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be accepted as fulfilling this part of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Approved by:

S. L. Eby

Carter V. Good

R. L. Pounds

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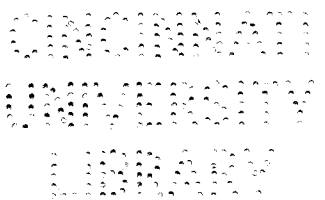
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1947



by

Edna Caroline Miller

A. B., Heidelberg University 1924
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES ix

Chapter

I. FORMULATION AND DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM 1
Statement of the Problem 1
Need for or Justification of the Study 1
Analysis of the Problem 2
Sources of Material 5
Primary Sources 5
Secondary Sources 7
Brief Summary of Each of the Nine Investigations .. 8
The National Survey 9
The Report of the Committee on Orientation 9
The Co-operative Study 10
The Eight-Year Study 11
The Report of the Educational Policies Commission 12
The Maryland Study 14
The Pennsylvania Study 14
The Regents' Inquiry 15
The Harvard Report 15
Procedure 16

II. FOUNDATIONS OR CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS 18
Introduction 18
Philosophies of Education 18
Reason for Choosing the Philosophical Approach . 19
The Nine Investigations Contrasted with Earlier Committee Reports 19
Three Philosophies of Education 20
Idealism 21
Realism 23
Pragmatism 25
Summary of Major Philosophies 27
The Nature of Learning 29
Vitalistic Concepts 30
Mechanistic Concepts 31
Vitalistic and Mechanistic Concepts Contrasted with Organismic Concepts 32
Organismic or Field Concepts 32
Affectivity or Emotion and Feeling 34
Summary of Three Psychologies 36

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Chapter Page

II. FOUNDATIONS OR CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS (continued)
Social Theories 37
The Historical Point of View 38
Between World Wars I and II 39
Democratic Education 40
The Role of the School in Agrarian American Democracy 41
The Role of the School in Industrial American Democracy 42
Education for the Classes 43
Education for the Masses 44
Summary of Social Theories 44
Chapter Summary 45

III. OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION 47
Introduction 47
Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Objectives of Secondary Education 47
Interpretation of Tables 1, 1a, and 1b 53
Objectives of Secondary Education Prior to 1930 55
Objectives Proposed by Spencer 56
The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education 56
Objectives of Secondary Education, 1930-1945 59
Objectives Found in the National Survey 60
Objectives Stated by the Report of the Committee on Orientation 60
Objectives Found in the Co-operative Study 63
Objectives Stated by the Eight-Year Study 63
Objectives Stated by the Educational Policies Commission 64
Objectives Found in the Maryland Study 65
Objectives Stated by the Pennsylvania Study 65
Objectives Stated by the Regents' Inquiry 66
Objectives Found in the Harvard Report 66
Affectivity or Emotion and Feeling 66
Salient Characteristics of Objectives of Secondary Education 68
Interpretation of Table 2 70
Objectives Appropriate for a Dynamic, Changing World 70
Objectives for a Heterogeneous School Population 72
The Fitting versus the Finishing Function of the Secondary School 73
Basic Consideration of the Needs of the Individual 75

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Chapter Page

III. OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION (continued)
Salient Characteristics of Objectives of Secondary Education (continued)
Encouraging a Democratic Society 78
Recognizing Types of Changes Appropriate for both the Individual and Society 79
Chapter Summary 81
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Objectives of Secondary Education 81

IV. SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM 87
Introduction 87
Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Secondary-School Curriculum 88
Interpretation of Tables 3, 3a, and 3b 94
The Traditional Curriculum 97
The So-Called Extra-Curricular Activities 98
The Concept of Needs 99
The Progressive Education Association 101
The Educational Policies Commission 104
General Education 105
Introduction 105
The Subject Curriculum 106
The Correlated Curriculum 107
The Fused Curriculum 108
The Broad-Fields Curriculum 108
The Core Curriculum 110
Vocational Education 115
Introduction 115
Responsibility for and Type of Vocational Education 116
Work Experience 118
Chapter Summary 120
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Curriculum 120

V. GUIDANCE SERVICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS 125
Introduction 125
Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Guidance Service in the Secondary Schools 125
Interpretation of Table 4 and Chart 129
Guidance Redefined 130
The Importance of the Individual 130
The Guidance Goal 131
Definition 132
Interpretations of Guidance 132
Guidance as a Philosophy 133

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Chapter Page

V. GUIDANCE SERVICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS (continued)
Guidance as a Program 135
Relation of Guidance to Education 135
Educational Guidance 136
Vocational Guidance 137
Personal and Social Guidance 140
Emphasis upon Mental Hygiene 141
Responsibilities of the Teacher for Guidance .. 143
Effectiveness of Guidance 146
Chapter Summary 147
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Guidance 147

VI. EVALUATION OF THE PROGRESS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS 151
Introduction 151
Measurement versus Evaluation 151
Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils 152
Interpretation of Tables 5, 5a, and 5b 157
Purposes of Evaluation 158
Significance of Evaluation 159
Evaluation by Others 160
The Role of the Teacher 160
Evaluation by Observation 161
The Co-operative Study 162
The Regents' Inquiry 163
The Educational Policies Commission 163
Tests and Examinations 163
The Pennsylvania Study 165
The Eight-Year Study 166
Behavior in Undirected Activities 167
Questionnaires to Pupils 168
Pupil Self-Evaluation 169
Values of Pupil Self-Evaluation 169
The Eight-Year Study 170
The Role of the Teacher in Pupil Self-Evaluation 170
Provision for Continuous Evaluation 171
Chapter Summary 172
Contributions of the Investigations to Evaluation 172

VII. INTERPRETATION AND SUGGESTED IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MAJOR SURVEYS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION 175
Introduction 175
Contributions of the Philosophy of Pragmatism 176

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Chapter Page

VII. INTERPRETATION AND SUGGESTED IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MAJOR SURVEYS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (continued)
Objectives of Secondary Education 179
The Meaning of Education 179
Definition of Objective 180
The Changing Objectives of Secondary Education. 180
The School Exists for the Pupil 181
Secondary-School Curriculum 183
Introduction 183
Definition 183
Elimination of Rigid Compartmentalization 183
Relevance to Current Living 184
General Education 185
The Experience Curriculum 189
Conclusion 193
Methodology 193
Purposeful Learning 193
Unitary Development 194
The Mental-Hygiene Approach 195
Hints Provided by the Eight-Year Study 196
An Illustration 198
Conclusion 201
Guidance Service in Secondary Schools 201
Definition 201
The Importance of the Pupil 201
The Importance of Personality Adaptation 202
Personality Problems of Adolescence 203
Adjustive Services of the Secondary School 204
Demands for Guidance 205
Guidance as a Philosophy 206
An Illustration 206
Conclusion 207
Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils 208
Significance of Evaluation 208
Continuous Evaluation 208
Need for New Devices 209
Self-Evaluation 210
Judging Progress 211
An Illustration 211
Conclusion 212
Chapter Summary 213

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Chapter Page

VIII. SUMMARY 216
Restatement of the Formulation and Definition of the Problem 216
Statement of the Problem 216
Delimitation 216
Primary Sources of Material 217
Agency Making Each Investigation, Date of Published Report, and Question Answered by Each Investigation 217
Secondary Sources of Material 218
Statement of Procedure 219
Foundations or Criteria for Evaluating the Contributions of the Investigations 219
Philosophies of Education 220
The Nature of Learning 220
Social Theories 221
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Objectives 222
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Curriculum 225
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Guidance 227
Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Evaluation 230
Interpretation and Suggested Implementation of the Contributions of the Major Investigations in Secondary Education 231
Introduction 231
The Objective of Secondary Education 231
Secondary-School Curriculum 232
Methodology 232
Guidance Service in Secondary Schools 233
Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils 233
Philosophical Inconsistencies Found in Some of the Investigations 234
Problems for Further Research 235

BIBLIOGRAPHY 236

APPENDIX 254

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LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Objectives of Secondary Education	50
1a	Frequency of Objectives of Secondary Education in the Eight Investigations, Approval of Objectives	51
1b	Frequency of Objectives of Secondary Education in the Eight Investigations, Disapproval of Objectives	52
2	Salient Characteristics of Objectives of Secondary Education	69
3	Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Secondary-School Curriculum	91
3a	Frequency of Secondary-School Curriculum Practices in the Nine Investigations, Approval of Curriculum Practices	92
3b	Frequency of Secondary-School Curriculum Practices in the Nine Investigations, Disapproval of Curriculum Practices	93
4	Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Guidance Service in Secondary Schools	128
5	Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils	155
5a	Frequency of Practices in Evaluation in the Nine Investigations, Approval of Practices in Evaluation	156
5b	Frequency of Practices in Evaluation in the Nine Investigations, Disapproval of Practices in Evaluation	156

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CHAPTER I

FORMULATION AND DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

Beginning about 1930, an era opened in which heavy financial subsidies were placed at the disposal of investigators, or staffs of investigators, who turned their energies toward one or another of a long series of problems connected with the secondary schools, such as secondary-school standards, the admission of students to college, the social welfare of youth, and the evaluation of the educational program. The task proposed for this study is a survey of selected significant aspects of the major surveys, investigations, and reports in the area of secondary education, in order to determine the contributions of each to the program of secondary education in the United States in 1947. The study is limited to investigations made during the decade and a half, 1930-1945.

Need for or Justification of the Study

The decade and a half covered by this study was marked by a ferment, an agitation in secondary education. Instead of keeping pace with the social milieu, which should determine the kind of education, secondary education had held back until

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the lag had become so great that a break occurred, causing a revolutionary rather than an evolutionary change. Thus, during the fifteen-year period, 1930-1945, the area of secondary education was subjected to the most intensive and extensive investigations.

Because each investigation attacked the problem from a limited point of view, as is indicated in a succeeding section, "Brief Summary of Each of the Nine Investigations," the task in hand is an overview; a survey that produces such an over-all picture is the raison d'être of this study.

Analysis of the Problem

The literature of secondary education is full of discussions of what is wrong with the school and of proposals to correct its weaknesses. New theories and experiments follow one another in rapid succession. An enormous amount of literature has appeared, much of which has not been assimilated. It is, therefore, the purpose of this study to survey selected significant aspects of the major investigations in the field of secondary education in the United States that appeared in the fifteen-year period, 1930-1945.

In view of the fact that the scope of the investigations is too great, far beyond the limits or capacity of one individual to make an all-inclusive survey feasible, the study is limited to the contributions of each investigation to four

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aspects of secondary education, namely, objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation. The phases of the investigations not included in this study are the more-or-less mechanical and objective, such as the cost, administration, management, techniques, and findings.

A treatment of instructional method is omitted, because there is no systematic presentation of teaching procedure in the major investigations studied; only hints are given.

In outline form the analysis of the problem follows:

I. Foundations or Criteria

For background, there are set up three criteria by which the contribution of each investigation to each aspect of secondary education is evaluated, namely,

A. Philosophies of Education

The salient aspects of the major philosophies of education are presented. In the Dictionary of Education (118:295), the second definition of philosophy, the one used in this study, is as follows: "an integrated, personal view, especially one that serves to guide the individual's conduct and thinking." In this study, the common sense point of view is taken, the term philosophy being used as a synonym for the reason or why of doing things, the reasons and justification for doing those things that

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the schools are doing. In brief, philosophy may be defined as the attempt to make experience, to make life itself intelligible.

B. Nature of Learning

For the purpose of evaluating the contributions of the investigations, an inquiry into the nature of learning is the second criterion.

C. Social Theories

There is a review of the more significant or pertinent theories of society.

II. Objectives

Secondly, the foundations having been established, there follow

A. a brief review of the objectives of secondary education, tracing the evolution of objectives in more recent years, and

B. a selection of the more significant characteristics which provide functional bases for the evaluation of the contribution of each investigation to the objectives of secondary education in the United States in 1947.

III. Curriculum

Thirdly, following the objectives is an inquiry into the treatment of the curriculum, including a synthesis of various points of view, to determine a comprehensive overall pattern for secondary education relative

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to content.

IV. Guidance

Fourthly, because of a marked shifting from emphasis on subject matter to the individual in educational literature, there follows a scrutiny of the investigations, to determine the place and function of guidance.

V. Evaluation

Fifthly, accompanying the movement from subject matter to the individual, there is a shift away from determining the quality of the educative process in the form of information and erudition to a way of building a set of values for the youth who is subjected to the process. Consequently, there is an inquiry into the contributions of the investigations to evaluation.

VI. Summary

Lastly, there are presented a summary of the findings of the study and a reasonably comprehensive pattern for secondary education in the United States in 1947.

Sources of Material

Primary Sources.- The primary sources of data are nine major investigations of national import. Not included are studies of national scope (1) limited to a specific content

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or subject-matter field and (2) concerned with that upward extension of the secondary school, the junior college, which is in a twilight zone, - which is still in the making.

Five of the nine investigations are national in scope and materials covered, namely, the following:

a. The National Survey of Secondary Education contains twenty-eight monographs, including a summary. However, those most pertinent, those bearing the closest relation to the problem in hand, are the following:

1. Summary
4. The Secondary School Population
5. The Reorganization of Secondary Education
10. Articulation of High School and College
13. Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion
14. Programs of Guidance
15. Research in Secondary Schools
16. Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public
18. Procedures in Curriculum Making

b. Issues of Secondary Education and Functions of Secondary Education form the two-volume report of the Committee on Orientation of the former Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (since 1939 the National Association of Secondary School Principals).

c. Evaluation of Secondary Schools and two manuals were published by the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards.

d. Adventure in American Education is a five-volume report of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. (since 1944 the American Education Fellowship).

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e. Education for ALL American Youth is the title of the Educational Policies Commission report included in this study.

The remaining investigations, while regional rather than national, have attracted nation-wide attention, are of national import, and are considered as equally valid for other regions as for the one dealt with in each investigation.

f. Youth Tell Their Story is the one-volume report of the American Youth Commission.

g. The Student and His Knowledge, a report to the Carnegie Foundation on the results of the high-school and college examinations of 1928, 1930, and 1932, is a publication of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

h. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York is reported in eleven volumes. However, as in the case of the National Survey, only those most pertinent are included in this study, namely, the following:

When Youth Leave School by Eckert and Marshall
Education for American Life by Gulick
School and Community by Maller
Education for Work by Norton
High School and Life by Spaulding
Education for Citizenship by Wilson
The School Health Program by Winslow

i. General Education in a Free Society is the title of the report of the Harvard Committee.

Secondary Sources.- For background, those items in the bibliography under the caption "General" have been utilized. There one finds basic representative works on philosophies of

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education, social theories, the nature of learning, and the program of secondary education, including objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation.

Frequently, supplementary reprints and articles in periodicals reveal the philosophy underlying a given report. Likewise, fugitive, occasional or marginal literature, pamphlets, and bulletins not of a serial order contain an amplification of the philosophies found in the reports.

Brief Summary of Each of the Nine Investigations

The task in hand is not to give summaries of the nine voluminous investigations, but rather to give the distinctive, limited purpose or objective of each.

Because the full titles in the body of the text would be somewhat cumbersome and unwieldy, the following abbreviated appellations are used: the National Survey, the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the Co-operative and Eight-Year Studies, the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, the Maryland and Pennsylvania Studies, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report, instead of those used on the preceding pages, namely, the National Survey of Secondary Education, Issues of Secondary Education and Functions of Secondary Education, Evaluation of Secondary Schools, Adventure in American Education, Education for ALL American Youth, Youth Tell Their Story, The Student and His Knowledge, the Regents' Inquiry into the

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Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, and General Education in a Free Society, respectively.

The National Survey.- Between 1933 and 1935 the United States Office of Education published the National Survey of Secondary Education, a twenty-eight monograph answer to the query, "What is the status of secondary education in the United States?" This is the sole survey of secondary education financed by Federal Government appropriations.

The vast growth of the American secondary school, twenty years of more or less intelligent experimentation in reorganization, and the modification of the purpose of secondary education which resulted in part from the extension of secondary education produced much curiosity and many inquiries about the success of the program. In other words, the program of reorganization pointed out specific defects in the school system and proposed certain reforms to remedy those defects. A thoroughgoing survey of the whole field of secondary education was proposed, in order that the American public and American educators might know the degree of success gained by the attempts at reform.

The Report of the Committee on Orientation.- In 1936 and 1937 the Committee on Orientation of the then Department of Secondary-School Principals published two reports, which are unique in that they are wholly deliberative. The purpose of the committee of experts was the clarification of the issues and functions of secondary education.

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Believing that the principles upon which secondary education should rest must be carefully studied and clearly stated, the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association in 1932 appointed a "committee on orientation" to which the matter was entrusted. With the aid and suggestions of many groups of educators, a report was completed in 1936, in which ten major issues in secondary education are stated and discussed. On account of apparently irreconcilable differences of opinion on several important implications, Issue IX, "Shall secondary education seek merely the adjustment of students to prevailing social ideals, or shall it seek the reconstruction of society?" was not satisfactorily resolved by the Committee.

In 1937 the Committee released a second report, in which the "functions" of secondary education are phrased by Briggs in a positive manner. The report contains also discussions and explanations of the various functions. Such functions are given "in the raw" and are not the ready-made answers which the school administrator pondering the way out may expect. They have been intended to serve as a general philosophy that would stand as a frame of reference for curriculum reorganization.

The Co-operative Study.- The Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, sponsored by the six regional associations (North Central, Southern, Middle States, Northwest, New England, and Western), in 1939 and 1940 answered the question, "What constitutes a good secondary school?"

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Standards of accreditation have been neither an unmixed blessing nor an unmitigated evil. They have helped raise the standards of the secondary schools, but they have also placed obstacles in the way of socializing the curriculum. They have insisted upon better preparation for teachers, better and more plentiful apparatus and equipment, and classes of reasonable size; but they have directed attention at conditions surrounding instruction rather than upon the product of instruction. An outstanding need has been a reconsideration of those standards by which the quality of a school is judged.

So much dissatisfaction had developed with respect to the usual methods of accrediting secondary schools that an extensive study of the whole situation was begun in 1933. In canvassing the problems for investigation, it was pointed out that standards had become mechanical, lacking in flexibility, deadening rather than stimulating, narrowly academic rather than broadly comprehensive, and conservative rather than progressive with respect to the social purpose of secondary education.

The results of the Co-operative Study are found in three sources: Evaluation of Secondary Schools, the general report; two manuals, Evaluative Criteria and How to Evaluate a Secondary School; and the supplementary reprints.

The Eight-Year Study.- Appearing in 1942 and 1943, the report of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association is the example par

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excellence of the pragmatic philosophy. An answer was sought to the question, "What constitutes satisfactory preparation for college?"

In addition to the fact that an outstanding need has been a reconsideration of those standards by which the quality of a school is judged, equally pressing has been the need for a comprehensive investigation of the whole problem of college and secondary-school relationships. Criteria by which prospective college students have been selected have become hallowed by use; they have been tenaciously held even when experimental or objective studies have demonstrated their weaknesses.

Although the first volume, The Story of the Eight-Year Study, is a summary or general report, more fruitful as sources of the educational philosophy underlying the study are the other four volumes, especially Exploring the Curriculum, Appraising and Recording Student Progress, and Thirty Schools Tell Their Story, in which one finds no unanimity of opinion among the thirty experimental schools.

The Report of the Educational Policies Commission.- Education for ALL American Youth, published in 1944, answers the query, "Without Federal control and management, how can adequate educational services be provided which will meet the basic needs of all American youth?"

Here is a forthright answer to those less patient members of the profession who for years have critized the Educational Policies Commission for stressing fundamental principles of

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education and failing to produce a practical, detailed, down-to-earth blueprint for immediate action. Now the ultimate wisdom of the Commission's total program becomes apparent to all. Having profoundly influenced school people's thinking for nearly a decade through cumulative emphasis upon basic principles and broad orientation, the Commission now wisely becomes specific; in Education for ALL American Youth it presents a detailed and comprehensive plan showing how America's 30,000 secondary schools and junior colleges can be transformed in purpose and program, so as to provide adequate educational services which will actually meet the basic needs and capitalize the varied abilities of all American youth. Disclaiming "blueprints," but presenting "samples," the Commission boldly describes in detail the kinds of life-centered secondary schools it asserts must be everywhere developed immediately, if postwar youth needs are to be met, and if Federal control and management of secondary education are to be avoided in this nation.

Three concrete case descriptions are presented — the secondary schools of Farmville and of American City, and the comprehensive youth education programs of Columbia, the state in which these functional, community schools are presumably located. To make and keep the picture vivid, the three school systems are described as though by a keen observer writing five years after the close of World War II. A final chapter tells how the new schools were (can be!) brought into being by an awakened educational profession, working intelligently and

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co-operatively through its state education associations, state and local educational officials, secondary-school staffs, and teacher-educating institutions.

The Maryland Study.- "What is the reaction of youth who have been subjected to the educative process?" is the inquiry, the reply to which is found in the 1938 one-volume report of the American Youth Commission. This is an example of the survey technique, using the interview method as well as questionnaires.

Workers in psychology, sociology, vocational education, recreation, character education, secondary education, and statistics were enlisted to study youth's basic needs in six areas. Data were in the form of opinions as well as facts.

Youth Tell Their Story, the report of the seven-month survey of the American Youth Commission, which reached more than 13,000 Maryland youth, both startled and shocked thinking people.

The Pennsylvania Study.- In the same year that the American Youth Commission published the Maryland Study, 1938, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching brought forth an answer to the question, "What does the student know?"

The Student and His Knowledge, a single-volume report, contains more than one hundred charts and five tables. One finds here a long-range, scientific study of 55,000 individuals who were tested thoroughly to reconsider the system of schooling in the light of its obtained results viewed objectively. Valid

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measurements, not opinions, were used. The inquiry represents not only the study of the material for an extended period of time, but has the immense advantage of having been carried on by the same staff.

The Regents' Inquiry.- In eleven volumes that came out in 1938 and 1939 appears the answer to the inquiry, "Is the 'end product' of secondary education socially competent?"

The Regents' Inquiry, based on statistical data, is a thorough-going, two-year study to determine the quality of instruction offered in the state of New York at all levels from the nursery school upward. Sixty-two schools and 25,000 pupils were studied by means of a battery of tests given pupils leaving schools, by reports from the schools themselves indicating strengths and weaknesses, and by interviews with the boys and girls who had left school and with their employers.

The Harvard Report.- "How can educators best provide education for unity in American democracy at the secondary-school and college levels?" is answered in General Education in a Free Society, published in 1945.

The report of the Harvard Committee on the objectives of a General Education in a Free Society is essentially a statement of the philosophy and broad character of a unifying program for secondary schools in general and Harvard College in particular.

The Committee takes the position that common purposes and values should be shared as far as possible by all the people, rather than by an élite group.

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It is encouraging to find that the Committee did not offer a rigid curriculum for general education. It wisely took the position that general education should be conceived as a concern for certain outcomes, rather than as a specific list of books or courses, and that pupils with different backgrounds and outlooks may reach these goals by many different means. The fundamental outcomes are traits of mind: the abilities to think effectively in concrete situations, to communicate ideas, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.

Procedure

As one analyzes each investigation, it is not only convenient but practically imperative that one use a check-list.

In the appendix (pages 254-60) are adaptations of three guides that the writer used. List A is from Volume III, Teacher Education Curricula, of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers; List B is from Supplementary Reprint 6 of the Co-operative Study; List C is from Evaluative Criteria, also of the Co-operative Study; and List D supplements the other three, in order that a complete picture of the findings in tabular form may result.

Near the beginning of the discussion of each of the four aspects of the educational program (objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation) appear the findings in tabular form. A discussion of the items found therein follows.

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There follow chapters on the foundations or criteria and on the four phases of the educational program, namely, objectives, curriculum, guidance and evaluation. The presentation of suggested implementation of the contributions and of a summary chapter concludes the study.

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CHAPTER II

FOUNDATIONS OR CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS

Introduction

To establish bases for the evaluation of the contributions of the investigations listed on pages 5 and 6 to four phases of secondary education, three criteria have been set up, namely, the philosophies of education, concepts concerning the nature of learning, and social theories.

These three criteria are closely connected and interrelated. A philosophy of education must take its place in a larger philosophical system, because education is in and of the world. Schools are established because the social group has values and preferences. Moreover, all educators hold beliefs relative to the nature of mind and theories of learning, as well as concerning the place, aims, and purposes of education in the current American social order.

Philosophies of Education

As in every realm of endeavor, the field of secondary education faces many problems. Some of these exist because the solutions are not known; others because practice lags behind the best thought of the time, some schools being delinquent in

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employing the most progressive programs and practices.

Reason for Choosing the Philosophical Approach.- Attempts to deal with the problems in secondary education, and efforts to improve the program in existence, may be undertaken from various points of view. Some of the approaches which may be made to problems of education include the psychological, sociological, historical, comparative, and philosophical.

The first four approaches are mostly factual in nature. They are concerned with obtaining factual information on the various phases of education. Valid facts scientifically obtained are essential to the understanding of any problem in the field of secondary education. Without disparaging the value of factual data, it should be noted that facts as such, unless interpreted, go only a small way toward dealing with major issues of education. The issues in secondary education can be dealt with only by a careful, systematic consideration of values. Bases for the evaluation of facts must be established, and techniques for arriving at valid conclusions must be perfected. These are the problems of philosophy.

The Nine Investigations Contrasted with Earlier Committee Reports.- However, not all American educators have demonstrated the possession of integrated philosophies of education; not always does the right hand know what the left hand is doing. Furthermore, he who treats a number of the reports of the national commissions will, surprisingly enough, not find the continuity or similarity that characterized the reports of

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committees at the turn of the century. Those earlier groups, all working under the National Education Association, each set out to extend the work previously reported. On the other hand, the commissions in the second quarter of the twentieth century have worked independently, each apparently ignoring or discrediting the recommendations of the other bodies, and beginning again de novo. The seriousness of the problems facing secondary education accounts in part for this condition, but much of it must be attributed to competitive practices so pronounced among educators, both as individuals and as groups representing different institutions or points of view.

Three Philosophies of Education.- Educational theory furnishes the basis for improved educational practice. What one believes is important, for it determines the kind of school program that will prevail. The most significant considerations in educational philosophy can be presented as three major but conflicting systems: idealism, realism, and pragmatism or instrumentalism. (Pragmatism, the older and more widely-known term, as used in this study, emphasizes the instrumental or experimental aspects of the larger concept.)

The decision to utilize these three philosophies of education was arrived at in the light of the frequency of the use of the terms in recent studies. They are the terms used by Wahlquist (214:46-82) and Nakosteen (171:27-53). Brubacher (72:324-50) sets up a dichotomy: progressivism, including pragmatic and naturalistic educational philosophy, versus traditionalism or essentialism, including both idealism and realism. Hocking (128:43-421), on the other hand, lists seven "types of philosophy": naturalism, pragmatism, intuitionism,

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dualism, idealism, realism, and mysticism. Since this is not a study in pure philosophy, in this manuscript the tripartite arrangement seems adequate.

Up to the present, idealism seems to have had the upper hand in American public schools. At present, contemporary professional literature is noticeably pragmatic in implications. Traditional education emphasized the "eternal verities" commonly accepted by the taxpayer. On the other extreme, the progressive movement has aimed to develop the individual to his utmost. Meanwhile, scientific education has aimed to make the individual more effective in the social order, but all too often in the social order as it now is.

Idealism.- The oldest and traditionally the strongest of the three viewpoints is idealism. In this study, idealism is limited to objective idealism. The present-day American idealist holds that historic traditions are preferable to values derived from pragmatic philosophy or modern science. Moreover, he is inclined favorably toward the past, wishing to perpetuate the traditional role of the school, and to make pupils efficient in terms of existing institutions. Education, he believes, consists of pupil adaptation to the spiritual, social, and physical aspects of the environment. Content or subject matter thus becomes all-important, and the personality of the learner is subordinated, or subject matter and learner may be accorded a more-or-less equal status. The conventional subjects representing thousands of years of concern for the best in content and

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systematic methodology have intrinsic merit. They represent knowledge, skills, values, standards, ideals, and attitudes of established worth. In times past, these subjects have been serviceable in preparing countless secondary-school pupils for college and for life. If necessary, they can be modified in content and method of presentation in such manner as to aid in attaining newer objectives.

Although recognizing surface changes, idealists are concerned with the more stable elements beneath the surface. They question whether man is much different today from what he was two or three thousand years ago. Much of the classical literature is concerned with the realities of the good, the true, and the beautiful, making it as true for man today as the day it was written.

Of all the bibliographical references to philosophies of education, H. H. Horne (131) is the outstanding example of idealism. It may be apropos at this point to let him speak for himself:

> In such a time of educational and social change it is well to appreciate the relation of the new to the old and to emphasize the fixities and the verities. This, however, is not the popular and easy thing to do; educationally speaking, just now it is rowing upstream (131:10).
>
> In the broad sense of the term, education is the social transmission of ancestral experience to posterity; in the narrow sense of the term, education is the contribution of the school to this process of social transmission (131:14).
>
> Education is adjustment. We shall not be far wrong in considering true education as the process of becoming ever better adjusted inwardly and outwardly, that is to say, in our relations with ourselves, with our fellows, with nature, with God (131:125).

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Realism.- Experimentation, verification, interpretation, and some degree of generalization are the watchwords of the scientific realist in the field of education. Personal opinion, subjectivity, and bias and prejudice are to be strictly subordinated. What the realist desires is the progressiveness of the scientific attitude, not the ideas of any subjective thinker, however wise. Progress is believed to lie in the application of the objective discoveries of science. The assumption implicit in this educational philosophy is that processes and functions with which education deals are isolable, because they are independent of one another. This involves the philosophical notion that character, mental life, experience, and the methods of dealing with them are composed of separable parts and that there is no whole, no integrality in them; that what seems to be a unity is in reality nothing but an aggregate of parts. Realism is concerned with giving scientific judgment of the existence, not of the world as a whole, but of the world as it is divided into segments for inquiry. It is piecemeal and fragmentary in approach. Furthermore, the only finality is for the time being; conclusions are held to be tentative, the best expressions of observations up to date, subject to modification when further evidence is provided that will disprove any particular interpretation. Realism, in this sense, is limited to a state of verification and discovery of natural phenomena and is not much interested in metaphysical speculation.

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Studies of retardation and elimination, intelligence and achievement testing, and "minimum essentials" in subject mastery are almost wholly realistic. Especially is the realist proud of the educational measurement movement, including such illustrious "educationists" as Cattell, Thorndike, Terman, and McCall.

Notwithstanding his revision of the older realism, one of the most recent advocates of realism is Breed (63).

> On reflection it becomes evident that an object of perception is a combination of qualities. By measuring the qualities one measures the object. Moreover, one measures the qualities in amount. ... Every quality seems to come in some amount. It possesses either extensive or intensive magnitude, each of which is measurable with more or less exactitude. ... In other words, the sum of effects and the sum of its qualities amount to the same. This statement applies whether one is referring to a stove or a pupil. The qualities of personality are observed in its reactions (63:196-7).

> The chief function of all education is direction of the learning process. Learning therefore becomes the topic of first interest to educators. Can learning be measured? Why not? It is something that is directly observable and can be measured in so far as the reactions of organisms can be observed and measured.

> The real test of learning is the acquisition of a connective reaction to an object, stimulus, or situation. One merely presents a situation to a pupil and notes whether or not the desired specific reaction is made (63:198-9).

> The most recent attack on educational measurement has come from certain extremists of the Progressive group. Measurement of achievement has been linked with the subject curriculum and both have been condemned as confederates in a grand conspiracy to lead education astray. ... Needless to say this means the substitution of qualitative evaluation for quantitative measurement. And if, as I believe, quantitative measurement carries the only ultimate hope of a genuine science of education, then the substitution proposed would sound the death knell of this science (63:205-6).

