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RECENT MOVEMENTS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

By

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CHIEF OF CITY SCHOOL DIVISION

[Advance Sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education
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RECENT MOVEMENTS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

By W. S. DEFFENBAUGH

Chief of City School Division

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The growth of cities has created many new social, economic, and educational problems in the United States, for within a half century the country has become not predominantly rural but predominantly urban. In 1880 only 29.5 per cent of the total population lived in cities, but in 1920 the urban population had increased to 51.4 per cent of the total population. From 1880 to 1920 the urban population increased 267 per cent and the rural population only 45 per cent. In 1880 there were 1,099 cities of 2,500 or more population, while in 1920 there were 2,787 cities of this size. Sixty-eight cities had a population of 100,000 or more, and 26 per cent of the total population was living in them, or almost as large a proportion as in all cities in 1880.

The rural population has almost disappeared in several States. In Massachusetts 94.8 per cent of the population is urban, and in Rhode Island 97.5 per cent is urban. Other States having a large proportion of their population living in cities are New York with 82.7 per cent, New Jersey 78.4 per cent, California 68 per cent, Illinois 67.9 per cent, Connecticut 67.8 per cent, Pennsylvania 64.3 per cent, and Ohio 63.8 per cent.

The cities of the country have become the centers of political, industrial, and commercial power. They are also the centers of wealth, education, and culture; and on the other hand, they are centers of poverty, ignorance, and crime. They present the great problem in America, as in any other country, since the civilization of a country is determined largely by the character of its cities. A few cities have made the history of the world. As the cities flourished the countries in which they were located flourished, and as the cities decayed the nations decayed.

Since the city of to-day is the problem of society, the kind of education given city children is vitally important, not only for

the present generation but for the whole future of the country. How to educate the city child is the greatest problem facing the educational world. The city is a good place for adults to carry on business, to attend lectures, concerts, etc., but in the modern city there is almost nothing for the child to do except run the streets, loaf, and go to school. Yet the child is in school only one-fifth of the hours he is awake each year. This is no doubt long enough time to devote to formal school work or to the three R's, but children need other things as well. They need to know how to work with their hands; they need to play. Yet there is little opportunity for city boys or girls to do any constructive work. There are practically no chores for them to do. It is a rare city that provides enough playground space for all its children. There is but little contact with nature, especially for the children living in tenements and apartment houses. All these—work, play, and contact with nature—are fundamental in the education of children, and unless the cities of the country provide these fundamentals the city child will receive only an artificial education—what he reads in books.

The problem of educating the city child is so great that the educator needs to think of more than the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, which is very well done in most city schools. He must be a statesman looking far ahead. He must know the aims and ideals of his city, or rather he must help form its aims and ideals through the children in the schools.

There is not only the problem of educating the child of school age, but that of educating the preschool child. This period of child life has been left to parents, but many mothers are working at some gainful occupation, and others are engaged in social affairs, so that many children of preschool age receive very little attention. Yet this is the most impressionable age of life. Habits that may mar the whole future life may be formed. It is believed by some that many of the nervous and mental ills in adults are traceable to wrong kind of training in early childhood. If mothers work or devote their time to social affairs, there is no one to guide the child in the home for part of the day. The question is, what is to be done about it? Some see the answer in day nurseries and nursery schools; others would have the mothers stay at home, but even if they should, many do not know the first principles of child training.

There is also the problem of adult education. Thousands of men and women whose early education was neglected are demanding that they be given an opportunity to attend school in the evening.

In many cities more than one-fourth of the population is foreign-born, and it is necessary for the school not only to teach many children English, but also to teach their parents better to understand American customs and ideals, so as to prevent a division in home

life which often develops after the children have learned to speak English and the father and mother have not.

The administration of city schools has become a complicated matter, as much so as the administration of a large private corporation. The expenditure of millions is involved in the larger cities and of many thousands in the smaller ones. Buildings to keep pace with growth in population must be provided. Equitable salary schedules must be considered. Courses of study must be adopted to meet present-day needs. Thus one might continue to enumerate the problems facing the school authorities in every city. In this chapter attention is given to only a few of the problems and movements in city schools. Some of the movements will be treated in other chapters of the biennial survey, as adult education, health education, preschool and kindergarten, etc.

