

Dr. Ambrose Caliver, an official of the Office of Education for many years, was selected to direct a newly established adult education section in the area of Services. Dr. Caliver, Assistant to the Commissioner of Education for several years, will give renewed emphasis to the field of adult education and the educational problems of the aging.

The Commissioner of Education also named Dr. Frank L. Sievers to head the section for guidance and student personnel services to elementary and high schools and to colleges and universities. Since November 1953 Dr. Sievers had served as Executive Secretary, American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc., Washington, D. C.

Dr. Raymond C. Gibson has assumed the duties of Chief for Teacher Education, Division of Higher Education. He was formerly Director of the Education Missions Branch for the Division of International Education.

Two other appointments in the Division of Higher Education announced by Commissioner Brownell are Sebastian Vincent Martorana, of Big Rapids, Michigan, to serve as Office of Education Specialist for Junior Colleges, and William R. Bokelman, of Kansas City, Missouri, to be Specialist for the Office in College Business Management. Mr. Martorana entered upon his new duties on May 16. Mr. Bokelman will report for duty the latter part of June. These Specialists will engage in research and service as consultants in their respective fields, establishing cooperative relationships with colleges and universities and with governmental, citizen, and educational associations.

Carroll Hanson, formerly in charge of publications for the San Diego County Schools and recently a publications consultant in Pasadena, California, has been named Director of Publications Services of the Office of Education. This service will coordinate the planning and dissemination of information for the public and teaching profession. Dr. B. Harold Williams, former Head, Training Publications Section, Navy Department, has been appointed to serve as chief of the editorial services of the Office.

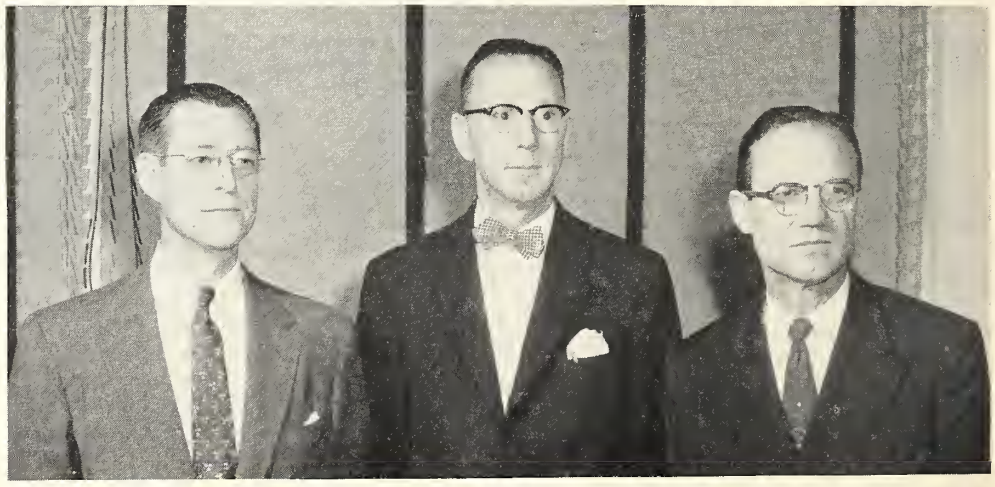
In the Office of the Commissioner of Education A. Lachlan Reed was given responsibility for governmental and public liaison, and Ward Stewart and Melvin Sneed were given continuing responsibility for school law and legislation services. Administrative management functions for the Office as a whole are under the direction of Donald W. McKone.

"The newly filled positions, and those to be filled in the near future, should do much to enable the Office of Education to give new direction and leadership, as required, to programs of research and service to American education," Commissioner Brownell said.

"Working with State and local school administrators and teachers, and established institutions and organizations, the strengthened Office of Edueation can better share in the Federal, State, and local partnership, working toward the best education possible for the Nation's children," the Commissioner of Education said.

Speaking before the Senate Subcommittee of the Committee on Appropriations, the Commissioner said, "In fiscal 1955 through 1956 the Office will place more emphasis on educational services and studies which have national significance and which the Office is uniquely qualified to accomplish. Work which does not meet these criteria will be systematically brought to a close. . . . this will result in the 'team' approach to larger problems, bringing together a number of specialists with needed competencies for a concentrated effort."

The Commissioner specifically mentioned the strengthening of research and statistical services to provide timely and authoritative information; the strengthening of reports and publications services, organizationally and functionally; the improving of editorial services to provide current and comprehensive information on educational developments; and the improving of processes of recruiting and selecting professional staff members of the Office of Education.



Left to right: Carroll Hanson, Director of Publications Services; Raymond C. Gibson, Associate Chief, Teacher Education; and Frank L. Sievers, Chief, Guidance and Student Personnel Section.

"... Much Good Is Done"

by Cornelius R. McLaughlin, Acting Chief, Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

"WE FOUND him to be an exceptionally fine young man, a good teacher, very adaptable to new situations, and a splendid representative of his country. When an exchange can be as successful as this one has been, I feel that much good is done." In these words the administrator of a secondary school in New York State summed up his experience with an exchange teacher from Belgium. This was his first experience with the teacher exchange program.

This remark does not stand alone. A few months ago the president of a teacher education institution made this statement:

"Our exchange instructor has proved to be a delightful representative of the English people, and we are most happy over her contribution to international understanding."

With this kind of support the international exchange of teachers has become a well-established educational venture. The program provides opportunities for elementary and secondary school teachers and junior college instructors to be of special service in contributing to international understanding through schools and school children. It has, in a sense, increased by hundreds the exchange of ambassadors between countries—ambassadors who meet children and parents of all levels of society in the smallest villages as well as in the largest cities. The experience offers an opportunity for broadening the educational horizons of exchange teachers and develops better teaching in this country and abroad.

Over a period of years I have met hundreds of exchange teachers as they arrived in the United States or departed to participate in the program. Over this same period I have visited scores of exchange teachers in American classrooms. Recently, however, I had an opportunity to view the program in schools in other countries. The visit enabled me to meet teachers who had been on exchange in the United States in recent years and to see American teachers who are on exchange during the 1954–55 school year.

In 1948–49 Miss Marjorie Harbour taught in New Castle, Ind., as an exchange teacher from England. Today, Miss Harbour is a headmistress and has an American exchange teacher in her British school, The Fielding Primary School, Ealing. The American teacher, Miss Helen Murphy, a charming, enthusiastic teacher of 8-year-old children from the Boston public schools, is an excellent exchange teacher. Her classroom work has provided a thrilling experience for the British children. Her community activities have brought much favorable comment by British citizens who have seen her in action. Miss Harbour, long familiar with American teaching methods, has encouraged Miss Murphy. The result has been a most successful exchange experience for the teacher and the school. The success of this interchange of teachers has not been one-sided. Miss Phyllis Squire, the British teacher on exchange in the Boston school, recently wrote that she could not "speak too highly of the Boston School Committee, who have extended to me such goodwill and understanding. Their efforts to make my stay in their midst a happy one will long be remembered."

The secondary modern school is a recent development in the British educational system. Established under the provisions of the Education Act of 1944, it is designed to offer a general education related to the interests and environment of the pupils. Headmasters and headmistresses have great freedom in developing the program, and a wide range in education exists which covers the literary as well as the practical aspects of life. Many American teachers have an opportunity to exchange with staff members of these schools. Since the curriculum will vary from community to community, it is safe to assume that a wide variety of experience is assured.

This year, Mrs. Ruby Gunn, a teacher of English from the high school in Adairville, Ky., is teaching at the Erkenwald Secondary Modern School, Dagenham, Essex. The headmistress has encouraged Mrs. Gunn to emphasize the works of American authors in her literature classes. In addition, Mrs. Gunn works with the social studies teacher in developing a program based on the project method familiar in American classrooms. Dagenham, more densely populated and industrialized than her home community in the United States, has offered a rich educational experience to the American exchange teacher.