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Modern educational measurement is a thorn in the side of the instrumentalists because it is the product of a different philosophy. It rests on a realistic foundation. Its basic assumptions are consistent with those of natural science and of common sense, but not with certain assumptions of pragmatism. It accepts the general-experience approach of philosophers just as pragmatism does, but holds that knowledge consists, first, in the prehension of pre-existent entities and, second, in the discovery of their interrelationships. It proceeds on the assumption that intellectual analysis is a key to an understanding of the world and successful adjustment thereto; that, indeed, this is the most essential outcome of intellectual procedure and the intellectual life (63:207).

Transcending the experience of any given moment is an external world, says the realist, elements of which enter and leave this experience, supplying the original content of mental life. If the meaning of an idea conforms with existents found in the perceptual process, the idea is said to have the quality of truth (63:217).

Pragmatism. The educational philosopher, Childs (79), prefers the term experimentalism to pragmatism:

The movement first appeared as "Pragmatism," and it is still almost exclusively known to the general public under that name. ... Recently there has been some tendency among the leaders of this movement to call it the philosophy of "Experimentalism." It appears that the temper and character of its radically experimental approach to both the world of nature and the world of man is more adequately suggested in this latter name than in any other yet proposed. It is partly because of this that the term experimentalism is used throughout this study (79:5-6).

While accepting the results of authenticated scientific work, pragmatism builds upon the idea that organisms, selves, characters, and minds are so intimately connected with their environments that they can be studied and understood only in relation to them. Education, as the pragmatists conceive it, is a process of social interaction carried on in behalf of consequences which are themselves social, that is, it involves interactions between persons and includes shared values. The

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pragmatists affirm that genuine values and tenable ends and ideals are to be derived from what is found within the movement of experience. All that is demanded by the logic of the pragmatic philosophy is that, whether the situation be small or great, and the guiding idea of near-by or far-off application, the spirit of hypothesis and experiment enter into the procedure for managing it.

The school, the pragmatists maintain, must build up the attitudes and appreciations which are appropriate to its underlying philosophy. If this philosophy is a philosophy of democracy, the school must undertake to exemplify, in its organization and procedures, its conception of democratic living. This is necessary, not merely to promote a better intellectual understanding of democracy, but to create the conditions for transforming democratic precepts into established habits of feeling and willing. In brief, the school must be a place where pupils go, not merely to learn, but to carry on a way of life.

From the pragmatic standpoint, education is viewed as growth in individual capacities to deal with situations. One dare not prepare an individual for a static adult life; one must transform the plasticity of childhood and youth into the flexibility of adulthood. The educational process is continuous; it does not and must not stop. Dynamic society demands an individual who is self-directing; not one who stands in awe of the printed page and the task-master, nor of the daily newspaper and the

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dictator. It demands a person who learns from the use of "things," and in whom imitation is a selective, judicious process. The pragmatist is the proponent of the activity school.

> The experimentalist believes that ideas arise in and through experience. They are not spontaneously generated. In his opinion, all ideas, beliefs, and ideals grow out of, and relate to, concrete experiences. And experience as here used means primarily an active process of interaction between the human organism and its natural and social environment. ...
>
> ... Mind itself is something built in the very process of experiencing. ...
>
> ... The experimentalist believes it is wholly true that each individual derives his meanings - actually builds his mind - out of his concrete dealings with the particular materials found in his natural and social environment (79:8-9).

> The most fundamental value in the experimentalist philosophy is its method. This method is the method of experience. ... In thus giving primary emphasis to its method - the method of experience - experimentalism places the democratic principles at the heart of its philosophy (79:30).

> The experimentalist inevitably tends to think of life as education, and of education as life. As he views it, the experience process and the educative process are essentially one. ... For the experimentalist the only justification for the existence of a school is that it can through intentional effort produce an environment in which the experiences of youth will be more truly educative than they otherwise would be. Since experience and education are inherently linked, any school which is not a place where children have varied and vital experiences calculated to give them an understanding of themselves and of their natural and social environment is not adequately organized to accomplish educational ends (79:80-1).

Summary of Major Philosophies.- To point up the contrasting views of the three major philosophies of education the following summary is offered, the high lights of the philosophies being arranged in three parallel columns:

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Idealism	Realism	Pragmatism
1. Emphasis on individual	1. Emphasis on subject matter	1. Emphasis on interaction of individual and subject matter
2. Essay tests	2. Objective tests	2. Problem solving - degree to which the individual can make use of factual material to control the situation; opportunity to exercise control over situation, actual manipulation of situation
3. To know an object is to know one's response to it.	3. To know an object is to know the properties of the object. Man must keep himself out of the picture.	3. To know an object is to know what one can do to the object, and what the object can do to him.
4. Properties of an object are the possession of the learner, not of the object. One describes his reaction; it's in the organism.	4. Inherent, original properties possessed by the object itself.	4. The new whole determines its properties, not the properties of the parts added. The number of properties depends upon the number of operations that can be performed upon the object.
5. One knows a thing if he has ideas about it; interpretations and thoughts indicate understanding.	5. One knows a thing if he can reproduce it. Ideas are the result of sense impressions one gets.	5. One knows a thing in as many ways as one can react to it. Knowing is relativistic. Senses provide only raw material; the organism does something to it.

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The Nature of Learning

Psychology provides philosophy with answers to such questions as the meaning of interest, the nature of the learning process and of thinking, the significance of individual differences in abilities and their nature and types, of differences in rates of growth and development, organization of curriculum and content, methods of instruction, and the meaning of nature and growth.

The past three or four centuries have produced many psychologists who have had considerable to say, either expressed or implied, about mental development. Their ideas have often been taken over by educators, and these form many of the ready-made notions which influence the psychological thinking of students of education. These psychologists are often regarded as belonging to certain "schools" of thought, each of which contributed its share of ideas and terms to the background of educational psychology. It would not perhaps be strictly true to say that the particular concepts attributed to their schools had not been given expression before their time or that practical use had not been made of them in the classroom. But the credit for expressing them as inferences from a well-thought-out system of psychology, and so leading to their firm entrenchment in the common mind, belongs especially to the group of thinkers who scientifically sponsored them. Nor should it be said that any particular psychologist would perhaps have found all the ideas attributed to his own school wholly acceptable, especially in the summary form in which they are expressed here. But these ideas and the manner of their expression do in general represent how his more erudite and accurately expressed concepts have been interpreted

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by others and in what form they have reached the common mind.

There is a tendency at present (1947) for psychologists to agree on many basic principles. T. R. McConnell, for example, in a chapter entitled "Reconciliation of Learning Theories" (174:Chapter VII) enumerates nine basic attributes possessed by three theories of learning, namely, conditioning, connectionism, and the field theory of learning.

However, the background of this study dates back two or three decades to a period when the clash between schools of psychology was much sharper than it is in 1947. In the main, the men who made the investigations selected for this study had been trained in the earlier schools of psychology.

In the literature available there is not too much agreement as the types of psychology; for example, whereas Bode (58:10-251) describes three psychologies (substantive mind or doctrine of mental states, behaviorism, and purposive behavior), Woodworth (221: 18-204) explains five"contemporary schools of psychology" (introspective psychology and the existential school, behaviorism, Gestalt psychology or configurationism, psychoanalysis, and purposivism or hormic psychology). On the other hand, Heidbreder (127: 113-412) presents "seven psychologies": structuralism, the psychology of William James, functionalism, behaviorism, dynamic psychology, Gestalt psychology, and the psychology of Freud and the psychoanalysts. Some of the schools seem to have historical significance only. From these as well as from other sources the writer chose the mechanistic and organismic psychologies, and added a third, namely, vitalistic psychology, because of its development from idealistic philosophy. These three interpretations of the nature of learning are closely allied with idealistic, realistic, and pragmatic philosophy.

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What are the conditions and motivations and skills necessary for effective learning? What retention of learned materials may be expected? What theories best subsume the experimental facts of learning? The student will find a theoretical range from the "reflexology" of Watson, Pavlov, and Weiss to the "gestalt" theories of Wertheimer, Koffka, and Koehler, with more recent modifications by Lewin, Tolman, and others.

Vitalistic Concepts.- Theories of learning are embodiments or applications of conceptions regarding the nature of mind. The history of education bears testimony to the fact that influential theories of the mind translate themselves at some point into educational practice. If one assumes that the mind exists antecedently waiting to be trained, the natural result of this assumption is formal discipline. If one takes for granted that the mind consists of a collection of impressions or mental states, he may then easily exalt the role of the teacher and formalize the process of instruction. In the one case the mind is, indeed, a source of energy or power, but the primary use of subject matter is to serve as gymnastic material. In the other case the emphasis falls primarily on the acquisition and organization of material, but with little regard for the development of individual capacity and interest. In both cases the conception of mind that is basic to the corresponding educational practice tends to set the mind apart as something to be trained or molded. The selection and organization of subject

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matter are not determined by a purpose or aim that the learner is seeking to realize, but are imposed from without, with the result that education becomes formalized. Bode (58:1-108), Heidbreder (127:113-51), and Woodworth (221:18-42) present comprehensive discussions of vitalistic psychology. Vitalistic psychology is the description of the nature of learning dear to the heart of the idealist.

Mechanistic Concepts.- If one abandons this ancient dualism, he limits the native equipment of the individual to a certain set or group of inborn tendencies or impulses, as determined by the structure of the nervous system. This point of view is held in common by mechanistic and organismic psychologists. In the application or elaboration of this point, however, they soon part company. For mechanistic psychologists the process of learning consists in coupling fixed stimuli with fixed responses. On the side of response, one sorts out certain reactions and gets rid of the rest. On the side of stimulus, one sorts out a certain part or aspect of the total situation, to the exclusion of what is left. Learning is a process of selecting both the stimulus and the response. It is a process of substituting the part for the whole. In the language of Thorndike, all learning is analysis. Part II of the Forty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (174:17-164) contains a detailed treatment of mechanistic psychology. Other things being equal, he who holds the scientific, realistic position approves of this mechanistic interpretation.

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Vitalistic and Mechanistic Concepts Contrasted with Organismic Concepts.- Whether one makes intelligence a deus ex machina, an agency that functions from the outside, as is done by dualism, or, on the other hand, reduces intelligence to terms of physics and chemistry, as is done by mechanistic psychologists, seems to be educationally unimportant. In neither case can intelligence be made to function effectively in learning situations. The difference is unimportant, because neither position gives practical recognition to intelligence or mind as the function of recreating or reinterpreting a situation so as to give it a new meaning. In other words, educational theory can hardly provide an escape from the ideal of conformity to the existing order, unless intelligence is regarded as a certain unique type of interaction between a living organism and the things in its environment. If one treats intelligence as a separate thing or denies its existence, he is practically certain to neglect the significant traits of this distinctive type of interaction.

Organismic or Field Concepts.- Many of the recent trends in psychology have co-operated to produce what may be called an "organismic" viewpoint. This is a dynamic psychology in its emphasis upon inner moving forces in human behavior. It refers frequently to "wholes" and "organizations" and "dynamic relations." It is a developmental psychology in the sense that it favors explanations of mental events in terms of how they came to be rather than as to how they are constituted. The

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organismic viewpoint co-ordinates the various scientific facts and concepts of psychology.

According to organismic psychology, learning is not a matter of training hypothetical "faculties," nor yet of producing "conditioned reflexes" in order that the affairs of everyday living may be carried on with a minimum of reflection and attention. Stated in positive terms, learning is a process by which experiences are changed so as to become more serviceable for future guidance. All learning is a matter of making over experiences in terms of what one can do with things and situations or in terms of what they will do to him.

By "learning" is meant the state of affairs when some part or aspect of experience stays with one to influence pertinently one's further experience. It doubtless is true that such learning is not only going on all the time that one is alert and active, but that its presence is necessary to give coherence to experience itself, as well as to allow intelligence a chance to serve within experience.

What is learned is one's reactions; each one reacts to situations as he understands them. Therefore, it follows that each item learned is learned in its relations as then experienced. What is learned stays with one to affect pertinently his further living; each item does thus in some degree permeate further living; it permeates it in the degree that it was learned and in the degree that it proves pertinent to further living.

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It thus appears that each item learned is by the act and fact of the living-learning-living cycle related both to past learnings and to pertinent future learnings. That learnings thus stay with one to affect pertinently further living means that what one learns he therein builds at once into character. In part II of the Forty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (174:165-242), one finds a cogent presentation of organismic or field psychology.

Affectivity or Emotion and Feeling.- Affectivity is understood to have reference to emotion and feeling. Man, in comparison with the lower animals, is a creature of prodigious intellect, as the civilization he has wrought attests. But this civilization is not the work of emotionless men. Unless man cared, unless his works possessed value to him, he would not bestir himself in the interest of the least of such works. The number of things that arouse emotion and feeling in an animal can probably be counted on one's fingers; the number that so affect a cultured man may well run to a thousand.

The impetus to man's far-flung intellectual achievement is his affective life. Acquisition of knowledge, discovery and inventions, personal sacrifices, self-discipline, and moral circumspection have, through a long history of social conditioning, acquired immense prestige, and hence great value. Achievement in matters of personal and social value brings satisfaction, ego gratification. Just as intellect gives guidance and implementation, so feeling gives initiative, deter-

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mines values, and is the sine qua non of wishes and aspirations. One puts to use his intellectual and manual powers in the services only of those goals that appeal as having personal worth. In contrast to the lassitude of normal daily living a man can, when he exerts himself to the utmost, put to shame his customary accomplishments. Some fail of a high standard of accomplishment because of meager mental resources; many more, because they live and work near the surface.

Life shows many degrees of living and consequently of learning. Where a youth gives his whole heart to what he does, there he lives in highest degree. These things he learns best, and they will stay with him longest and are most likely to come forward for use when occasion shall offer. Contrariwise, at the lowest degree of living, and consequently of learning, are the things one is least interested in, things that he does only under compulsion and threats and then does them the least possible. Such things one can see in many a school where the lessons have little meaning for the youth and therefore no interest; where the words used are over their heads, or under their feet, and the matter treated has no bearing on life as they value life. These things, if learned at all, are soon forgotten. Even before they have dropped out, they are seldom or never thought of for use. In a word, these things have been but little lived and therefore but little learned. "The Relation of Emotional Behavior to Learning" is discussed by John E. Anderson in Part II of the Forty-first Yearbook of the National Society for

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the Study of Education (174:333-52).

Summary of Three Psychologies.- By way of sharpening the contrasting views of the three interpretations of the nature of learning, the following summary is presented, the high lights of the psychologies being arranged in three parallel columns:

Vitalistic	Mechanistic	Organismic
1. Allied with idealistic philosophy	1. Allied with realistic philosophy	1. Allied with pragmatic philosophy
2. Organism functions as a whole, does not represent an additive process.	2. Whole=sum of parts. Behavior of whole is additive effect of parts.	2. Character of the part is determined by the field character of the whole, by the position occupied in relation to the whole.
3. The definition of vitalist postulates an intangible power, consciousness, at the beginning. The pressure or force is internal direction from internal pressure.	3. Some organizing influence has to be predicated, such as consciousness. Parts are held together by external force, by demands in the environment.	3. Dynamic character emerges when parts act together. No magical, mysterious power has to be postulated.
4. Parts are conditioned by the pattern of the whole. All events become individuated from a larger pattern. Belief in an organizing influence, a predetermined pattern.	4. If one knows the parts, by adding them, one can know the whole. One can analyze human behavior as one can a machine.	4. The behavior of the individual cannot be explained without reference to the whole. Human behavior is purposive.

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Vitalistic (continued)	Mechanistic (continued)	Organismic (continued)
5. Emphasizes nature, the organism.	5. Emphasizes nurture, the environment.	5. Emphasizes both nature and nurture, organism and environment.
6. "Whole" learning.	6. "Part" learning, then by means of external pressure, such as tests and marks, the whole is put together.	6. Learning involves problem solving, both the "whole" and the "parts." Pressure is neither exclusively internal nor external.

Social Theories

Having discussed the first two of three closely related criteria in terms of which the contributions of the investigations are evaluated, the writer now turns to the last criterion, social theories.

Because group preferences exist, schools are set up to direct and guide behavior. The purposes of a school, therefore, cannot be determined apart from the society which maintains the school. In turn, the purposes of any society are determined by the life values which the people prize.

When education is more formally thought of as a matter of the individual's relation to the organized social and economic

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structure, Curti, the historian (83:3-591), finds that the purposes of education fall into three categories: (1) education to perpetuate the existing pattern of economic and social arrangements, (2) education to modify or reform the established system, and (3) education to reorganize affairs completely in such a way that a future differing fundamentally from the past and present may be established. Justman (141:5-458) sets up a rigidly compartmentalized pattern when he describes four separate and distinct categories of social theory: humanism, social evolutionism, social realism, and experimentalism. In considerable detail, Todd (209:157-501) presents four major interpretations of progress: materialistic, biological, institutional, and ideological. Kandel (142:4-167) uses a dichotomy: progressives versus traditionalists, and democracy versus totalitarianism.

The Historical Point of View.- If the problem of school and society is approached from the historical or comparative point of view, two distinct functions of schooling may be distinguished.

The first of these is the conservation or transmission of the culture, or social heritage, so that the younger generation may be equipped with the skills and knowledge and attitudes that will enable it to take its place in a society and contribute to that society's stability and preservation. Society through the school seeks to reproduce the type, preserving its culture as a distinctive asset. The school

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emerges just as soon as the social organization becomes too complex to provide education informally.

The second function of education emerged later when provision was made for the preparation of some individuals to become potential leaders of society. Some attempt was made here to go beyond mere transmission and to develop a critical attitude, freedom, and intelligence to modify and adapt social conditions to new needs. Counts refers to the historical point of view in his 1945 Kappa Delta Pi lecture (82:10-12).

Between World Wars I and II.- In the period prior to the close of World War II, the fundamental issue in education was the emphasis that should be placed upon these two functions. The issue, in a word, was between new forms of despotism and tyranny, on the one hand, and democracy, on the other — whether man should be enslaved in the interests of reaction or retain the hard-won gains in his upward struggle for emancipation and enlightenment.

The essential differences among the educational systems of the world were to be found in this conflict between molding youth to a pattern and developing free intelligence. On the one side were dictatorships or totalitarian states; on the other were those states which retained their faith in the ideals of democracy. In the one group the individual was sacrificed to the state, which stood above all individuals; in the other the state was and is still considered to rest upon the expressed will of the individuals who constitute it.

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Democratic Education.- Concepts of democracy and of democratic education in America may be differentiated as follows:

1. From the standpoint of American tradition, the concept of democracy is distinctive in that it was (and for some still is) an exclusively political term designating a form of government that stresses civil liberties. Traditionally, the school was the institution whose task it was to transmit the tested skills, attitudes, and ideals of the past (referred to two sections earlier, under the heading "The Historical Point of View").

2. Even currently the concept of democracy is commonly associated with the principle of majority rule. Rule by the majority is a method of settling conflicts of opinion; it does not provide opinions. Those who associate the concept of democracy with majority rule, consent of the governed, consider it the function of the school to prepare the individual for present society, the purpose of education being characterized as adjustment. Strictly speaking, this characterization is psychologically indefensible. Uneducated persons are probably quite as well adjusted as educated persons are. It might be said, if one has some affection for the term "adjustment," that the function of education is to enable individuals to adjust at succeedingly higher social and intellectual levels.

3. Democracy is infinitely more than a political concept; it is a state of mind, a way of life, a Weltanschauung. A democratically organized society seeks to protect the interests

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of all its members through joint responsibility and control. Democracy requires a type of education that enables the individual not only to adapt himself to the existing social order, but to take part in its remaking in the interests of greater freedom. The purpose of education is not to fit the individual for a place in society, but to enable him to make his own place. As a nation Americans have been striving always for those values which constitute the American way of life; they prize individual human personality above everything else; they are convinced that the form of social organization called democracy promotes, better than any other, the development of the worth and dignity of men and women. It follows, therefore, that the chief purpose of education in the United States should be to preserve, promote, and refine the way of life in which Americans believe. This is the thesis of Bode's Democracy as a Way of Life (59:1-114).

The Role of the School in Agrarian American Democracy.- Changes in the social order are profoundly altering the processes and agencies of education. Even though it were thought desirable, the young could not be reared and inducted into twentieth-century American democratic society as they were in the agrarian period. In that period the school played a minor, even an insignificant, role in this process. Then the school was a mere adjunct to the way of life going on outside the school, and, in a sense, a relatively unimportant adjunct at that. In effect the chief purpose of the school was to reinforce the way of life that was

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practiced by the community by supplying certain skills and information required by that way of life. While this was a more-or-less necessary function, the place of the school in the whole scheme of things was somewhere on the periphery and not at the center. The great institutions then were the family, church, farm, and neighborhood. The young acquired the powers, skills, knowledge, and dispositions necessary for fairly successful living in the course of growing up and performing the activities expected at each succeeding age. These old agencies, though still persisting, have declined in their influence. Counts introduces his lecture with mention of this point (82:1-2).

The Role of the School in Industrial American Democracy.- The problem of finding substitutes, as effective for the present age as agencies mentioned above were for the agrarian age, is far from solved. Indeed, as yet the problem in its fullness has scarcely been sensed. The school, to be sure, has grown enormously, but too much in isolation from the rest of life. Many other agencies of great possibilities, all relatively new, have appeared. The task of fully utilizing and co-ordinating these agencies is tremendous and challenging. Since the school is in a peculiarly favorable position to see the problem as a whole, it should assume the role of leadership.

The school program should be based more fully on an understanding and appraisal of the social forces and conditions of the times. An educational program has meaning and significance in terms of a particular time and place. It is dynamic only as

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its workers sense the needs in the society served and minister to them. A sound basis for education can be found exclusively neither in first principles and immutable laws nor in the inherent nature of youth. It must be found in the conditions of social life in a particular culture. The more intimately teachers understand their culture - its ideals, conditions, and processes - the better may the school play its social role.

Schools have been too remote from rapidly moving social forces; educational programs tend to get out of adjustment with current conditions. Educators should seek to understand more fully the contemporary culture in its most fundamental aspects. They should sense current strains and stresses, the operation of underlying forces, and the needs for improvement. Thus they may achieve a more significant and meaningful base for the development of a program. Only then will the educational services provided by the school take on increased value to the democratic society. A comprehensive discussion of education in industrial America is found in Counts (82:55-72, 102-57).

However contradictory to the democratic principle it may seem, in the study of the selected investigations the writer found it necessary to distinguish education for the masses from education for the classes.

Education for the Classes.- In aims and curriculum, the early Latin Grammar School was the European humanistic school carried to the New World. The immediate aim was college preparation; the remote aim was the training of leaders for church

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and state. Latin and the rudiments of Greek comprised an inordinate amount of all colonial grammar-school instruction. The Latin Grammar School, although occasionally free, was not the school of the people but of the social élite, not of the masses but of the classes. Generally its basic aim, although not always stated, was the training of an intellectual élite for the service of church and state. Mention of education for the classes is made by Norberg (179:9-10).

Education for the Masses.- The increased assumption of the responsibility to provide secondary education for all young people seems to be in harmony with the democratic aspirations of the American people. The provision of an education that will be of most value to all the pupils constitutes a most important and difficult challenge to the educator. Norberg discusses education for the masses also (179:10-15).

Summary of Social Theories.- The school is a social institution, and education should be adjusted both to modern social needs and issues and to individual desires and problems. In recent years there has been a wealth of statements on the goals of education, many of them pointing to this function of education. All these goals make reference, first, to the essential characteristics of present-day society, to the place of the school in helping men to devise new social plans for improving their living, and to the need for designing a curriculum based upon these goals. Secondly, these aims stress the idea that such planning for social improvement must be

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centered in the democratic concept and in the principles indigenous to the basic character of the culture. They stress a third factor, the development of the learner, indicating that the level of maturity is an important factor in the placement of the materials of instruction and that a thorough understanding of the principles of growth and development is necessary. These goals, then, indicate the need for three guides: (1) a knowledge of the culture and its issues and transitions, (2) an understanding of the philosophical principles of democracy, and (3) a point of view regarding the nature of growth and development.

Chapter Summary

The theory of society dominant at any time is of fundamental importance. Instructional practices cannot be selected wisely until one knows what type of individual is to be produced and in what type of social milieu. Society is now thought of as dynamic and emergent. Change is inherent in any social order. The democratic ideal is the dominant one in the United States. Democracy means participatory group life within flexible, evolutionary institutions with the common good paramount. Free participation by individuals in terms of their unique contributions necessitates the education of individuals of worth. Respect for personality becomes of dominant importance. Adaptability and creativity are desirable

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traits of democratic personality. The aim becomes the development of personalities which can perpetuate and improve the democratic way of life.

The new psychology implies that this aim may be achieved best through the stimulation of the all-round growth of the individual at all levels during his development. The plastic behaving organism reacts as a whole to various aspects of the environment and not with discrete intellectual, emotional, and physical responses to selected items in the environment. The process of learning is continuous, interactive experiencing with the environment and with other persons.

Having concluded the presentation of the three criteria to be used as bases for the evaluation of the contributions of the selected investigations to four phases of secondary education, the writer now presents the contribution of each investigation to each of the four aspects of secondary education: objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation.

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CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Introduction

The preceding chapter having been devoted to the three criteria in terms of which the contributions of the selected investigations to four aspects of the program of secondary education are evaluated, the writer now presents the first of the four phases of the program of secondary education, namely, objectives.

In presenting the material on the objectives of secondary education, the writer gives, first, a tabular overview of the contributions of the investigations to the objectives of secondary education; secondly, a review of the objectives of secondary education, tracing the evolution of objectives in more recent years; thirdly, the objectives of secondary education as found in the selected investigations; and lastly, a discussion of some salient characteristics of the objectives found in the investigations.

Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Objectives of Secondary Education

Using those items in the check-list (Appendix pp. 254-7) pertaining to objectives, the writer constructed Table 1 on page 50, indicating those with which each investigation is explicitly or implicitly in agreement, is in disagreement, or

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does not concern itself. A plus sign (✓) indicates agreement; a minus sign (-), disagreement; and a zero (0), no reference.

Since the National Survey presents status only and does not set up objectives, only eight investigations are used in checking the eleven items.

To conserve space in the table, letters symbolize the investigations, arranged as they appeared in the first chapter, as follows:

A	National Survey	F	Maryland Study
B	Committee on Orientation	G	Pennsylvania Study
C	Co-operative Study	H	Regents' Inquiry
D	Eight-Year Study	I	Harvard Report
E	Educational Policies Commission		

The following items are numbered as they appear in the master check-list:

A 1. The purpose of education should be essentially to prepare boys and girls for the activities which make up, or which ought to make up, well-rounded adult life.

2. In this period of rapid change, it is highly important that education be charged with the task of preserving the long-established and enduring educational aims and objectives.

6. Education should work toward the goal of teaching and learning things when the need for them arises in life experiences.

11. The school should strive to develop in its pupils that hardy and rugged individualism which characterized early American life.

13. Education may well be conceived as the unfolding of what is latent in the child.

B 1. Education should prepare chiefly for

a. social-civic activities
b. economic-vocational activities
c. individualistic-avocational activities.

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B 2. Education should chiefly emphasize

a. cultural values
b. practical values.

3. Education primarily is

a. adjustment to conditions
b. self-development
c. mastery of environment.

4. As its principal goal education should seek

a. personal character
b. social efficiency
c. physical health
d. mental health
e. self-discipline
f. self-integration
g. Christian citizenship
h. social morality
i. happiness
j. mental discipline.

7. The school should seek to make pupils more alike; it should seek uniformity of character.

13. The school should

a. emphasize such outcomes as knowledge, understanding, and skills
b. regard knowledge, understanding, and skills as means rather than ends
c. emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes

In addition to and immediately following Table 1, two sub-tables have been arranged on a frequency basis. An explanation of Table 1 and the two sub-tables is given in the section following the presentation of the tables.

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TABLE 1
OVERVIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS TO THE OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Items	Investigations									Totals			Items
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	≠	-	0	
A 1		≠	≠	-	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	6	2	0	A 1
2		-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	6	0	2
6		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	6	2	0	6
11		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	11
13		-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	6	0	13
B 1a		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	8	0	0	B 1a
1b		≠	-	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	5	3	0	1b
1c		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	1c
2a		≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	≠	7	1	0	2a
2b		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	6	2	0	2b
3a		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	3a
3b		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	8	0	0	3b
3c		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	3c
4a		-	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	-	-	4	4	0	4a
4b		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	1	0	4b
4c		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	4c
4d		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	4d
4e		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	4e
4f		-	-	≠	-	-	-	-	-	1	7	0	4f
4g		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	4g
4h		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	4h
4i		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	4i
4j		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	4j
7		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	8	0	7
13a		-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	-	1	7	0	13a
13b		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	1	0	13b
13c		≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	1	0	13c

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TABLE 1a

FREQUENCY OF OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE EIGHT INVESTIGATIONS

Approval of Objectives

Check-List Items	Frequency
B 1a	8
B 3b	8
B 2a	7
B 4b	7
B 13b	7
B 13c	7
A 1	6
A 6	6
B 2b	6
B 1b	5
B 4a	4
A 2	2
A 13	2
B 4f	1
B 13a	1
A 11	0
B 1c	0
B 3a	0
B 3c	0
B 4c	0
B 4d	0
B 4e	0
B 4i	0
B 4j	0
B 7	0

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TABLE 1b

FREQUENCY OF OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE EIGHT INVESTIGATIONS

Disapproval of Objectives

Check-List Items	Frequency
A 11	8
B 1c	8
B 3a	8
B 3c	8
B 4c	8
B 4d	8
B 4e	8
B 4i	8
B 4j	8
B 7	8
B 4f	7
B 13a	7
A 2	6
A 13	6
B 4a	4
B 1b	3
A 1	2
A 6	2
B 2b	2
B 2a	1
B 4b	1
B 13b	1
B 13c	1
B 1a	0
B 3b	0

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Interpretation of Tables 1, 1a, and 1b

While a frequency of approval (Table 1a) of from six to eight may indicate standard practice, a frequency of four or five is an indication of live current issues. On the other hand, a low frequency of one or two may indicate either things in the making and set forth by a forward-looking investigation, or things on the way out, yet tenaciously adhered to by a somewhat conservative investigation.

Those items on which there was a unanimity or lack of approval are here retained because of their relevance at some time in the more-or-less remote past, and because of their significance in testing the consistency of an educator's philosophy.

For obvious reasons, Table 1b is Table 1a in reverse; that is, unanimity of approval of an item necessarily means an absence of disapproval of that item.

A study of Table 1 and the two sub-tables reveals several interesting facts.

1. There is a unanimity of opinion on fourteen of the twenty-seven items. Positively, all of the selected investigations believe (a) that education primarily is self-development, and (b) that it should prepare chiefly for social-civic activities.

Negatively, none of the selected investigations believes (a) that the school should strive to develop in its pupils that hardy and rugged individualism which characterized early American life; (b) that education should prepare chiefly for

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individualistic-avocational activities; (c) that education primarily is adjustment to conditions or mastery of environment; (d) that as its principal goal education should seek physical or mental health, self-discipline, happiness, or mental discipline; or (e) that the school should seek to make its pupils more alike. Christian citizenship and social morality, while significant goals at one time, seem to have been absorbed by other objectives.

2. The Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report agree (a) that it is highly important that education preserve the long-established and enduring educational aims and objectives, and (b) that education may well be conceived as the unfolding of what is latent in the child. Negatively, neither of these investigations is committed to the pragmatic viewpoint that education should work toward the goal of teaching and learning things when the need for them arises in life experiences.

3. Neither the Pennsylvania Study nor the Harvard Report takes the position that education should emphasize practical values as much as cultural values. On the other hand, the Maryland Study, concerned with vocational competence, is committed to the point of view that education should emphasize chiefly practical values. The remaining five investigations that set up lists of objectives believe that education should emphasize both practical and cultural values. While all investigations profess to believe that education should prepare for social-civic activities (as stated under 1 on the preceding

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page), only five of them think that education should prepare for both social-civic and economic-vocational activities, the Co-operative and Pennsylvania Studies and the Harvard Report comprising the minority.