ADMINISTRATION

During the past two years very little general or special legislation was enacted affecting city school systems.

Small boards elected at large, with few exceptions, has been the practice for some years. One of the exceptions was Providence, R. I., which up to December, 1925, had a school committee of 33 members, organized with 19 subcommittees. Now there is a committee of 7 members elected on a nonpartisan ballot. The committee was entirely dependent upon the will of the city council for funds and for school buildings. The reorganization provides that the committee have fiscal independence up to 35 per cent of the average tax levy for three years previous, besides certain other income, and with authority to make plans for an adequate building program, which must be granted by the city council or referred to the people. The Providence Public School Bulletin,¹ commenting upon the change in the method of administering the schools, says:

At the outset it should be understood that no complete and immediate revolution is to be expected. The schools of the past have not been wholly bad. The instruction and training given have been generally good, within the prescribed limits. Improvement for the future involves the removal of certain limitations and restrictions in order that there may be more advanced and continuous progress. The following are the most striking features of the new plan of management:

Unified and centralized control. Management by a small school committee means the abandonment of numerous subcommittees, each separately invested with some control over a branch of activities. Under such a complex system as formerly existed the desirable principles of simplicity and unity were necessarily somewhat sacrificed. Policies applied to one part of the system might differ materially from practices enforced in another part. Under a more simplified system uniform theories and methods can be everywhere consistently applied.

¹ March, 1926.

More liberal funds, that are definite and dependable. As long as the school money depended upon a separate authority and was determined from year to year, it was impracticable and unsafe to undertake improvements that would involve continuous expenditure.

Standing committees have probably caused more annoyance in the administration of the schools of the country than any other thing, since such committees often attempt to do the things for which the board of education employs a chief executive officer and subordinate executives. Boards of education are coming to recognize the fact that the management of a city school system can not be efficiently done through committees, that it is the function of the board of education to consider policies, and after adopting them to require the superintendent of schools to put them into effect.

As an example of this attitude the action of the board of education of New Castle, Pa., may be cited. Until recently there were four standing committees—finance, buildings and grounds, supplies and textbooks, and teachers—but all such committees have been eliminated, and the superintendent of schools has been authorized to do many of the things previously done by the various committees.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

Within the past two years there has been great activity in schoolhouse construction. Of 404 cities of 10,000 population or more reporting to the Bureau of Education, 281 erected new buildings at an expenditure of \$245,811,715 or an average of \$874,775 for each city. If the cities that did not report averaged the same, \$468,502,650 was expended in cities of this size within the two-year period. Out of the \$245,811,715 there were erected 432 elementary, 165 junior high, and 127 senior high school buildings, or a total of 724 buildings at an average cost of \$339,519. If the cities not reporting expended a like amount, 1,380 new buildings were erected in the cities of 10,000 population or more.

Philadelphia, Pa., may be cited as an example of the progress that is being made in schoolhouse construction in the larger cities. From September 1, 1925, to October 1, 1926, nine buildings, including two additions, were completed, which provide accommodations for 12,910 pupils. Fifteen buildings are under construction, including two additions, which will accommodate 23,106 pupils. Part-time sessions (three hour) in that city were reduced from 40,219 cases in June, 1923, to 6,193 cases in October, 1926.

Of the 404 cities reporting, 67 have some of the elementary-school children and 19 some of the high-school pupils on part time because of a lack of school buildings. Within the biennium 55 cities reduced the per cent of elementary pupils and 29 the per cent of high-

school pupils on part-time. Fourteen of the 55 cities eliminated part-time sessions entirely in the elementary schools, and 16 of the 29 in the high schools. In some cities the high schools are becoming more crowded than the elementary schools, owing to the fact that many more children are seeking high-school education to-day than was the case a few years ago.

In many cities the adoption of a junior high school program has incidentally helped to relieve congestion both in the elementary and high-school grades, since the new junior high school buildings accommodate grades 7 and 8 of the elementary schools and grade 9 of the high schools, or approximately one-fifth of the entire school enrollment.