The Croydon High School for Girls is one of the finest grammar schools in the United Kingdom. The principal, Miss Margaret Adams, has visited many schools in the United States and is familiar with our educational practices and procedures. She has, for many years, encouraged her staff members to apply for exchange teaching positions and has arranged exchange assignments in her school for teachers from other countries. This year Miss Vivian Wehrli, a social studies teacher from the Long Beach, Calif., high school, is teaching at Croydon. In a school in which academic standards are traditionally high, Miss Adams has arranged for Miss Wehrli to take a selected group. After brief reports by each of the girls, I, as any visitor would be, was impressed with the rapport that has been established between these girls and the American exchange teacher. There has been a challenge accepted by all, and the standard of work being accomplished is amazingly high. Miss Wehrli, when she returns to Long Beach in September, will be a better teacher as a result of the exchange experience she has had this year. Her pupils in Long Beach will be able to share this with her.

Miss Margaret D. Wilson of the Baltimore city schools is teaching at the Purley Oakes School, a junior school in South Croydon. Miss Wilson, a modest young teacher, has won the admiration of her British pupils. Without the slightest evidence of aggressiveness, sometimes attributed to Americans abroad, Miss Wilson has broken down many barriers of misunder-

(Continued on page 142)

Nation's Public School Enrollment, Number of Teachers, and Planned Classrooms*

by Samuel Schloss, Specialist in Educational Statistics, and Carol Joy Hobson, Research Assistant,
Research and Statistical Standards, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

EACH YEAR the Office of Education receives numerous requests for a variety of statistical information about the public school system. These requests come from legislators, educational administrators, trade associations, magazines, teachers, students, and the general public. Among the questions most frequently asked are those relating to pupil enrollment, teaching staff, and the adequacy of schoolhousing.

To meet the growing demand for this type of information, the Office of Education conducted the first of a series of annual surveys in the fall of 1954. The data were collected through a brief questionnaire which was mailed to each State and Territorial department of education.

This survey represents an effort of the Office of Education to meet a growing demand for current information. Detailed statistics for the entire school year will continue to be available in the regular periodic surveys.

In this initial survey, some States encountered difficulties in reporting on a uniform basis or did not have exact data readily available. In such cases, estimates were furnished by State departments of education or were developed by the Office of Education. Although the data presented in the adjoining table are by their nature tentative, they may still prove useful to many readers.

The current survey represents one phase of a comprehensive data-collection program for the public school system which has been developed during the past several years and incorporated in *Handbook I, The Common Core of State Educational Information* (Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 8). Chapter 11 of Handbook I laid the groundwork for the present survey by providing for an annual fall collection by State departments of education of a "minimum list" of items of information.

Highlights of Survey

Enrollment.—In the fall of 1954, 7 out 8 school-age children (5 to 17 years of age, inclusive) were enrolled in full-time public elementary and secondary day schools. Of the total enrollment of 29.5 million, 21.3 million pupils were in elementary schools, and 8.2 million in secondary schools (including junior high schools). It should be noted that these enrollment data, which are compiled in the fall of the year, will not be comparable with the statistics on enrollment given in other publications of the Office of Education, which are cumulative for the whole school year.

Number of classroom teachers.—State departments of education reported a total of 1,066,000 classroom teachers, consisting of 690,000 in elementary schools and 376,000 in secondary schools.

Shortage of qualified teachers.—The individual States set the requirements for teachers for both regular certificates and emergency certificates. The proportion of teachers teaching under substandard credentials varies from State to State. There were over 91,000 such teachers, constituting 8.6 percent of all teachers. Almost five-sixths of the emergency teachers were concentrated in the elementary schools. There were also many teachers holding regular certificates who had met only the minimum State standards of preparation.

Number of instruction rooms to be completed during current fiscal year.—It was reported that a total of 60,000 new instruction rooms were scheduled for completion by June 30, 1955. Assuming that the new instruction rooms will be utilized entirely as additional facilities rather than as replacements for obsolete quarters and assuming 30 pupils per classroom, 1.8 million pupils would be provided for.

Pupils in excess of normal capacity.—In addition to the data shown in the table, information was requested on the number of public-school pupils in excess of the normal capacity of the accessible publicly owned school plants. Over 2.6 million pupils were reported as in excess of normal capacity, which represented 9 percent of the total enrollment. "Normal capacity" is defined as the number of pupils that can be accommodated for a full day in the instruction rooms of the accessible, publicly owned, permanent school plants according to current State standards regarding the proper number of pupils per classroom. When nonpublicly owned quarters, *or* makeshift *or* improvised facilities are used, all pupils housed in such facilities are also considered as in excess of normal capacity. The number of pupils in excess of normal capacity reflects overcrowding, pupils on extra shifts, and in makeshift or temporary quarters; but does not include pupils in unsafe, overage, or educationally unsuitable structures. The "number of pupils in excess of normal capacity" thus provides only a partial measure of schoolhousing shortage. Because there appears to be some question on the comparability of the data submitted by some of the States, individual State figures have been omitted from the table.

*Report adapted from Office of Education Circular No. 417 Revised, prepared under the general direction of Emery M. Foster, Head, Reports and Analysis, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

STATE, by REGION	Number of pupils enrolled			Number of teachers, full time and part time (excluding supervisors, principals, librarians, etc.)			Number of full-time teachers teaching under substandard credentials			Total number of instruction rooms scheduled for completion during 1954–55
	TOTAL	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY	TOTAL	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY	TOTAL	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY	
Continental United States	29,525,990	21,309,172	8,216,818	1,065,803	690,109	375,694	91,191	75,171	16,020	60,005
NORTHEAST										
Connecticut	359,000	231,000	128,000	13,900	9,400	4,500	875	831	44	1,652
Maine	178,061	139,213	38,848	7,308	5,012	2,296	262	207	55	45
Massachusetts	669,617	462,233	207,384	27,446	17,201	10,245	8,212	6,880	1,332	940
New Hampshire	83,733	59,290	24,443	[1] 3,343	[1] 2,149	[1] 1,194	261	208	53	227
New Jersey	839,000	670,000	169,000	32,000	23,400	8,600	3,000	2,700	300	1,000
New York	2,261,161	1,401,920	859,241	88,800	50,050	38,750	4,200	3,900	300	4,951
Pennsylvania	1,808,868	1,171,868	637,000	64,821	36,292	28,529	1,600	800	800	6,000
Rhode Island	110,337	76,047	34,290	3,998	2,395	1,603	117	88	29	237
Vermont	66,573	48,637	17,936	2,630	1,874	756	266	229	37	103
NORTH CENTRAL										
Illinois	[2] 1,490,000	[2] 1,132,400	[2] 357,600	[3] 40,801	[3] 27,792	[3] 13,009	2,684	2,282	402	2,116
Indiana	800,000	605,000	195,000	27,000	18,000	9,000	2,400	[4] 2,000	[4] 400	800
Iowa	541,000	411,000	130,000	22,551	15,068	7,483	500	385	115	1,300
Kansas	386,915	292,244	94,671	19,573	13,143	6,430	45	33	12	920
Michigan	1,314,681	866,121	448,560	46,621	28,862	17,759	5,850	5,009	841	2,491
Minnesota	579,302	368,945	210,357	23,843	13,597	10,246	400	280	120	700
Missouri	732,565	571,400	161,165	24,800	18,000	6,800	9,300	8,000	1,300	1,200
Nebraska	240,148	178,241	61,907	12,514	8,746	3,768	739	564	175	430
North Dakota	120,733	91,779	28,954	[5] 6,046	4,559	1,487	400	350	50	150
Ohio	1,505,441	1,015,619	489,822	55,349	31,844	23,505	3,159	2,799	360	2,021
South Dakota	132,470	100,841	31,629	7,810	5,642	2,168	921	921	.....	174
Wisconsin	[2] 561,000	[2] 401,000	[2] 160,000	[2] 23,885	[2] 16,240	[2] 7,645	[5] 2,000	[5] 1,700	[5] 300	1,050
SOUTH										
Alabama	703,647	448,970	254,677	23,022	14,052	8,970	2,067	1,442	625	1,051
Arkansas	430,000	275,000	155,000	13,423	7,898	5,525	5,000	3,500	1,500	242
Delaware	57,921	35,372	22,549	2,542	1,415	1,127	266	262	4	[5] 200
Florida	600,877	382,870	218,007	24,180	14,250	9,930	1,364	1,148	216	1,613
Georgia	893,761	674,382	219,379	28,434	19,298	9,136	450	[4] 370	[4] 80	2,000
Kentucky	580,533	470,152	110,381	20,500	14,000	6,500	2,200	1,900	300	1,000
Louisiana	575,000	460,000	115,000	19,180	12,780	6,400	2,500	2,440	60	2,200
Maryland	453,800	289,037	164,763	15,906	8,844	7,062	3,317	2,636	681	732
Mississippi	540,157	450,110	90,047	15,122	10,838	4,284	1,057	957	100	300
North Caralina	1,018,067	798,417	219,650	32,255	23,885	8,370	2,400	2,160	240	[5] 900
Oklahoma	453,191	332,658	120,533	18,759	11,636	7,123	.....	.....	.....	900
South Carolina	501,678	370,158	131,520	18,240	12,400	5,840	650	400	250	2,200
Tennessee	713,704	537,990	175,714	24,013	17,469	6,544	950	691	259	1,031
Texas	1,686,377	1,328,330	358,047	56,013	37,535	18,478	2,810	1,686	1,124	4,000
Virginia	702,671	517,633	185,038	25,329	17,227	8,102	2,298	2,085	213	1,410
West Virginia	448,280	291,077	157,203	14,570	8,840	5,730	887	756	131	103
District of Columbia	104,491	66,103	38,388	3,620	1,939	1,681	450	300	150	24
WEST										
Arizona	186,674	145,899	40,775	6,910	5,165	1,745	35	15	20	442
California	2,282,706	1,787,796	494,910	78,606	51,608	26,998	8,894	6,687	2,207	7,000
Colorado	266,534	204,165	62,369	11,606	8,531	3,075	600	540	60	1,000
Idaho	139,059	103,176	35,883	4,695	2,958	1,737	1,250	906	344	327
Montana	117,784	87,696	30,088	5,514	4,062	1,452	553	553	.....	405
Nevada	42,187	33,289	8,898	1,732	1,303	429	4	3	1	247
New Mexico	[2] 187,480	[2] 149,207	[2] 38,273	[2] 6,954	[2] 5,216	[2] 1,738	[2] 2	[2] 2	.....	[5] 200
Oregon	318,470	239,859	78,611	12,622	9,167	3,455	1,503	1,503	.....	700
Utah	186,315	117,784	68,531	5,907	3,403	2,504	773	651	122	146
Washington	490,184	372,431	117,753	18,001	13,097	4,904	1,500	1,200	300	1,000
Wyoming	63,837	44,813	19,024	3,109	2,027	1,082	220	212	8	125
Outlying parts of the United States:										
Alaska	25,003	21,309	3,694	1,132	916	216	59	56	3	127
American Samoa	6,043	5,870	173	194	186	8	20	20	.....	6
Canal Zone	10,495	7,126	3,369	377	224	153	37	36	1	.....
Guam	10,917	8,687	2,230	364	292	72	([6])	([6])	([6])	([6])
Puerto Rico	520,440	394,759	125,681	10,659	6,705	3,954	[7] 1,368	583	642	479
Virgin Islands (St. Croix)	2,130	1,550	580	66	40	26	8	3	5	34