4. Neither the Eight-Year Study nor the Educational Policies Commission is of the opinion that the purpose of education should be essentially to prepare boys and girls for well-rounded adult life.

5. According to the Co-operative, Eight-Year, Sand[illegible], and Maryland Studies, as its principal goal education should seek both personal character and social efficiency, with self-integration added by the Eight-Year Study. The Committee on Orientation, the Educational Policies Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report choose social efficiency as the principal goal of education; the Pennsylvania Study, personal character.

6. All of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study excepted, regard knowledge, understanding, and skills as means rather than ends, and emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes. Those things which the other investigations consider means rather than ends, the Pennsylvania Study emphasizes.

Objectives of Secondary Education Prior to 1930

In the search for objectives of secondary education, one's findings will depend upon the point of view which governs his search. Assuming that education is for life, recent attempts to investigate objectives have analyzed life and its activities.

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Objectives Proposed by Spencer.- About the middle of the nineteenth century, Herbert Spencer, philosopher, biologist, and essayist, approaching the subject with an open mind, raised the question: "What knowledge is of most worth?" (204:5-69). After concluding that education should be preparation for complete living, he attempted to interpret complete living by making an analysis of life, thus to determine the activities of which life is composed.

After completing this investigation, Spencer summarized his findings into five groups of activities as follows: (1) activities which directly minister to self-preservation, (2) activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation, (3) activities which have for their end the rearing and disciplining of offspring, (4) activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations, and (5) those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of tastes and feelings (204:14).

According to Spencer, these five groups of activites represent the major phases or areas of life, the five major types of institutions of human life for which education should give some preparation. For approximately half a century, Spencer's pioneer attempt was almost ignored.

The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.- In 1918, when the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education was searching for objectives of secondary education, it used the

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same technique as that followed by Spencer, and also made an analysis of life in general. The Commission attempted to locate the activities of life which were common to all individuals (80:9-10). It concluded that every individual is a citizen, engages in a vocation, is a member of a home, and has leisure-time activities. In order to perform these duties and activities most effectively, the individual must participate in activities which lead to health, good ethical character, and a command of the fundamental processes (80:10-6).

The seven cardinal objectives immediately gained a wide recognition. Their special contribution lay not in demonstrating a new technique in arriving at educational objectives, nor in pointing to goals previously unknown; rather, the objectives met a generally felt need for a formal statement of aims, and this particular form seems to have crystallized the best prevailing concepts of educational goals and social institutions. As evidence on this point, one sees that other educational authorities were thinking along the same line. In the same year, 1918, Inglis stated the three fundamental aims of education to be (1) the social-civic aim, (2) the economic-vocational aim, and (3) the individualistic-avocational aim (134: 367-75). These three aims called attention to the civic, vocational, and leisure-time activities of life.

It is difficult to overestimate the influence which the seven cardinal objectives have had upon education and the pattern of thought of the teaching profession. This influence extends

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from informal discussions of education to basic treatises on the subject. It is reflected in a number of more recent statements of objectives of education. This influence may be observed in a survey of the literature on the aims of secondary education made in 1927 by Koos. Koos summarized his findings in a four-fold statement of aims, namely: (1) civic-social-moral responsibility, (2) recreational and aesthetic participation and appreciation, (3) occupational efficiency, and (4) physical efficiency (146:154-6).

It is more than a quarter of a century since the pronouncement of the cardinal principles of secondary education. The chief result has been that practically all secondary-school teachers can now recite them and demonstrate, at least to their own satisfaction, that the area of their specialization makes a fundamental contribution to each of the seven. The claim is made, but the practice remains unchanged. The seven cardinal principles have been absorbed by a curriculum which was organized on the basis of contrasting theories of education; the seven cardinal principles and similar statements of the purposes of secondary education, of which there are many, have not as yet remade the educational program or revolutionized educational practices. Until a philosophy is applied, little significance may be attached to the vocalization of its adherents. In spite of the wide acceptance of the theory that "education is life" and "education is growth," phrases which are repeated by all teachers, there is still found a program which in the typical

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secondary school is predominantly an expression of the philosophy of education as preparation, with preparation aimed at college entrance for all — whether they can or should continue their school experiences in that area of the educational program.

Objectives enunciated more recently, in the fifteen-year period scrutinized in this study, are the result of a technique similar to that used by Spencer and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, namely, an analysis of life.

Objectives of Secondary Education, 1930-1945

The economic depression of the 1930's threw into sharp relief the inadequacies of existing social institutions, including the school. During that period, the people suffered from the aftermath of a general war, a depression that caused many youth to walk the streets jobless. The history of such national crises as wars and economic depressions reveals all too starkly accompanying dislocations of the educational system, in terms of retrenchments in funds, salaries, building programs, curriculum, and personnel. Such a period is a crucial one in education.

At such a time, educators are forced to take an inventory. If the results of that stock-taking are satisfactory, education will thus justify itself to the layman. If, on the other hand, the inventory results are unsatisfactory, they will indicate to the educator that the time is at hand to remedy existing conditions.

When the pressure for the survey comes from within, one has at least the assurance that educators are not so smug, self-

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satisfied, and complacent as to think that all is well. However, all too frequently pressure is exerted from without before educators begin an investigation into the state of affairs.

In presenting the objectives of the selected investigations, the writer uses the order followed in the first chapter, namely, the national followed by the regional investigations.

Objectives Found in the National Survey.- The survey made by the United States Office of Education does not set up a list of objectives of secondary education. Here status only is presented, not the next step in secondary education. One cannot stop with surveys, for although they show what the problems are, they give little indication of what might be done about the situation discovered. They are but part of the complete set of tools and materials from which one can set about to work out a solution.

Although the National Survey does not set up a list of objectives, it does indicate that the people of the United States are coming to look upon education as a preparation for citizenship and for daily life (16:v).

Objectives Stated by the Committee on Orientation.- A committee of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association made a special study of objectives and recommended ten functions which were to be recognized as special responsibilities of the secondary school, namely:

1. Integration

   Citizenship in a democracy requires individuals with a

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common background of ideals and experiences, social mindedness, and the ability to co-operate toward the realization of the goals of society. The school is perhaps the best equipped agency to integrate individuals with each other and with society.

2. Satisfaction of needs

Every pupil has needs such as the maintenance of health, skill in the use of machines, and the development of social efficiency. The secondary-school curriculum should provide for pupil needs both where they are immediate and where they are remote.

3. Revelation of the racial heritage

The school is intimately related to the social order. The racial heritage provides the point of departure for the school program, but it must be revealed to pupils and interpreted for them.

4. Exploration of interests, aptitudes, and capacities

Individual success depends upon a realization of interests and abilities. It is a function of the school to reveal such interests and aptitudes to pupils and parents, and to give pupils the assistance needed to start them on their way to success in the light of their potential qualifications.

5. Systematization and application of knowledge

Knowledge should be organized for pupils, so that they may be able to form proper associations and develop an understanding of laws, principles, and other forms of generalizations. This provides not only greater meaning at present, but also

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greater usefulness in the future through wider applications which are possible.

6. Establishment and direction of interests

The dynamic nature of interests makes it desirable to establish interests of pupils in the major fields of learning. The school builds upon the interests formed in the home and out-of-school environment, and lends every force to encourage maximum growth in the major fields of human activity.

7. Guidance

Guidance attempts to assist each individual to make the best of his educational opportunities. In addition to providing a diversified program, the school should get information concerning the physical, mental, and emotional traits of the pupils, and should give them such guidance as will enable them to make the best adjustments in school and in life.

8. Methods of teaching and of learning

The school has a responsibility to teach how to think as well as what to think. Pupils should be able to meet new situations through the power of self-direction and independent thought.

9. Differentiation

The secondary school should meet the needs which are common to all pupils of secondary-school age, and also the needs which differ from pupil to pupil. The differentiated program should be based upon individual needs of pupils.

10. Retention and direction of pupils

The secondary school should aid the pupil to derive

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maximum benefit from his school course, and should also assist him to succeed in his endeavors after secondary school, either in attendance at higher institutions or in the world of work (7:23-263).

Objectives Found in the Co-operative Study.- The purpose of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards was not to set up objectives of secondary education, but to discover what a good secondary school is. Nevertheless, it maintains that "the objective of the average secondary school should be, whether it actually is or not, to prepare the majority of its graduates for immediate participation in life activities" (9:122-3). Using the Inglis objectives as criteria, the two hundred schools in the study chose the social-civic objective over the other two and favored the statement, "Education is for self-development" (Appendix p. 256).

Objectives Stated by the Eight-Year Study.- It was found that the thirty schools of the Commission on School and College Relation of the Progressive Education Association were concerned with the following ten types of objectives:

1. The development of effective methods of thinking
2. The cultivation of useful work habits and study skills
3. The inculcation of social attitudes
4. The acquisition of a wide range of significant interests
5. The development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experiences
6. The development of social sensitivity

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7. The development of better personal-social adjustment

8. The acquisition of important information

9. The development of physical health

10. The development of a consistent philosophy of life (2:88-9).

Stated in what might seem over-simplified words, the task of the secondary school is the development in the pupil of the powers necessary for successful living in a democracy.

Objectives Stated by the Educational Policies Commission.- The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association formulated a statement of the objectives of education in 1938. In this pronouncement the Commission, thinking especially of the purposes of education in American democracy, recommended the objectives of self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility (75). Each of the four large purposes was analyzed into specific purposes. The three purposes of education in the 1944 volume of the Educational Policies Commission, Education for ALL American Youth, are occupational preparation, civic competence, and personal development. These three objectives correspond, with the exceptions to be noted, to the four "purposes of education in American democracy" listed six years earlier. In the Farmville Secondary School, the two 1938 purposes of self-realization and human relationship are combined under the heading of personal development. The consumer aspects of economic efficiency, one of the 1938 objectives, appear under each of the three 1944 objectives: under personal development,

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especially in connection with education for family living, and under civic competence, as well as under occupational preparation. Otherwise there is general agreement between the two statements (12:56-149).

Objectives Found in the Maryland Study.- A large percentage of the youth interviewed in the Maryland Study asserted that economic security was their most urgent personal need (1:iii). It is not surprising, therefore, that Youth Tell Their Story, the volume of the American Youth Commission reporting the Maryland Study, stresses the economic-vocational objective of secondary education. This objective comprises education for recreation, for health (including social and personal hygiene), and for citizenship (1:iv).

Objectives Stated by the Pennsylvania Study.- The assumption that the acquisition of knowledge constitutes effective learning, and the resultant problem of selecting that knowledge which is of most worth, are matters of ancient origin. These questions were socially pertinent so long as education was considered a means of raising a person above the masses. The result of accepting this as the chief purpose for education was emphasis on erudition. This, consequently, became a fundamental objective of education which persisted through the ages.

Thus tradition has sanctioned the idea of education as a pursuit for the élite, with a consequent emphasis on erudition. The inevitable result has been emphasis on knowledge of subjects rather than social effectiveness.

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In the Pennsylvania Study, for example, the objective was to measure growth in, and permanence and availability of, academic knowledge (14:7). Curiously enough, the importance of the individual is likewise stressed (14:45-6). Furthermore, there is a tendency to retain a cleavage between the aristocratic education for the classes and the democratic education for the masses (14:61).

Objectives Stated by the Regents' Inquiry.- The inquiry "into the character and cost of public education in the state of New York" uses one terse phrase as the objective of secondary education, namely, social competence, including preparation for (1) citizenship, (2) further learning and wholesome recreation, and (3) vocation (28:1-73).

Objectives Found in the Harvard Report.- General Education in a Free Society, the Harvard Report, appearing seven years after the Pennsylvania Study, stresses intellectual competence (13:64-5, 170, 176). However, the Harvard Report "deals mainly with preparation for life in the broad sense of completeness as a human being, rather than in the narrower sense of competence in a particular lot" (13:4). As is true of the Pennsylvania Study, so also the Harvard Report has not completely abandoned the aristocratic idea that the education of the classes and the education of the masses are not one and the same thing (13:11, 26, 90, 108).

Affectivity or Emotion and Feeling.- Item B13c in Table 1, "The school should emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes," is checked positively for all but the Pennsylvania Study.

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The Committee on Orientation (8:Issue VIII), more concerned with arguing the case that the secondary school should "assume responsibility for attitudes and ideals," than with a thoroughgoing implementation thereof, is interested in the social and economic phases.

In the Co-operative Study (9:42, 164) one finds the so-called intangibles, chiefly social, political, ethical, and economic, provided for in the pupil-activity program. This investigation devised "social-attitudes scales the aim of which was to measure some of the more intangible but important changes in pupil attitudes" (9:186-9). In this connection, three questions were asked, namely, one's attitude toward the United States constitution, toward war, and toward the treatment of criminals.

The social, political, and ethical aspects of the affective life of youth in Farmville and American City, the two hypothetical communities of the Educational Policies Commission (12:225-6), are provided for in the curriculum.

The adolescent's attitudes on economic, political, and social issues were elicited by the Maryland Study (1:209-55).

Social competence, the objective of secondary education in the Regents' Inquiry, itself an intangible, involves the political, social, and economic aspects (24:120, 140; 29:107).

While the Harvard Report is chiefly interested in the social and political phases (13:4), the affective life of the adolescent is dealt with in considerable detail in the Eight-Year Study

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(2:20; 4:35-402, 477-82, 85). In the latter investigation, provision is made in the curriculum for such intangibles as the following: responsibility-dependability, creativeness and imagination, influence, inquiring mind, open-mindedness, the power and habit of analysis, the habit of reaching conclusions on the basis of valid evidence, social concern, emotional responsiveness, serious purpose, social adjustability, and work habits.

Thus, as one studies the investigations, one observes that seven of the eight investigations take account of the affective life of the secondary-school pupil (discussed in connection with the section on the nature of learning, pages 34-36 above).

Salient Characteristics of Objectives of Secondary Education

An analysis of the lists of objectives presented, discloses the fact that the objectives possess certain salient characteristics found in List D of the check-list (Appendix p. 260).

D 1. Secondary education should be appropriate for a dynamic changing world.

2. Secondary education should be suited to a heterogeneous school population.

3. Secondary education should provide for both the fitting and the finishing function of the secondary school.

4. Secondary education should give basic consideration to the needs of the individual.

5. Secondary education should encourage the promotion of a democratic society.

6. Secondary education should bring about types of changes appropriate for both the individual and society.

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The National Survey is included in the tabulation of these six items and in the discussion thereof, because two of these items are pertinent to that investigation. Because the salient characteristics are amplified in the discussion following Table 2, the writer indicated explicit agreement only.

To conserve space in the table, letters symbolize the investigations, arranged as they appeared in the first chapter, as follows:

A National Survey
B Committee on Orientation
C Co-operative Study
D Eight-Year Study
E Educational Policies Commission
F Maryland Study
G Pennsylvania Study
H Regents' Inquiry
I Harvard Report

TABLE 2

SALIENT CHARACTERISTICS OF OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Items	Investigations									Total	Items
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I		
D_1								✓	✓	2	D_1
2		✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	5	2
3	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓		5	3
4	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	9	4
5		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	7	5
6				✓						1	6

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Interpretation of Table 2

Any statement of educational objectives that is to endure and fulfill its mission must be formulated in the light of the existing conditions and circumstances. The existing conditions of human society in any age tend to make certain objectives of education more feasible than others.

In Table 2 it is noted that two of the investigations suggest that the secondary school has a responsibility for preparing youth for a changing world. Five investigations are committed to a policy of secondary education for all the youth of secondary-school age. An equal number of investigations believes in providing for both the fitting and the finishing function of the secondary school. It is worthy of note that the fourth characteristic is the only one upon which there is unanimous positive agreement. All but two of the selected investigations take the point of view that secondary education should encourage the promotion of a democratic society. One forward-looking investigation takes the position that secondary education should bring about types of changes appropriate for both the individual and society.

The characteristics of the objectives are discussed in some detail in the following sections.

Objectives Appropriate for a Dynamic, Changing World.- First, some of the objectives of education analyzed in this study, namely, those of the Regents' Inquiry (25:3; 29:5) and of the Harvard Report (13:45-6, 51), are appropriate for a

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changing world. To find a society completely static, one would need to refer to a society remote in time or place. Although certain phases of society may seem to remain relatively static, it is usually only a matter of time until changes become apparent. Innovations occur so frequently in many aspects of life that change is an accepted expectation. In fact, when the world is viewed in perspective, one may correctly say that its most permanent characteristic is change.

Indifference to an education that prepares for a changing future may result in an attempt to perpetuate the status quo. Organizing the school, selecting methods of teaching, reconstructing the curriculum, and evaluating the results of instruction should not be undertaken without proper regard for the needs of the future. Undue respect for tradition, great emphasis upon formalism, lack of recognition of human intelligence, blindness to social problems, and failure to appreciate the evolving culture are some of the factors that devitalize education. If these things characterize the program, there may be an education for the status quo.

To provide a program of education for the future, the nature of which is unknown, is a problem of the first magnitude. Formulating objectives for a program of this type demands the highest strategy in educational statesmanship and the best skill in social engineering. The future calls for an education that will guarantee a continuous reconstruction of life. The individual needs not merely a comprehension of the present solution of

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social problems, but a grasp of the timeless and changeless principles upon which these solutions are based. It is with these unchanging fundamental principles that the individual must be equipped to attack novel problems of the future.

Objectives for a Heterogeneous School Population.- Secondly, five of the investigations - the Report of the Committee on Orientation (8:Issue IV), the Co-operative Study (9:380), the report of the Educational Policies Commission (12:1-421), the Regents' Inquiry especially the Eckert and Spaulding volumes (24:4-5; and 28:94), and the Harvard Report (13:86) - in unambiguous fashion state that the secondary school should be suited to a heterogeneous school population. The American secondary school, frequently designated as the people's college, has accepted in theory at least the policy that it should render service to all pupils of secondary-school age who present themselves for admission.

The recent popularity experienced by the secondary school has brought to its portals a pupil population widely diversified in many respects. Although pupils of the adolescent age have many traits and characteristics in common, the adolescent population taken as a whole is certain to represent an admixture that demands special recognition. Even a superficial investigation of any typical secondary-school class will reveal wide differences in racial origin, cultural background, native ability, educational and vocational interests, and the social status and occupational level of parents. In contrast to previous practice, the American

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secondary school, with few exceptions, no longer selects pupils on the basis of social and economic status of parents, but admits all who have attained a certain educational and psychological maturity.

It is generally accepted that a secondary school should give emphasis to the common integrative education begun in the elementary school. However, equality of opportunity in secondary education does not imply uniformity of program. For the secondary school to undertake to mold all pupils according to a uniform pattern is to betray the trust imposed upon it. This would be failing to consider the diversity of the pupils as they enter, and the varied stations which they will occupy in later life.

It should be recognized that some objectives are attainable by all pupils. Other objectives require powers, abilities, and aptitudes to a degree possessed by only a part of the pupils. With the short duration of the secondary-school course, pupils must choose among certain objectives that are not indispensable to all. This choice may rest, in some instances, on the basis of interest or personal preference. In other instances, the choice may be made on the basis of future needs. Maximum service of the secondary school is contingent upon its establishing goals that give recognition to the heterogeneous nature of its population.

The Fitting versus the Finishing Function of the Secondary School.- Thirdly, the objectives of the secondary school provide for both the fitting and the finishing function of secondary

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education. In addition to the Eight-Year Study, to which specific reference will be made in the third paragraph, Monograph 10 of the National Survey (18), the report of the Committee on Orientation (8:232), the Maryland Study (1:88), and Eckert in the Regents' Inquiry (24:8) deal with this problem.

In its essence, education has a preparatory function to perform. Recently, much emphasis has been given to the idea that education is life and not merely preparation for life. In its setting and procedure education should be lifelike, but this does not preclude its having results which abide for the future. To advocate an education that is life to the exclusion of preparation for life is to foster a type of education not true to facts. The resources in dealing with any situation include the benefits of past experience. Perhaps the best preparation for an individual to deal with the problems of an unknown future is experience in dealing successfully with the problems of the present. This assumes, obviously, that present experience is purposeful, which would effectively relate it to the future.

Consideration of the preparatory function has raised the issue of whether the secondary school should prepare for college or prepare for life. One version of this question is seen in the suggestion by the Progressive Education Association that colleges admit secondary-school graduates regardless of what subjects they have studied in secondary school (2:12-6). This does not eliminate the preparatory function of secondary schools. Instead, it implies that the particular pattern of formal credit

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in secondary-school subjects is not so indispensable to college success as certain other types of attainments that pupils may achieve in secondary school. The essence of this point of view is that qualities essential to success in college are not unlike those demanded for success in life.

It is essential that these issues with reference to the preparatory function of the secondary school be reconciled. That the secondary school prepares pupils for the future cannot successfully be refuted. In a democracy, secondary-school pupils should have an opportunity to terminate their education when they have reached the point of diminishing returns with reference to ability, or when other circumstances warrant it (8:Issue X). It is important that pupils benefit from secondary-school courses in a maximum way to the extent pursued.

Some pupils will leave school at the junior-high-school level; some will enter civic and industrial life upon graduation from secondary school, and others will continue in higher institutions. If service is rendered in keeping with the ideals of secondary education in a democracy, all such levels of preparation must be recognized by the objectives of the secondary school.

Basic Consideration of the Needs of the Individual.- Fourthly, the objectives of the secondary school give basic consideration to the needs of the individual. Each of the nine investigations stresses the individualization of education: the National Survey in Monograph 4 (16), the report of the Committee on Orientation (7:Function II), the Maryland Study (1:48), the Spaulding con-

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tribution to the Regents' Inquiry (28:258), and the Harvard Report (13:9, 11, 90, 108), besides the four investigations referred to specifically in the following four paragraphs.

A program of mass education may easily lose sight of the individual. The welfare of the masses, concern for groups, and interest in grades and classes are types of problems that frequently are allowed to assume first magnitude when educators concern themselves with the services that education may render. Such problems are momentous in their scope and import, but the basic unit either from the standpoint of program or function is the individual pupil. Although education may be planned on a mass scale, and may proceed by group methods, the essential learning unit is the individual human being. This idea is explicitly stated by the Co-operative Study (9:129), the Educational Policies Commission (12:308), and the Pennsylvania Study (14:45-6).

With reference to objectives, claims have been made that both the individual and society are the primary concern of education. Efforts to reconcile seemingly conflicting claims for both of these points of view frequently lead to an uncomfortable dilemma. The hope for solution seems to be exclusively in neither of these views. Actually, both points of view supplement each other. Ultimately, education provides for the needs both of the individual and of society. In the final analysis, the exact solution of the dilemma depends upon the social theory one prefers. In the United States the cultural pattern emphasizes the central

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importance of the individual. This has been the traditionally popular social theory, and consequently the individual frequently has been the point of departure in thinking about an educational program.

It should be observed, however, that the needs of any individual gain a great deal of significance from the social setting in which he lives. Educational needs of the individual cannot be ascertained by analysis of abilities and personality traits. Many characteristics and traits that the individual needs are dependent upon the environment in which he lives. Emphasis upon personality development has not always made clear the type of society in which the individual is to live. One would hardly contend that harmonious development of the individual's powers would be the same whether he lived in ancient Athens or in twentieth-century America. Furthermore, the individual is frequently capable of developing in several directions with equal facility. Consequently, some reference must be made to social ideals and to social conditions when one identifies the educational needs of the individual (2:18).

From the point of view of the individual, the concept of personality development is an embodiment of what is considered desirable in education today. It implies not only giving primary consideration to the individual as such, but also, in its highest conception, it gives recognition to those attributes which are distinctively human. Humanizing education places a premium upon the unification and integration of experiences.

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Only through integration of experiences can the individual come to possess the intelligence, creativeness, and flexibility so essential for life in a complex, dynamic society. Not only must the objectives of secondary education be sensitive to the manifold roles of the individual, but also sensitive to the necessity for that consistency in individual and group life which is becoming to the products of modern education.

Encouraging a Democratic Society.- Fifthly, the objectives of secondary education encourage the promotion of a democratic society. This view is plainly stated in the report of the Committee on Orientation (8:257), the Co-operative Study (9:370), the Eight-Year Study stressing the third interpretation of democracy on pages 40-1 of Chapter II (2:132-3), the report of the Educational Policies Commission (12:78-81, 97-100, 127-9, 134), the Maryland Study (1:48), Gulick's and Wilson's writings in the Regents' Inquiry (25:ix; and 29:5), and the Harvard Report (13:9, 22).

It has long been recognized that education is a social institution established, maintained, and controlled by society to further its own ends. By choice, organization, and faith, American society is democratic. Any educational program or institution that falls short of contributing to the ideals of democracy has passed the point of diminishing returns upon the investment and confidence that society has placed in it. Historically, the leaders in American democracy have had a traditional faith in education, but the exact functional relation of education to

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democracy has not always been understood. The theory of automatic democracy has been discounted today, and there is an awareness that the rights of life, liberty, pursuit of happiness, opportunity, property, work, and security cannot be taken for granted, but that they represent achievements. Such rights are assured only when the people merit them by vision and by the capacity to maintain a social organization through which they may be realized. This places on secondary education an obligation which can be discharged with reasonable expectation, only if it has been given consideration in the formulation of objectives.

Recognizing Types of Changes Appropriate for both the Individual and Society.- Sixthly, as emphasized particularly in the Eight-Year Study (4:11), the objectives of the secondary school are stated in terms of types of changes appropriate for both the individual and society.

That education makes for changes should be self-evident. Its results vary all the way from slightly perceptible changes to proportions that may be characterized as revolutionary. The effectiveness of any phase of the educational program must be judged in terms of the changes produced by it. Consequently, any serious educational adventure should be undertaken only with the anticipation of substantially significant goals.

The possible types of changes which education may produce in the individual should be clearly recognized. Subjective changes within the individual may be either physical or mental. Physical

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changes take the form of growth and physical development. Mental growth and development may involve changes either in intellect, in feelings, or in neuro-motor responses. Changes in intellect may be characterized by such terms as "knowledge," "insight," and "understandings." Changes in feelings and emotions involve appreciations, attitudes, ideals, and tastes. Neuro-motor changes involve those automatic responses in the form of habits and skills.

To advocate such subjective individual changes without indicating their purpose or the direction they should take is not in keeping with intelligent planning or progressive teaching. Any social institution that may serve as a purpose or goal may involve all types of personal changes. For example, citizenship involves intellectual attainments. Knowledge and understanding are fundamental in this realm of life. Good citizenship also implies emotional conditioning in the form of attitudes and ideals. That habits and skills contribute to citizenship is obvious. A similar case might be made for such other institutional endeavors as vocation and leisure. In other words, every type of significant institutional development which may serve as a purpose of education involves these threefold subjective changes. Knowledge, appreciation, habits, and skills should result from education. The answer to the question, "Knowledge of what?" emphasizes knowledge in the direction of one or more major institutions of society.

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To be logically consistent, the statement of objectives must simultaneously account for subjective individual changes, as well as significant social purposes. Enthusiasm for individual changes without a sense of direction is as absurd and hopeless as blindness to ways and means in the midst of zeal for social reform.

Chapter Summary

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Objectives of Secondary Education.- In addition to being familiar with the learning situation and knowing how to control it, the teacher must be aware of the values which should result from teaching. There is need for a clear sense of direction or an awareness of goals toward which the learning situation should be directed.

Without a philosophy of education, it is futile to attempt a statement of objectives of secondary education. The Co-operative Study recognized this necessity to the point of insisting upon a secondary school's writing its philosophy first.

At the beginning of secondary education, the primary purpose of the school was clear, namely, college entrance. A secondary purpose appeared, preparation for life, but it was less clearly defined. Since 1635 the aim of college entrance has continued to be dominant and powerful, partially because it has been stressed by the classes which have controlled the school. Witness the influence of the college-entrance motive on the objectives of secondary education set forth by two of

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the selected investigations, namely, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report.

The Pennsylvania Study, idealistic because of its stress on academic, abstract subject matter and on permanence of knowledge, has an almost pragmatic insistence on the worth of the individual. "It is a fundamental thesis of the volume that the student is of more importance than the curriculum" (14:xiii). Whereas the objective idealist is willing to grant equal consideration to the individual and the curriculum, the Pennsylvania Study maintains that the individual should take precedence over the curriculum. However, education is conceived as adjustment to the status quo by means of a fixed body of subject matter. The Harvard Report, while pragmatic for the most part, yet bears the idealistic tinge of emphasis upon the academic (intellectual competence).

The Maryland Study is concerned with vocational competence in order that the economic status of the individual may be improved. The investigation made the significant finding that the youth included in the study, who were in the lower income brackets, had been caught in a vicious circle (comparatively little formal education, employment in one of the lower occupational groups, low income, early marriage, relatively large number of children, whose educational and vocational opportunities are adversely affected by both the low income of their father and the relatively large number of siblings). This species of determinism perpetuates itself from generation to generation. The investigators are emphatic in their insistence on breaking this rigid economic caste

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system. The remedy suggested is more practical, functional education, a point of view of pragmatism. However, the recommendations seem to fall short in that the adjustment suggested presumably is adjustment for the status quo. The recommendations fail to go the whole distance in suggesting changes in the social order which are necessary in order to improve the conditions of youth.

The remaining investigations, with the exceptions noted, are based on the pragmatic philosophy.

Somewhat in detail, the findings of this study with regard to objectives are as follows:

1. All of the selected investigations that set up lists of objectives agree (a) that education primarily is self-development; (b) that it should prepare chiefly for social-civic activities; (c) that the school should not strive to develop in its pupils that hardy and rugged individualism which characterized early American life; (d) that education should not prepare chiefly for individualistic-avocational activities; (e) that education primarily is not adjustment to conditions or mastery of environment; (f) that as its principal goal education should not seek physical or mental health, self-discipline, happiness, or mental discipline; and (g) that the school should not seek to make its pupils more alike.
2. The Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report agree that it is highly important that education preserve the long-established and enduring educational aims and objectives. Negatively, neither of these investigations is committed to the pragmatic

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viewpoint that education should work toward the goal of teaching and learning things when the need for them arises in life experiences.

3. Neither the Pennsylvania Study nor the Harvard Report takes the position that education should emphasize practical values as much as cultural values. On the other hand, the Maryland Study, concerned with vocational competence, is committed to the point of view that education should emphasize chiefly practical values. The remaining five investigations that set up lists of objectives believe that education should emphasize both practical and cultural values. While all investigations profess to believe that education should prepare for social-civic activities, only five of them think that education should prepare for both social-civic and economic-vocational activities, the Co-operative and Pennsylvania Studies and the Harvard Report comprising the minority.
4. Neither the Eight-Year Study nor the Educational Policies Commission is of the opinion that the purpose of education should be essentially to prepare youth for well-rounded adult life.
5. According to the Co-operative, Eight-Year, and Maryland Studies, as its principal goal education should seek both personal character and social efficiency, with self-integration added by the Eight-Year Study. The Committee on Orientation, the Educational Policies Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report choose social efficiency as the principal

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goal of education; the Pennsylvania Study, personal character.

6. All of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study excepted, regard knowledge, understanding, and skills as means rather than ends, and emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes. Those things which the other investigations consider means rather than ends, the Pennsylvania Study emphasizes.

In the main, the selected investigations stress citizenship, a prominent aim in the public ceremonies of primitive tribes. The modern concept of social efficiency or competence, emphasized by the selected investigations, is a further illustration of the social values with which education has identified itself. Even those objectives which may seem more personal than social, such as personal development and personal hygiene, are for the purpose of enabling the individual the more effectively to make his place in society and to make the maximum contribution to that society in order that it may become a better society for his having been a member thereof.

While all nine investigations are committed to the democratic way of life, the two with somewhat idealistic hue, namely, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report, have not wholly abandoned the separation of education of the classes from education of the masses.