Great progress has also been made in forecasting school building needs. Very few school boards to-day undertake a school building program without first making a survey to determine what buildings will be needed within the next 10 or 15 years. Some of these surveys are made by persons employed by the board specifically for this purpose, and other surveys by the superintendent of schools and his assistants.

Although many new school buildings have been erected, there are numerous elementary-school buildings in the cities of the country that do not answer the purpose of school buildings any better than the oft-maligned one-room country school building. In fact, some of the elementary-school buildings in some of the cities of the country are nothing more than a number of classrooms assembled together under one roof. Almost every one of the recent school building surveys calls attention to insanitary conditions, poor lighting, lack of play space, and lack of facilities for carrying out a modern elementary-school program of studies.

The elementary-school buildings that have been erected within the past few years provide for more than classrooms, since school people and the public in general are beginning to recognize the need of gymnasiums, playgrounds, shops, science rooms, libraries, and the like for children of the elementary-school grades. The elementary-school pupil needs, as much as does the high-school pupil, opportunity for physical development which gymnasiums and playgrounds offer; he needs all the more, because of his exuberant activity, the opportunity which a workshop gives for experiment and construction with material. But in spite of this need there are yet thousands of elementary-school buildings in the cities of the country that do not have proper facilities for physical exercise, experimentation, and construction. The question, Shall we save money or save children? is already being answered in the right way in the many cities that are erecting new elementary-school buildings. Some of these equal the high-school buildings of the city in construction and equipment, but there are not

enough of them; neither are there large enough playgrounds surrounding many of the elementary-school buildings, but the tendency is to provide much larger sites, usually a minimum of 5 acres, especially for the larger elementary-school buildings.

It may be that city playgrounds could accommodate many of the elementary-school children; but not being near the school building, they can not be used at noon and recess periods. In some cities if a photograph were made at, say, 10.30, the morning recess period of the city playgrounds, and another of the school children huddled together on a few square feet of school yard, the one might be labeled "Playgrounds without children" and the other "Children without playgrounds."

WORK-STUDY-PLAY OR PLATOON SCHOOLS

During the past two years the number of cities having the type of school organization known as the work-study-play or platoon school has shown a steady increase. In 1925 there were 81 cities having one or more schools on the platoon plan, and in February, 1927, the number had increased to 115 cities. According to the most recent information there are 740 platoon schools in these cities. Not only has the number of cities with the plan increased, but there is evidently a tendency to increase the number of schools on the plan in cities where it has been tried. For example, there are now 34 cities with a population of 5,988,607 which have organized all their schools on the plan or have adopted it as a city-wide policy. Of these 34 cities 22 already have all their schools on the platoon plan.

In the opinion of superintendents who have organized schools on the work-study-play or platoon plan, its rapid growth is due in large measure to the fact that under this plan it is possible, financially and administratively, to give to all children in a school system the opportunities for an enriched curriculum of work and play and study which the development of cities has made it imperative to provide for city children.

All modern school executives have, of course, realized for many years the importance of these enriched educational facilities for children, but up to the present time the cost of supplying them in addition to classrooms has been prohibitive. The platoon plan makes it financially possible to have in every school these enriched educational facilities as well as classrooms, because it applies to the school the principle upon which all other public utilities are run, i. e., the principle of the multiple use of facilities.

Up to the present time the public-school system has been running on what is called by engineers the "peak load" plan of operation, i. e., on the principle of reserving a school seat for the exclusive

use of each child during the entire year; when the children leave their classroom seats to go to special activities, such as play or shop, the seats remain vacant. The result is that it is difficult to provide enough seats for all the children to study in, enough playgrounds for all of them to play in, or enough shops for them to work in, although large sums of money are invested in these facilities, which the children can use for only a fraction of the day.

Under the work-study-play plan all activities in the school—classrooms, auditoriums, gymnasiums, shops, and laboratories—are in use every hour of the day. The school is divided into two parts, each having the same number of classes and each containing all the eight or nine grades. While one of the schools is in classrooms the other is in special activities, auditoriums, playgrounds, and gymnasiums. This means that only half the usual number of classrooms is needed. Since the cost of a classroom at present is approximately \$12,000, this means that in a 30-class school only 15 classrooms are needed instead of 30, with the result that 15 times \$12,000 is released for all other activities in the school. Under such circumstances it is possible to supply a school seat for every child when he needs it and also the special facilities enumerated above at no greater cost than it takes to supply classrooms only under the traditional plan.