[1] Full-time only.

[2] Source: "Advance Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools for the School Year, 1954–55," issued November 1954 by Research Division of the National Education Association.

[3] The data reported by the State appear incomplete when compared with similar data previously supplied for the *Biennial Survey of Education, 1950–52.*

[4] Distribution by level estimated by the Office of Education.

[5] Estimated by the Office of Education.

[6] Data not available.

[7] Includes 143 teachers not distributed by level.

School Buildings With P

by Helen K. Mackintosh, Chief, Elementary Schools, Office of Education, U. S. Departn
with Marcillene Barnes, Director of Curriculum, Grand Rapids, Mi

IT WAS the year 1951. A visitor in Grand Rapids schools would have noted in classrooms discussions among teachers and children and newspaper clippings on bulletin boards, brochures for the taking in school offices, and in school corridors slogans printed and decorated by boys and girls of all ages. These activities had to do with one thing—a proposed bond issue for new school buildings which was to be decided by a vote of the people. This is not the time or the place to describe all that was done or said, but the approval by its citizens of the bond issue was the springboard to the six new elementary school buildings that children in Grand Rapids, Mich., enjoy today.

The School-Park Plan

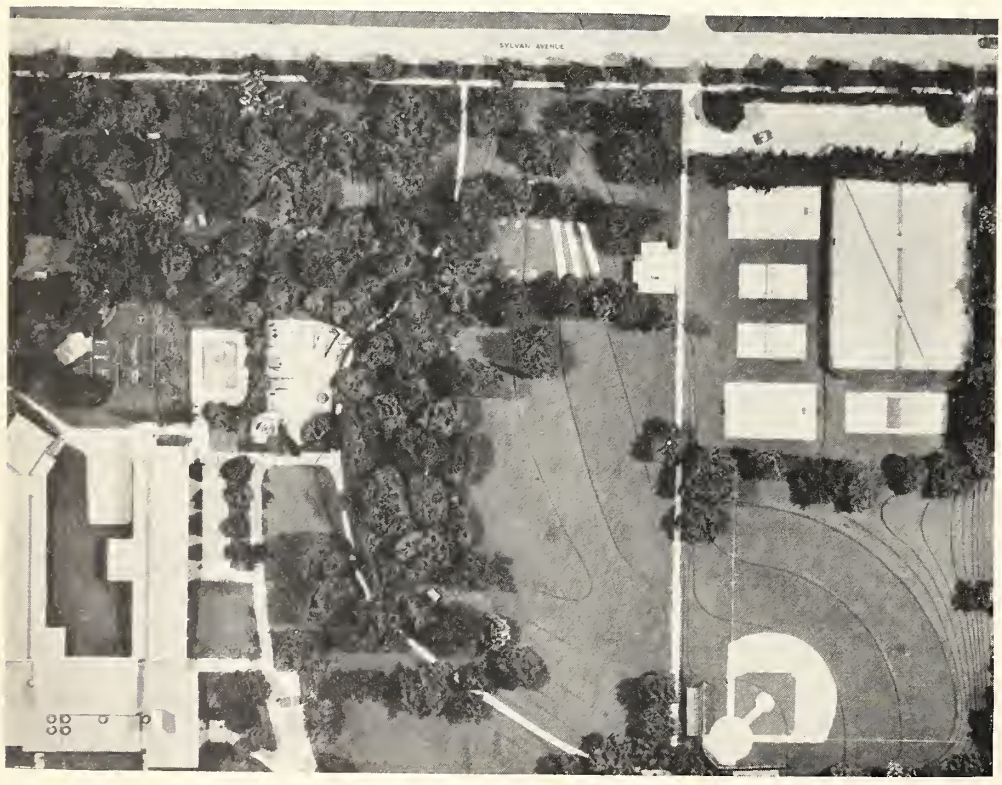
These schools were built on the school-park plan which meant savings to the taxpayer as well as year-round use of school facilities and grounds. Through a joint agreement by the Grand Rapids Board of Education and the Grand Rapids City Park Department, approved by the City Commission, parcels of land reserved for parks were made available for school building sites. Four of the new schools were built on these sites in newly developed residential areas. The other two schools were built in residential areas where old buildings were no longer usable and space was at a minimum.

There is a cooperative arrangement between the board of education and the park department whereby each has a portion of the site to care for. The board is responsible for all building maintenance at all times. The recreation department provides a paid playground leader for each school during the summer months.

The school-park plan opens the school as a neighborhood center and invites the whole community to use the arts and crafts room, outdoor play shelters, toilet facilities, and storage and equipment facilities during off-school hours and vacation periods. Kitchen and service units are now used extensively by school and community during the school year. Such an arrangement makes possible the use of the activity areas, game courts, and social areas with their picnic tables and fireplaces (where these are included). Games, ice skating, picnics, community get-togethers are some of the possibilities of fun for all. Playground equipment includes swings, merry-go-rounds, climbing equipment, teeters, built-in sandboxes, and wading pools (on some sites). An especially popular play feature is the great sewer tiles several feet in diameter, painted in bright colors, and cemented to the black top. Children enjoy crawling through these tiles, playing hide and seek, or using them for creative play activities.

The building is almost ready.

A bird's-eye view of a school-park site.