The direction in which education is expected to change people is in terms of its objectives. The nature of these objectives, whether implicit in the contemplated changes or explicitly con-

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ceived, usually determines in good part the nature of the curriculum and instruction. The most useful form of statement for objectives is that which shows clearly the kind of behavior expected and the specific content to which that behavior applies.

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CHAPTER IV

SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Introduction

The second phase of the program of secondary education, the curriculum, is the heart of that program. The transition through which the curriculum is passing in response to the demands of a dynamic society makes a sense of direction very essential. The many features of the curriculum can have unity and harmony only by reference to the objectives of the school. The curriculum represents a plan of activities by which and through which pupils achieve the aims of education. The foundations of such a plan must be grounded upon a clear philosophy of education and on the findings concerning the nature of individual and social processes. The curriculum cannot be appraised except with reference to the objectives of the school; principles of the curriculum are formulated in terms of educational purposes. Whatever contributes most effectively or as effectively as possible to the realization of educational ends and is in accord with the facts of psychological development is legitimate curriculum material. Negatively, whatever content, inherited from tradition, does not contribute very much to the realization of these ends, even if it does not go contrary to them, is so much curricular excess baggage. Not only

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curricular content, but the organization of that content and the manner in which it is imparted in instruction, must be dictated by what the ends of education require and psychology says is feasible.

In the presentation of the contributions of the selected investigations to the curriculum, after the tabular overview of the contributions of the investigations to the secondary-school curriculum appear discussions of the almost unchanging curriculum, the so-called extra-curricular activities, the concept of needs, general education, and vocational education.

Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to the Secondary-School Curriculum

Using those items in the check-list (Appendix, pp. 254-7) pertaining to the curriculum, the writer constructed Table 3, indicating those items with which each investigation is explicitly or implicitly in agreement, in disagreement, or does not concern itself. A plus sign (+) indicates agreement; a minus sign (-), disagreement; and a zero (0), no reference.

To conserve space in the table, letters symbolize the investigations, arranged as they appeared in the first chapter, as follows:

A National Survey
B Committee on Orientation
C Co-operative Study
D Eight-Year Study
E Educational Policies Commission
F Maryland Study
G Pennsylvania Study
H Regents' Inquiry
I Harvard Report

The following items are numbered as they appear in the master check-list:

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A 4. The movement to substitute "activities" for "subjects" in the school curriculum will operate against the best interests of American education.

5. Courses in the classics and in mathematics still remain among the most effective agencies of mental development in the student.

7. The pupil profits largely in the degree that there is logical organization of the materials of instruction presented to him.

8. It is impossible to predict the adult needs of the contemporary school population with sufficient accuracy to justify an educational program based on minimum essentials of subject matter.

9. The finer phases of culture are best pursued for their own sake, and should, on the whole, be kept separate from matters of practical and vocational development.

B 5. The pupil should be

a. taught how to think rather than what to think
b. taught what to think rather than how to think
c. taught both what to think and how to think
d. simply afforded opportunities to think.

6. Education is a developmental process; it is attained only through activity and initiative on the part of the learner.

8. The interests of the pupil are an important consideration in the determination of the curriculum; the pupil

a. should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum
b. should have a large part in determining the content and activities involved in the curriculum
c. should be free to determine entirely his own activities and experiences.

9. Those responsible for the policies of the school should determine the nature and content of the curriculum; the pupil should be required to master the curriculum thus determined for him.

10. The content of the curriculum should consist largely of

a. what society has achieved in the past - the racial heritage

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b. a study of the problems and relationships of present society
c. such problems as will help to modify our present culture and plan for a better social structure in the years to come.

11. The content of the curriculum should be largely

a. preparatory for more advanced education
b. preparatory for entrance into vocational life
c. preparatory for home-making and family life
d. general - informational and cultural.

B 12. The content of the curriculum of the school should be determined principally by

a. local needs
b. statewide needs
c. nationwide needs
d. international needs

In addition to and immediately following Table 3, two sub-tables have been arranged on a frequency basis. An explanation of Table 3 and the two sub-tables is given in the section following the presentation of the tables.

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TABLE 3

OVERVIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS TO THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Items	Investigations									Totals			Items
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	≠	-	0	
A 4	-	-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	7	0	A 4
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	7	0	5
7	≠	≠	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	4	5	0	7
8	-	-	-	≠	≠	-	-	-	-	2	7	0	8
9	≠	≠	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	4	5	0	9
B 5a	-	-	≠	≠	-	≠	-	≠	-	4	5	0	B 5a
5b	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	5b
5c	≠	≠	-	-	≠	-	≠	-	≠	5	4	0	5c
5d	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	5d
6	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	6
8a	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	7	2	0	8a
8b	-	-	-	≠	-	-	-	-	-	1	8	0	8b
8c	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	8c
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	7	0	9
10a	-	-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	2	7	0	10a
10b	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	10b
10c	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	6	3	0	10c
11a	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	11a
11b	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	11b
11c	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	11c
11d	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	11d
12a	≠	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	-	6	3	0	12a
12b	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	9	0	12b
12c	-	≠	-	-	-	-	-	-	≠	2	7	0	12c
12d	0	0	0	0	0	0	≠	0	0	1	0	8	12d

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TABLE 3a

FREQUENCY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM PRACTICES IN THE NINE INVESTIGATIONS

Approval of Curriculum Practices

Check-List Items	Frequency
B 6	9
B10b	9
B11d	9
B 8a	7
B10c	6
B12a	6
B 5c	5
A 7	4
A 9	4
B 5a	4
A 4	2
A 5	2
A 8	2
B 9	2
B10a	2
B12c	2
B 8b	1
B12d	1
B 5b	0
B 5d	0
B 8c	0
B11a	0
B11b	0
B11c	0
B12b	0

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TABLE 3b

FREQUENCY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM PRACTICES IN THE NINE INVESTIGATIONS

Disapproval of Curriculum Practices

Check-List Items	Frequency
B 5b	9
B 5d	9
B 8c	9
B11a	9
B11b	9
B11c	9
B12b	9
B 8b	8
A 4	7
A 5	7
A 8	7
B 9	7
B10a	7
B12c	7
A 7	5
A 9	5
B 5a	5
B 5c	4
B10c	3
B12a	3
B 6	0
B10b	0
B11d	0
B12d	0

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Interpretation of Tables 3, 3a, and 3b

While a frequency of approval (Table 3a) of from seven to nine may indicate standard practice, a frequency of four to six is an indication of live, current issues. On the other hand, a low frequency of one or two may indicate either things in the making and set forth by a forward-looking investigation, or things on the way out, yet tenaciously held by a somewhat conservative investigation.

Those items on which there was a unanimity of lack of approval are here retained because of their relevance at some time in the more-or-less remote past, and because of their significance in testing the consistency of an educator's philosophy.

A study of Table 3 and the two sub-tables reveals several interesting facts.

1. There is a unanimity of opinion on ten of the twenty-five items. Positively, all of the selected investigations believe (a) that education is a developmental process, and that it is attained only through activity and initiative on the part of the learner, and (b) that the content of the curriculum should be general (informational and cultural) and should consist, at least in part, of a study of the problems and relationships of present society.

Negatively, none of the selected investigations believes (a) that the pupil should be taught what rather than how to think, or that he should be simply afforded opportunities to

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think; (b) that the pupil should be free to determine entirely his own activities and experiences; (c) that the content of the curriculum should be largely preparation for more advanced education, for entrance into vocational life, or for home-making and family life; or (d) that the content of the curriculum should be determined principally by statewide needs.

2. As was true in Table 1 on page 50, so here the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report are frequently in agreement. For example, both investigations incline toward the viewpoints (a) that courses in the classics and in mathematics still remain among the most effective agencies of mental development in the pupil; (b) that those responsible for the policies of the school should determine the nature and content of the curriculum, and that the pupil should be required to master the curriculum thus determined for him; and (c) that the content of the curriculum should consist of the racial heritage as well as of a study of the problems and relationships of present society. Likewise, neither investigation would favor the substitution of "activities" for "subjects" in the school curriculum, or the point of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum.

3. Four investigations, the National Survey, the Committee on Orientation, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report, tend to believe (a) that the pupil profits largely in the degree that there is logical organization of the materials of instruction presented to him, and (b) that the finer phases of culture

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are best pursued for their own sake, and should, on the whole, be kept separate from matters of practical and vocational development.

4. Two investigations, the Eight-Year Study and the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, are of the opinion that it is impossible to predict the adult needs of the contemporary school population with sufficient accuracy to justify an educational program based on minimum essentials of subject matter.

5. While the Co-operative, Eight-Year, and Maryland Studies and the Regents' Inquiry take the stand that the pupil should be taught how rather than what to think, the remaining five investigations believe that he should be taught both what and how to think.

6. Although all of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report excepted, take the point of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum, the Eight-Year Study believes that that part should be a large one.

7. Six of the investigations (the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report excepted) believe that the content of the curriculum should consist of both a study of the problems and relationships of present society, and such problems as will help to modify the present culture and plan for a better social structure in the years to come.

8. While the Committee on Orientation and the Harvard Report incline toward letting the content of the curriculum be determined

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by nationwide needs, and the Pennsylvania Study by international needs, the remaining investigations favor letting local needs determine the curriculum.

The Traditional Curriculum

One thing is clear, that the secondary-school curriculum has changed but little fundamentally in the last century. It has carried through the past generations a residuum of basic information to transmit to youth which serves as a basic preparation for college, for general culture, and for the understanding of cultural development. This content was supposed to serve all groups alike. Evidence of the domination of logically organized subject matter is provided by the way in which new materials have been forced to find entrance into the curriculum. Traditional subjects, as a practice, have not been subjected to a continuous process of reorganization in terms of social situations and needs. Rather, they have rested for acceptance on tradition. The result is that when society has demanded the inclusion in the curriculum of new materials, chiefly in the vocational fields, in industrial arts, home economics, and fine arts, a new "subject" or "course" is introduced, allied as closely as possible with one of the established fields, and given a place in the program of studies. Thus, the offerings of the schools have been multiplied within a generation. The extent of this sort of curriculum revision is indicated in Monograph 19, The Program of Studies, of the National Survey of Secondary Education (175:161, Table 58; 163, Table 59).

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The curriculum has been changed by adding subjects, and by sloughing off the most unnecessary materials in the major subjects. The National Survey of Secondary Education, referred to in the preceding paragraph, the Regents' Inquiry (28:123-5, 155-7), and the studies of the American Youth Commission (1:67-8, 98, 255) showed convincingly from an analysis of tests, from courses of study, from reports of curriculum committees, and from first-hand visits to classrooms that many of the subjects have changed but little in their organization, content, or basic methods of presentation. It is true that many modifications have been made, but these have not been fundamental. Oservable is the lack of any fundamental plan of curriculum reorganization in the secondary school. Changes in the main have been tinkerings with subjects or additions to them. There has been little co-operative curriculum planning.

The So-Called Extra-Curricular Activities

The term extra-curricular is virtually a misnomer. With the modern conception of the curriculum expressed as all those activities which form a part of the pupil's educative experience, it is doubtful whether any so-called extra activities merit serious consideration. Although this seems to be a correct interpretation of the curriculum, there are many informal activities in every modern secondary school in addition to the regular schedule of classes. It is to this group of activities that the term extra-curricular is applied. One also observes reference to such other terms as pupil activity program (10:37-48; and 9:41, 45, 67, 130,

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143, 155, 238, 272, 285, 338, 345, 435, 464-5) used by the Co-operative Study, and activities as used in the fourth volume of the report of the Eight-Year Study (5:60-6, 68-9, 84-5, 170-1, 173, 191-2, 251-7, 268-9). The use of these terms, though more accurate, is infrequent as compared with extra-curricular. For example, the second and last volumes of the Eight-Year Study use the term extra-curricular (3:163, 174; and 6:334-5, 402, 553, 669-70); likewise, Spaulding in the Regents' Inquiry (28:144-8, 151-2, 361-3) uses the last mentioned term.

Exact and clear-cut definitions of extra-class activities are lacking in the studies of the subject. The principal difficulty in the matter of definition is the absence of a clear line of demarcation between the curricular and the intra-curricular or extra-class. Activities do not automatically classify themselves as curricular or extra-class. Because of a number of varying circumstances, what may be extra-class in one school may be curricular in another. There is also the tendency for some activities to change status within a school. Some activities introduced as extra-class later become a part of the curriculum. Some extra-class activities were derived from activities which were first introduced into the school as part of the curriculum.

The Concept of Needs

In terms of objectives, the concept of needs was discussed in the preceding chapter (pages 75-8 above). In addition to the references given there, the writer presents the following: the

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report of the Committee on Orientation (8:74, 258), the Educational Policies Commission (12:225-6), Eckert in the Regents' Inquiry (24:3-4), and the Pennsylvania Study (14:140, 145, 159-60).

A knowledge of the individual should precede any attempt to direct the educative process. The claims of any teaching procedure can be recognized, only if due consideration is given to the individual learner.

Since the individual must learn and live in a social environment, attention should be given to the social groups, institutions, and activities in which he must participate. In a sense, learning is an individual process, but it has large social implications. The forces and the situations of learning are partly social; the results of learning are social in many respects. For example, the Committee on Orientation (8:258, 260) and Maller in the Regents' Inquiry (26:10) stress the social implications of education.

The studies of the needs of youth in terms of their attempts to build unified personalities within the framework of existing and inherited culture give a new type of approach to curriculum work. This, however, is one of the most debated areas or approaches in curriculum organization, partially because of its newness, but also because of the confusion of thought connected with it. Schools have always claimed that they met the needs of youth, but most teachers and curriculum workers in the past have guessed at the needs of youth from the standpoint of an adult's evaluation of their shortcomings.

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The Progressive Education Association.- The Progressive Education Association attacked the most vital aspect of secondary education, namely, the curriculum, the very heart of secondary education. In order to accompany the experiment of the Commission on the Relation of School and College with an adequate study of what the curriculum of the secondary school might be without the restraints of college entrance requirements, another commission, the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, was formed "to focus attention upon the educational needs of all classes of adolescents in contemporary American society, to suggest methods of studying curriculum problems, and to further well-considered experimentation in fundamental aspects of curriculum revision" (208:v). This commission, having approached the problem from the standpoint of the growth of the individual in behavior patterns, stipulated four basic areas of needs of the psychological type, gained from a study of the behavior of youth in social situations. Immediate social relationships, wider social relationships, economic relationships, and personal living are the four areas (3:89-90).

In the first area, that of immediate social relationships, are four needs:

(1) for emancipation from the ties, proper to childhood, which formerly kept their perspective, loyalties, and affections within the family circle (208:152)

(2) for building increasingly meaningful and satisfying relationships with new persons and groups (208:151)

(3) for developing new and now more appropriate relationships with parents (208:151)

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(4) to find, develop, and identify (oneself) with ideals and standards of conduct in immediate social relationships (208:152).

The following four needs make up the area of wider social relationships:

(1) an increasing awareness of the social bearings and import of their interests, abilities, and activities

(2) an ever fuller comprehension of the complex community functioning through new forms of impersonal association

(3) an always keener appreciative identification with the common aims of a wider group

(4) a co-ordinately increasing sense of social responsibility (208:205).

Four needs comprise the area of economic relationships, namely:

(1) an increasing awareness on his (the pupil's) part of the social bearings and import of his economic activities and vocational interests

(2) an ever fuller comprehension of the complex economic community functioning through new forms of impersonal association

(3) an always keener appreciation of the ways his (the pupil's) own economic welfare relates to that of far wider groups

(4) an increasing sense of economic responsibility (208:241).

The last area, that of personal living, consists of eight needs:

(1) an ability to estimate his (the pupil's) own interests and activities and those of others on the basis of non-pecuniary values, and to help bring these new values into more common acceptance (208:281).

(2) to achieve satisfaction in appropriate pursuits and in making the social contributions which can be made by their particular types of abilities alone (208:283)

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(3) an ability to guide their own personal conduct and judge that of others intelligently on the basis of predictable consequences, rather than blindly by the rule prevailing among the Joneses, the members of the senior class, or the younger set at the country club (208:286)

(4) the need to develop insight into the full meaning of his interests and activities - vocational and non-vocational - in both their wider social and more narrowly personal bearings (208:290)

(5) the need to develop an ability to maintain and increase his sensitivity to the esthetic quality of experience and to realize and enhance it in all that he does (208:292)

(6) the need to have a sense of joy in bodily health, not as an instrument, but for the sake of the joy itself, and an ability to care for the body as a source of satisfaction in all of his activities (208:294)

(7) the need to develop the ability to use solitude for formulating his philosophy and integrating his life (208:296)

(8) the need to secure a working philosophy of values which facilitates full advantage of those cultural expectations and social possibilities which are favorable to the good life (208:297).

To develop these basic generalizations and to meet these needs, the commission contended that the subjects of study, life in the school, and life in the community offer abundant sources. Having emphasized the personal-social or unitary character of needs, the commission made the further point that these must operate in a society thoroughly imbued with an understanding and practice of the democratic tradition, whose formulation becomes a responsibility of the school (3:9-12).

When the thirty experimental secondary schools began their efforts to improve education for young people, some departed

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rather far from tradition, while others made few changes. Eventually, most of them settled down to organizing curricula around pupils' most important concerns: choosing and getting a job, living with one's family, using one's spare time, marriage, food, housing, clothing, politics, and the community. The purposes of the schools were stated by the teachers and showed general agreement that the educational program must meet the needs of adolescents and seek to preserve and extend democracy as a way of life (38).

The Educational Policies Commission.- In the spring of 1944 the Educational Policies Commission published its first statement on educational needs in Education for ALL American Youth. The summary of ten "imperative educational needs of youth" represents the heart of the document and is particularly important, because it was used as the basis for much of the program planning in secondary schools. Those ten "imperative educational needs of youth" are as follows: All youth need (1) to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life; (2) to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness; (3) to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation; (4) to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life; (5) to know how to purchase and use goods

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and services intelligently; (6) to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man; (7) to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature; (8) to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely; (9) to develop respect for other persons; and (10) to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding (12:225-6).

Although the concept of needs was dealt with in detail by the two investigations just cited, as stated in the preceding chapter and referred to in this chapter (page 99 above), all nine investigations stressed the necessity for giving basic consideration to the needs of the individual.

General Education

Introduction.- As the writer has pointed out in Chapters II and III, a public system of secondary education for a democracy exists, largely at least, to serve the end of cultivating an intelligent citizenship to act accordingly. To study life and how to enrich it, to study the customs and institutions and how to improve them, to educate youth so that they may grow up thus socially capable and disposed — these things constitute the aims of any proper educational system. These are the things that all secondary-school pupils need, and, therefore, constitute general education.

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It is through the curriculum that the school renders its basic service. Attention to maximum service to pupils individually directs recognition to what is offered and to how the offerings are arranged (8:Issue IV).

A new situation confronts American secondary education and demands its substantial remaking. Until the recent past, and too largely even yet, the dominant aim of secondary education has been preparation for the liberal arts colleges and "the learned professions." By tradition long established, both curriculum and method have been predominantly book-centered, adapted best, if not only, to the verbally-minded. For such, the subject-centered curriculum was not too far-fetched or remote.

The Subject Curriculum.- The subject curriculum is characterized by a large number of subjects taught independently of each other. It assumes that education is something which an individual does before he enters adult life; it concentrates on preparation for the years of adulthood. In the secondary school this system revolves around credits, each representing an exposure of approximately one hundred and twenty hours in the classroom. The teacher manages the entire learning situation; the pupil is passive. The high marks and recognition go to individuals who conform (28:155).

Notwithstanding its insistence upon the worth of the individual and upon knowing the pupil, the Pennsylvanis Study fits into this category. Practical arts and commercial and vocational education

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were not studied by the National Survey, but those fields studied were decidedly subject-centered. (The National Survey, for some reason, omitted practical arts, one of the newer subjects. It was not until June 10, 1933, that the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Department of the Interior.) Monographs 20-25 are mute witnesses to the truth of this assertion. In spite of the fact that the best secondary schools were surveyed, there was found much compartmentalization, an educational "East is East, and West is West, and never the twain shall meet." Had an unselected group of secondary schools been used for the survey, perhaps the picture would have been even darker.

The Correlated Curriculum.- The first step in the movement away from the subject curriculum appears to be the correlated curriculum. The underlying ideas are those which have been described for the subject curriculum. The starting point is subject matter set-out-to-be-learned. By relating the subject matter of one subject to that of another, wherever possible, teachers have found that an improvement in learning effect is experienced in each subject. Under the correlated curriculum little or no attempt is made to change the aims of teaching, the selection of the content, the method of presentation, or the evaluation of the final product.

The correlated curriculum seems to be carried on in numerous ways which can be conveniently arranged on a scale. At the bottom would be located casual and incidental efforts to make relationships between or among subjects. At the top of the

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scale would be located those conscious and definitely planned efforts to see that relationships among subjects were made and carried out effectively. This conscious attempt at correlation can take place without any reorganization of the materials of the old subject curriculum. The first and simplest arrangement may be administrative. The more conscious a school becomes of the need for correlation, the more it attempts to break down subject lines.

The Fused Curriculum.- The evidence brought forward by the National Survey of Secondary Education (175) seems to indicate greatest frequency of occurrence of fusion in the junior high schools and in those schools which have not been affected by the administrative device of departmentalization. It appears almost exclusively in the areas of social studies and science. Gulick in the Regents' Inquiry (25:31) refers to fusion. It is found in the one-room country school, as well as among the thirty experimental secondary schools of the Commission on the Relation of School and College (2:52-3; and 3:34).

The Broad-Fields Curriculum.- The next step away from the traditional subject curriculum is the broad-fields curriculum, representing a small number of major trunk-lines, which are constant for all pupils. It has constancy in common with the subject curriculum, which requires certain subjects of all pupils. It differs from the subject curriculum in a number of ways: (1) It is composed of a few fields rather than a large number of small subjects — the fine arts, literature and

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languages, social studies, and science, for example. (2) Each field has greater area than that of the combined present content of the subjects which might be grouped in the field. (3) The content of each area is usually selected on different bases from the content of a subject. (4) The teaching and learning situations permit greater pupil and teacher control and direction. (5) The bases of measurement and evaluation are greatly extended.

Wherever found in the thirty experimental schools of the Eight-Year Study, the broad-fields type of program led to a greater emphasis on the problems approach, on extensive reading, and on the use of a variety of instructional materials in addition to books, such as trips, interviews, and field work. Furthermore, it encouraged more co-operative consultation and planning among the teachers of several fields (2:50-3; and 3:23-32, 47, 310). Strangely enough, health and the fine and practical arts were omitted in this investigation.

In the discussion of Issue VII (8:257-91), the Committee adhered to the second alternative, supporting categories which are more fundamental because [illegible] inherently involved and directly concerned with the proposed function of American secondary education and because more in harmony with the present-day demands of the psychology of learning. It was the opinion of the Committee on Orientation that when the curriculum is organized around the broad fields of learning, the emphasis is upon vertical continuity with little attention to horizontal correlation (7:143, 188).

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The Regents' Inquiry recommended keeping the college preparatory courses, but adding a more specific program designed to fit young men and women for useful citizenship, to make them capable of supporting themselves and of enjoying a full measure of individual growth and development. To achieve this, it would make general education the central objective of the secondary-school program by devoting the greater part of the time up to the end of the twelfth grade to such studies as general science, human relations, community life, world history, general mathematics, and the arts — subjects which break down the partitions now separating the courses and present life as a whole (28:263-5).

The theory underlying the broad-fields-of-knowledge type of curriculum organization is that the continuation of one type of subject matter, preferably with the same teacher for a number of years, produces a better intellectual product, encourages better intellectual processes and greater power than the present uncoordinated course, unit, credit plan. Consequently, the Pennsylvania Study endorses it (14:57).

The greatest drawback to the development of the broad-fields curriculum is that it works in an environment of administrative encumbrances brought over from the subject curriculum, such as time schedules, promotions, marks, and credits, all of which are external to the learning situation.

The Core Curriculum.- The term "core" is not new in curriculum literature; it was used for a number of years to refer to subjects which were required of everybody in the

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school, but more recently it has been employed to refer to the part of the curriculum considered to be general education.

In the various efforts to define a more suitable type of organization for the secondary-school curriculum, perhaps the most significant development, and certainly the best known, was that of the core curriculum. This has represented attempts to organize the curriculum in such a way that at least some of the learning experiences of pupils would be defined by common needs and interests and developed on some other basis than that of the traditional subjects.

The core curriculum refers to one broad field which is set out as superior to any other broad field, and which operates as a center around which the other broad fields revolve. Beginning about 1930 the idea was accepted as offering possibilities for developing greater unity and stability in the secondary-school program, particularly in the light of the fundamental changes then taking place in the basic structure of American life. At that time, the social studies were the broad field around which all of the other fields were to operate; since then, however, numerous other broad fields have been used as the pivot; nevertheless, in frequency of occurrence, the social studies still rank first, science being in second place.

The first of five characteristics of the core curriculum is that it utilizes the problems of personal and social development common to all youth. Secondly, it develops these problems without reference to the traditional subject-matter fields. Thirdly,

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it encourages the use of the problem-solving technique to attack problems. In the fourth place, it provides for individual and group guidance. A fifth and final characteristic is that it provides for a scheme of organizing around the core the majority of the teachers of the school in relation to a dominant central purpose, that of developing social competence, and of developing the rest of the school program around individual interests and purposes supplementing the core work.

Wherever a dominating broad field constitutes the core, it occupies, roughly, one-fourth to three-fourths of the time of a pupil, varying obviously at the different grade levels. Pupils complete their programs from a list of other offerings. Where the school conceives of this core as a fusion of existing content from specialized subjects with some additions, the electives offered usually represent the old-type subjects with the same content taught more or less in accordance with conventional methods. Wherever the core is conceived as operating around pupil interests and needs, the electives usually are functional courses which pupils may pursue for a short or a long time, depending upon their interests and goals. This type of core and the electives may be designated as pupil-centered, to distinguish it from the subject-centered core and electives. Those schools in the Eight-Year experiment of the Progressive Education Association that claimed a core curriculum had one based upon a social-studies core with numerous subject or functional electives (3:32-61, 320-37).

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Nowhere in educational literature has the core or common learnings course been more fully explored than in the description of the programs in American City and Farmville, hypothetical communities created by the Educational Policies Commission in Education for ALL American Youth. In these communities this course takes three periods daily in grades seven through ten, two periods daily in grades eleven and twelve, and one period daily in grades thirteen and fourteen. It is one of the four major areas into which the program of the secondary school is divided, the other three being vocational preparation, individual interests, and health and physical fitness. The basic purpose of this course in common learnings was to organize effectively learning experiences which all boys and girls should have in common. The criterion for selecting these experiences was found in a statement of ten "imperative educational needs of youth" (pages 104-5 above). This arrangement had the advantage of tying the learnings closely to the imperative needs of youth, of studying problems as they are found in life outside the school, and of studying problems in their entirety without the restrictions of subject-matter lines. The proposals allow freedom for curriculum organization locally, but take the emphasis away from conventional subject achievement and focus it upon the purposes of learning in modern society.

The Farmville and American City secondary schools set up a common core of learning based on what all youth will need: education for citizenship, family living, health, and under-

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standing and appreciation of the cultural heritage. Large blocks of time are devoted to the study of occupations, their interdependence upon one another, the economic conditions which influence employment, and the opportunities existing in rural and urban fields.

Community living also plays a major role in the core areas which form the basic framework of the program. Pupils participate in community activities; they learn the machinery of government through firsthand observation. They all have work experience which is supervised by the school; they become aware of the conditions which make for social and economic stability, of the factors involved in a happy family life, of the part science plays in the discovery of truth (12:23-338).

The new or integrated curriculum does not divide knowledge into separate compartments, but draws on any field of knowledge which may assist the individual in fulfilling his purpose. It aims at helping youth to work with others for the good of the group according to the democratic way of life. Since democracy is not so much a political system as a way of living, it is a thing which youth must learn at school and in the home.

General education and core curriculum, terms most frequently found in the reports of the thirty schools, are used synonymously in Adventure in American Education, likewise in the report of the Committee on Orientation (7:229) and in the Maryland Study (1:iii).

In proceeding from basic premises to a plan for general education in the secondary school, the Harvard Committee proposed

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for all pupils (a proposal which, it pointed out, need not mean that all should take exactly the same courses or be taught by uniform methods) a minimum continuing core amounting to about half of a four-year program divided into three units in English, three in mathematics and science, and two in the social studies. It was recommended that pupils who would not go on to college and university should take additional work in the three areas, if possible, and that college- and university-bound pupils might well acquire a deeper knowledge of at least one of these fields. The report does not contain specific course outlines, but presents the approach and emphasis that the committee considered appropriate for the hamanities, the social studies, and science and mathematics (13:26, 98-102, Chapter IV).

From the careful examination of the nine selected investigations, a reasonable generalization is that the primary purpose of the curriculum should be to give preparation for intelligent participation in the experiences of life which are shared by all people, for general living in a modern community.

Vocational Education

Introduction.- In "Another Educational Myth: That It Must Be either Vocational or General Education," Weeks (217) advocates bringing general and vocational education together, as expressed by both ... and, rather than either ... or.

As the masses of American youth entered the secondary school, the curriculum expanded, non-academic subjects came in, and a program of federally-aided vocational education was organized.

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Vocational education, however, is still by and large an outsider in the public-school program. The college-preparatory curriculum continues to be the dominating pattern of secondary education. During the transition from a selective institution to a popular one, the secondary school changed, but its changes were not commensurate with the demands of its changing population. Moreover, there is much evidence to show that such changes as occurred were without the benefit of any broad social orientation, and were brought about largely through the exercise of pressures, rather than by any comprehensive plan. In recent years the widespread concern of educators over the youth problem, and the appearance of the youth work agencies, have combined with other factors in leading to much criticism of the secondary school, and to many attempts to reform the secondary-school curriculum.

One might say that the schools have been used to perpetuate an undemocratic and dualistic educational system, which is evidenced in the youth problem and in the continued separation of vocational education from the traditional academic and college-preparatory program. It is clear that America has not given much support to a dual system of public mass education. The idea of the separation of one group of youth into a trade school and another group into academic schools for their secondary-school education appears to encourage social stratification and is in violation of America's democratic tradition.

Responsibility for and Type of Vocational Education.- The Committee on Orientation recognized that the secondary school

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must provide effective training for vocational life (8:185-6; and 7:125). Through its curriculum, therefore, the secondary school must lead every individual into the initial competence that is required for obtaining a job, holding it, and growing within and through it. Spaulding in the Regents' Inquiry (28:269) felt that some vocational instruction must be given to all; especially must the school concern itself with the pupils who will need to continue formal education beyond the secondary period.

Both Norton (27:139) and Spaulding (28:270, 285) in the Regents' Inquiry maintained that the objectives of vocational instruction are by no means limited to learning the particular skills needed for working at a specific job. They suggest that that is one of the last things for the school to provide.

The amount of occupational information and training which is included in the curriculum of most secondary schools should be greatly enlarged. Wherever possible, the curriculum should make definite provision for further training connected with the adjustment of youth to the employment opportunities that are in fact available.

For the vast majority of youth the secondary school need not be concerned primarily with specific vocational training in a strict sense, but would profit most by emphasis upon general education. The secondary school should concentrate its vocational training upon a program of generalized vocational education which would be applicable to a family of occupations. Both the

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Maryland Study (1:iii) and the Regents' Inquiry (27:140-1) recommended that training in vocational skills be moved up to a higher level, specialization being confined to the post secondary-school period, and that general education be given at the lower level; that is, that the secondary-school vocational education should be of a general rather than a specific nature. From this recommendation, the Regents' Inquiry has had some immediate, early outcomes, in the form of money for thirteen technical institutes appropriated by the state legislature.

It is only natural that the Maryland Study, coming during the depression of the 1930's, and painting a picture of modern youth in colors that were drab and sinister, should make much of vocational education and of work experience.