As one of the attempts to help solve the educational problems created by the modern city, the work-study-play or platoon plan is worthy of careful and scientific study. The bureau has been making such a study in response to a widespread demand for information on the subject. During the past five years requests for information have been received from more than 1,800 persons, only 112 of whom were laymen. Three hundred were school superintendents, 722 were principals of schools, and 243 were teachers. Requests were received also from 13 foreign countries, including England, Estonia, France, Holland, India, Japan, New Zealand, Sweden, and Switzerland.

ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY

Everywhere is heard the cry of "economy," and the cry has been taken up by boards of education. Budget cuts have been ordered. In one city, for example, the superintendent was told to cut \$200,000 out of his budget, which he did by eliminating some of the special subjects in the elementary grades. The question arises, was this real economy? True, the taxpayers were saved \$200,000, but were the schools not made less efficient? If they were, the cut was not economical. If a business firm should spend \$200,000 less this year than last and reduce the dividends from 7 to 6 per cent, the stockholders would condemn the board for not having managed affairs in a businesslike way. If a cut can be made and the dividends

remain the same, then the cut should be made. The schools should be subjected to the ordinary rules of business, which means that there should be such economy in time, effort, and money as will produce the maximum dividend.

The school people are beginning to realize that every dollar expended must be accounted for, and that there must be no waste of time nor of effort. The schools are attempting seriously to eliminate such waste. Many city school systems have eliminated to a great extent the waste that was caused by a comparatively large per cent of pupils repeating grades. The promotion rate is undoubtedly becoming higher in most cities. The cost of teaching pupils the same thing a second time amounts to many thousands of dollars in a large school system, or else the pupils are eliminated, which is a greater loss.

The number of pupils to a class enters into the problem of economy, and this problem is being studied in some of the schools of the country. If it is found that a high-school teacher can instruct a class of 35 pupils as well as a class of 25, an immense saving may be effected.

In some of the high schools of the country there is undoubtedly a waste when classes are organized for only a few pupils. In a large high school such classes are indefensible. In Chicago no high-school classes will be organized hereafter for fewer than 20 pupils. This standard could well be adopted by many other of the large high schools. In the smaller high schools there will necessarily be some small classes, but even in some of these schools there are undoubtedly too many classes of from 5 to 10 pupils.

Another problem that needs to be solved is that of the number of recitations a teacher can best conduct each day. In the high schools five recitations a day are considered the most efficient number, but are they?

It may be that better results would be obtained if the teacher taught only four periods a day, or it may be that just as good results would be obtained if she taught six periods a day. If the former should be the case it would be proper to expend more on high-school instruction, for it is returns that are sought; but if the latter should be true a saving could be effected by assigning an extra period to each teacher.

The question as to why high-school teachers and kindergarten teachers should have smaller classes than elementary schools needs to be answered. A kindergarten teacher may have an assistant and only a few pupils for a few hours a day, and across the hall may be a first-grade teacher with 40 pupils and a teaching day of five hours. Is this difference necessary? Which is the more economical and efficient plan?

The waste of building space has been seriously attacked in many cities. School people are having to explain why shops, gymnasiums, and auditoriums are in use only part of the time, and when in use why the classrooms from which the children come are not in use. This problem has been largely solved by the platoon plan of school organization. Surveys of some high-school buildings have revealed the fact that there is much waste in the use of building space, in that the schedule is not arranged so as to have all the rooms in use all the time. A high-school principal should not ask for additional building space unless he can show that he is making efficient use of what he already has.

Another waste that superintendents and others are attempting to eliminate is that of loss of time in getting ready to begin work. In some cities, schools announced to open, say, September 1, do not get under way for a week. The efficient school systems of the country are beginning regular classroom work the first day of school, or at least not later than the second day. Schedules are prepared ahead of time, not after the children have arrived at school. Some few pupils will have to be readjusted, but a schedule can be made out before the opening of school that will need but very little modification.