Many People Helped in Planning

Each building was carefully planned by members of the administrative staff, by teachers, parents, and by neighborhood committees, and an advisory committee consisting of a supervisor, a principal, and an architect. In addition there was a committee of seven architects representing as many architectural firms, six of them each responsible for one of the elementary buildings, the seventh for a proposed junior high school. Community groups were set up to name each school with the result, in the case of replacements, that the old name was retained. But Brookside, Kent Hills, Madison Park, Mulick Park, Palmer, and Riverside each has a distinctive personality.

sonality

Health, Education, and Welfare,
Public Schools

with the idea of making them attractive, functional, and not too costly. They range in price from $14.09 to $15.98 per square foot. Cinder block is widely used in the interiors. These buildings are designed to further the educational program which is described in terms of emphasis on (1) fundamental knowledge, (2) basic skills, (3) desirable attitudes, and (4) good habits and moral values.

Here is the lobby which invites the visitor.

First-graders enjoy many activities.

A fourth-grade group studies Michigan.

Of low contemporary design, each building has been adapted to its site. In size sites range from 2.5 acres to 21.2 acres, but with three of them 14 to 16 acres in extent. Since these are essentially neighborhood schools, their capacity is about 500 children, although each building will permit of additions for up to about 600 children.

The planners of these buildings set out

Basic Facilities Are the Same

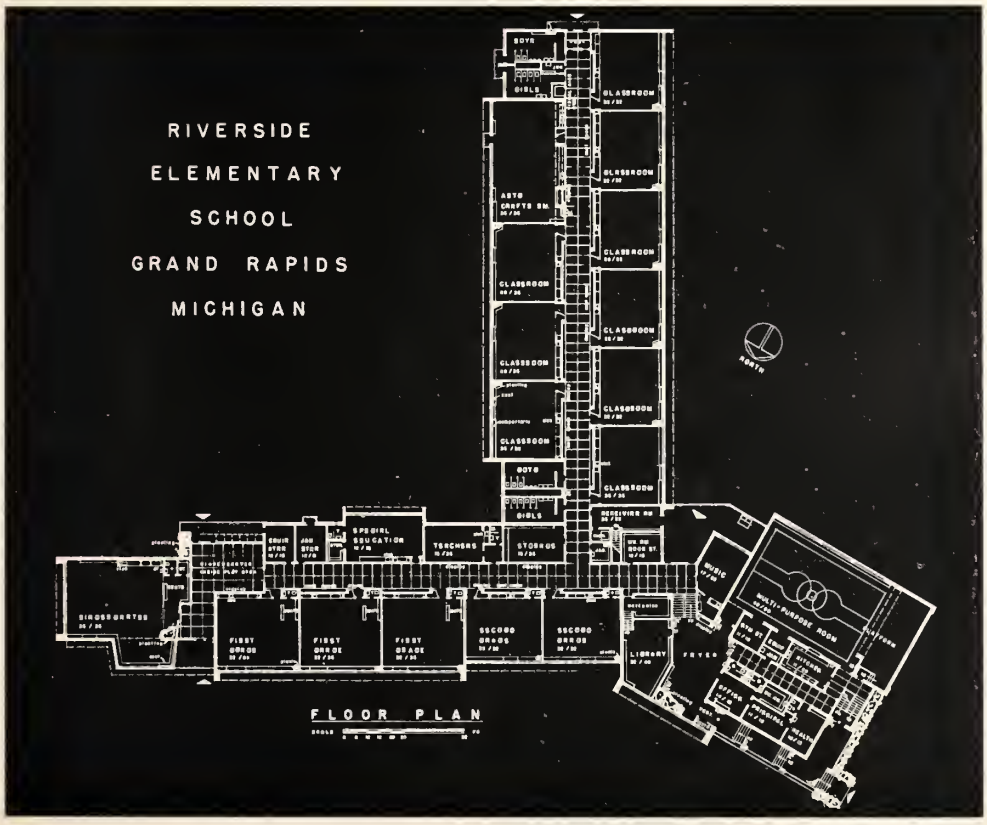
There are certain basic facilities in all the buildings. These include self-contained classrooms, a kindergarten, a combination gymnasium and auditorium or a multipurpose room, library, health room, audio-visual room which is sometimes combined with the school-park arts and crafts room, a service room for children with handicaps, music room, storage space, teachers' room, and a community-school kitchen. There are no cafeterias since every child is within easy walking distance of his home.

The entrance to each building is the lobby serving as a welcoming lounge room which can be used by children for informal group experiences such as story telling, or by members of community organizations. Some buildings have inviting seat corners built in for lounges and classrooms. In one of the schools a local garden club has provided plants in "planters" in the lounge, and gives them weekly care. In some of these lounge rooms there are fireplaces that work and that are used by groups of children and of adults. These were paid for by each community through efforts of the Parent Teacher Association. This same group took responsibility for selecting furnishings for the lobby, and selected and paid for furnishings for the teachers' room. The Board of Education itself financed the buying of the furniture for the lobby, and although the Board also financed the purchase of furniture for the teachers' room, the community actually pays for it over a 10-year period. Raising money for such projects has become a real community activity in each school.

Selection of furniture for the teachers' room and the lobby in each school was an educational experience for both teachers and parents. This was a problem on which the art supervisor gave special help. Usually the furniture in any given building is the product of an individual Grand Rapids furniture manufacturing firm.

(*Continued on page 140*)

A typical floor plan.



Teacher of the Year

(*Continued from page 130*)

where phonics will help. Frequently she asks a question which helps the child get the meaning from the context. Those children who have the habit of reading only one word at a time are helped to get the meaning of words in groups and to form the habit of reading by thought units. "*Enjoy* these two stories," rather than "read" them, is Miss Perry's assignment to the class.

The children seem very much at home in the well-stocked school library which they visit from time to time in small groups. Here they are free to browse and to make their own selections. It is obvious the boys and girls have been guided and encouraged to select books which they will enjoy. They have a taste for a wide variety of books. With guidance and plenty of books to choose from they can find books that are interesting, stimulating, worth-while, and easy enough to read. Having read an especially interesting one, a child is anxious to acquaint his classmates with the story. He may do this with a brief oral book review or by drawing the characters or a scene from the story to be placed on the bulletin board. Creative drawings of scenes from one popular story are labelled: "I am drawing Bob riding Calico. I cross the range," or "Bob gets on backwards. Bob is so excited," or simply, "Have you read 'Cowboy Boots'?"

Little or no time is lost in changing from one activity to another. Their school day is a full and interesting program with lots of activities they find important to do. Perhaps a few of the children will form a group because they have the same number combinations to learn. They work with flash cards while they are seated around a table.

A child has a question about geography or history or language study, and Miss Perry helps him and the other children to list the sources where he may expect to find information which will answer this and similar questions. Miss Perry knows that it is more important to know where to find facts than merely to try to memorize them. It is good for children to become familiar with many sources of information. The children use encyclopedias, the dictionary, library books, geography and science books by different authors, folders, bulletins, parents, teachers, and adult friends to prove a point, to locate information, to get facts.

Miss Perry provides opportunity for practice to improve skill in reading for those who need it, while those who do not need it work on what is important for them. The children ask the teacher for help when they need it. When necessary, she uses the chalkboard in answering some of their questions. She doesn't hurry a child or make him feel uncomfortable because he needs help, but she makes sure he feels satisfied. As she walks around the room during study periods, she sometimes offers help because she knows each child well and is conscious of his individual difficulties.

The children also have opportunity to improve their ability to read aloud. Sometimes they read in unison. A boy or girl who doesn't like to read aloud because he feels he can't do it well usually forgets himself in reading with others. Reading an especially well-liked story or poem together may result in their forming a choral speaking group, as the class did with a Thanksgiving story they presented for a school program.

Sometimes the children decide they would like to try writing original stories, poems, or songs of their own. They try especially to use new words and descriptive phrases which they are learning. This is one of Sue's poems:

A Golden Fall

Golden leaves are falling
From a barren tree.
Silver winds are calling;
Such a sight to see.
As the wind whispers
"Come along with me,"
All the golden listeners
Are falling from their tree.

Sometimes they write their own invitations to parents for Parent-Teacher Association meetings, creating their own verse.

Miss Perry is resourceful. If extremely inclement weather requires an indoor recess, she is ready with a new game. Perhaps it is a version of "Twenty Questions" which revolves around the pupils themselves and the things they especially like in their classroom.