Work Experience.- The importance of including in the curriculum of the modern secondary school work experiences, both those of a gainful, vocational nature and those which are non-gainful but socially and educationally important, must be specifically considered. The life-process is an active process; experience generally ends in activity, not in reflection. The offering of activities that call for constructive accomplishment is a necessary part of the educative process. But these activities must be selected by the same educational criteria as are the others, namely, their intrinsic educative value and their relevance to the needs of the learner. Consistent with these needs, the work experience provided by the school will necessarily vary according to the stage of development reached by the learner. Admittedly, among

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these experiences there must be some which look toward preparation of pupils for participation in a remunerative vocation. But not all work experiences can be or should be of this type, nor should even participation in vocational activities consist of learning specific habits and skills incidental to working upon a particular job, but without broader developmental value.

Work experiences are of tremendous educative value; they need to be regarded in that way. Work experiences are not necessarily vocational training; they constitute an integral part of the secondary-school curriculum; they need to be organized so as to meet the progressive needs of the pupils; some work experiences should lead out into the community and provide for pupil participation in community enterprises; concurrently with these there should be vocational work experiences which will help to develop interests, disclose aptitudes, give a realistic insight into at least a portion of the world of work, and develop general attitudes and abilities that will enable the youth to adapt himself to a job. Whenever possible, the school should provide opportunities for the pupil to utilize his vocational abilities in a real occupation and in a remunerative way under its careful guidance. The whole problem of learning in vocational situations should be treated as education and not as training, and such learnings should be evaluated in terms of growth in attitudes, understandings, and creative abilities that mark the intelligently self-directing person. That is the way in which the Educational Policies Commission conceives work

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experience (12:192).

Chapter Summary

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Curriculum.- The curriculum represents a plan of activities by and through which pupils achieve the aims of education. The foundations of such a plan must be grounded upon a modern educational philosophy and on the findings concerning the nature of individual and social processes. Curricula described in the nine investigations considered in this study run the gamut from the traditional subject curriculum to the experimental core curriculum, with correlated, fused, and broad-fields curricula between the extremes.

The traditional American secondary school is looking toward the past. The curriculum lag is nowhere more evident. The same pragmatic forces which were so successful in challenging the traditional elementary school are now challenging the secondary school. In much the same manner that the introduction of the activity curriculum has modified the elementary-school practices, it is hoped that its introduction at the secondary-school level will counteract the curriculum lag at this level, center the curriculum in vital twentieth-century problems, and avoid the abstractions which in times past characterized all subjects of the traditional curriculum. It is disconcerting to note that even the most pragmatic investigation, the Eight-Year Study, reveals experimental secondary schools working with a curriculum based on an idealistic philosophy.

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Somewhat in detail, the findings of this study with regard to the curriculum are as follows:

1. All of the selected investigations believe (a) that education is a developmental process, and that it is attained only through activity and initiative on the part of the learner; (b) that the content of the curriculum should be general (informational and cultural) and should consist, at least in part, of a study of the problems and relationships of present society; (c) that the pupil should not be taught what rather than how to think, and that he should not be simply afforded opportunities to think; (d) that the pupil should not be free to determine entirely his own activities and experiences; and (e) that the content of the curriculum should not be largely preparation for more advanced education, for entrance into vocational life, or for home-making and family life.
2. As was true of objectives, so also with regard to curriculum practices, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report are frequently in agreement. For example, both investigations incline toward the viewpoints (a) that courses in the classics and in mathematics still remain among the most effective agencies of mental development in the pupil; (b) that those responsible for the policies of the school should determine the nature and content of the curriculum, and that the pupil should be required to master the curriculum thus determined for him; and (c) that the content of the curriculum should consist of the racial heritage as well as of a study of the

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problems and relationships of present society. Likewise, neither investigation would favor the substitution of "activities" for "subjects" in the school curriculum or the point of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum.

3. Four investigations, the National Survey, the Committee on Orientation, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report, tend to believe that (a) the pupil profits largely in the degree that there is logical organization of the materials of instruction presented to him, and (b) the finer phases of culture are best pursued for their own sake, and should, on the whole, be kept separate from matters of practical and vocational development.
4. Two investigations, the Eight-Year Study and the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, are of the opinion that it is impossible to predict the adult needs of the contemporary school population with sufficient accuracy to justify an educational program based on minimum essentials of subject matter.
5. While the Co-operative, Eight-Year, and Maryland Studies and the Regents' Inquiry take the stand that the pupil should be taught how rather than what to think, the remaining five investigations believe that he should be taught both what and how to think.
6. Although all of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report excepted, take the point

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of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum, the Eight-Year Study believes that that part should be a large one.

7. All of the investigations, the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report excepted, believe that the content of the curriculum should consist of both a study of the problems and relationships of present society and such problems as will help to modify the present culture and plan for a better social structure in the years to come.

The objectives of secondary education necessarily must find their expression through the day-by-day activities which make up the total curriculum. It is much easier to revise objectives than to bring into existence a curriculum which will actually achieve them. The cardinal objectives of secondary education under modern conditions were stated many years ago. Those objectives were not being achieved by the traditional curriculum of the time. Since then the revision of the curriculum has moved only at a snail's pace in the direction of the requisite objectives.

Because of the changing composition of the secondary-school population, the situation became so acute during the depression of the 1930's that it was obvious that fundamental reorganization of the secondary-school curriculum could no longer be deferred. Obviously one cannot do the same thing for a large heterogeneous mass of pupils as for a small homogeneous group of capable, college-bound boys. The change in the character of the school population

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should have precipitated an immediate and long-term study of the thorough reorganization needed in the curriculum content of the secondary school. This reorganization should have stemmed from the determination of a basic social theory of the society from which these youth come and into which they are going, and of the differences in content and method which should prevail in a changed school population.

The scope and sequence of the curriculum are not determined in modern schools by a series of compartmentalized subjects, but increasingly by some statement of social functions or life needs of individuals. The core curriculum, which was originally defined in terms of required content, is increasingly stated in terms of desired experiences. Everybody needs to have experiences with a common core of basic problems designed to enable him to participate successfully in a democratic society. This residuum is for all pupils alike, regardless of the economic class from which they come. Paralleling this core there need to be developed the special interests of each pupil for all sorts of purposes — individual development, vocational purposes (whether college or immediate), and leisure pursuits.

Form is less important than substance in any curriculum, and those who seek guidance and inspiration from the results of any study must look deeper than time allotments and units of instruction. When the work of the secondary school is finished, the result should be a personality mature in every respect, ready to face intelligently and courageously the problems of life in the light of his experiences (through which learning was acquired).

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CHAPTER V

GUIDANCE SERVICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Introduction

Guidance, the third aspect of the program of secondary education examined, came to the fore when, as was stated in the analysis of the problem in the opening chapter, there was a shift from subject matter to the individual.

In presenting the material on guidance, there is first given the tabular overview of the contributions of the investigations to guidance service in secondary schools, after which guidance is redefined, and two major points of view or interpretations of guidance are discussed.

Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Guidance Service in the Secondary Schools

Using those items in List C of the check-list (Appendix, pp. 257-59) pertaining to guidance, the writer constructed Table 4. The instructions in Evaluative Criteria (10:8), from which this portion of the check-list was taken, are as follows:

> Preferably only one item should be checked in each group - the one with which your school is in closest agreement as a matter of fundamental belief, regardless of actual practice.

The following items are numbered as they appear in the master check-list:

1. In carrying out the guidance function of the secondary school it is desirable that -

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a. The pupil and staff member discover cooperatively the characteristics and needs of the pupil and decide the specific experiences to be provided

b. The curriculum of the pupil be determined by one or more members of the staff in terms of the inherent or traditionally assumed value of the subjects involved

c. The needs and characteristics of each pupil be discovered and one of the school's curricula be selected by a staff member

d. The needs and characteristics of each pupil be discovered and one of the school's curricula be selected cooperatively by pupil and staff member.

2. In relation to elementary and higher schools, the secondary school should -

a. Give attention to provisions for articulation - it should convey to the elementary school adequate information about its offerings and procedures in order that prospective pupils may make appropriate preparation and should see that similar information from higher schools is made available to its own pupils

b. Make definite provision for effective articulation - this should involve not only information about the school but cooperative efforts toward mutual understanding and toward elimination of conditions which make pupil adjustment difficult

c. Have no special responsibility for articulation - as a self-contained unit it should develop its own program in terms of the assumed needs of its pupils and leave other institutions to do the same.

3. The secondary school should -

a. Be responsible for assisting pupils to make appropriate educational plans, both of courses in secondary school and of subsequent academic careers - it should leave other phases of guidance to the home or other agencies.

b. Assume responsibility for assisting pupils in all phases of personal adjustment - the school's guidance function includes educational, vocational, social, recreational, and other phases.

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3. c. Assume no responsibility for guidance of pupils, in order to avoid dissipation of energies which should be devoted to assuring a thorough mastery of secondary school studies

d. In addition to educational guidance, provide assistance to pupils in making appropriate vocational choices - other phases of guidance should be left to the home or other agencies.

A graphic means of portraying the school's answers on these phases is provided as the first chart in Section X of the Evaluative Criteria. In this chart each of the numbered lines corresponds to one of the numbered items in Section B. ... In general the more conservative positions are to the left of this graph and the more radical positions to the right of the graph (11:46).

This continuum (10:163) is reproduced below Table 4 on the following page for comparison with the way in which the viewpoints of the nine investigations were checked. Thus one can see whether a given investigation is reactionary or radical with regard to its point of view on guidance.

To conserve space in the table, letters symbolize the investigations, arranged as they appeared in the first chapter:

A National Survey
B Committee on Orientation
C Co-operative Study
D Eight-Year Study
E Educational Policies Commission
F Maryland Study
G Pennsylvania Study
H Regents' Inquiry
I Harvard Report

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TABLE 4

OVERVIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS TO GUIDANCE SERVICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Items	Investigations									Total	Items
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I		
1a				x						1	1a
1b										0	1b
1c	x						x		x	3	1c
1d		x	x		x	x		x		5	1d
2a	x						x		x	3	2a
2b		x	x	x	x	x		x		6	2b
2c										0	2c
3a							x			1	3a
3b		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	7	3b
3c										0	3c
3d	x									1	3d

Chart taken from "Summary Forms, I. Philosophy: Significant Points of View" (10:163)*

	Reactionary			Radical
1.	b	c	d	a
2.	c	a		b
3.	c	a	d	b

*The above chart is read as follows:

In the case of the first item in Table 4, "b" is the reactionary position; "c", the conservative; "d", midway between reactionary and radical; and "a", radical.

As for the second item, where there are but three choices, the conservative position is omitted.

Both Table 4 and the accompanying chart are interpreted in the following section.

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Interpretation of Table 4 and Chart

By comparing the chart with the way in which the three items in Table 4 have been marked, one sees, first, that no one of the nine selected investigations is reactionary on any one of the three items in question.

Secondly, on the first item, the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report are to the left of a position midway between the two extremes, and, therefore, conservative, favoring the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil and the selection of one of the school's curricula by a staff member. On the second item (where there are but three choices), these three investigations likewise agree, taking the middle position, namely, that, for the benefit of prospective pupils, the secondary school should give the elementary school adequate information about its offerings, and that, for its own pupils, it should secure adequate information from higher institutions about their offerings. However, on the third item, whereas the Pennsylvania Study is to the left of the center, restricting guidance to educational guidance; the National Survey adheres to the middle ground, using guidance in the sense of educational and vocational guidance; and the Harvard Report swings to the radical end of the continuum, assuming responsibility for assisting pupils in all phases of personal adjustment.

Thirdly, the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the Co-operative Study, the Educational Policies Commission, the Maryland Study, and the Regents' Inquiry are identical in that

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they take a position midway between the two extremes on the first item, believing in the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil, and the co-operative selection (by pupil and staff member) of one of the curricula of the school. On the other two items, these investigations are to the extreme right, which, in the case of the second item, takes the position that the secondary school should not only supply information to elementary schools about its offerings and to its own pupils about the offerings of higher schools, but also make co-operative efforts toward mutual understanding and toward the elimination of conditions which make pupil adjustment difficult. The radical position on the third item was stated in connection with the Harvard Report in the preceding paragraph.

Fourthly, the Eight-Year Study consistently takes the radical position on all three items. That position on the first item, the only liberal one not previously given in this discussion, is the co-operative discovery (by pupil and staff member) of the needs and characteristics of the pupil and the co-operative decision of the specific experiences to be provided.

Reasons for marking the statements as the writer did, together with an amplification and a discussion, follow.

Guidance Redefined

The Importance of the Individual.- There is evidence that the individual is recognized in both educational theory and practice. Several points of emphasis are indicative of this fact. For example, considerable emphasis is attached to the

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idea that education is an integrative process. The Committee on Orientation recognized that the manifold outcomes of the educational process involve many phases of life (8:360; and 7:206). Not only does this place an emphasis upon educating the whole individual, but it places a premium upon giving attention to the simultaneous experiences of the pupil. To do this effectively requires information about the individual concerning his abilities, interests, and achievements (7:98, 174).

The Guidance Goal.- The crowning feature of personality is what pragmatists call its integration. On the first page of Integration: Its Meaning and Application (130), Hopkins makes the statement, "'Integration' is a shorthand word used to designate intelligent behavior." Integration is the expression of the organization of one's manifold tendencies, attitudes, desires, and purposes, into a pattern peculiar to each individual. It is what gives unity and order to one's differentiated human motives by establishing a hierarchy of goals or objectives. The ideal of guidance, of the Eight-Year Study (3:129-30), for example, is a perfectly integrated individual.

The goal is self-integration, and this is possible, as the Committee on Orientation pointed out (7:199, 203, 67-8, 200), when the individual understands himself and the world about him. Guidance does not imply making decisions for the individual. It means, rather, helping the individual to take into consideration all factors which should be kept in mind when decisions are made. As recognized by both the Committee on Orientation (7:205) and

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the Educational Policies Commission (12:39-40), an individual grows by making decisions. Making decisions for him not only deprives him of valuable experience, but also weakens him.

Definition.- The guidance concept of education is receiving much emphasis. In purpose and practice it embodies the same point of view implied in the pupil-centered school. That is, school experiences of pupils involve principally the forming of purposes, and the making, executing, and evaluating of plans for attaining these purposes. Guidance may be conceived as the assistance given to pupils at each of these steps in the educative process. Pupils need assistance in making decisions as problems and crises appear to them. As the Committee on Orientation pointed out, the rendering of such assistance is the function of guidance (7:200).

Interpretations of Guidance

In attempting further to understand the term, guidance, one is faced with two points of view. One point of view, for example, that held by the Co-operative Study (9:46-7), interprets guidance as a program; the other, exemplified by the Eight-Year Study (3:202), as a philosophy. On the one hand, guidance may be conceived as a special program comprising organization and personnel, and designed to fulfill a special function; on the other hand, guidance may be thought of as a way of looking at teaching or as a philosophy which permeates all teaching. The latter conception makes guidance co-extensive with all education, and no special plan or organization is needed.

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This places one in a dilemma regarding the meaning of guidance. One can emerge from this dilemma only by considering the pragmatic philosophy of modern education, and by giving attention to the extent to which the program of the conventional school meets this ideal. After reflection one sees that, in one sense, all education is guidance. Teaching is guidance-like in nature, and the philosophy of guidance should permeate every phase of the educational program. The attitude of teachers, the offerings of the school, the principles of teaching, the conception of the nature of learning, the program of extra-class activities, and all services rendered by the school should be based on the point of view of guidance.

At the same time it must be kept in mind that democracy is committed to a program of mass education; that is, the program of teaching and instruction is administered to pupils in groups. Because of individual differences, some pupils will not be able to benefit to the maximum from a program administered en masse. Some have difficulties which they cannot overcome, and others have problems with which they cannot deal; some have questions that they cannot answer, and others need various types of assistance in overcoming obstacles, making decisions, and meeting crises. A special plan or program is needed in order to help reduce such problems to a minimum and to meet them competently when they arise. This is the purpose of the guidance program.

Guidance as a Philosophy

Natural experiencing is inherently educative, but, without a

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basis of valid meanings, values, techniques, it is not sufficiently educative. For the individual to possess such a basis on which to operate, guidance in experiencing is necessary. Providing pupils with educative experiences is a form of guidance; helping them to analyze these experiences and to draw from them values serviceable in living is another; helping them to deal better with their personal problems is still another (2:37-9, 62). The school and all its activities are a manifestation of the guidance process. Without guidance, experiencing alone would not make most individuals intelligently self-directing. Also, without guidance it is unlikely that the individual pupil will meet his needs in ways that lead toward democratic living or in the process form a personality which moves of itself in the direction of democratic ideals (2:136).

Guidance is the heart of the educational process; it is what the school (everyone and everything in it) does. The Eight-Year Study might be interpreted as suggesting the view that instruction is guidance, pure and simple. But guidance goes beyond mere instruction; in helping the pupil to deal with his personal problems, in fostering wholesome pupil-community relationships, in helping to deal with community problems, the school is administering guidance. The administering of guidance should not involve setting up special school machinery beyond what the school already has for the achievement of its stated objectives. The guidance function must be performed in the course of the ordinary learner-school relationships: it relies not so much

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upon mechanical contrivances, upon intelligence tests and vocational aptitude tests, and upon self-conscious guidance experts, as upon the normal, wholesome relationships of the individual with his school companions, his teachers and the school staff, and the community, upon the discovery of needs and awakening of interests, upon co-operative tentative arrangements for meeting these needs and interests through educative experiences, and upon testing and evaluation in which the pupil himself plays an active part.

That guidance is the direction of learning in experiencing, so that individual capacity for continuous self-direction in living may result, is the position of the Eight-Year Study (3:59, 129-30, 200; and 4:8, 345-6, 432, 464-5, 491).

Guidance as a Program

Relation of Guidance to Education.- As stated by the Committee on Orientation (7:206), guidance and education have many things in common. The guidance program has objectives not unlike those of the educational program. In fact, the guidance program has as its primary purpose the facilitating of the school in attaining its objectives. Its purpose is to supplement the instructional program by making certain that each individual receives the assistance that will enable him to become efficient in participation in the activities of life.

Guidance is a unitary type of thing. The individual is guided as a unit in the same sense that he is taught as a unit. The phases of guidance are not mutually exclusive. Actually,

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they are closely related to each other.

Educational Guidance.- The school has a responsibility for acquainting the pupil with its offerings, and for assisting him to succeed in its program. The pupil needs a general orientation to the secondary school and its program; he needs to be informed about the purposes of the secondary school, courses offered, requirements for graduation, marking system used, rules and regulations of classroom procedure, and educational opportunities beyond the secondary school. The National Survey (18:9, 84, 95), the Committee on Orientation (8:97-8), and the Spaulding volume of the Regents' Inquiry (28:114) stress this need. The pupil needs to be led to a realization of the relation of education to life in general, and to an appreciation of its significance and importance. He should be encouraged to study his own interests and aptitudes with a view toward determining the possibilities of profiting from various educational opportunities (7:87, 201).

The secondary-school pupil needs guidance in how to succeed in his secondary-school work. He must be taught how to make the most of his educational opportunities; he needs an acquaintance with the purposes of the school and its program; and he must learn how he may most efficiently succeed in the program which he undertakes. The pupil should acquire efficient habits and techniques of study and work. That the secondary-school pupil should gradually assume more responsibility for his own education is of utmost importance. The Committee on Orientation (7:170),

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the Pennsylvania Study (14:45-6), and Spaulding in the Regents' Inquiry (28:273) feel that he should develop the attitude that learning is a normal type of experience, and that he should become interested in having it continue as a part of life beyond formal school attendance.

Vocational Guidance.- It was the contention of all the investigations examined that in training for the vocational, as well as for every other aspect of social competence, careful guidance is necessary. In education which depends for its effectiveness upon adaptation to individual capacities, aptitudes, and interests, systematic guidance must be an inherent part of the instructional process. Generally speaking, guidance should be based upon accumulated evidence resulting from demonstrated ability in the various fields of learning and of work rather than upon the results of aptitude testing. On the basis of demonstrated ability in previous work, the pupil is to make needed educational and vocational choices. Since, according to the Committee on Orientation (8:122-3; and 199), a societal investment is at stake, the school has a right to intervene when the pupil is about to make a patently unwise choice.

Vocational guidance involves assisting pupils in choosing an occupation, preparing for it, entering it, and succeeding in it. Practically every phase of the school program has possibilities for assisting pupils to succeed in their occupations. Special vocational counselors, try-out and exploratory courses, occupational information courses, placement officers, and follow-

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up agencies are effective means of providing vocational guidance services on an extensive scale.

The Regents' Inquiry, concerned with those who drop out of school before being graduated from the secondary school, recommended the establishment of a guidance service in each school system which would not only aid boys and girls in school, but would continue to help them until they found satisfactory jobs (27:149, 152; and 28:276-7).

One thing to be noted about the program of the Educational Policies Commission is the emphasis upon guidance, especially as it applies to occupational fitness. This is especially necessary, because young people in Farmville and American City are compelled by state law to remain in school until eighteen, with opportunities of remaining an additional thirteenth or fourteenth year or going to one of the eleven "Community Institutes" in the state (erstwhile junior college, with a vastly vocationalized slant and a strong adult education program). Field trips and intensive guidance by both counselors and teachers give youth the picture of the occupational world into which he will enter (12:284-5).

In the opinion of the Maryland Study, the guidance work in the schools should be definitely related in a functional way to local employment service. Counsel in the schools, in order to be effective, must be more closely related to the placement of youth, for it is futile to try to counsel unless the schools have some part in the placing of youth in employment (1:iii, 72, 79).

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The occupational problems of the secondary-school pupils usually endure throughout their secondary-school career. Many pupils do not make the choice of an occupation until late in the secondary-school course, and, in some instances, even beyond graduation from secondary school. Decisions on life occupations made early are frequently subject to revision. Both these situations suggest that most secondary-school pupils continuously consider vocational problems.

If the schools are willing and financially able to assume responsibility for all phases of the work including placement up to some given age level, they should do so. They should be cognizant of the responsibility they are undertaking equally and without discrimination for all of the youth of the community, regardless of the age and grade attainment at which they leave or have left the school. The secondary schools should call upon the community employment service and other community agencies for all of the assistance they can render, particularly with reference to the economic and occupational information without which no program will be successful.

As the first step in aiding out-of-school youth, the American Youth Commission in the Maryland Study recommended that each community undertake a local survey to determine the number of young people idle, the types and number of workers needed, the adequacy of the vocational guidance available, and the provisions for health and recreation. Action following such a study must include a co-operative effort on the part of local employers

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and organized labor to provide openings for a larger number of young workers. The most practical way of conducting a program of this kind is to organize a community committee or council composed of representatives of all groups interested in the welfare of youth. Outstanding young people should be invited to participate as members of this council (188).

If, on the other hand, the secondary schools are willing to accept responsibility only for the counseling of their own pupils while they are in school, a responsibility they cannot escape, however much they may shirk it, then the schools should be ready and willing to make available to other agencies the information concerning the qualifications of individuals that only they can accumulate during the period in which young people remain enrolled in the school. In such a case, the public employment offices of the locality must take the major responsibility for counseling out-of-school youth and for placement. In order to meet this responsibility, they should have as much assistance as possible from the schools in obtaining information about the individual young people to be placed. Here the Committee on Orientation (8:211) and the Educational Policies Commission (12:196) concur.

Personal and Social Guidance.- Many secondary-school pupils have need for guidance in a personal or social way. Although it is true that all education aims at the socialization of the individual and his improvement personally, pupils have peculiar and special needs which the typical classroom situation does not supply.

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Many pupils need information on standards of dress, manners, conduct, etiquette, health, and hygiene. They should know how to manage personal belongings, plan for personal improvement, meet friends, live with others co-operatively, and use leisure time worthily. Such needs have been met by the home, more or less, but many secondary-school pupils have real problems of such a nature. The Co-operative Study (9:46-7), the Educational Policies Commission (12:39-40), and Eckert in the Regents' Inquiry (24:189-90) deal with the responsibility of the secondary school in meeting the need for personal and social guidance.

Emphasis upon Mental Hygiene.- Modern life demands stable personalities. Individuals are called upon for consistency in performance in the midst of situations which vary widely in their demands upon the individual. Normal behavior comes from individuals who are mentally healthy. Mental health emphasizes harmoniously working individuals who possess wholesome attitudes. It requires a physical well-being and a mental efficiency which involves basic knowledge and understanding, as well as prerequisite habits and skills. It involves a mental security and an emotional control which enables the individual to apply himself most effectively at all times. Mental health enables the individual to have a true sense of values, a balance of judgment, and the ability to maintain himself in the midst of conflicting tendencies.

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The emphasis upon mental hygiene attempts to promote normal behavior and desirable mental health by giving attention to those conditions which make for the most wholesome personalities. Mental hygiene attempts to assist individuals in making those adjustments which will lead to normal living. The mental hygiene approach is a constructive approach which places considerable emphasis upon preventive measures. It attempts to prevent abnormal behavior rather than merely to prescribe remedial measures after abnormalities have appeared.

The emphasis upon personality adjustment with the mental health point of view is particularly timely. It corresponds to the modern emphasis upon personality development at its best. It gives recognition to the individual to the extent that it employs the approach of psychology and psychiatry. It employs the facts and findings of these sciences in providing the most wholesome programs for the development of personality. Of the investigations that viewed guidance as a program rather than a philosophy, the Committee on Orientation (7:203), for example, stressed the mental health of secondary-school pupils.

As at the beginning of the section on guidance as a program (page 135), the writer wishes to point out again the fact that the individual is guided as a whole, that he is not given each of the above phases of guidance at separate and distinct times. The Committee on Orientation saw the necessity of being concerned with the whole individual (8:360).

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Responsibilities of the Teacher for Guidance.- Because of the close relation of guidance to education, it stands to reason that the teacher will play a strategic role in the guidance program. Guidance cannot function as a separate department of the school. It is not something extra which may be achieved with a special organization and additional personnel. A guidance program cannot be created by administrative decree, nor can it be put into operation merely by the employment of guidance specialists or guidance workers. The guidance point of view must permeate the entire school organization and personnel, if an efficient program is to be in operation. This is the attitude that Spaulding in the Regents' Inquiry (28:274) takes. Counseling in Education for ALL American Youth is a vital, thorough, and personal organization, demanding all the individual teacher can give to it (12:40).

The guidance services of teachers must not necessarily be performed in a special period; they may be performed incidentally as a part of the regular work of the teachers. These services must be rendered when they are needed. Preparation for meeting guidance needs of pupils may be made in practically every phase of the school program. They may be made as the teacher assumes the role of instructor in the classroom, as he directs extra-class activities, as he assumes responsibility for managing the home room, and as he engages in other duties about the school. To assume that a function as inclusive as guidance can be performed by an agency detached from the regular

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and routine activities of the school, is to plead guilty of underestimating its significance and the essence of its real nature.

Good teachers have always engaged in activities that would be classed as guidance functions. Excellent teachers have always been intimately interested in youth. They have made special efforts to understand their pupils; they have taken pains to motivate pupils in the formulation of goals that were worthwhile and challenging; they have been concerned that pupils be motivated as far as possible by life-goals and life-career motives. Excellent teachers have always recognized the need for giving attention to pupils individually. They have realized the importance of regarding each pupil as a unique learning unit, and they have recognized the need for diagnosing difficulties and for giving assistance on an individual basis.

Special counselors are employed for the school when the care of individual cases requires the services of someone on a full-time basis. Although counselors may spend their entire time in what may be termed, strictly speaking, guidance work, teachers are not relieved of their guidance functions. In their position, counselors are able to do effective work in co-ordinating the entire guidance program of the school. This co-ordination can be successfully carried on only with the full and complete co-operation of all the teachers in the school. The presence of counselors in the school does not relieve teachers of guidance functions, but it does suggest that these

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functions will be differently organized. Both the Co-operative Study (9:47) and the Educational Policies Commission (12:195) are of this opinion.

The guidance services of the school depend to a great extent upon the information which the school has about its pupils. Every association of teacher with pupils provides an opportunity for making observations and securing valuable information. It should be recognized that much valuable information about pupils depends upon the use of tests. Tests ordinarily are a part of the procedure in the classroom and the home room, and at other times they may be employed to yield information for the guidance services of the school, as stated by Norton in the Regents' Inquiry (27:138).

Skillful guidance, however, consists of much more than helping the pupil to elect school studies. A great deal of skill is required in guiding the day-to-day learning of the pupils, helping them to formulate for themselves or accept from others the worthy, definite purposes through which alone learning takes place, and which ultimately develop into strong and abiding interests. The teacher as well as the personnel officer plays a responsible role in the guidance function.

Guidance cannot cease with the completion of the secondary-school period. It is, indeed, at this point that the need for guidance becomes almost acute. Brought up to the point of initial social competence, the individual must be inducted into his role as a member of adult society. The school (or some

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other social agency) must step in and help the young person to make his initial adjustments to the adult world. If, for any reason entrance into a responsible role in the adult world is delayed, the school or another social agency must help to tide him over the period of delay. It was with this thought in mind that the Educational Policies Commission (12:39-40) and the Regents' Inquiry (24:189-90; and 28:278) urged that society establish additional agencies to take care of the older youth for whom jobs are not available at present and whose entrance as adults into society must therefore be postponed.

Effectiveness of Guidance

The guidance service is one aspect of secondary-school work evaluated by the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards. Four major phases of such services were studied; articulation with other schools, information regarding pupils, the guidance program, and post-school relationships. Composite findings indicated "that guidance service is probably less well organized and is operating less effectively than any other phase of secondary-school activity." Both pupil appraisal and parent evaluation were sought. Neither was complimentary. The reports of the committee concluded that, on the basis of pupil judgment, not only in the two hundred schools studied, but probably in the thousands of other schools which they typify, the guidance service is far from satisfactory and complete. On the basis of parental judgment the vocational guidance provided by the schools was the least satisfactory of all services; educational

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guidance was reported to be more satisfactory (9:141-3; and 102).

It has been a shock to many educators to learn from the printed page how little real value the pupils included in the Eight-Year Study derived from counseling, and how wide the gap between catalog promises and actual performance has been (5:144).

Each such study points the way toward better counseling service, indeed, to better secondary education, including objectives, curriculum, and evaluation.

Chapter Summary

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Guidance.- The guidance movement began as vocational — looking to the job that the pupil might hold in life, and better directing his schooling in respect to that future job. The multitude of new courses likewise made the school vulnerable to an advisory system, there being immediate need for advisers to help direct pupils through the labyrinth of offerings. The adjustment of courses was accompanied by adjustment within courses, and the typical classroom recitation was challenged by a number of new methods, such as the Dalton, the Winnetka, the Morrisonian, and the laboratory plans. Thus, the school endorsed the existence of individual differences; it retracted its earlier promise of equality of opportunity and today offers to each the opportunity to advance in accordance with his particular capacities.

The stand on guidance taken by each of the selected investigations has a relation to the corresponding objectives presented in Chapter III. For the pragmatic Eight-Year Study

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guidance and education are virtually synonymous; the Pennsylvania Study, on the other hand, emphasizing intellectual competence, thinks of guidance in terms of educational guidance. The remaining investigations, in the main, hold the school responsible for all aspects of the guidance program.

Somewhat in detail, the findings of this study with regard to guidance, are as follows:

1. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would be considered conservative in this respect, that they favor the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil and the selection of one of the curricula of the school by a staff member.
2. The Pennsylvania Study is conservative on a second count, namely, restricting guidance to educational guidance.
3. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would be considered neither reactionary nor radical in that they believe that, for the benefit of prospective pupils, the secondary school should give the elementary school adequate information about its offerings, and that, for its own pupils, it should secure adequate information from higher institutions about their offerings.
4. Likewise, the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the Co-operative Study, the Educational Policies Commission, the Maryland Study, and the Regents' Inquiry would be classed as neither reactionary nor radical in that they favor the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil, and

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the co-operative selection (by pupil and staff member) of one of the curricula of the school.