Boards of education have usually recognized the fact that it is poor economy to pay the superintendent of schools a salary of \$10,000 a year and then not provide him with enough clerical assistance so that he may earn the \$10,000. The same principle should apply to all employees. No employee should be required to do what some one else with less ability and education and on a lower salary can do just as well. For example, many elementary and high-school principals devote much of their time to the doing of things that could be done by a \$1,200 clerk. In some instances they are simply high-salaried messengers and clerks rather than administrators and supervisors.

The revision of the elementary and high-school curricula under progress in many cities will undoubtedly prove economical, not that less will be expended upon the schools but that no time will be devoted to teaching useless things. Schoolmen and others recognize the fact that it is a waste of school funds to drill pupils on the spelling of words that are rarely used, and then only by the specialist, and upon problems in arithmetic that have no application except possibly in some very special field. And so on through every subject eliminations are being made which will make the school work more efficient.

The reorganization of the work in the seventh and eighth grades so as to prevent a repetition of the work of the fifth and sixth grades

has undoubtedly made the work of these grades more efficient. When reorganization was discussed some years ago it was predicted that there would be saving of time. If by this it was meant that a pupil would complete his school course in fewer than 12 years, the hopes of those who advocated reorganization have not been realized, since even with the junior high school organization a pupil does not complete his work in less than 12 years. What has been done has been to enrich the work of the seventh and eighth grades.

The question has, however, been raised as to whether a real saving of time can not be effected so that a pupil may complete the course in less than 12 years if secondary-school work is begun in the seventh and eighth grades.

The reorganization of the schools of Salt Lake City, Utah, is in accord with this idea. The superintendent of schools in that city says in his report for 1925:

The school system of Salt Lake City has for several years been gradually evolving from the old, well-established plan of eight years in the elementary school and four years in the high school to an organization known generally as the 6-3-3 plan, composed of an elementary school of six years, a junior high school of three years, and a senior high school of three years. As this movement has progressed and school organization and curricula have been studied in different parts of the country we are convinced that at least one year of time in the school life of the child from kindergarten to graduation from high school should and can be eliminated with the majority. And so at the present time our plan of organization calls first for a year in kindergarten, composed of children who are 5 years of age, to be followed by six years in the elementary school, three years in the junior high school, and two years in the senior high school. * * *

When this plan is completely in operation, which it promises to be in 1925-26, the large majority of our young people should graduate from high school in 12 years from the time they enter kindergarten, and thus be ready for college or for practical life at 17 or 18 years of age. We are convinced that all the essentials of the subject matter now taught in the longer course can be as thoroughly mastered with the shorter course, and that much dawdling can be prevented as well as loss of time from giving attention to irrelevant or useless subject matter.

The superintendent of the Salt Lake City schools further says that if the change could be considered an innovation he would have considerable hesitation about putting it into practice, even though convinced of its advisability and practicability, but that it is not without precedent, since some of the best school systems in the country have operated under the 11-year plan above kindergarten with success, both from the standpoint of educational results and of financial economy.

TEACHERS' SALARIES

Teachers' salaries between 1924-25 and 1926-27 showed a tendency to increase, although not at a rapid rate, according to data compiled by the research division of the National Education Association. The division of research points out:

These increases were due to two causes. First, salary schedules were increased in some cities; second, the salary schedules adopted in earlier years did not go fully into effect until 1925 and 1926 in a considerable number of cities. As the higher maximum of these schedules was reached by increasing percentages of teachers, the effect was to increase the median salary paid.

The following table prepared by the National Education Association shows the median salaries paid three groups of school employees in cities of various sizes in 1924-25 and 1926-27:

Median salaries paid school employees in city school systems,¹ 1924-25 and 1926-27²

School employees concerned	Cities with a population of—									
	Over 100,000		30,000 to 100,000		10,000 to 30,000		5,000 to 10,000		2,500 to 5,000	
	1924-25	1926-27	1924-25	1926-27	1924-25	1926-27	1924-25	1926-27	1924-25	1926-27
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Elementary-school classroom teachers.....	\$1,968	\$2,008	\$1,528	\$1,565	\$1,354	\$1,375	\$1,231	\$1,276	\$1,129	\$1,169
High-school classroom teachers.....	2,536	2,583	2,000	2,060	1,738	1,783	1,617	1,666	1,491	1,542
Supervising elementary-school principals.....	3,297	3,437	2,484	2,536	2,140	2,250	2,116	2,229	2,057	2,319

¹ It may be that after final tabulations have been checked up a few of these figures will be slightly changed, but the general trend which they take will not be affected.