Miss Perry herself is so enthusiastic about each and every activity in the day's program that her youngsters unfailingly try to match that enthusiasm with their best efforts—and she is quick to praise. The children are happy and enthusiastic about going to school because Miss Perry makes them feel she likes and understands them. In return they like her; they feel important to the group; they know they have come to school to learn and very soon they find that they, too, have much to give to others. Children and teacher plan together and work in harmony, each gaining some satisfaction in achievement.

Miss Perry keeps art work and other papers and memos representative of each pupil's progress in his individual folder. Twice each year the Monmouth school schedules individual parent-teacher conferences with every parent. These conferences are scheduled for the late afternoon or evening hours over a two-week period. Parents are always welcome, and many of them do visit the classroom from time to time.

There are many teachers like Miss Perry in the Nation's schools. All of them deserve credit for the contributions they are making to the growth and development of children and young people. Although the Teacher of the Year project does focus attention upon one teacher's accomplishments, it is believed that they are symbolic of those of many other teachers.

President Eisenhower receives Miss Margaret Perry, the Teacher of the Year for 1955, at the White House on May 19. Left to right, in the President's office, are Edgar Fuller, Executive Secretary, Council of Chief State School Officers, Miss Perry, Sue Mull, a pupil of Miss Perry, President Eisenhower, Dick Peterson, another pupil, S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, and Otis L. Wiese, Editor and Publisher of *McCall's Magazine* and sponsor of the Teacher of the Year project.

Helping the Foreign Born in the United States to Learn English

by Aileen Sinclair, Instructor of Advanced English for Foreign Born, Department of Adult Education, Palo Alto Unified School District, Palo Alto, Calif.

LEARNING English, the official language of the United States, remains generation after generation the common need of the foreign born who come to make this country their home. Current conditions indicate that native-born Americans have delayed overlong giving enough help to the foreign born in this continuing exigency.

Lack of sufficient educational opportunity deprives the adult foreign born and their families of their fullest benefits, and in turn lessens our national power to further the ideal of our American way of living. This situation leads to consideration of ways to stabilize our unilingual standard.*

Study of many programs calculated to help the foreign born to learn English establishes the fact that few of these programs are integrated to an orderly extent with general public school systems. Preoccupation with educational problems devoted to the native born has shunted the adult foreign born to a position of great disadvantage. Few localities offer to the adult foreign born the opportunity to learn to read, to write, and to speak the English language at least on the sixth-grade level, as accepted generally in standard public school codes for the native born. Too few unified school districts schedule English classes advanced enough to help foreign-born students who need instruction beyond the sixth grade. Some parts of the United States, where organized classes in English are needed, offer none for the foreign born. For want of adequate knowledge of our language, many adult foreign born fail to develop their finest potentialities—an incalculable loss to America.

Increasing public awareness of this situation gives impetus to setting up a practical program that will extend needed educational opportunities to the foreign born. Such a program calls for the serious attention of many minds, for group work in sifting the opinions of experienced instructors of the foreign born, consulting State educational executives, and study reports of workers in fields connected with immigrants and their families—a concentrated effort to work out the best procedure. By this means we may remove the great block of language ignorance now hindering our national progress.

Certainly the first step is getting a clear view of the unfortunate results of this long-neglected situation. We need to look far. We need to define and to right the limitations of various programs started to date in this connection; for example, the experiments under way to help children of the foreign born to read, to write, and to speak English fail to include extended help to the parents. Moreover, many public schools offer no supplementary help to foreign-born children in language learning except when requested to do so by the children's parents. Overlooked also, attention to the fact that teaching English to the foreign born of any age requires for best results up-to-date methods that differ in important details from the usual methods of teaching English to native-born students. Lacking: teachers trained to use the specialized technic most helpful in teaching English to the foreign born. Lacking: university courses that will prepare teachers for this field. Lacking: enough educational programs that pay teachers of the foreign born on the same basis as other public school teachers. (Usually teachers of English to the foreign born, as offered in adult schools of education, are paid on an hourly basis.) These and other limitations call for consideration if we provide the educational opportunity required by various groups of the foreign born in America.

This contingent includes many naturalized citizens who have not received enough instruction in English preceding the regulation Americanization classes. Bewildered as electors, uncertain of themselves at every turn, naturalized citizens by the thousands need to learn the language of their adopted country.

There are also special groups of foreign born in America deserving help; for example, the Basque sheepherders brought by special law to the United States to tend flocks in isolated districts. To date these men have been left without supervised ways of learning English. To be considered as expedient experiment: intensive courses in English held during part of vacation periods in convenient cities, follow-up study arranged by means of recordings, and correspondence work directed by instructors at school centers. This experiment could be adapted to the needs of other isolated groups and individuals.

A general program for helping the adult foreign born to learn English requires for best results district guidance centers to give information about graded books, approved class material, and other equipment used in organizing classes, according to levels of local needs.

As a starter for such a program: carefully directed publicity to create general interest in helping to bring about the desired results. There is a place for every well-educated citizen in helping the foreign born to learn English. To render this help the native born need to speak correct English.

Publicity to this end: Development of radio and TV program material inspirational to the foreign born and native born alike. Interviews on TV with successful, well-adjusted foreign born in America, including those recently established and those who are not yet naturalized citizens. Newspaper and magazine articles about our language. Inspirational biographical stories, dramatic narrative that has to do with people with interests close to the lives of the foreign born. A wider ambient of historical and biographical knowledge, pointing to the need of individual responsibility of handing down the ideal of American living.

This subject is deserving of exhaustive discussion including the development of better textbooks for foreign born classes in English. Those who have actual knowledge

*New Mexico is the only State in the Union to recognize an official bilingual standard: English and Spanish.

of specialized requirements in textbooks for the foreign born may point the way to appropriate material.

Development of a program called: "Getting Acquainted with America," a geographical-historical series to give a framework of facts about the 48 States. Such colored slides as follow the sort of pictures used by *Holiday* and other magazines. A well-chosen library of such slides with accompanying material, historical facts for class use. Helpful question and answer series.

The growing acceptance of English as the most convenient language for world use is bringing about an awareness of our national responsibility in extending knowledge of English as a means of international understanding.

Once the public awakens to the language need of the foreign born, the SOS will be answered.

School Buildings With Personality

(*Continued from page 137*)

The physical features of the buildings include bilateral daylighting, artificial lighting in fluorescent strips, acoustical treatment, asphalt tile floors, radiant heating in primary rooms, green chalk boards, plenty of display space much of it built in, built-in storage space, and toilets opening onto the playground as well as a corridor. Doors to the toilets can be locked from either side, making them available for out-of-school and summer groups without giving access to the whole building. Classrooms have electrical outlets, sinks with running water, and drinking fountains. Classrooms in most of the buildings have planned-for space that makes possible the use of a single large attractive print or picture in an eye-catching spot. Selection of these prints became an educational experience for the teachers and children of each room. The art supervisor consulted with each group of girls and boys on their class selection. Usually the school paid about half the cost for pictures and the Board of Education half. Parents and teachers often selected pictures for the lobby, teachers' room, and other parts of the building used by adult groups. The furniture is simple, movable, practical, and blond in tone. Gay but harmonious colors are used throughout the buildings, not only in the interiors, but sometimes on the exterior.

All buildings are beautifully landscaped, usually by the Park Department. In many cases, children have done or are doing the planting with advice and guidance of park experts. Several of the schools have large outdoor "planters" at the front entrance. Children of Brookside planted 1,200 tulips to beautify the grounds of their school.

These modern school plants are places where children can work and play happily, and where teaching and learning are stimulated by an attractive school environment. Such buildings encourage parents and citizens in the community to use the facilities and to feel that they belong to all the people.

An Educational Bottleneck

Henry H. Armsby, Office of Education Chief for Engineering Education, in May School Life, discussed the "diminishing interest in high school science and mathematics subjects which are basic to engineering and science."

The following suggestions Dr. Armsby wished to offer teachers and school administrators "to help in this situation" were inadvertently omitted at the conclusion of his statement in May School Life.

Here are the suggestions which conclude his timely presentation titled, "An Educational Bottleneck."

Suggestions to Teachers and Administrators

First, take advantage of the opportunities extended by many industries, governmental agencies, and professional societies for summer positions in engineering and science for high school teachers. These can make worthwhile contributions to the teacher's own understanding of the practical applications of the science he teaches and can result in his becoming a better and more inspiring teacher.