5. The National Survey adheres to the middle ground on a second point, using guidance in the sense of educational and vocational guidance.
6. All of the selected investigations, the National Survey and the Pennsylvania Study excepted, think of guidance as assuming responsibility for assisting pupils in all phases of personal adjustment, the ultra-liberal position.
7. All of the selected investigations, except the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report, take the so-called radical position that the secondary school should not only supply information to elementary schools about its offerings and to its own pupils about the offerings of higher schools, but also make co-operative efforts toward mutual understanding and toward the elimination of conditions which make pupil adjustment difficult.
8. The Eight-Year Study is consistently radical on all counts, believing, in addition to the two points to which reference has just been made, in the co-operative discovery by pupil and staff member of the needs and characteristics of the pupil and the co-operative decision of the specific experiences to be provided.

Teaching is concerned in no small way with guiding learning activities. One of the greatest needs today is for teachers to have a clear conception of what the results of these learning activities are to be. In other words, one should have in mind

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the possible types of things which pupils may learn. One characteristic of learning is that it produces changes in the individual. Whatever else is true, the pupil is different after true learning has taken place. Teaching, then, is designed to produce changes in pupils, or rather, to give encouragement, assistance, and direction to certain changes. The extent of such changes and their direction are the province of evaluation.

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CHAPTER VI

EVALUATION OF THE PROGRESS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS

Introduction

Having discussed the contributions of the selected investigations to three aspects of the program of secondary education (objectives, curriculum, and guidance), the writer now turns to the fourth and final phase, evaluation of the progress made by secondary-school pupils.

As stated in the analysis of the problem in the first chapter, accompanying a shift from content to the individual (a movement which stressed the importance of guidance), was a change from determining the quality of the educative process in the form of information and erudition to a way of building a set of values for the youth who has been subjected to the process.

Measurement versus Evaluation.- Originally called measurement under the subject curriculum, since 1930 it has increasingly been designated as evaluation, a term which stems from the experimental rather than the authoritarian philosophy.

The movement from measurement to evaluation is a long step in promoting better integration. Measurement has always stood for uniformity, external control, statistical methods, academic situations, and other devices of the subject curriculum. Emphasis in measurement is placed upon the definite and the

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measurable; in method, measurement becomes objective. Intangible attitudes and interests, and growth in creative power, are neglected in favor of those outcomes that can be objectified. Measurement tends to be separated from the learning experience and placed in a separate category; one is tested after he has learned, and if the results of the test seem to demand it, he re-learns.

The centers of attention in evaluation are value to the learner and how he behaves as a result of such value. Since these pupil values are not easily amenable to statistical, quantitative measurement, and since pupil behavior is only slightly judged by present quantitative-measurement results, the movement toward a greater consideration of values and behavior means evaluation and not measurement. Because the underlying conceptions of evaluation are closer to those considered important in promoting integrative behavior, discussed in the second chapter in connection with the nature of learning, the change of emphasis must be considered significant.

Following the presentation of the tabular overview of the contributions of the investigations to evaluation of the progress of secondary-school pupils, the writer discusses the purposes of evaluation, the significance of evaluation, and two major aspects of evaluation.

Tabular Overview of the Contributions of the Investigations to Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils

Using those items in the check-list (Appendix, pp. 254-5, 257-9) pertaining to evaluation, the writer constructed Table 5,

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indicating those items with which each investigation is explicitly or implicitly in agreement, is in disagreement, or does not concern itself. A plus sign (+) indicates agreement; a minus sign (-), disagreement; and a zero (0), no reference.

To conserve space in the table, letters symbolize the investigations, arranged as they appeared in the first chapter, as follows:

A National Survey
B Committee on Orientation
C Co-operative Study
D Eight-Year Study
E Educational Policies Commission
F Maryland Study
G Pennsylvania Study
H Regents' Inquiry
I Harvard Report

The following items are numbered as they appear in the master check-list:

A 3. Systems of uniform examinations given by boards of education in some states should be eliminated from the American public school.

10. The scholastic attainments of pupils as revealed by standardized achievement tests constitute a reliable basis upon which to rate the teachers of those pupils.

12. The effectiveness of education should be determined more by general social conditions (such, for instance, as are revealed through crime statistics) than by any apparent effect upon particular individuals.

C 4. Procedures for evaluating outcomes are being constantly improved.

5. Responsibility is placed upon the supervisory staff for studying new evaluation techniques.

6. Activities of pupils during out-of-school hours are studied.

7. Systematic appraisal is made of the college achievements of former pupils.

8. Systematic appraisal is made of the achievements of former pupils who did not go to college.

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C. 9. Appropriate tests and examinations are used.

10. Attitudes and appreciations are measured with the best instruments available.

11. Staff members are encouraged to consider the conduct of pupils in all school situations as revealing the nature and quality of the outcomes of the educational program.

12. Co-operation of parents and other members of the school community in evaluating the outcomes of the educational program is systematically sought.

13. Informal observations of pupils are recorded in some form such as an anecdotal record.

14. Pupil appraisal of the outcomes of the educational program is encouraged.

In addition to and immediately following Table 5, two sub-tables have been arranged on a frequency basis. An explanation of Table 5 and the two sub-tables is given in the section following the presentation of the tables.

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TABLE 5

OVERVIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INVESTIGATIONS TO EVALUATION OF THE PROGRESS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS

Items	Investigations									Totals			Items
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	≠	-	0	
A 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	≠	0	1	0	8	A 3
10	≠	-	-	-	-	-	≠	-	≠	3	6	0	10
12	0	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	6	2	1	12
C 4	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	C 4
5	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	8	1	0	5
6	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	2	0	6
7	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	7
8	-	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	7	2	0	8
9	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	2	0	9
10	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	-	≠	≠	7	2	0	10
11	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	11
12	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	9	0	0	12
13	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	8	1	0	13
14	-	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	≠	8	1	0	14

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TABLE 5a

FREQUENCY OF PRACTICES IN EVALUATION IN THE NINE INVESTIGATIONS

Approval of Practices in Evaluation

Check-List Items	Frequency
C 4	9
C 7	9
C11	9
C12	9
C 5	8
C13	8
C14	8
C 6	7
C 8	7
C 9	7
C10	7
A12	6
A10	3
A 3	1

TABLE 5b

FREQUENCY OF PRACTICES IN EVALUATION IN THE NINE INVESTIGATIONS

Disapproval of Practices in Evaluation

Check-List Items	Frequency
A10	6
A12	2
C 6	2
C 8	2
C 9	2
C10	2
C 5	1
C13	1
C14	1
A 3	0
C 4	0
C 7	0
C11	0
C12	0

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Interpretation of Tables 5, 5a, and 5b

While a frequency of approval (Table 5a) of eight or nine may indicate standard practice, a frequency of six is perhaps an indication of a live, current issue. On the other hand, a low frequency of one may indicate either something in the making and set forth by a forward-looking investigation, or something on the way out, yet tenaciously adhered to by a somewhat conservative investigation.

A study of Table 5 reveals several interesting facts.

1. There is unanimity of opinion on four of the fourteen items. All of the selected investigations favor (a) the constant improvement of procedures for evaluating outcomes, (b) the making of systematic appraisal of the college achievements of former pupils, (c) the encouragement of staff members to consider the conduct of pupils in all school situations as revealing the nature and quality of the outcomes of the educational program, and (d) the systematic seeking of co-operation of parents and other members of the school community in evaluating the outcomes of the educational process.

2. The Eight-Year Study is the only investigation that would not place responsibility for studying new evaluation techniques upon the supervisory staff.

3. The Regents' Inquiry firmly believes that the Regents' examinations in the state of New York should be eliminated.

4. The National Survey would take account neither of recording informal observations of pupils in some form such as an

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anecdotal record nor of encouraging pupil appraisal of the outcomes of the educational program.

5. All investigations except the National Survey and the Pennsylvania Study used appropriate tests and examinations, and measured attitudes and appreciations with the best instruments available.

6. The National Survey and the Eight-Year Study made no systematic appraisal of the achievements of former pupils who did not go to college.

7. The National Survey, Pennsylvania Study, and Harvard Report would favor the rating of teachers by the scholastic achievements of their pupils as revealed by standardized achievement tests.

8. The Committee on Orientation, Co-operative Study, Educaa tional Policies Commission, Maryland Study, Regents' Inquiry, and Harvard Report would favor determining the effectiveness of education more by general social conditions than by any apparent effect upon particular individuals.

Purposes of Evaluation

The Commission on School and College Relation listed five major purposes of evaluation: (1) to provide a periodic check which gives direction to the continued improvement of the program of the school, (2) to help to validate some of the important hypotheses upon which the program operates, (3) to furnish data about individual pupils essential to wise guidance, (4) to give a more satisfying foundation for the psychological security of the staff, of parents, and of pupils, and (5) to supply a

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sound basis for public relations (4:7-11).

The first named purpose shows the close connection between evaluation and the curriculum, discussed in Chapter IV; the second, between evaluation and the objectives of secondary education, the subject of Chapter III; the third, between evaluation and guidance, presented in the preceding chapter; and the fourth and fifth, between evaluation and the criteria set forth in Chapter II.

Often the program of evaluation in a school serves purposes removed from learning itself. Frequently tests are used to appraise the efficacy of method, or teaching efficiency. Under such circumstances, the pupil has a limited share in evaluation; he is the one who is evaluated.

Significance of Evaluation

Evaluation is a vital part of the educative process. It is of necessity the culmination of experience, when the forces that have generated activity are either disbanded or marshalled for renewed effort. But traditional education has helped to simplify and at the same time to distort the meaning of evaluation, so that it is commonly regarded as equivalent to measuring results after learning has taken place. Evaluation is an inherent part of the act of learning itself; in a sense, learning is through continuous evaluation. Evaluation is not in terms of knowledge, which is instrumental, but in terms of less measurable, less tangible, more subtle, and much more important changes in personality, and in the power of dealing with experience. There is no objection to the use of the testing devices, provided they do not divert

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the educational process to mechanical ends, or place emphasis upon instrumental rather than terminal values. As stated by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study (4:12-14, 405), testing is an extremely important part of the educational process, but it is not the whole of it; moreover, there must be worked out more valid means of testing than are at present available. Periodic testing must be subordinated to the continuous evaluation of adolescent development, and evaluation made, not in terms of achievement detachable from the personality of the pupil and the situation within which he operates, but in the light of the experiences, interests, needs, and the thus-far-developed personality of the learner. To be able to effect that kind of evaluation, the secondary school must know the pupil and must avail itself of every device through which it may learn about him. Thus, guidance, as discussed in Chapter V, and evaluation are closely related.

Evaluation by Others

The Role of the Teacher.- Proper evaluation of learning outcomes requires both knowledge and skill on the part of the teacher. He must not only be cognizant of the aims and goals of the school program and of the possible approaches to evaluating educational outcomes, but he must also possess skill in handling the various evaluating devices and techniques.

Evaluation should stimulate rather than retard. If evaluation functions properly as an intrinsic part of the total learning process, it becomes a co-operative task of pupils and teacher.

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The reasonableness of the means used, then, will be apparent both to teacher and pupils. When the pupil understands his own share of responsibility for the continuous evaluation of his progress, testing ceases to be a cause for discouragement and becomes rather a stimulus.

Evaluation by Observation.- It should be recognized at the outset that pupil achievement is evaluated by making observations. When the achievement of an experience or any phase of it is evaluated, or when appraisal is made of any type of learning outcomes, it is done by some form of observation. Change in behavior is the only acceptable evidence that learning has taken place. This was the position taken by Smith, Tyler, and the Evaluation Staff of the Commission on the Relation of School and College (4:11-15, 26, 403-5), by the Committee on Orientation (8:121-2), and by Eckert in the Regents' Inquiry (24:14, 190).

Performance by pupils is the only reliable evidence one has that skills have been learned. Similarly, the acquisition of knowledge or appreciation can be evaluated only through pupil responses, both intellectual and emotional in nature. The only approach to evaluating any form of human achievement is through the behavior, activity, or responses of individuals (3:304-5).

Interest in evaluating educational achievement arises out of the need to know how far one has already proceeded toward the attainment of his objectives, in order that he may know what he has yet to do. Manifestly, the evaluation that one makes, if he is acting purposively, must be definitely related to his objectives.

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If his objective is to teach academic subject matter as such, he will wish tests of the mastery of subjects; if his objectives are abilities to perform in life as the problems of life go, he will wish tests of abilities to perform each of the activities in which social competency consists (8:104). Observation of behavior should be made primarily in terms of the particular aim or aims selected for specific emphasis in a given situation. However, observations should not be limited to these aims alone. The experience of the individual pupil is extremely complex. Often other factors than those one is able to discover have the most potent influence on those whose activities the teacher would direct.

The Co-operative Study.- A more-or-less scientific attempt was made to develop more valid, more comprehensive, and more stimulating methods of evaluating secondary schools. Significant is the co-operative attack apparently ending with the philosopher's fading into the background momentarily and the scientist's coming forward with a device characterized as an evaluating scale, a hybrid emphasis, but involving much statistical treatment of data. In the Co-operative Study the distinctive characteristic of evaluation appears to lie in its control criteria. While it does not measure, neither does it estimate without the assistance of a carefully constructed instrument called evaluative criteria (10), a check list set up by accepted methods and used as a guide for determing where, on a general scale of excellence, a school may justifiably rate itself.

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The Regents' Inquiry.- Evaluation in the Regents' Inquiry was in terms of the product, whether the product goes to college or drops out of the secondary school. It was the expressed opinion of that investigation that a school should be evaluated not in terms of its program, but rather in terms of the outcomes of that program (24:189-90; and 67).

The Educational Policies Commission.- The report of the Educational Policies Commission emphasized the importance of intellectual growth and recommended the use of much testing "of intelligence, other abilities, and aptitudes; achievement tests and examinations in broad fields; and appraisals by teachers and principals of such characteristics as industry and maturity" (12:51-2) in place of the old system of marks and credits.

Tests and Examinations.- Evidence of pupil achievement may be observed in different types of situations and from different types of pupil responses. One may commonly associate evaluation of achievement with tests and examinations. Using a test or examination is nothing more than making an observation. A test is merely a device which permits the observation of a special or limited type of behavior; it permits the teacher to select the type of response he wishes to observe, thus permitting him to refine and to control the observation. When the items of an examination are selected, decision is made as to the specific responses which are desired from pupils (28:203).

Any test of achievement is basically an observation of the performance by an individual of some act, or set of acts, gauged

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by some measure of effectiveness of the performance in attaining a certain standard of competency. The most pertinent test is a direct observation of the behavior as it goes on naturally in normal life situations. The difficulty in valid testing lies in the extreme difficulty of bringing individuals into realistic contact with life situations or a close semblance of them, while one observes their performance. Both the Co-operative Study (9:58) and the Pennsylvania Study (14:58-60) called attention to this fact.

The kind of teaching is determined in large degree by the kind of tests employed to measure the product. It is inevitable that the use of standardized achievement tests will influence the emphasis given to teaching. Some tests are subject-centered; if the teacher's success is to be judged by the score his pupils make on these tests, he is quite likely to emphasize subject matter. Curriculum content and teaching practice reflect the conception of testing in vogue in any school (28:198-9).

Standardized tests invite and encourage classroom drills. The teacher who knows that the showing of his pupils on achievement tests in skill subjects will serve as a means of teacher rating is likely to emphasize the skills. In such a situation, drills will be tremendously overstressed. The entire school program will be more or less formal and mechanical, and the drill subjects will occupy more than their share of time.

Subject matter is what a pupil needs to know in a given situation, not something to be superimposed from without. The

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real test of the value of subject matter is not whether the pupil recognizes it or whether he can reproduce it, but whether he can use it with satisfactory results.

The Pennsylvania Study.- The report of the Pennsylvania Study centers on the results of an identical, eight-hour examination in the main aspects of general education, social adjustment being not measured, attitudes being not surveyed. With the hybrid idealistic-pragmatic philosophy underlying the setting up of objectives, referred to in Chapter III, this investigation evaluated the program of secondary education solely by means of devices to which only a scientific realist would confine himself. Examples of the kind of tests given are found in the appendix of the report (14:372-8) under the caption, "Illustrative Excerpts from the Examination of 1930-32."

Seemingly, according to the Pennsylvania Study, the only achievement in education that is worth testing is that which has matured into permanent, active mental equipment. The school must, in such a case, ensure that what is measured is the pupil's permanent capital, with power behind it and a use to make of it (14:11, 14, 32).

Provision must be made for evaluating individual progress. The use of the results of evaluation, particularly of standardized tests, frequently tends to emphasize group rather than individual progress. Test scores, however valuable they may be, may have little meaning for evaluating the progress of a given individual, except when studied in relation to numerous other

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factors that influence his behavior. A personal, continuous record of every observation that may indicate growth of the individual should be provided with suggested means for its use.

The Eight-Year Study.- Most of the tests available when the Eight-Year Study began, especially the commercial standardized ones, were tests of the mastery of school subjects, measures chiefly of accretions of knowledge and proficiency in the use of skills. That was because education had prevailingly been conceived as learning school subjects, and there had been the naive assumption that, if one achieved a mastery of traditional subject matter of the school, he would almost surely be fitted thereby to live effectively. The Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study helped the thirty experimental secondary schools to discover, record, and report the progress of pupils toward the whole range of desired goals. The result was a signal achievement, instruments being devised for the determination of the pupil's progress in the aspects of thinking, social sensitivity, appreciation, interests, and personal and social adjustment (4:35-402).

A test or examination is merely an evaluating device. It is not an end in itself, but only a means to an end. Most tests have only relative validity and limited usefulness. It is only with a full knowledge of such limitations and with the ability to interpret results properly that the intelligent use of tests and examinations can be assured (7:141; 3:147).

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Behavior in Undirected Activities.- In most test situations pupils are motivated to a superior level of performance. They may be stimulated to a performance that is not typical of their normal activity. To the extent that this is true, tests are not a valid measuring device. Partly to overcome this limitation, and in order to evaluate types of outcomes for which tests are not available, observations may be made of undirected activities of pupils. Evaluation of pupil activities in situations which are not traditional testing situations may give better opportunities to evaluate the transference of educational results to normal life activities. It gives a type of control to the evaluation of learning outcomes which classroom observation does not provide. Many qualities of the individual can be appraised best when the pupil is in situations where restraints have been removed and where false incentives are not present. It is in such situations that the affective nature of the individual is revealed. Emotional responses in the form of appreciations, attitudes, ideals, tastes, and interests are given an opportunity for free expression. Such situations not only give an indication of the reaction of the individual with reference to specific items, but a composite rating affords a picture of the individual with reference to his achievements in appreciations, interests, and ideals (28:204).

The technique of undirected activities may be used to measure interest. During his free time the pupil may give evidence as to the type and quality of music he prefers.

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Similarly, reading interests may be revealed from the books on his free reading list. Literature teachers have employed this technique in measuring the type of reading interests which pupils have. A record of books withdrawn from the library by each pupil for free reading may be some indication of the type of reading that is done. This is not a precise measure, obviously, but as supplementary information it has definite value, and advantage should be taken of the opportunity to use it.

Questionnaires to Pupils.- Questionnaires to pupils may provide opportunities for making responses which could not be obtained otherwise. Their use is most frequently confined to securing information on such matters as interests, attitudes, ideals, and tastes. Questionnaires may reveal the emotional condition or status of the individual or that type of behavior which is primarily emotional in nature. The same technique may be employed as a part of a regular test or examination, provided the pupils understand that they are reporting on attitudes and not upon facts.

Valuable use has been made of questionnaires in order to obtain the reaction of pupils and their attitudes toward social, political, and moral questions in general. Questionnaires have been part of surveys of youth to ascertain the quality of youth and problems of youth as a social group, as well as to determine the educational attainment of youth on problems of this type. In addition to those references made earlier in the study to the use of questionnaires by some of the investigations scrutinized,

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both the Regents' Inquiry (29:12) and the Educational Policies Commission (12:55, 324) utilized this technique.

Pupil Self-Evaluation

Pupil self-evaluation is in keeping with the idea of giving pupils experience in assuming responsibility for their own educational achievement. Pupils need experience in purposing and planning. Purposes function only when through his own efforts the pupil has identified himself with the purposes of the classroom. Assignments are most effective when they are self-imposed. Throughout, pupil activity is the center of emphasis.

Values of Pupil Self-Evaluation.- In keeping with this same point of view, emphasis may be given to pupil responsibility for evaluating achievement. Several values may be claimed for pupil experience in self-evaluation: (1) Responsibility for evaluation encourages pupils to visualize their objectives clearly and to keep them in mind. Not only are they encouraged to clarify objectives at the initiation of the undertaking, but also to follow these objectives as it progresses. (2) Responsibility for self-evaluation encourages pupils to become critical of their procedures and learning activities. Activities throughout the work will be gauged to the objectives to be achieved, thus making the execution of the experience more purposeful. Pupils are encouraged to plan not only the objectives and goals to be reached, but also the ways and means for attaining them. (3) Pupil responsibility for self-evaluation at the conclusion of the piece

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of work may place him in better position to think constructively concerning the next one to be undertaken.

Responsibility for self-evaluation helps fix responsibility for each of the other phases of the work. In fact, it encourages unification of the undertaking in the understanding of the pupil. After the pupil has developed a proper concept of evaluation, he will critically evaluate each step of his learning procedure in the light of its intended purposes. Realization of success attained from day to day may serve as a basis for modification and revision of plans for activities previously adopted.

The Eight-Year Study.- The thirty experimental schools of the Eight-Year Study found that use of real problems understood by the pupils engages their sympathy and enthusiasm from the beginning, making it possible for the pupils to see the value of what they are doing, and to learn how to evaluate their own work. Self-evaluation, in turn, leads to a desire to learn the things necessary for greater achievement (133).

The Role of the Teacher in Pupil Self-Evaluation.- Self-evaluation by the pupil requires considerable guidance on the part of the teacher. This guidance is essentially guidance in individual responsibility. In essence, it is assisting the pupil to ascertain the extent to which he has achieved the goals which he had set for himself. Emphasis upon self-evaluation gives the teacher an opportunity to guide the pupil to realize that growth comes through self-activity, and that purposeful activity makes for more effective growth. The pupil is encouraged to adopt

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goals, to strive to attain them, and to recognize the extent to which success has been achieved.

In the secondary schools of the communities described by the Educational Policies Commission, American City and Farmville (12:299, 333), and in the thirty experimental secondary schools of the Eight-Year Study (4:269), each pupil is a competitor, not of every other pupil in his group, but of himself, of his own potential achievement.

Provision for Continuous Evaluation.- Self-evaluation requires that the pupil review critically each stage of development in the procedure. He must realize that appraisal comes after purposing, after planning, and after executing plans; evaluation is continuous, occurring throughout the experience. The curriculum should provide for continuous evaluation, which is a continuous process, not merely one of a series of separate acts (4:459). This applies both with respect to the pupil's evaluation of his own activities and the teacher's evaluation of the results of instruction. While there may be special emphasis upon evaluation at the culmination of a series of activities, to reserve it for that occasion alone, or even principally, would tend to defeat the purposes of instruction (4:459; and 14:303).

In emphasizing self-evaluation, one does not forego all opportunities for teacher evaluation. Pupil self-evaluation suggests a slightly different form of pupil participation and increased initiative on the part of the teacher. This calls for a teacher responsibility different only in technique, not in amount.

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Chapter Summary

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Evaluation.- Somewhat in detail, the findings of this study with regard to evaluation, are as follows:

1. All of the selected investigations favor (a) the constant improvement of procedures for evaluating outcomes, (b) the making of systematic appraisals of the college achievements of former pupils, (c) the encouragement of staff members to consider the conduct of pupils in all school situations as revealing the nature and quality of the outcomes of the educational program, and (d) the systematic seeking of cooperation of parents and other members of the school community in evaluating the outcomes of the educational program.
2. The Regents' Inquiry firmly believes that the Regents' examinations in the state of New York should be abandoned.
3. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would favor the rating of teachers by the scholastic achievements of their pupils as revealed by standardized achievement tests.
4. The contribution nonpareil is that made by the Eight-Year Study, which evaluated progress toward the whole range of desired goals, including the so-called intangibles.

Like education, evaluation is a continuous process, an inherent part of the act of learning itself.

Provision should be made for the results of evaluation to be utilized in continuous revision of the curriculum. Evalua-

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tion should be concerned with the progress of pupils in the direction indicated by the stated aims of education. Moreover, every phase of the curriculum should be under constant evaluation in the light of the major purpose which it is to serve. The reason for evaluation of the program of secondary education is that it may make for a better integration of the individual, in order that he may develop to the utmost and thus make his contribution to the democratic society of which he is a member.

As if to aid in the process of isolation, numerous checklists and achievement tests have been devised as instruments for assessing the individual's efficiency of performance, not in terms of the wider context of social use or in terms of the adolescent's disposition to make wise use of the acquired facts and abilities, but in terms of his more restricted ability to reveal them upon demand. Hence, such acquisitions have not represented dynamic, functional learning. Teachers' efforts have often become so centered on these details that the youth as a personality and social being is thrust to one side. Thus, it must be admitted that, except for the Eight-Year Study, even the pragmatic investigations used evaluating devices consonant with a realistic philosophy.

The idealistic-pragmatic Pennsylvania Study used a rigidly realistic, scientific kind of measuring device. Likewise, the Co-operative Study attempted to determine the extent to which pragmatic objectives had been achieved by means of a realistic measuring device. The contribution par excellence is that made

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by the Eight-Year Study, which evaluated progress toward the whole range of desired goals, and which stressed pupil self-evaluation.

It is perhaps not too much to say, therefore, that developments thus far in the field of the psychology of learning have proceeded mainly in the service of the curriculum that was already in existence. They have made for a somewhat more economical administration of the traditional program of the school, but with only incidental efforts here and there upon the improvement of the objectives, the quality of instruction, or the means of evaluating those experiences.

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CHAPTER VII

INTERPRETATION AND SUGGESTED IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MAJOR INVESTIGATIONS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Introduction

In a democratic society, schools exist to help youth to grow into intelligent and self-directing members of the culture group, able and disposed to join with others in the continual task of remaking the common culture and life into something ever finer.

In a former era, the duties of the school were regarded as fully discharged when pupils were given instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and had received some training of such "faculties" as reason and memory. Until a little over a generation ago, pupils not interested in going to college, or not verbally-minded, simply dropped out of school and went to work. Now a quite different situation confronts education. Secondary-school enrollment has vastly increased. Formerly less than ten per cent of the youth of secondary-school age were enrolled in the typical school at that level; now the national average is around seventy per cent, with some states running as high as ninety-five per cent. Because of age requirements in compulsory attendance laws, those furthest removed from verbal-mindedness must now stay in school, often to the great regret of pupil and teacher. Clearly the remaking of the secondary school is demanded.

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Most of the selected investigations look with favor upon the pragmatic or instrumental philosophy of education (pages 82-3, 120, 147-8, 173-4 above). Taking the best of the contributions of the selected investigations, those most consistent with the pragmatic philosophy, organismic psychology, and the concept of democracy as a way of life, one has a picture of an ideal secondary school in 1947; of many a forward-looking secondary school five to ten years hence, 1952-57.

At the outset, the writer reiterates a statement made repeatedly in the course of this study, namely, that a valid philosophy of education should determine the objectives of secondary education, as indeed of any other level of education. Insistence that a school base its objectives upon a sound philosophy of education is perhaps the outstanding contribution of the Co-operative Study to the program of secondary education. Parenthetically, permitting each secondary school to have its own philosophy may seem atomistic. However, there are not so many different philosophies as there are administrators, for competent administrators and teachers throughout the country do not differ greatly in their philosophy of education.

Furthermore, with valid objectives grounded in a defensible philosophy of education, curricula and guidance techniques are organized and utilized to attain the objectives (29:159), and finally, the effectiveness of curricula and guidance is determined by appropriate evaluation devices (2:88; 4:xviii).

Contributions of the Philosophy of Pragmatism

According to pragmatism, the philosophy consistently followed by the Eight-Year Study, education is pupil-centered,

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which, by implication, would attach great significance to personality.

Education should give emphasis to the all-round development of the individual. To be well-adjusted, one must be mature emotionally, intellectually, morally, physically, and socially. Proper mental development would imply a desirable integration of all the outcomes of learning. The individual must grow in fundamental concepts, adequate insights, and understandings of facts and relationships. His affective nature is expanded so that he is motivated by the proper impulses, and habits and skills are sufficiently developed to give efficiency and desirable physical poise.

The personal experiences of the learner are the foundation of all learning. The philosophy of pragmatism fosters an interpretation of the nature of learning which places significance upon both the individual and the environment. The interests, purposes, and motives of individuals have such importance that continued adaptation of the individual can be assured only by proper personality development. Environment is of such significance in learning that one may say a wholesome environment is indispensable to desirable personality development. Learning involves the interplay of the individual and the environment in such a way that essentially it is a process of adaptation and continuous re-adaptation.

The emphases which pragmatism gives to such concepts as growth, experience, freedom, initiative, and self-expression

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make personality adaptation not only an outcome of education, but also a condition that must be maintained throughout the educative process, if results are to be maximum. In other words, pragmatism insists upon well-adjusted, mentally healthy personalities during the process of education.

According to the pragmatic philosophy of education, the conception of teaching is such that a premium is placed upon personality adaptation. The individual is considered a maturing organism, and the purpose of teaching is to organize and direct the environment in such a way as to make for maximum development in the most efficient manner. Teaching is so conducted that individuals will not only get the desired experience, but will be able to continue their education through the continuous reconstruction of experience. The pupil is to grow individually and socially, so that he will be able to participate in an evolving social order based upon the mutual recognition of the interests of all individuals.

The most fundamental tenet of pragmatism, running through all its variations, is simply this: the school exists for the pupil, not the pupil for the school. In order to arrive at tentative answers to educational problems, the maturing youth in democratic living is studied. To find out how individuals learn and develop, there is actual study of learning situations in schools or laboratories.

In recent years, the scope of education has all but become synonymous with development, as educators have recognized

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that pupils must acquire not only knowledge and skills, if they are to possess them, but also attitudes, self-appreciation, and correct behavior. Secondary schools are showing a deeper concern for the all-round growth of youth than have the schools of any other time. This concern is reflected in the statements of objectives, in the curricula, in the guidance program, and in the evaluation techniques employed.

Objectives of Secondary Education

The Meaning of Education.- The most salient statement which may be made about education is that it is life. Education is a part of the normal life of very human being. The educative process at its best involves activities that are lifelike in nature. Worthwhile educational outcomes and results contribute in a vital way to life and life-values. In fact, education may be considered one of the "life processes" of the human individual. Just as there are certain indispensable vital processes of life in a biological sense, so education may be considered a vital process in a social sense. Education is indispensable to normal living; without education, the individual would be unqualified for group life.

The relation of education to life is emphasized by the fact that its aims are frequently stated in terms of the type or the quality of life considered desirable. Although there has not always been unanimous agreement upon the methods by which these aims are to be realized, they have been recognized as being vitally related to life. The art of living has been a goal of

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education since the time of Plato, who believed that education was the only possible way for the maintenance and improvement of society.

The idea that education has implications for social life is as old as education itself. The form of its expression has undergone frequent revisions, but the origin of the idea may be traced to antiquity. There has been a striking parallel between the development of education and the advance of civilization. If justice, well-being, peace, and progress are to characterize the civilization of the future, there is reason to believe that the demands upon education will be even greater than they have been in the past. Although an uneducated citizenry is indispensable to either the authoritarian or democratic type of social organization, maximum progress in the latter society places an unusual premium upon the maximum education of each individual. Moreover, the secondary institution as the school of all the children of all the people recognizes and provides for all types of intelligence or ability, whether abstract, social, mechanical, or any combination thereof.

Definition of Objective.- The definition of objective used throughout this study is the third in the Dictionary of Education (118:278), "a desired change in the behavior of a pupil as a result of experience directed by the school."