² Based on reports from approximately 1,500 cities of all sizes for both years.

The single-salary schedule seems to be getting more popular, that is, a schedule which provides the same salary for teachers with equal training and experience without regard to the grade taught, whether it be in the elementary school or in the high school. No doubt such a schedule will help to place elementary teaching on a higher plane if teachers with four years' preparation are employed to teach in the elementary schools; but if boards of education adopt a single-salary schedule and continue to employ elementary-school teachers who have had but two years of post-high-school work, the question may be raised as to why such schedule was adopted.

The question of equal pay for men and women teachers doing the same work continues to occupy the attention of many boards of education. The granting of more pay to men is defended by some boards on the ground that in order to get men teachers they must be paid more than women, for women will work for less. Such boards contend that supply and demand should regulate the salary.

If competent men are to be retained in the profession, any equal-pay schedule should provide that the salaries of the women be made equal to those paid men rather than that there be any averaging of the salaries of the two.

Some suggest that salaries be paid somewhat in proportion to the number of persons supported by the teacher. This would be an innovation, indeed, but boards of education are no more called upon to adopt such a schedule than any other public board or a board of a private corporation. The editor of the *American School Board Journal*, commenting upon such proposal, says:²

The objections to such an innovation and interpretation of a salary schedule must be obvious. Teachers are employed for the services they may render and for which they have a right to expect a proper compensation. But to measure the salary of the teacher by the number of relatives she supports at home is illogical and untenable. The self-respecting teacher will object to the introduction of charity into any salary schedule. The profession as a whole will also resent a salary schedule that is constructed upon any other basis than that which compensates character and ability, and which recognizes the true value of the service rendered.

The future, no doubt, will continue toward refinements in the formulation of salary schedules, and discover ways of measuring and compensating merit more equitably than is now being done, but it will eliminate, as it must, the suggestion of charity or favoritism. The teacher sells service, the school board buys it. Hence, the pay roll is a business matter. This is the interpretation which the public puts upon salary schedules. It is the interpretation that the teaching profession upholds.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

Among the valuable means for improving teachers in service may be mentioned the summer school and extension course. The professional interest that this work has developed is a promise for better things. It has stimulated the development of efficiency, the results of which have been increased salaries, promotions of various kinds, and a marked improvement in the spirit of the teaching force in general.

The opportunity for summer study and extension work has the further advantage of making it possible for States to raise the standard of teacher training without imposing too great a hardship on teachers of ability whose training has been inadequate.

Many boards of education grant credit for attendance at summer school. A bonus is sometimes given for this activity, usually \$2.50 to \$6 a month, which is added to the salary the year following the course, or a bonus of from \$25 to \$60, and in a few instances \$100.

The assistant superintendent of schools of Rochester, N. Y., reports that the number of teachers taking part in the summer-school plan

² February, 1927.

in that city is between 300 and 400 per year, and the number taking university work is in the neighborhood of 500.

A means of improving teachers in service that promises much is that of assigning to them the preparation of a course of study. If the project of preparing a course of study in arithmetic, for example, is assigned to a group of teachers, they will be kept busy for a year at least on a study that will have practical application. They will have to consult much literature on the subject and hold many conferences, and after the course has been finished every teacher who has had part in its preparation will be a better teacher of arithmetic. The superintendent who makes use of his teachers in such manner is providing a real motive for their improvement. This plan is followed in Boston, Oakland, Washington, and many other cities. The superintendent of schools of Oakland reports that more than 700 out of 1,500 regular teachers have been actively engaged in the work of curriculum revision during the present semester.