Second, make every effort to identify as early as possible the students who have the necessary native aptitudes, abilities, and interests for successful careers in science or engineering.

Third, give them all the information possible about the requirements, the opportunities, and the national needs in engineering and science. This should be real guidance, and not propaganda.

Fourth, see to it that the junior and senior high schools provide adequate opportunities for these students to develop their native abilities through the study of well-organized courses in science and mathematics.

Fifth, encourage these students through such activities as science clubs, science fairs, and other science projects.

Sixth, urge these talented youngsters to make every possible effort to continue their education at least through college, and preferably through the graduate school.

I believe the country and particularly those of us engaged in education are faced with two imperative lines of action.

First, we must make every possible effort to improve our programs of selection and guidance, in high school and in college, so that capable boys and girls can effectively use their latent talents.

Second, we must give to the embryo engineers and scientists in the schools and colleges the best education we possibly can. We must educate them to be men of *ingenuity*, men who are thoroughly grounded in the basic sciences, who have acquired the habit of study, who can tackle new problems by themselves and solve them by themselves, who can devise new applications of basic science and mathematics, who can make new discoveries, who can advance the frontiers of knowledge; in short men who can take their places among the broad gauge engineers and scientists who will in the future advance the art, the science, the *profession* of engineering.

160,000 Substitute Teachers Are on Call in U. S. Schools

A TOTAL of 160,000 substitute teachers—or one substitute for every 6 full-time teachers—are "on call" throughout the country. Their total teaching time is 6,800,000 school days a year, which is equal to the teaching done by all the regular teachers in the States of Colorado, Connecticut, South Dakota, and Maine. These facts were revealed in the most extensive study ever made of substitute teachers and substitute teaching service in the United States. The study, which was made by the NEA Research Division, is published in the April issue of the *NEA Research Bulletin*.

The professional preparation of the substitute teacher compares very favorably with that of the full-time teacher, according

to the Research study. Two-thirds of the substitute teachers employed in urban school systems are college graduates and 17 percent have had 5 years or more of college preparation. At least 83 percent of them were at one time full-time teachers, and their average full-time teaching experience adds up to 5 years.

Approximately half of the substitute teachers are married women between the ages of 35 and 49. Women outnumber men substitutes by 14 to 1, the study reports.

A composite picture of the typical substitute can be drawn from the NEA survey: The typical substitute is 43 years old, married and the mother of one or two school-age children. She worked 39 days in the school year 1953–54. Her average daily salary was $12.21 or a little more than half as much as her full-time colleagues were paid. Although she has 4 years of college and 5 years of full-time teaching experience—as a typical substitute teacher—her daily salary is the same as that of a substitute teacher with 2 years of college and no experience or the substitute teacher with a master's degree and 15 years of full-time teaching experience. The take-home pay of the substitute is just a little more than the prevailing rate for domestic help in larger cities. After deductions for Federal withholding tax, transportation, and the cost of lunch, her net pay is estimated to be $8.71.

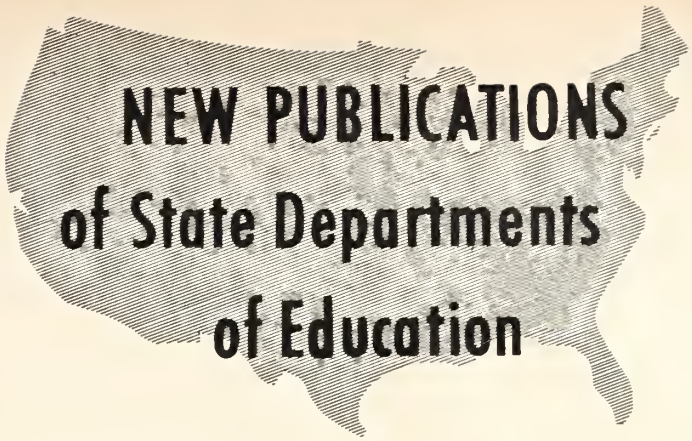
Other information brought out by the NEA study:

The amount of substitute teaching in grades and subject fields not authorized by licenses held is extensive. Over one-third of the high school substitutes said they did more work outside than inside their licensed fields.

Of the reporting school systems, 39 percent have a shortage of substitutes in the elementary grades and 58 percent have a shortage in the high school grades.

The most serious need for qualified substitutes is in the high school fields of science, industrial arts, and mathematics. These fields are largely dominated by men in the teaching profession and there are very few men among substitute teachers (6.8 percent).

Fourteen percent of all urban school systems now permit high school students to do substitute work in elementary school grades and 6½ percent permit them to substitute in high school grades.



by Willis C. Brown, Specialist, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE accompanying list, entitled "Secondary Education Aids," is the third in a series of recent publications of State departments of education.

Correspondence on any publication should be with the publishing agency listed under each State heading. Some items may be for sale, others may be out of stock. No copies are available from the Office of Education in Washington.

Secondary Education Aids

Florida

FACILITIES FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION. Bulletin 13A. 1954. 73 p. State Department of Education, Tallahassee. Defines facilities for elementary and secondary schools, furnishes specifications, and suggests standards. The bulletin is the outgrowth of a workshop sponsored by the State Department of Education and the University of Florida, and of a subsequent committee effort—both involving many teachers, physical education specialists, architects, and others.

Georgia

CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK FOR GEORGIA SCHOOLS. 1954. 36 p. State Department of Education, Atlanta. Prepared by a statewide committee as a flexible curriculum guide for use by individual schools and school systems; designed for grades I through XII. Includes sections on "Purposes," "Characteristics of Children and Youth," "Organization of Content and Experiences," and "Evaluation of Outcomes." Bibliography and charts.

Indiana

DIGEST OF COURSES OF STUDY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF INDIANA (Revised) Bulletin No. 217. 1954. 302 p. State Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis. Contains data on the status of curriculum in Indiana high schools. Prepared by professional specialists under the sponsorship of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Includes sections on "Program of Studies," "Outlines of Courses of Study," and "Teaching Materials."

New Hampshire

GUIDE FOR A SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM. 1954. 51 p. State Department of Education, Concord. Deals with organization and administration of the school health program; procedures of health appraisal; objectives and activities of the nurse-teacher; first aid and emergency procedure; records, health facilities, evaluation, and other topics.

New York

A DESIGN FOR EARLY SECONDARY EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE. 1954. 118 p. State Education Department, Albany. Developed from research and committee work focusing attention on grades 7–8–9. Gives suggestions on the task and program for these school years by subject areas. Considers a program for extra-class activities, pupil personnel, and library services. Emphasizes an adequate plant, coordinated staff activities, and a flexible balanced schedule. Bibliography.

BRIGHT KIDS—WE NEED THEM. 1955. Folder. Briefly points up need for identifying and adequately educating superior youth in American schools. Recommendations are based on research findings.

SCHOOLS IN ACTION. Vol. 4, No. 2. January 1955. 4 p. Gives information from the Ministry of Education, New Delhi, India. Contains article "Just About Discussion," notices of Science Congresses, and special columns on good practices ("Try It Yourself" and "A Word on Curriculum"), and other special articles.

SCHOOLS IN ACTION. Vol. 4, No. 3. March 1955. 4 p. Contains article by the Minister of Education and Culture in Brazil and an article entitled, "Just About Core Curriculum," notices of meetings, and special columns the same as in No. 2.

"Much Good Is Done"

(*Continued from page 133*)

standing in the minds of the people in the community. The value of this interchange with Miss Mary Barrett, the British teacher who is now in Baltimore, will reach far beyond the individuals and the institutions directly connected with it.

Not An Isolated Program

This exchange of teachers with the United Kingdom is not an isolated program. It is a part of the educational foreign policy of the United States. Two basic laws make the exchanges with many countries possible at the Federal level. Public Law 584, 79th Congress, the Fulbright Act. has authorized the use of foreign currencies acquired through the sale of surplus property abroad for educational exchange. Public Law 402, 80th Congress, the Smith-Mundt Act. known as the United States Educational Exchange Act. made provisions not included in the Fulbright Act. The cooperation of school authorities and much enabling legislation make the exchanges possible in the States and local communities.