The Changing Objectives of Secondary Education.- Few schools are content with the single objective of passing out information to pupils; they manifest concern about the physical and mental

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health of their pupils, about attitudes and abilities, about skills in human relations, about appreciations and understandings, and about a philosophy of life. There is a sound psychological basis for the concern of the school about the friends a pupil makes, his face-to-face reactions with others, his life on the playground, the clubs and group organizations into which he is taken, the teams he "makes," and about his reactions to all other phases of the school environment that may affect him.

The modern school must conceive the primary function of education to be that of providing opportunities for youth under guidance to create and re-create their lives. It is all-important that schools, including colleges, make explicit the democratic values by which Americans seek to live and the ultimate criteria upon which the solutions of the problems of the common life are based. These reduce, first, to an abiding faith in the worth and uniqueness of each individual, a respect for his integrity, and his right to self-development irrespective of the accidents of birth; secondly, to the principle of mutuality in living which contrasts alike with individualism and collectivism, and a conviction that self-realization is attained only when employed on behalf of the self-realization of another. Finally, these principles require as a means to their adequate realization a training in the unbiased search for truth.

The School Exists for the Pupil.- The basis for operating a school should not be a set of routines for handling youth en masse with maximum convenience. It should be an organized yet

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flexible plan for giving effective educational service to youth as individuals and citizens, taking cognizance of their abilities, needs, and proclivities (9:44-5).

The Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association assumed that the processes and goals of education should be relevant to the needs of the learner as he interacts with his social medium. The purpose of general education is to provide rich and significant experiences in the major aspects of living, so directed as to promote the fullest possible realization of personal potentialities, and the most effective participation in a democratic society (3:5).

Valid educational objectives are reached on the basis of considered judgment utilizing evidence regarding the demands of society, the characteristics of pupils, the potential contributions which various fields of learning may make, the social and educational philosophy of the school, and what is known from the psychology of learning as to the attainability of various types of objectives (4:16).

Two points should be observed in the consideration of these ideas in relation to the educational programs. In the first place, these ideas are inter-related and point the direction of educational effort. The idea of unitary development directs attention to the fundamental objective of the school, namely, promotion of continuous all-round development of adolescents in democratic living (3:5, 178). It is the development of the whole individual in democratic living that will contribute to a richer

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and fuller life. The ideas of individual differences, the experience curriculum, and purposeful learning direct attention to the fundamental basis for constructing educational procedures designed to promote continuous all-round growth of individuals in democratic living. In other words, these ideas are "guide posts" in the proper education of adolescents and are not to be considered as methods or techniques in any sense.

In the second place, these ideas do not contemplate revolution in education; rather, they point the way to evolution, and to further study of the educational problems.

Secondary-School Curriculum

Introduction.- In the field of curriculum-making, educators no longer endeavor to work out a curriculum for all pupils in some college room or office far removed from the pupils. They actually go into the school room and try out certain curricular materials and experiences, in order to determine to what extent these materials and experiences promote the development of youth in desirable ways.

Definition.- "If education is defined in terms of experience, the curriculum comprises all the experiences of pupils in school" (9:42).

Elimination of Rigid Compartmentalization.- Life has no fences or subdivisions. Yet the teaching of information about life falls into many compartments, and youth has been left with one of the most difficult tasks in the modern world, that of putting together a broad picture from the scattered pieces of

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scientific, social, and ethical information presented to him. It is probable that the old division of the school courses into subjects will have to be changed in order to aid young people to see the complete picture. Educators will also have to abandon the notion that education consists merely of learning facts. Education consists also of getting a broad understanding, and the cultivation of a reasonable, scientific, and ethical approach to life.

There must be more "elbow-room" in the curriculum. A pupil spends his time far better on a few broad, inclusive sequences than on a host of specialized courses. First, the former arrangement makes for vitality. Many broad interpretations and productive activities and experiences will not fit into the pigeonholes of the separate little "subjects," yet extensive interpretations and creative activities and experiences are the very substance of enlightenment. Secondly, a few broad, inclusive sequences make for flexibility. The broader the sequences, the more chances there are for individuals to follow their own interests at their own pace, and the less the necessity for everyone to move abreast, all without disrupting the framework.

Relevance to Current Living.- If the problems of youth are properly, adequately, and honestly met, the curriculum must be organized around problems of common living, rather than around the conventional subject pattern. The center of instructional gravity is to be found in the major functions of social life. Therefore, the school must turn its attention away from answer-

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ing questions that people no longer ask to searching for solutions to the issues of the day.

School work should be relevant to current living (8:154, 228). This, of course, is a commonplace, and a very old one; and anyone who questioned it would be extremely bold. But the pragmatists have featured it with special urgency and in a special sense. They claim that the study of current events and, as far as possible, actual participation in current events, should be an important part of the work of the school, that it should be prominent in the curriculum (2:7). It is a praiseworthy and honest attempt to honor in action the much-quoted, much-ignored precept: non scholae sed vitae.

General Education.- The following material on general education, including vocational education and work experience, is a synthesis of suggestions found in the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the Eight-Year Study, the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report.

The most distinctive feature of the emerging secondary school is perhaps the provision made for what is increasingly called general education or core curriculum, giving experiences in intelligent participation in the experiences of life that are shared by all people, for general living in a modern democratic community (7:229; 12:23-338; 25:12; 28:285; 29:5; 13:4, 12-13, 51, 80, 85, 98-9).

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It is here contemplated that this can best be given as a single core either under a single teacher with a class of approximately thirty pupils working on the activity basis, or under a group of teachers working as a unit in preparation of teaching materials. The various teachers would alternate in teaching the groups, each teacher teaching that area of the larger unit in which he has the greatest competence. The time devoted to this activity may well be three-fourths of the whole day for the seventh grade and tapering off to one-fourth or one-third the day for the twelfth grade. Furthermore, it might be well for an all-round successful teacher to be promoted with the class for a second year. If a group of teachers teaches the same group of pupils, the second arrangement suggested above, this would undoubtedly be done. By having the same group of pupils for a period longer than one year, the teacher or teachers have full opportunity to study each personality, his strength, his weaknesses, and his present growth.

The curriculum content assigned to this teacher or group of teachers would be the whole of the common work of these pupils this year, everything by way of common experience, study, and learning properly to be expected of these pupils during the year. Specifically, it should include the introduction of the youth to the cultural heritage, including the historic American outlook, the democratic ideals, good literature, science, music, art, a glance at architecture, and all the other things that these youth should be learning this year as they approach adulthood (2:138).

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One especial matter to be cared for would be an earnest attack upon the inter-cultural, inter-group problem to help eradicate tendencies toward bias, prejudice, antipathy, or discriminations; for otherwise democracy fails. For such work to be effective, family and community co-operation would have to be enlisted.

An understanding of interdependence, both as individuals in a community and as nations in a world community, is a theme that should run through every year from kindergarten through secondary school and college, an understanding based upon the pupil's immediate interests, his capabilities, and his potential attitudes. This interdependence, to be fruitful to all concerned, calls for understanding, sympathy, tolerance, and a spirit of friendly, unselfish co-operation. Well-adjusted, happy, human relationships in his early years in his immediate community will help a pupil lay a foundation upon which he will be able, when he matures, to build a conception of his social and political responsibility as a citizen of the American democracy. A friendly attitude toward a Chinese adolescent in his neighborhood would likely, if wisely fostered, carry over into a broader tolerant understanding of the Chinese people. A friendship formed for a German family, an understanding of their way of life, may later lead him to understand that German people are human beings who love, fear, and strive to improve their ways of living just as people in this country do.

Nor can one lose sight of the fact that America herself is a microcosm of individuals from many nations who, whether first-

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or second-generation citizens, need to be synthesized into its citizenship.

Parallel with the core work there will be the separate departments, much as they are now known. As the core curriculum especially serves the common elements of life and civilization, so the departments exist to give needed specialization. Some pupils will leave the secondary school for immediate vocational work, and will accordingly wish vocational preparation in the secondary school, as given by the appropriate department (24:155; 27:140-1; 28:285).

Other pupils, planning to go to college, will need special preparation either for college entrance or for college work, as given by other appropriate departments. Still others, including some from both the groups already named, will wish to follow some special interest, such as music or art or literature or writing, beyond what is given in the core (13:103), as offered by the appropriate departments.

If it is to fulfill its purpose of providing effective living for all adolescents, the secondary school must offer effective training for vocational life. Separate vocational secondary schools, however, seem both unnecessary and harmful. That all types of citizens may be able to work together for the common good, they should learn during the secondary-school age to work and play together. All should take the same core program, in which they work together on community matters. All should play and work together at games and "extra-curricular" activities.

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Along with this common activity, they can separate for their own specialized vocational work. To place vocational preparation in separate schools may foster anti-democratic snobbishness.

Work experience should be a regular part of this general education (12:192). To work under business conditions is, toward the close of the secondary-school period, an essential part of the shift from dependence on parents and home to the personal and financial independence of the maturing individual. It seems altogether wasteful for school buildings to be idle during the summer, when expenses for light and heat are reduced to a minimum. If there were a twelve-month school, and if each pupil attended school three of the four quarters, employers could probably utilize a sizable percentage of that one-fourth of the school population not attending school during that particular quarter. Such an arrangement would provide for the employer needing junior help an all-year, balanced supply of such help. Furthermore, it would reduce the keen competition resulting from turning into the junior labor market all junior help during the long summer school-vacation, as at present.

The Experience Curriculum.- One finds in the better school systems a curriculum division devoted to a continuous study of the curriculum as it relates to needs and interests of adolescents in community life. These studies have evolved the idea of a curriculum in terms of youth's experiences in democratic living. This idea of the curriculum in relation to youth's experiences in community life not only reshapes the school curriculum in terms

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of individual differences, but provides for realistic experiences in place of the arbitrary school subjects. Adolescents have an opportunity to study better ways of living in life outside the school.

The curriculum of the secondary school must reflect the comprehensiveness of life itself. As with increasing growth and development, the life-experiences of the adolescent reach further into the community, and beyond the community out into the world; the curriculum must be prepared to follow. The school must naturally select from the current experiences of youth those which are most significant, and it must add to them significant experiences which it regards as necessary. However, the school must select and add, and it must guide in such a way that the youth's total living is clarified, meaningful, amenable to direction, and influenced in the right direction. Whatever the school does must influence the life of youth in its entirety, and school activities, by whatever other criteria they are chosen, must be germane to the life-experiences of youth in their progressive development.

The curriculum is constantly in the making (8:274; 9:44, 130; 26:180; 28:262). Within the relatively permanent categories of the life-process, experiences are changing. Relationships change; a new culture and new activities are constantly in the process of development. Even for the same pupil an advancing curriculum must be continuously planned. It is impossible, therefore, to set down with finality, except in terms of generaliza-

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tions, what experiences should make up the curriculum. This must be a function of the culture in which the school exists and more particularly of the community in which it is located, of the experiential backgrounds and needs of the youth with whom it deals, and of the current and perhaps unexpected happenings which affect it. In the continuous curriculum-planning enterprise, pupils must participate. The opportunity of the pupils to share in the selection of educatively valuable experiences is perhaps as important as the subsequent analysis and reconstruction of these experiences. The experiential substance of the curriculum, therefore, must be an outcome of co-operative pupil- and teacher-effort.

If one believes that the individual grows only through the modification of his experience, it is important that the learner have a part in planning and selecting his learning experiences. This part must go deeper than merely deciding which subjects to pursue. It must become one of the major sources for the determination of the content of the materials of instruction. If individual experience is of major importance in learning, the learner must participate in selecting educative experiences; if only accumulated information is important, there is no place for the learner in selecting curriculum content.

The experience curriculum brings about a union of the school and community, so long separated, and in so doing provides a curriculum in terms of community life. Educators have seen this idea worked out in terms of projects, units, activities, problems,

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cores, and other terms. These are only names for curriculum movements going on at different times, each employing some particular phase of the major idea. These studies, more-or-less separate and independent, although partial, are gradually evolving a curriculum in terms of pupils' experiences in real community life.

The experience and most forward-looking core curricula have this in common; they both provide experiences closely related to the life problems of youth. However, the experience curriculum attempts to use life problems, such as international relations discussed above, as a basis for the organization of groups, instead of accepting an organization based upon grade placement. The reason for grouping according to life problems is that a need such as the need for an increasing sense of social responsibility (208:205), or for developing and maintaining good health and physical fitness (12:225), to cite but two examples, does not happen by grade levels.

By way of summary, an experience curriculum may be defined as a series of purposeful experiences growing out of pupil interests and moving toward an ever more adequate understanding of an intelligent participation in the surrounding culture and group life.

Although even in the thirty experimental secondary schools of the Eight-Year Study there was found no experience curriculum, it is perhaps not too much to hope that it will be the curriculum of the progressive secondary school five to ten years hence, as

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it is of the ideal secondary school in 1947.

Conclusion.- The emerging secondary-school curriculum is a flexible framework within which the principle of democratic education, democratic disciplines, and democratic forms of living can find full expression.

Methodology

Although the selected investigations give only hints as to methodology, a brief section on the subject is included at this point.

Purposeful Learning.- Closely paralleling the curriculum movement has been the activity movement in American education. This movement had its inception in psychological laboratories devoted to the study of how children learn and develop in accordance with human nature. Out of these studies has gradually evolved the idea that purposeful learning is the basis of desirable living and development. Experimental studies seem to indicate that this type of activity is in harmony with human nature and democratic living.

For some time experiments devoted to a study of the normal development of the individual have evolved the idea of purposeful learning. Along with these studies various plans have been devised and tried out by different individuals to carry out this idea in classrooms. There have been in succession the problem method, the project method, the activity method, the discussion method, and others. It should be recognized that these proposed classroom procedures are labels for attempts to carry out the

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idea of purposeful learning. From these studies and others to come, classroom procedure will gradually evolve in terms of guidance of purposeful learning along fruitful lines. Thus, youth will have an opportunity to develop under the guidance of teachers in the procedures of democratic living; that is, will learn how to choose wisely, plan their work intelligently, execute their plans effectively, and finally judge their own successes and failures.

Unitary Development.- Perhaps the idea of greatest importance is the idea of unitary development of adolescents. This idea directs attention to the fact that in every situation many learnings, for good or bad, take place simultaneously and, consequently, many developments along good or bad lines ensue. The effective classroom teacher will focus his attention on all these developments. He will see his pupils developing emotionally, intellectually, morally, physically, and socially at one and the same time in every classroom situation. His efforts will be to further all of these developments simultaneously in each pupil under his guidance.

This idea, like individual differences, is having and will have in the future profound influence on education. Its influence is seen in giving long-due consideration to the development of the whole individual as contrasted to the piecemeal development, chiefly intellectual, formerly given. Classroom procedures will provide situations for the many-sided development of the pupils, and teachers will devote their efforts to furthering all these

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developments in each classroom situation.

In everything done, the teacher is mainly working to upbuild the personality of each pupil. This, from one angle, takes priority over all else; from another angle, it includes all else.

The Mental-Hygiene Approach.- The adolescent's sense of worth is in large measure dependent upon his security with others. The teacher who knows that, understands how his adult attitudes, both in the classroom and in individual relationships, may variously influence the adolescent in his acceptance of himself. The teacher is less concerned with a young person's success or failure as such in any given undertaking than with this circumstance as an expression of his developing personality as a whole.

Recognizing the increasing urgency of all adolescents to assure themselves of their worth, he is not concerned to deal summarily with the boastful, conceited, or snobbish youth. He does not attempt, by "dressing down" the pupil who thus makes a nuisance of himself, to compel him to adapt himself forthwith to the needs of others. To be sure, it normally is salutary for the adolescent to meet the social consequences of his conduct. But it is also significant for the teacher's guidance in such a situation that the young person who is over-assertive is, in fact, probably more than usually uncertain of his adequacy. While manipulating the classroom situation so that others are not unduly disturbed, the teacher does well to seek means whereby the troublesome youth may make worthwhile contributions to the group. He endeavors, also, to give such a pupil opportunity for friendly

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acceptance through conversation with one of his teachers, so that he may gain a firm basis on which to approach his problem of self-discipline.

Likewise a teacher resists the temptation to encourage other pupils in excessive compliance to school routines, to adult wishes. He recognizes that the adolescent who is over-conscientious, who is a slave to exactitude, who depreciates his attainments, or who is over-anxious to please may be in even greater need of help, in order to establish a sounder basis of security among others. With such aid he may come to acceptance of himself and apply himself constructively to a rounded development.

Hints Provided by the Eight-Year Study.- The thirty experimental schools sought to plan their curricula, based on adolescent needs, around the problems arising from the personal-social interactions of the individual in the various aspects of living. Using the categories of personal living, immediate personal-social relationships, social-civic relationships, and economic relationships, the schools attempted to determine basic adolescent needs in a given situation, and to design units of study to meet these needs in such a way as to develop the characteristics of personality (3:44).

The survey of the background of the pupils is a very important step in the process. It is made first by the teacher or teachers involved and includes a consideration of the curricular experience of previous years; the characteristics of the group as a whole; the specific strengths and weaknesses of each

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individual pupil; the economic, social, and cultural background of the parent group; and many other factors that seem important. This inventory is then repeated with the class as active participants, when planning with the group is undertaken (3:46).

After the analysis of the pupil's needs and interests in accordance with the best obtainable standards of social relationships, there follow (a) the defining of possible goals on the basis of these needs and interests, (b) the participation in experiences that offer opportunities for youth toward the desirable goals, and (c) the evaluation in terms of this growth on the part of pupil, parents, and teachers.

The selection of the specific problem is a task involving the co-operative effort of pupil and teacher. The preliminary planning found to be essential by many teachers can be done only in terms of large areas (3:47). A course designed on a problem basis will of necessity cut across many subject lines. Most problems of personal or group concern, or problems in human relations and daily living, do not usually fall into categorically defined subject areas.

The history of the development of the core courses based on adolescent needs shows that widening the areas of pupil participation is both practicable and profitable (3:48). Since the process of planning has great educational value, the wider the pupil's participation, the greater will be the benefits.

Analysis of any proposed work will show that, as a rule, it can be divided into separate parts, and these are apportioned

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to small groups as need and interest may demand. These small groups working together on their separate parts will make reports, or otherwise work for co-ordinating their efforts with the whole. In addition to this, a part of the time, not necessarily each day, is given to the individual to choose his own enterprise with less formal connection with the rest of the class (3:120-1).

An Illustration.- The timely study of international relations, recommended in the discussion of the core curriculum, may be introduced as individual interests may present openings, and determine the design, or as incidental happenings offer an advantageous approach. A neighborhood incident or one of national or international importance, a foreign visitor, a challenging speaker, a stirring editorial (on a controversial theme) or a cartoon, a human-interest story, an unusual accomplishment in science, literature, or art, a catastrophe - all these are master keys to the door of international interest.

In the secondary school an intensive study in problem-solving must include the broad and all-pervasive problem of international relations, whether related to tariffs, foreign exchange, raw materials, or armament construction. The possible major activities which may prove as motivating objectives are numerous: a series of radio broadcasts; open forums involving the whole community, notable racial group anniversaries, and others of special community interest; a pageant involving the whole school; and assembly programs.

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School assemblies have been capitalized to commemorate not only such memorable occasions as Armistice Day or Memorial Day, but also Pan-American Day, and the anniversaries of the inauguration of such world-wide co-operative services as are exemplified in the International Postal Union, the International Meteorological Service, the International Bureau of Standards, All these services afford excellent illustration of the fact that international co-operation and functional union are not only indispensable, but practicable. The conception and inauguration of these services illustrate what can be done when international problems are faced realistically and objectively rather than emotionally and subjectively. Yet the very existence of these agencies as examples of the benefits accruing from international co-operation, and as illustrations of the means for securing such co-operation and giving it expression in form and function, is almost unknown to most young people and their parents.

In every case the effective school program for peace starts at home with those people of foreign birth or extraction who make up the citizenry of the community and its environs, and who need to be understood appreciatively if they are to be integrally woven into the fabric of a creative and enlightened Americanism. A nation cannot take a place of leadership in promoting international understanding if it cannot even appreciate or tolerate the citizens of foreign birth or extraction within its own borders.

The city of Cleveland, Ohio, through its All Nations Council and annual All Nations Exposition has demonstrated the possibility

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of promoting international good will at home. Sponsored by the City Recreation Commission and local newspapers, the activities of the All Nations Council have been unusually successful in promoting those qualities of tolerance and human understanding which are basic to any long-range program of education for peace. Moreover, the work of the Council has resulted in developing a distinctive community spirit and creative and enlightened civic culture.

In 1927 the Cleveland Press in co-operation with the City Recreation Commission sponsored a public festival to bring together national groups having a background of more than twenty-five years of activity in Cleveland. The festival was entitled "The Dance of the Nations," since folk-dancing formed a common interest of all the foreign culture groups. Before an audience of fourteen thousand in the vast Public Hall, eight hundred dancers, male and female, performed with their respective orchestras. They showed the citizens of Cleveland that each country's dances are beautiful and worthy of perpetuation in America.

In the first All Nations Exposition held in 1930 there were twenty-nine full-size reproductions of old-country homes, with some fifty thousand handmade articles, the majority of them loaned by foreign-born residents of Cleveland. Here, too, were twenty kitchens where visitors could buy typical foreign foods. In consequence, the foreign-born residents and their children have a stronger sense of belonging in the community. Prejudice and clan consciousness have been reduced, and the citizens who emigrated

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at an earlier date and have sometimes regarded themselves as pure Americans now hold their foreign neighbors in greater esteem. By developing an appreciation of the culture groups in their own midst the people of Cleveland have also developed a larger appreciation of the foreign nations which they represent. The only regrettable feature of the program is the relatively insignificant role which the schools of Cleveland have played in this important project.

Conclusion.- The method to be followed is that of life itself, so far as this is possible under school auspices; for people of whatever age learn for living purposes what they actually live as they in their hearts accept it for the purpose of living. This living should, specifically, not stay in the school-room but reach out into the surrounding community to allow youth to live with social problems and activities, some in shared efforts with important adults in the community; for nothing is more educative to youth than real sharing with adults in significant social activities.

Guidance Service in Secondary Schools

Definition.- The third definition of guidance given in the Dictionary of Education (118:194) is as follows: "an important method in progressive teaching by which the teacher leads the child to discover and make a desired response of his own will."

The Importance of the Pupil.- Teaching should be adjusted not to the subject, but to the pupil. The job of teaching is to get people to learn as fast and as well as possible. However,

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since everyone learns in his own way, the closer the teacher can get to the individual learner, and the more intelligently he can adapt his processes to that learner, the better the job will be done. Teaching is the art, not of presenting subjects, but of influencing and directing the processes of learners.

The principles upon which American life is based regard human personality highly. Ideally, at least, the American way of life places a supreme premium upon the inherent value of human personality. Theoretically, this point of view manifests itself in every phase of life. Although it has not been completely attained in the educational program, it is an ideal worthy of the best efforts of every teacher in the profession.

The Importance of Personality Adaptation.- The point of view has been maintained throughout this chapter that education is concerned with personality development. Education is concerned with effecting changes and modifications in behavior, which may be referred to as adaptations or adjustments in personality. The test of an educational program is the extent to which it prepares individuals for the activities of life. The marks of an educated person are his behavior traits in action. Education is interested, then, in developing such personality traits in individuals as will make for the most desirable behavior in life situations.

Modern education is interested in producing adaptable personalities. Personality must be active, flexible, and adjustable in order to cope with a modern world that is complex and rapidly changing. The individual must be prepared to meet new situations

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and he must be able to adjust himself to the need for new modes of behavior in new situations. He must also be able to participate effectively in groups which may call for different types of co-operative effort (3:231).

Modern education calls for well-rounded personalities. A one-sided personality cannot meet the demands of modern life. In the simple life of primitive times, many institutions contributed substantially to the education of the individual; consequently, the school could limit its interests to the education of the intellect. The day is past when the school can legitimately limit its concern and interest merely to the intellectual development of the individual (3:129-30; 7:206; 8:360; 9:129). The school must be concerned with the complete growth of the individual; this includes emotional, ethical, physical, and social maturity. Not only must these phases of life be expanded, but they must be developed into integrated harmoniously-working personalities.

Personality Problems of Adolescence.- Adolescence is peculiarly a personal age. Some personality problems of adolescence are due to normal growth and development, whereas others are brought about by the individual's striving to attain adult status.

As a period in life, adolescence has received recognition and considerable emphasis because of the discrepancies in the age at which pupils attain maturity in the different phases of life. That is to say, biological, educational, emotional, intellectual, physical, and social maturity do not all come at the same time.

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Perhaps the greatest discrepancy comes with the relatively late educational and economic maturation. With America's industrial and technological advancement, adolescents have been relieved of the necessity of seeking early employment (1:iii-iv). The recent problems of unemployment of junior workers have further delayed the economic independence and maturity of adolescent youth. The need for a higher level of educational preparation in many walks of life, together with the increased leisure of youth which gives opportunity for such training, delays the educational maturation of many adolescents.

Adjustive Services of the Secondary School.- Although all education involves making adaptations, adolescent education does so in a peculiar way. In the effort to individualize and personalize the program of education, the school is especially concerned with the acquisition of certain adaptive functions on the part of adolescents (3:5). This adjustive service of the school is magnified for two reasons. First, adolescents are approximating maturity, and any effort at final finishing touches is timely. Secondly, by the time adolescence appears, differences in individuals have attained such proportions that problems must be met individually.

These adjustive services to adolescent education may be thought of, then, as instructional services of the school. They provide maximum opportunities for each individual. They may be conceived as an attempt to provide all-round education giving attention not only to a complete education, but also to assur-

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ances of maximum development of the individual under the most wholesome conditions of mental health.

Guidance and counseling involve assistance which enables pupils to meet crises and to make choices in critical situations. Guidance and counseling are called for by the unique problems arising from the inadequacies of mass instruction.

Guidance may be on a group or on an individual basis. Where several pupils have need for the same type of assistance, the group method is employed for economy's sake. Many guidance cases involve problems which are personal and unique. In all such cases the individual method would be more appropriate. All true guidance has the point of view of improving the pupil by helping him to help himself (7:68, 200).

Demands for Guidance.- The purpose of guidance is to assist pupils to live and meet the problems of life. The need for guidance arises from the conditions of life with which pupils are faced. In brief, one might say that the demands for guidance come from two conditions: (1) the complex nature of the world, and (2) individual differences among pupils. Human beings would need little help in a simple life, but in a complex life much assistance is needed. If all individuals had similar interests, needs, and abilities, their problems could be met without much individual assistance (24:107, 189-90). There are problems of guidance, then, because teachers are attempting to help pupils who are heterogeneous in their characteristics to adjust themselves to a world that is diverse and complex in nature.

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Guidance as a Philosophy.- Guidance is a type of service or assistance given to the individual. Briefly stated, guidance may help the individual (1) to understand himself, (2) to study the conditions of life with a view toward making his place therein, and (3) to prepare to make adjustments that are desirable.

Guidance is, as already suggested, a necessary part of the complete secondary school. Moreover, it cannot be separated from the everyday work of the classroom (2:136).

An Illustration.- The parents of each pupil entering the Lincoln School, New York City, fill in a comprehensive Home Information blank for the school. The information given aids in the proper placement of the pupil and serves various guidance purposes.

Every year each teacher in the secondary school is required to submit a summary statement of his impression of the pupil's achievement. Special problems, need for remedial work, and suggestions for better social adjustment are usually included by the teacher most closely in contact with the home life of the pupil. Each teacher is provided with small printed slips on which he records evidences of significant pieces of work, contributions to classroom discussions, or special contributions to the social life of the school. These slips are sent to the secondary-school office and placed in the pupil's folder.

The psychologist's office developed special Personality Inventory forms, which in addition to the questionnaires prepared by teachers, aid in discovering the pupil's range of interests

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and power to interpret relevant data.

A careful record is kept of all interviews with pupils from the time of their admission to the school. When an adviser has a conference with a pupil dealing with a special problem, a summary of the interview is kept on file in the adviser's records (6:479).

Perhaps the most effective way of knowing and counseling individuals has been found by those schools which have developed core programs dealing with the common concerns and problems of their pupils (2:37-9). The counselor is also the "core" teacher. Two hours each day are usually devoted to the units which comprise the core curriculum. Thus the counselor inevitably becomes aware of the pupils' concerns, for they are the subjects of study and investigation. Always the pupil has the guidance of his "core" teacher, not only in choosing subjects of study and various sorts of pupil organizations, but in matters of a more intimate, personal nature (2:62). As the "core" teacher enters into the pupils' lives through helping them with their problems of living, he becomes truly their counselor, guide, and friend.

Conclusion.- Guidance formerly was not a special function of the secondary school. Now it is an essential function of the modern secondary school, not only for educational and vocational guidance but - equally, if not more important - also for personal guidance in both personal-psychologic matters and in the individual-social adjustment realm.

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Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils

Significance of Evaluation.- School experiences of pupils involve principally the forming of purposes, and the making, executing, and evaluating of plans for attaining these purposes. Evaluation is a necessary concomitant of the broadening concept of secondary education. A comprehensive check-up on the results of school work includes not only the evaluation of knowledge and skills, but also the examination of attitudes and appreciation, of the ability and the disposition to apply skill and knowledge in immediate daily living.

Continuous Evaluation.- Evaluation as a continuing phase of every school activity is important, precisely because every effective teacher constantly examines his methods and teaching materials in the light of his purposes. Evaluation of the proper kind is simply doing regularly and systematically what good teachers do intuitively and irregularly. Too many times in school a textbook, a course, or an annual program continues its existence in the school because of sheer inertia. It has always been done this way! Not often enough do teachers stop their frenzied activities long enough to check by means of a few fundamental searching questions: "What was I trying to do?" "Should I have let the pupils help me decide what we should have done instead of making them take it as I had planned it?" "Was it a success?" "I enjoyed it, and they enjoyed it. Is that enough?"

The most desirable type of evaluation in any school work is planned from the beginning. The initial planning period is the

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time for a teacher to ask himself seriously what kind of standards he will use to determine whether the work is a success. Moreover, the kind of standards he uses will depend upon his philosophy of secondary education.

Need for New Devices.- In recent years secondary-school curricula have been reconstructed so that they include more comprehensive and so-called intangible objectives of instruction (8:121-2; 9:44-5, 48, 58). The older and major emphasis on mastery of information and associated skills has been supplemented by such newer objectives as pupil growth in desirable attitudes, interests, appreciations, powers of critical thinking, and creative expression. This reconstruction of the curriculum has demanded a corresponding reconstruction and expansion in methods of evaluation. Curricular objectives have tended to develop more extensively than corresponding instruments of evaluation; hence, many educators are sensing the need for new instruments of evaluation.

An example of a new program of evaluation at the secondary-school level may be cited from the work carried on by Tyler and the Evaluation Staff for the Commission on the Relation of School and College (2:38; 4:xviii). As stated in the preceding chapter, the Evaluation Staff helped the thirty experimental schools to discover, record, and report progress of pupils toward the whole range of desired goals. Instruments, including tests and questionnaires, were devised for the determination of the pupil's progress in the aspects of thinking, social sensitivity,

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appreciation, interests, and personal and social adjustment (4:35-402). In addition to tests and questionnaires, informal conversations, stenographic records, minutes of staff meetings, and the pupils' creative expression served as material for evaluation.

Self-Evaluation.- Just as the only real education is self-education, likewise the only genuine evaluation is self-evaluation, which is a means for stimulating the development of each member of the class. Pupils develop most effectively when they work toward goals that are clear and meaningful to them. It is therefore important for the class a a whole to discuss frankly the purpose of their program and for each member of the group to define, with the help of the teacher, the particular objective toward which he needs to strive. The pupil finds healthy stimulus to self-development in noting his progress and in its recognition by others, as well as in understanding wherein he falls short of his potential accomplishment. Therefore, he should, in conference with the teacher, set up goals toward which to direct his efforts. If these are consonant with his individual capacities and express not only the educator's concept of objectives for him but his own purpose as well, he is likely to be able to apply himself to progressive development in competence (3:145).