Under the provisions of the Fulbright Act, the Secretary of State is authorized to negotiate separate executive agreements between the United States and the countries in which surplus property sales have been made. The act further creates a Board of Foreign Scholarships, appointed by the President of the United States, to supervise the program and to select individuals who participate in it. In each country which has signed an executive agreement, a binational foundation or commission is established. These foundations or commissions are responsible for recommending educational exchange programs which meet the needs of education in the particular country. The exchange of teachers. therefore. is one of several categories of exchanges under the United States International Educational Exchange Program.

In Belgium, the officials of the American Embassy and the United States Educational Foundation work in close relationship with the Ministry of Public Instruction. In a recent country program proposal, the Belgian Foundation expressed its appreciation for the excellent work accomplished by exchange teachers in fulfilling the objectives of the exchange program.

The counterpart of the Belgian teacher referred to in the opening statement of this article is Mrs. Elizabeth Gordon. She is teaching in two schools in Antwerp and, from my observation, I could conclude that her work is most successful.

Within its small territory, Belgium has a French-speaking area, a Dutch-speaking area, and one bilingual province. Mrs. Gordon, a teacher of French and English in the United States, is teaching English. Dutch is the language of instruction in the schools in Antwerp and French is taught as a second language. Mrs. Gordon, therefore, is enjoying a rare experience for an American teacher. Her work is stimulating and there is intensive study of English under her direction.

I was fortunate in having had a visit scheduled at the Royal Lycee for Girls in Antwerp on the day of a festival. The entertainment program, a series of short acts. was presented in three different languages. It is doubtful whether anyone in the huge audience understood fully the entire program, although many of those present understood two of the languages. There was no mistaking, however, the understanding that exists between our two countries when the entire audience joined in singing American folk songs led by girls in an act written by Mrs. Gordon.

The Athenee Royal of Etterbeek was built in 1939. It is a fine modern structure and, shortly after it was completed, was occupied by German troops. When the Americans liberated this part of Belgium, the building was taken over and occupied by American soldiers. It has now been reconditioned and the school provides an educational program for boys of the community from age six through the secondary school. When the building was reconditioned, one area was left untouched in affectionate memory of the American soldiers who had liberated their country and who had occupied the school. The walls of the gymnasium are still adorned by huge murals painted by American GI's.

The school program itself still is closely attached to the United States and its people. One staff member, Mr. Jean Draps, taught in Newton, Mass.. during school year 1951–52. Mr. Draps has shared this exchange teaching experience with his pupils and colleagues over and over again since his return.

This year Mr. Draps has the support of Mrs. Yvonne LaBrecque, an exchange teacher from Hartford, Conn. The headmaster of the school takes every advantage of this combination of exchange teachers to develop in the students an understanding of the United States and its friendly relations with Belgium.

Occasionally administrators have become candidates for exchange teaching positions and have found that arrangements could be made to have them go abroad as exchange teachers. An American in this group is Dr. Robert Andree, headmaster of the High School at Brookline, Mass. Dr. Andree is serving this year as an exchange teacher at the Lebanon Lycee in Rotterdam. Dr. Andree, accompanied abroad by his wife and 10-year-old son. has established himself in the Dutch community. His son, placed in a public school, has learned the language rapidly. Dr. Andree, prominent among educational leaders in the New England States, has given many talks on America and American education to responsive audiences.

A Lasting Impression

One sometimes wonders whether exchange teachers, upon returning to their native country, sing the praises of their host country. Just a few minutes spent with Dr. William Oudegeest, a teacher at the Christian Lyceum, The Hague. would leave no doubt about the lasting and favorable impression retained of the United States and its people. Dr. Oudegeest taught during the 1953–54 school year at the Union High School in Huntington Beach, Calif. His exchange year was rich and fruitful. He has, since returning to the Netherlands, organized former exchange teachers from his country into an association. This group is interested in promoting and improving the effectiveness of the teacher exchange program.

Since 1946, when the first postwar exchanges were arranged between the United States and the United Kingdom, 1,173 American teachers have gone abroad to teach in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany. Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, and the United Kingdom. An equal number of teachers from these countries have taught in 627 cities in 47 States, the District of Columbia, and the Territory of Hawaii. Other

exchange opportunities on a one-way basis have been provided for 425 American teachers in Burma, colonial areas of the United Kingdom, Ceylon, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Germany, Greece, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Pakistan, the Philippines, Syria, Thailand, Turkey, and the Union of South Africa. Arrangements are made under the Teacher Education Program to bring teachers from those countries to the United States. In recent years, also, 107 teachers have participated in short-term summer seminars in France and Italy.

In September 163 American teachers will interchange positions with teachers from 9 countries. Seventy-nine others will go abroad on one-way assignments in 14 countries, and this summer 47 teachers will attend seminars in France and Italy.

Teachers in all countries which participate in these exchanges are screened by methods found most suitable in that country. In the United States teachers may apply as individuals or may be nominated by school officials. All candidates, however, must have the endorsement of their school authorities to participate in the program.

The candidates are screened by officials of the Office of Education and are interviewed by regional committees established in 55 cities in the United States. These committees are made up of leading educators in the various communities in which they serve. A matching process, which is simple in theory, but which must take into account innumerable educational practices, laws, and cultural patterns in the countries concerned, brings the teachers together into matched pairs for interchange. Matches are proposed to school officials in the two countries for acceptance before selections are made. Institutional placement for teachers who go on one-way assignments are arranged by school officials abroad. Final selection of grantees is made by the Board of Foreign Scholarships.

A Chain of Friendship

The teacher exchange program has set in motion an endless chain of friendships between the people of the countries concerned. In addition to the visiting teacher's personal contact with many of the people, each encourages students to write letters to students of comparable ages back home. The program has deepened an appreciation of the history and cultural achievements of those countries which have taken part in it.

A recent report by the United States Educational Foundation in Norway stated, "It is again pointed out that the teacher interchange program has met with strong enthusiasm and interest, and the schools and everyone concerned with the program will strive for its continuance."

An American teacher recently wrote, "I left England with a much stronger belief in the worth of the exchange program. Before, I thought it had possibilities, now I know it can have concrete results." Another stated, "My personal feeling is that if this country would send armies of school teachers to all of the difficult spots on the globe, we would never again have to send armies of shooting soldiers."

We, I believe, can all concur in the words, "I feel that much good is done."

OVR Grant Approved

THE OFFICE of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, has approved a grant of $27,800 to the New York State Psychiatric Institute for establishing a mental hygiene clinic for the deaf, according to a recent announcement by Mary Switzer, OVR Director. The grant was made on the recommendation of the National Advisory Council on Vocational Rehabilitation.

Under the direction of Franz J. Kallman, psychiatrist of Columbia University, the institute will operate in three important mental health areas for deaf people—research, service, and the training of mental hygiene workers.

Miss Switzer said that this grant, one in a series of actions on behalf of people with hearing impairment under the new Federal rehabilitation legislation (Public Law 565, 83d Cong.), is an initial step toward realization of goals long sought by all workers for the deaf and by the deaf.

Approval of Dr. Kallman's plans by the National Association of the Deaf, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, the National Fraternal Society of the Deaf, and Gallaudet College and its Alumni Association have made clear the wide recognition of need and the active support of the program.

Spectatoritis or Education

(Continued from inside cover)

Once the lines are clear, the professor of broadcasting can help education borrow the applicable from the commercial field—and there is much to be borrowed for the enrichment and enlivening of the teaching process; but he does not confuse cultural recreation with education, attention-getting with learning, or audience-counting with educational measurement.

Because the professor of broadcasting has this dual role, the normal gap between teacher and clinician is widened and his task is bridging the more complex.

The educator, however, must dominate educational broadcasting as he does the teaching of broadcasting. Radio, television, and films are instruments of education, not ends in themselves. We have not often enough recognized the point made by Stuart Chase in *The Power of Words*, that cultural lag can be increased as well as narrowed, that entertainment can crowd out knowledge, that knowledge can be watered down to the point of ineffectiveness, that "spectatoritis" is not inherently a sound educational posture.

If we keep educational broadcasting educational, the road ahead is clear. We shall continue to be good neighbors with commercial stations, and contribute many programs, some of great educational strength, some of general intellectual entertainment, some of public relations value. But the mission of educational broadcasting can be fulfilled only when the station is an arm of the educational establishment, a part of the regular financial, instructional, and administrative structure. This way the quality will not be diluted by irrelevant concerns or the objectives distorted by non-educational influences. With this approach, the cost of a station will not seem impossible but only as the equivalent of an elementary school, of a wing of high school, or of a small college building on the campus and the operation expense likewise comparable.