It is manifest, also, that some form of testing may have a serious effect upon the young person's evaluation of himself, whether he tend to be over-assertive or self-depreciative. Yet it has been suggested that, in order to plan its procedures

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intelligently, the school must evaluate them continuously. The educator who is aware of the influence his appraising attitudes may have upon the pupil's sense of personal worth seeks to devise means of evaluation that indicate growth in the light of individual capacities.

Judging Progress.- The following are suggested as desirable criteria of judging progress: (1) Is the adolescent interested in what he is doing? If not, there is something wrong with the teaching or with him. (2) Is this interest increasing? If it remains about the same or declines, something is wrong. (3) Does the youth show improvement in conceiving what to do? In carrying out his conceptions? (4) As the adolescent works at this experience, does it "sprout" other interests? If not, then something is wrong. (5) How significant are these other interests for the democratic way of life, and how all-round is the democratic way of life that the youth is making for himself out of his interests?

An Illustration.- Using the example suggested in connection with the discussion of the core curriculum, namely, international relations, the writer makes the following suggestions on an evaluation thereof: (1) A questionnaire may be devised to try to find out how much the pupils valued the experience in international relations, which parts of the work they enjoyed most, and why they thought spending time on international relations important. (2) At the conclusion of the study of international relations, the pupils may be asked to write whether the purposes of pupils

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and teacher had been achieved. (3) The "core" teacher or teachers may do well to ask themselves such searching questions as (a) Has the pupil's interest in reading material on international affairs increased? (b) Does the pupil voluntarily contribute information or an opinion more frequently? (c) Does the pupil show less tendency to accept what he hears or reads? (d) Does he more frequently challenge intelligently? (e) As the discussions in the group develop, does the pupil show less strongly inherited prejudices or biases? (f) Does the pupil jump to conclusions, or does he seek for logical results based on facts presented? (g) Does he give greater indication of weighing facts as he reads foreign news? (h) Does the pupil give evidence of knowing which writers, associations, and organizations carry weight in statements on foreign affairs? (i) Does the pupil show greater consideration for others? (j) Is the foreign-born or second-generation pupil less sensitive about his home and parents? (k) In a community where the proportion of the foreign element is large, does there seem to be more friendly community relationship?

Conclusion.- The proof of learning is in behavior. Objective tests and limited essay examinations are giving way to observational techniques for recording behavior. Problem-situation tests are being constructed. Evaluation is regarded as a part of instruction and as continuous; it is not a separate affair placed at the end of the learning sequence.

Pupil progress must be judged in the light of the objectives of secondary education. Since secondary schools are for all the

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children of all the people and consequently there is stress on pupil growth in attitudes, appreciations, interests, powers of critical thinking, creative expression, and ability and disposition to apply skill and knowledge in daily living, it is obvious that the evaluation must be based on these objectives. The secondary schools participating in the Eight-Year Study set up a list of worthwhile objectives, curricula by means of which to carry out the valid objectives, and devices for measuring the extent to which success therein had been achieved. They have set the pace; let those who can, and will, follow.

Chapter Summary

The philosophy that a school system typifies and puts into operation should determine to a large extent the objectives, curriculum, guidance, and type of evaluation program that will be used. It has been pointed out that what is needed is to accept a philosophy of education based upon the needs of the individual and the needs of the society of which he is a part, thus making the school an agent for the improvement of society; that the curriculum should provide for differences within and among individuals. Guidance work has to do with the discovery of needs not recognized as such by the person concerned. Learning is purposeful; it is a process by which experiences are changed, so as to become more serviceable for future guidance. Subject matter is an essential tool in the learning process, the materials with which pupils work in their learning activities. An effective evaluation program, being a definite and integral part of a

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curriculum program, will function within the framework of a philosophy of education. Ample use must be made of the wide variety of instruments available, in order to suit the broad range of objectives to be met. The objectives of secondary education are as broad as life itself and require a program of evaluation equally versatile.

The social, psychological, and philosophical dynamics have forced education to reconsider its premises and practices. They have compelled the secondary school to admit all youth, to canvass carefully their needs as a basis of reorganization, to use modern problems and the problem method, to become a democratic sociological unit, to base instruction on experience and to vary teaching according to the differences in purposes and powers of individuals. No less emphasis can be placed upon continuity, and the scope of activities must be widened, but the bases for defining the scope and sequence of learning experiences must transcend and even differ in kind from those used under the concept of traditional education. Guidance will take its place as an integral part of appropriate learning. In terms of these dynamics, the wholeness of the curriculum and of the instructional process will become a problem of the utmost importance.

The cycle of effective learning which starts with a fundamental philosophy of education, and goes on through the establishment of aims and the selection of appropriate content and methods, is not complete without the evaluation of the content, in order to determine whether the pupil has developed the competencies desired and

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whether the school has succeeded in reaching its objectives.

The emerging secondary school is based on persons as such, their life and their actual experiencing, stressing personality and relying on the behavior of the learner in a natural setting to build conceptions, attitudes, and habits - the essential constituents of mind and character. It emphasizes the whole personality, the whole organism in all the wholesome types of activity open to man. In short, the emerging secondary school seeks life, complete wholesome life, because only in actual experience does one live and only as one lives can he build effective all-round personality and character.

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CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY

Restatement of the Formulation and Definition of the Problem

Statement of the Problem.- The task undertaken by this study was a survey of selected significant aspects of the major surveys, investigations, and reports in the area of secondary education, in order to determine the contributions of each to the program of secondary education in the United States in 1947. Because each investigation attacked a specific problem of secondary education, the task in hand was to synthesize the contributions of the selected investigations by presenting a composite picture of the ideal secondary school in 1947, of many forward-looking secondary schools within the next decade.

Delimitation.- The study was limited to the contributions of each of the selected investigations, made during the decade and a half, 1930-1945, to four aspects of the program of secondary education, namely, objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation.

Not included were studies of national scope (1) limited to a specific content or subject-matter field and (2) concerned with the upward extension of the secondary school, the junior college, which is still in the making.

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A treatment of instructional method was omitted, because there is no systematic presentation of teaching procedure in the major investigations studied.

Primary Sources of Material.- The primary sources were nine investigations of national import, five of which are national in scope and materials covered, namely, (1) the National Survey, (2) the Report of the Committee on Orientation, (3) the Co-operative Study, (4) the Eight-Year Study, and (5) the Report of the Educational Policies Commission.

The remaining investigations, (6) the Maryland Study, (7) the Pennsylvania Study, (8) the Regents' Inquiry, and (9) the Harvard Report, while regional rather than national, have attracted nation-wide attention, are of national import, and are considered as valid for other regions as for the one dealt with in each investigation.

Agency Making Each Investigation, Date of Published Report, and Question Answered by Each Investigation.-

1. Between 1933 and 1935 the United States Office of Education published the National Survey of Secondary Education, a twenty-eight-monograph answer to the query, "What is the status of secondary education in the United States?"

2. In 1936 and 1937 the Committee on Orientation of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association published two reports to clarify the issues and functions of secondary education.

3. The Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards,

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sponsored by the six regional associations, in 1939 and 1940 answered the question, "What constitutes a good secondary school?"

4. Appearing in 1942 and 1943, the Report of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association dealt with the problem, "What constitutes satisfactory preparation for college?"

5. In 1944 the Educational Policies Commission published a reply to the question, "Without Federal control and management, how can adequate educational services be provided which will meet the basic needs of all American youth?"

6. "What is the reaction of youth who have been subjected to the educative process?" is the inquiry, the reply to which is found in the 1938 one-volume report of the American Youth Commission.

7. In the same year that the American Youth Commission published the Maryland Study, 1938, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching brought forth an answer to the question, "What does the student know?"

8. In eleven volumes that came out in 1938 and 1939 appears the answer to the inquiry, "Is the 'end product' of secondary education socially competent?"

9. "How can educators best provide education for unity in American democracy at the secondary-school and college levels?" is then answered in the Harvard Report published in 1945.

Secondary Sources of Material.- For background, those items in the bibliography under the caption "General" were utilized.

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Frequently, supplementary reprints and articles in periodicals reveal the philosophy underlying a given report. Likewise, fugitive, occasional, or marginal literature, pamphlets, and bulletins not of a serial order contain an amplification of the philosophies found in the reports.

Statement of Procedure.- To establish bases for the evaluation of the contributions of the investigations to four phases of secondary education (objectives, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation), three criteria were set up, namely, the philosophies of education, concepts concerning the nature of learning, and social theories.

Near the beginning of the discussion of each of the four aspects of the program of secondary education appeared the findings in tabular form. A discussion of the items found therein followed.

The presentation of suggested implementation of the contributions concluded the study.

Foundations or Criteria for Evaluating the Contributions of the Investigations

For background, there were set up three criteria by which the contribution of each investigation to each aspect of secondary education was evaluated, namely, philosophies of education, concepts concerning the nature of learning, and social theories.

These three criteria are closely connected and interrelated. A philosophy of education must take its place in a larger philosophical system, because education is in and of the

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world. Schools are established because the social group has values and preferences. Moreover, all educators hold beliefs relative to the nature of mind and theories of learning, as well as concerning the place, aims, and purposes of education in the current American social order.

Philosophies of Education.- As in every realm of endeavor, the field of secondary education faces many problems. Some of these exist because the solutions are not known; others, because practice lags behind the best thought of the time. The issues in secondary education can be dealt with only by a careful, systematic consideration of values. Bases for the evaluation of facts must be established, and techniques for arriving at valid conclusions must be perfected. These are the problems of philosophy.

Everyone has a philosophy, whether or no he wills it. Whether it is an unconscious, inconsistent philosophy or a conscious, consistent philosophy depends upon the individual. The most significant considerations in educational philosophy were presented as three major but conflicting systems: idealism, realism, and pragmatism.

The Nature of Learning.- Psychology provides philosophy with answers to such questions as the meaning of interest, the nature of the learning process and of thinking, the significance of individual differences in abilities and their nature and types, of differences in rates of growth and development, organization of curriculum content, methods of instruction, and the meaning

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of nature and growth.

Although there is a present tendency (1947) toward an integration of all theories of learning, there was a period when workers in the field were divided rather sharply into schools of psychology. Such schools arose from relative emphasis on various points. The study in hand stresses dominant ideas. This does not imply that ideas of other schools are rejected in toto. Schools shade into each other by degrees; none is all black or all white.

Based on each of the three major philosophies of education is a psychology, a theory of learning. Consistent with idealism is a vitalistic psychology; with realism, a mechanistic theory; and with pragmatism or instrumentalism, an organismic or field psychology.

Social Theories.- Education gives heed to the nature of learning and of individual development in order to achieve its social aims. The school is a social institution to aid the state in integrating the young into the pattern of social living. The school can sponsor no program which society itself does not accept; it cannot be conservative, behind society; it must constantly reinterpret and reformulate its program and

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goals; it must analyze society and become a member of a group constantly working to improve living conditions.

However contradictory to the democratic principle it may seem, in the study of the selected investigations the writer found it necessary to distinguish education for the masses from education for the classes.

In aims and curriculum, the early Latin Grammar School was the European humanistic school carried to the New World. Although occasionally free, the Latin Grammar School was not the school of the people but of the social élite, not of the masses but of the classes. Generally its basic aim, although not always stated, was the training of an intellectual élite for the service of church and state.

The increased assumption of the responsibility to provide secondary education for all young people seems to be in harmony with the democratic aspirations of the American people.

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Objectives

The objectives of secondary education are determined by a philosophy of education, a concept concerning the nature of learning, and a social theory.

1. There is a certain amount of unanimity of opinion among the eight selected investigations. (Because the National Survey set up no list of objectives, it is not included in this discussion.) Positively, all of them believe (a) that education primarily is is self-development, and (b) that it should prepare chiefly for social-civic activities.

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Negatively, none of the selected investigations believes (a) that the school should strive to develop in its pupils that hardy and rugged individualism which characterized early American life; (b) that education should prepare chiefly for individualistic-avocational activities; (c) that education primarily is adjustment to conditions or mastery of environment; (d) that as its principal goal education should seek physical or mental health, self-discipline, happiness, or mental discipline; or (e) that the school should seek to make its pupils more alike.

2. The Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report agree that it is highly important that education preserve the long-established and enduring educational aims and objectives. Negatively, neither of these investigations is committed to the pragmatic viewpoint that education should work toward the goal of teaching and learning things when the need for them arises in life experiences.

3. Neither the Pennsylvania Study nor the Harvard Report takes the position that education should emphasize practical values as much as cultural values. On the other hand, the Maryland Study, concerned with vocational competence, is committed to the point of view that education should emphasize chiefly practical values. The remaining five investigations that set up lists of objectives believe that education should emphasize both practical and cultural values. While all investigations profess to believe that education should prepare for social-civic activities, only five of them think that education should prepare for both social-civic

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and economic-vocational activities, the Co-operative and Pennsylvania Studies and the Harvard Report comprising the minority.

4. Six investigations, namely, the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the Co-operative, Maryland, and Pennsylvania Studies, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report, are of the opinion that the purpose of education should be essentially to prepare youth for well-rounded adult life.

5. According to the Co-operative, Eight-Year, and Maryland Studies, as its principal goal education should seek both personal character and social efficiency, with self-integration added by the Eight-Year Study. The Committee on Orientation, the Educational Policies Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and the Harvard Report choose social efficiency as the principal goal of education; the Pennsylvania Study, personal character.

6. All of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study excepted, regard knowledge, understanding, and skills as means rather than ends, and emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes. Those things which the other investigations consider means rather than ends, the Pennsylvania Study emphasizes.

For the most part, the objectives of secondary education presented by the investigations examined: (1) are appropriate for a dynamic, changing world, (2) are suited to a heterogeneous school population, (3) combine the fitting with the finishing function of the secondary school, (4) give basic consideration to the needs of the individual, (5) encourage the promotion of

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a democratic society, and (6) are stated in terms of types of changes appropriate for both the individual and society. The objectives of American secondary education are the raison d'être of curriculum, guidance, and evaluation.

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to the Curriculum

The curriculum represents a plan of activities by and through which pupils achieve the aims of education. The foundations of such a plan must be grounded upon a modern educational philosophy and the findings of the nature of individual and social processes. Curricula described in the nine investigations considered in this study run the gamut from the traditional subject curriculum to the experimental core curriculum, with correlated, fused, and broad-fields curricula between the extremes.

1. There is some unanimity of opinion among the selected investigations concerning the curriculum. Positively, all of them believe (a) that education is a developmental process, and that it is attained only through activity and initiative on the part of the learner, and (b) that the content of the curriculum should be general (informational and cultural) and should consist, at least in part, of a study of the problems and relationships of present society.

Negatively, none of the selected investigations believes (a) that the pupil should be taught what rather than how to think, or that he should be simply afforded opportunities to think; (b) that the pupil should be free to determine entirely

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his own activities and experiences; or (c) that the content of the curriculum should be largely preparation for more advanced education, for entrance into vocational life, or for home-making and family life.

2. As was true of objectives, so here the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report are frequently in agreement. For example, both investigations incline toward the viewpoints (a) that courses in the classics and in mathematics still remain among the most effective agencies of mental development in the pupil; (b) that those responsible for the policies of the school should determine the nature and content of the curriculum, and that the pupil should be required to master the curriculum thus determined for him; and (c) that the content of the curriculum should consist of the racial heritage as well as of a study of the problems and relationships of present society. Likewise, neither investigation would favor the substitution of "activities" for "subjects" in the school curriculum, or the point of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum.

3. Four investigations (the National Survey, the Committee on Orientation, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report) tend to believe (a) that the pupil profits largely in the degree that there is logical organization of the materials of instruction presented to him, and (b) that the finer phases of culture are best pursued for their own sake, and should, on the whole, be kept separate from matters of practical and vocational development.

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4. Two investigations, the Eight-Year Study and the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, are of the opinion that it is impossible to predict the adult needs of the contemporary school population with sufficient accuracy to justify an educational program based on minimum essentials of subject matter.

5. While the Co-operative, Eight-Year, and Maryland Studies and the Regents' Inquiry take the stand that the pupil should be taught how rather than what to think, the remaining five investigations believe that he should be taught both what and how to think.

6. Although all of the selected investigations, the Pennsylvania Study and the Harvard Report excepted, take the point of view that the pupil should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum, the Eight-Year Study believes that that part should be a large one.

7. Six of the investigations (the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report excepted) believe that the content of the curriculum should consist of both a study of the problems and relationships of present society and such problems as will help to modify the present culture and plan for a better social structure in the years to come.

Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Guidance

The ideal of guidance, as indeed of education itself, is a perfectly integrated individual. The goal is self-integration, and this is possible when the individual understands himself and the world about him. One point of view, that of the Eight-

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Year Study, interprets guidance as a philosophy, the other as a program. On the one hand, guidance, in the emerging secondary school, is conceived as a way of looking at teaching or as a philosophy which permeates all teaching; on the other hand, guidance may be considered a special program comprising organization and personnel, and designed to fulfill a special function. The former concept makes guidance co-extensive with all education, and no special plan or organization is needed.

In the area of guidance, the investigations may be grouped in an order ranging from conservative to radical, as shown in the following paragraphs:

1. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would be considered conservative in this respect, that they favor the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil and the selection of one of the curricula of the school by a staff member.

2. The Pennsylvania Study is conservative on a second count, namely, restricting guidance to educational guidance.

3. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would be considered neither reactionary nor radical in that they believe that, for the benefit of prospective pupils, the secondary school should give the elementary school adequate information about its offerings, and that, for its own pupils, it should secure adequate information from higher institutions about their offerings.

4. Likewise, the Report of the Committee on Orientation, the

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Co-operative Study, the Report of the Educational Policies Commission, the Maryland Study, and the Regents' Inquiry would be classed as neither reactionary nor radical in that they favor the discovery of the needs and characteristics of each pupil, and the co-operative selection (by pupil and staff member) of one of the curricula of the school.

5. The National Survey adheres to the middle ground on a second point, using guidance in the sense of educational and vocational guidance.

6. All of the selected investigations, the National Survey and the Pennsylvania Study excepted, think of guidance as assuming responsibility for assisting pupils in all phases of personal adjustment, the ultra-liberal position.

7. All of the selected investigations, except the National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report, take the so-called radical position that the secondary school should not only supply information to elementary schools about its offerings and to its own pupils about the offerings of higher schools, but also make co-operative efforts toward mutual understanding and toward the elimination of conditions which make pupil adjustment difficult.

8. The Eight-Year Study is consistently radical on all counts, believing, in addition to the two points to which reference has just been made, in the co-operative discovery by pupil and staff member of the needs and characteristics of the pupil and the co-operative decision of the specific experiences to be provided.

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Contributions of the Selected Investigations to Evaluation

Evaluation, a term which stems from the experimental rather than the authoritarian philosophy, includes both pupil self-evaluation and evaluation by others, with more emphasis on the former in the emerging secondary school than one finds in the traditional school. This is in keeping with the idea of giving pupils experience in assuming responsibility for their own educational achievement. The pupil is encouraged to adopt goals, to strive to attain them, and to recognize the extent to which success has been achieved. Like education, evaluation is a continuous process, an inherent part of the act of learning itself.

1. There is a certain amount of unanimity of opinion among the selected investigations concerning evaluation. All of them favor (a) the constant improvement of procedures for evaluating outcomes, (b) the making of systematic appraisals of the college achievements of former pupils, (c) the encouragement of staff members to consider the conduct of pupils in all school situations as revealing the nature and quality of the outcomes of the educational program, and (d) the systematic seeking of co-operation of parents and other members of the school community in evaluating the outcomes of the educational program.

2. The Regents' Inquiry firmly believes that the Regents' examinations in the state of New York should be eliminated.

3. The National Survey, the Pennsylvania Study, and the Harvard Report would favor the rating of teachers by the scholastic achievements of their pupils as revealed by standardized achievement tests.

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4. The contribution par excellence is that made by the Eight-Year Study, which evaluated progress toward the whole range of desired goals, and which stressed pupil self-evaluation.

Interpretation and Suggested Implementation of the Contributions of the Major Investigations in Secondary Education

Introduction.- Taking the best of the contributions of the selected investigations, those most consistent with the pragmatic philosophy, organismic psychology, and the concept of democracy as a way of life, the writer presented a picture of the ideal secondary school in 1947.

The thesis of this study is that a valid philosophy of education should determine the objectives of education. With valid objectives grounded in a defensible philosophy of education, curricula and guidance techniques are organized and utilized to attain the objectives, and the effectiveness of curricula and guidance is determined by appropriate evaluation devices.

The Objective of Secondary Education.- "A desired change in the behavior of a pupil as a result of experience directed by the school" (118:278) is the definition of objective used throughout this study.

The modern school must conceive the primary function of education to be that of providing opportunities for youth under guidance to create and re-create their lives, so that there will result integrated individuals, able and willing (1) to make their places in the society of which they are a part, and (2) to help to make that society ever better.

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Secondary-School Curriculum.- It is here contemplated that this objective can best be accomplished by means of a program of general education made up of life problems. As the core work especially serves the common elements of life and civilization, so the departments exist to give needed specialization. If it is to fulfill its purpose of providing effective living for all adolescents, the secondary school must offer vocational education, including work experience.

From such a program of general education, there evolves the experience curriculum, a series of purposeful experiences growing out of pupil interests and moving toward an ever more adequate understanding of an intelligent participation in the surrounding culture and group life. In this type of curricular organization, the common experiences, the life problems, are used as a basis for the organization of groups.

Methodology.- Closely paralleling the curriculum movement has been the activity movement in American education. From this, the idea has gradually evolved that purposeful learning is the basis of desirable living and development. Perhaps the idea of greatest importance is that of the unitary development of adolescents.

In outline form, the following steps are necessary to implement the curriculum:

1. The survey of the background of the pupil
2. The analysis of the pupil's needs and interests
3. The defining of possible goals on the basis of these needs and interests

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4. The participation in experiences that offer opportunities for youth toward desirable goals
5. The evaluation in terms of this growth on the part of pupil, parents, and teachers.

The possible major activities which may prove as motivating objectives are numerous: a series of radio broadcasts, open forums involving the whole community, a pageant involving the whole school, and school assemblies.

The method to be followed is that of life itself, so far as this is possible under school auspices.

Guidance Service in Secondary Schools.- "An improved method in progressive teaching by which the teacher leads the child to discover and make a desired response of his own will" (118:194) is the definition of guidance here used.

Guidance is a type of service or assistance given to the individual. Briefly stated, guidance may help the individual (1) to understand himself, (2) to study the conditions of life with a view toward making his place therein, and (3) to prepare to make adjustments that are desirable.

Not only is guidance a necessary part of the complete secondary school, but also it cannot be separated from the everyday work of the classroom.

Evaluation of the Progress of Secondary-School Pupils.- School experiences of pupils involve principally the co-operative forming of purposes, and the co-operative making, executing, and evaluating of plans for attaining these purposes. Continuous

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evaluation is a necessary concomitant of the broadening concept of education.

Just as the only real education is self-education, likewise the only genuine evaluation, an inherent part of education, is self-evaluation.

Philosophical Inconsistencies Found in Some of the Investigations

The Pennsylvania Study is perhaps the most inconsistent, for it is idealistic in its stress on intellectual competence, tests for permanent and available knowledge by means of strictly scientific, objective tests such as a realist would use, and yet almost pragmatically insists on the worth of the individual, who is more important than content or subject-matter. Although pragmatic for the most part, the Harvard Report likewise emphasizes intellectual competence.

These two investigations distinguish the classes from the masses and, like Jefferson, are concerned with those who <u>should</u> go to college, instead of seeing to it that those who <u>do</u> go, develop to the limit of their capacities.

The Co-operative Study, concerned with more than accumulation of knowledge, development of skills, and improvement of understanding, produced a scientific, realistic evaluating scale that involves statistical treatment of data. Even the pragmatic investigations, the Eight-Year Study excepted, used evaluating devices consonant with a realistic philosophy.

In philosophies underlying the selected investigations, one finds practically the full range, including the rather idealistic

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Pennsylvania Study and the somewhat idealistic Harvard Report, the realistic National Survey, and the pragmatic Eight-Year Study.

Problems for Further Research

The following fruitful problems in question form are suggested:

1. How does the college success of the graduates of the best traditional secondary schools compare with that of their "matchees" in the most unconventional schools?

2. What provisions for work experience are made by secondary schools throughout the United States?

3. How similar are the philosophies of all those secondary schools that have been evaluated by means of Evaluative Criteria (10) of the Co-operative Study, or how wisely do those philosophies differ?

4. How well are the secondary schools doing all those things that they profess to be doing for all adolescents?

5. What can the secondary school do to improve its services to all youth who enter that level, whether they stay a semester or remain to be graduated?

6. How can youth from underprivileged homes be retained in school until they are socially competent?

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APPENDIX

List A

The following list of thirteen items is an adaptation of Appendix D, pages 537-42, of Volume III, Teacher Education Curricula, of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. The original list was so constructed as to be representative of the points of view on which educators of the country show wide differences of view. From that list of seventy-nine items, the writer took those pertinent to the subject in hand.

1. The purpose of education should be essentially to prepare boys and girls for the activities which make up, or which ought to make up, well-rounded adult life.

2. In this period of rapid change, it is highly important that education be charged with the task of preserving the long-established and enduring educational aims and objectives.

3. Systems of uniform examinations given by boards of education in some states should be eliminated from the American public school.

4. The movement to substitute "activities" for "subjects" in the school curriculum will operate against the best interests of American education.

5. Courses in the classics and in mathematics still remain among the most effective agencies of mental development in the student.

6. Education should work toward the goal of teaching and learning things when the need for them arises in life experiences.

7. The pupil profits largely in the degree that there is logical organization of the materials of instruction presented to him.

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8. It is impossible to predict the adult needs of the contemporary school population with sufficient accuracy to justify an educational program based on minimum essentials of subject matter.

9. The finer phases of culture are best pursued for their own sake, and should, on the whole, be kept separate from matters of practical and vocational development.

10. The scholastic attainments of pupils as revealed by standardized achievement tests constitute a reliable basis upon which to rate the teachers of those pupils.

11. The school should strive to develop in its pupils that hardy and rugged individualism which characterized early American life.

12. The effectiveness of education should be determined more by general social conditions (such, for instance, as are revealed through crime statistics) than by any apparent effect upon particular individuals.

13. Education may well be conceived as the unfolding of what is latent in the child.

List B

The following thirteen items are an adaptation of Supplementary Reprint 6 of the Co-operative Study, "The Philosophy of Education of Two Hundred Schools" by M. L. Alstetter (43). In order to assure results that would be adequate for the purpose of the study, it seemed wise to give some suggestions to the schools in the formulation of statements of philosophy, since it was recognized that the task involved considerable difficulty, and pertinent phases might easily be overlooked. Accordingly, twenty-two items, or groups of related items, were assembled from various sources and submitted to each of the schools.

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From that list of twenty-two items, the writer took those pertinent to the subject in hand.

1. Education should prepare chiefly for

   a. social-civic activities
   b. economic-vocational activities
   c. individualistic-avocational activities.

2. Education should chiefly emphasize

   a. cultural values
   b. practical values.

3. Education primarily is

   a. adjustment to conditions
   b. self-development
   c. mastery of environment.

4. As its principal goal education should seek

   a. personal character
   b. social efficiency
   c. physical health
   d. mental health
   e. self-discipline
   f. self-integration
   g. Christian citizenship
   h. social morality
   i. happiness
   j. mental discipline.

5. Each pupil should be

   a. taught how to think rather than what to think
   b. taught what to think rather than how to think
   c. taught both what to think and how to think
   d. simply afforded opportunities to think.

6. Education is a developmental process; it is attained only through activity and initiative on the part of the learner.

7. The school should seek to make pupils more alike; it should seek uniformity of product.

8. The interests of the pupil are an important consideration in the determination of the curriculum; the pupil

   a. should have some part in determining the content and activities in the curriculum

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b. should have a large part in determining the content and activities involved in the curriculum
c. should be free to determine entirely his own activities and experiences.

9. Those responsible for the policies of the school should determine the nature and content of the curriculum; the pupil should be required to master the curriculum thus determined for him.

10. The content of the curriculum should consist largely of

a. what society has achieved in the past - the racial heritage
b. a study of the problems and relationships of present society
c. such problems as will help to modify our present culture and plan for a better social structure in the years to come.

11. The content of the curriculum should be largely

a. preparatory for more advanced education
b. preparatory for entrance into vocational life
c. preparatory for home-making and family life
d. general - informational and cultural.

12. The content of the curriculum of the school should be determined principally by

a. local needs
b. statewide needs
c. nationwide needs
d. international needs.

13. The school should

a. emphasize such outcomes as knowledge, understanding, and skills
b. regard knowledge, understanding, and skills as means rather than ends
c. emphasize appreciations, attitudes, and ideals as the most desirable outcomes.

List C

The following fourteen items have been taken from Evaluative Criteria (10:11-12, 83):

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1. In carrying out the guidance function of the secondary school it is desirable that

   a. The pupil and staff member discover cooperatively the characteristics and needs of the pupil and decide the specific experiences to be provided.

   b. The curriculum of the pupil be determined by one or more members of the staff in terms of the inherent or traditionally assumed value of the subjects involved

   c. The needs and characteristics of each pupil be discovered and one of the school's curricula be selected by a staff member

   d. The needs and characteristics of each pupil be discovered and one of the school's curricula be selected cooperatively by pupil and staff member.

2. In relation to elementary and higher schools, the secondary school should

   a. Give attention to provisions for articulation - it should convey to the elementary school adequate information about its offerings and procedures in order that prospective pupils may make appropriate preparation and should see that similar information from higher schools is made available to its own pupils

   b. Make definite provision for effective articulation - this should involve not only information about the school but cooperative efforts toward mutual understanding and toward elimination of conditions which make pupil adjustment difficult

   c. Have no special responsibility for articulation - as a self-contained unit it should develop its own program in terms of the assumed needs of its pupils and leave other institutions to do the same.

3. The secondary school should -

   a. Be responsible for assisting pupils to make appropriate educational plans, both of courses in secondary school and of subsequent academic careers - it should leave other phases of guidance to the home or other agencies.

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b. Assume responsibility for assisting pupils in all phases of personal adjustment - the school's guidance function includes educational, vocational, social, recreational, and other phases.

c. Assume no responsibility for guidance of pupils, in order to avoid dissipation of energies which should be devoted to assuring a thorough mastery of secondary school studies

d. In addition to educational guidance, provide assistance to pupils in making appropriate vocational choices - other phases of guidance should be left to the home or other agencies.

4. Procedures for evaluating outcomes are being constantly improved.

5. Responsibility is placed upon the supervisory staff for studying new evaluation techniques.

6. Activities of pupils during out-of-school hours are studied.

7. Systematic appraisal is made of the college achievements of former pupils.

8. Systematic appraisal is made of the achievements of former pupils who did not go to college.

9. Appropriate tests and examinations are used.

10. Attitudes and appreciations are measured with the best instruments available.

11. Staff members are encouraged to consider the conduct of pupils in all school situations as revealing the nature and quality of the outcomes of the educational program.

12. Cooperation of parents and other members of the school community in evaluating the outcomes of the educational program is systematically sought.

13. Informal observations of pupils are recorded in some form such as an anecdotal record.

14. Pupil appraisal of the outcomes of the educational program is encouraged.

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List D

To round out the section on objectives, the writer added the following six salient characteristics of objectives of secondary education:

1. Secondary education should be appropriate for a dynamic, changing world.
2. Secondary education should be suited to a heterogeneous school population.
3. Secondary education should provide for both the fitting and the finishing function of the secondary school.
4. Secondary education should give basic consideration to the needs of the individual.
5. Secondary education should encourage the promotion of a democratic society.
6. Secondary education should bring about types of changes appropriate for both the individual and society.

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