Thus, too, we may concentrate on the total tasks of education. Radio, television, films, other visual aids will not be competitive but will complement one another for greater effectiveness in carrying the gigantic load ahead.

NEA

1955 Teacher Supply and Demand Report

THE *1955 Teacher Supply and Demand Report*, recently released by the National Education Association, highlights the fact that the teacher shortage is still serious even though 86,696 qualified candidates will be in the supply column this spring. The report shows that unless school officials and other citizens step up their efforts to attract these new teachers the demand side of the ledger will continue to be off balance.

Of the 35,278 graduates who will be available for the elementary schools, the report estimates that only 27,800 will actually be on the job this fall. As about 60,000 teachers leave the profession each year, the elementary schools will need almost twice the number of new candidates for replacement alone. Many more will be required to meet the demand of growing enrollments, to reduce oversized classes, and to replace persons now holding teaching positions who do not meet minimum standards for certification, according to the NEA report.

The study indicates that high schools may get slightly more than half of the 51,418 eligible candidates who have prepared to teach at this level, but to meet the demands all of them should be ready for the classroom in September. High school officials, aware of the "impending tide" of students expected to descend upon them as the increase in birthrate affects the secondary school level, are faced "with disaster if the teacher supply trend is not sharply and decisively reversed," the report says.

In a followup study of the 1954 teacher candidates in 31 States, only 65.8 percent of them went into teaching. Although this is a slight increase over the 64 percent who became teachers in 1953, the survey points out that the gap between teachers needed and teachers available remains wide.

The *1955 Teacher Supply and Demand Report* is the eighth in a series made by the Research Division of the National Education Association. It is based on a survey of all colleges and universities which prepare teachers, about 1,200. The report was published in the March 1955 issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education*.

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 Brief Summary of the 1955 Teacher Supply and Demand Report. Report of the Eighth Annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Study. (Reprinted from *The Journal of Teacher Education*, March 1955.) Prepared by NEA Research Division for National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D. C., 1955. 23 p. Illus. (Address: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1201 16th St. NW., Washington 6, D .C.)

Careers in Education: A Guide to the Study of the Profession. Published for The Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. San Francisco, Calif., California Teachers Association, 1954. 71 p. Illus. 35 cents.

The Doctrines of the Great Educators. By Robert R. Rusk. Second Edition. New York, St. Martin's Press, 1954. 311 p. $2.75.

Elementary-School Student Teaching. By G. Max Wingo and Raleigh Schorling. Second Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955. 452 p. Illus. $5.

Foundations of Reading Instruction with Emphasis on Differentiated Guidance. By Emmett Albert Betts. New York, American Book Co., 1954. 757 p. Illus. $6.

Foundations of School Learning. By Harry Grove Wheat. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955. 391 p. $5.50.

Getting Along With Your Parents. By Dr. Daniel D. Raylesberg with Editorial Assistance of Harold Eidlin. Washington, D. C., B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1955. 13 p. Illus. (B'nai B'rith Guidance Series.) 20 cents.

A Guidance Program for Rural Schools. By Glyn Morris. Chicago, Ill., Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955. 47 p. Illus. (Practical Ideas in Education Series.) $1.

Health in the Elementary School: The Role of the Classroom Teacher. By Herbert Walker. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1955. 228 p. $4.

How Can We Discuss School Problems? A Guide to Conferences on School Problems. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1955. 44 p. Illus. (Working Guide No. 3B.) (Address: 2 West 45th St., New York 36, N. Y.).

How Good Are Our Teaching Materials? A Guide to Understanding and Improvement. New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 1955. 95 p. Illus. (Working Guide No. 8.)

Junior High School Trends. By Leonard V. Koos. New York, Harper & Bros., 1955. 171 p. (Exploration Series in Education.) $2.50.

Mental Health in Modern Education. The Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. (Part II.) Prepared by the Yearbook Committee: Paul A. Witty, Herbert A. Carroll, Paul T. Rankin, Harry N. Rivlin, and Ruth Strang. Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press, 1955. 395 p. Paper $3.25, Cloth $4.

Music Education in Action. By Russell Van Dyke Morgan and Hazel Nohavec Morgan. Chicago, Ill., Neil A. Kjos Music Co., 1954. 186 p. Illus. $3.50.

The Needs of Physically Handicapped Children. Report of a Survey of Chicago's Special Schools, April 1, 1954; Francis A. Mullen, Assistant Superintendent in charge of Special Education. Chicago, Board of Education, 1954. 31 p. Illus.

Organization and Administration of Guidance Services. By Edward C. Roeber, Glenn E. Smith, and Clifford E. Erickson. Second Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955. 294 p. $4.75.

Planning Tomorrow's Secondary Schools. James D. MacConnell, Director, School Planning Laboratory, Jon S. Peters, Editor. Stanford, Calif., School Planning Laboratory, School of Education, Stanford University, 1954. 64 p. Illus. $4.

Public Relations in Education: A Textbook for Teachers. By Clifford Lee Brownell, Leo Gans, and Tufie Z. Maroon. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955. 249 p. $4.50.

The Sargent Guide to Summer Camps. Boston, Mass., Porter Sargent Publisher, 1955. 127 p. Illus. (Sargent Handbook Series.) $1.10.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1955

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, Publications Services

Office of Education

Some Publications on Elementary Education

Schools at Work in 48 States, A Study of Elementary School Practices. Bulletin 1952, No. 13. 45 cents.

Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities. Bulletin 1949, No. 11. 25 cents.

Modern Ways in One- and Two-Teacher Schools. Bulletin 1951, No. 18. 20 cents.

Designing Elementary Classrooms. Special Publication No. 1, 1953. 35 cents.

Planning and Designing the Multipurpose Room in Elementary Schools. Special Publication No. 3. 1954. 35 cents.

How Children Use the Community for Learning. Bulletin 1953, No. 6. 25 cents.

Culloden Improves Its Curriculum. Bulletin 1951, No. 2. 15 cents.

Where Children Live Affects Curriculum. Bulletin 1950, No. 7. 30 cents.

Working with Parents. Bulletin 1948, No. 7. 25 cents.

Preparing Your Child for School. Pamphlet 108, 1949. 15 cents.

Camping and Outdoor Experiences in the School Program. Bulletin 1947, No. 4. 20 cents.

Physical Education in the School Child's Day. Bulletin 1950, No. 14. 30 cents.

School Lunch and Nutrition Education. Bulletin 1951, No. 14. 10 cents.

Teaching Nutrition in the Elementary School. Nutrition Education Series Pamphlet No. 7, 1955. 25 cents.

Teachers Contribute to Child Health. Bulletin 1951, No. 8. 20 cents.

The Place of Subjects in the Curriculum. Bulletin 1949, No. 12. 20 cents.

How Children Can Be Creative. Bulletin 1954, No. 12. 15 cents.

How Children Learn To Read. Bulletin 1952, No. 7. 15 cents.

How Children Learn To Think. Bulletin 1951, No. 10. 15 cents.

How Children Learn To Write. Bulletin 1953, No. 2. 15 cents.

How Children Use Arithmetic. Bulletin 1951, No. 7. 15 cents.

How Children Learn About Human Rights. Bulletin 1951, No. 9. 15 cents.

World Understanding Begins With Children. Bulletin 1949, No. 17. 15 cents.

Science Teaching in Rural and Small Town Schools. Bulletin 1949, No. 5. 20 cents.

Teaching of Elementary Science. Bulletin 1948, No. 4. 20 cents.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

The Adolescent in Your Family. Childrens Bureau. 1954. 25 cents.

Industrial Health and Medical Programs. A compilation of published material on industrial health and medical programs. Public Health Service. 1950. $1.

Nutrition and Healthy Growth. Presents information relating to the well nourished and the malnourished child, the foods all children need, the prenatal period, the infant, preschool child, school child, and the adolescent. Children's Bureau. 1955. 20 cents.

Other Government Agencies

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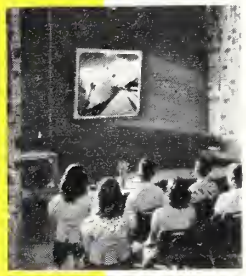

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