SABBATICAL LEAVE

Another plan that is gaining greatly in favor for the improvement of teachers in service is that of granting sabbatical leave. According to a publication recently issued by the National Sabbatical Leave Association, of Cleveland, Ohio, 39 cities having a population of 100,000 and over, or more than 50 per cent of the cities of this size, have adopted definite plans for granting teachers leave of absence for study and professional improvement, and 133 cities having a population of 2,500 to 100,000 have adopted the plan.

In many cities the rules governing sabbatical leave are similar. The time of service before granting such leave is usually seven years; that is, the eighth year is used. The teacher is obligated to remain for two or three years in the school system after her return, or a proportional return of the money granted while she was on leave; exceptions, however, are sometimes made in such instances as illness, or death in the family, in which case the return of the money is not demanded. Remuneration during absence is generally one-half the teacher's regular salary. The number of teachers permitted to be absent from the school system is usually not more than 1 per cent of the instructional force.

In Boston, where the plan has been in practice for a period of nearly 20 years, about 20 teachers avail themselves of it yearly. The superintendent of Richmond, Va., reports that each year from 5 to 10 teachers are on leave of absence for study. The assistant superintendent of schools of Rochester, N. Y., states that approximately 12 teachers take advantage of the plan yearly. The superintendent of schools of New York City says in a recent report that a half-year's leave was granted to 150 teachers in elementary and high schools

for the term beginning February 1, 1925, and to 228 teachers for the term beginning September, 1925.

TEACHERS' COUNCILS

A movement of the past few years that has been making some headway is the organization of teachers' councils. These councils are generally constituted for some or all of the following purposes: (1) To raise the standard of the teaching profession; (2) to encourage professional improvement; (3) to foster a spirit of sympathetic good will and helpfulness among teachers and a better understanding between teachers and officials; and (4) to democratize the school system, that is, to give teachers a voice in shaping educational policies.

The teachers' council, in other words, is the agency through which the superintendent of schools, the board of education, and the teaching corps arrive at a mutual understanding of the schools. That teachers should be consulted regarding the needs of the schools is evident, whether they be organized into councils or not. As expressed by Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary of the California Teachers' Association: "All progressive school people, whether administrators or classroom teachers, should see clearly the advantage and necessity of meeting upon a common ground for the discussion of common problems looking toward a common good."

Many cities have established regularly organized teachers' councils in connection with their school systems; others have established some medium enabling teacher cooperation. In reply to a questionnaire recently sent out by the American Federation of Teachers to 140 cities of 100,000 or more population and to two of the largest cities in States having no cities of this size, 35 cities replied that they had representative councils and 27 that they had some teacher-cooperating medium.

Both school authorities and teachers, according to the returns to this questionnaire, are highly favorable to the movement. Of 56 replies received, all are favorable except two.

The other replies to the questionnaire were in substance as follows:

In 22 cities the members of the councils are elected by component groups of the school system; in 8 by the faculty of each school; in 1 they are appointed by the executive board; and in 1 by the nominating committee.

The term of office of the members in 18 cities is one year, in 9 two years, in 3 three years, and in 2 indefinite.

Of 21 cities reporting as to whom the acts and decisions of the councils are referred for ratification, 7 report no one; 4, entire teaching body; 3 each, teacher groups and board of education;

1 each, superintendent, parent body, subcouncil, and teacher association.

The councils consider various questions, such as courses of study, textbooks, rating and promotion, supervision, physical equipment of schools, relation of school to community, teachers' salaries and pensions, and leave of absence.

As an example of the composition, etc., of a teachers' council in one city, that of Washington, D. C., is given below :

Teaching group.....	21
Supervision group.....	4
Administration.....	9
Clerical staff.....	2
Janitorial staff.....	2

The teaching group is divided as follows :

Kindergarten and primary.....	6
Intermediate grades.....	6
Specials.....	2
Junior high school grades.....	2
High schools.....	3
Normal schools.....	2

The total representation in each group is divided between the white and the colored staff. Of the grand total of 38, 16 are colored and 22 are white.

Each representative is selected by election by the group he represents. These groups in the case of the teaching staff are determined by the administrative school divisions into which the district is divided. The representative reports back to his own group the activities of the council, and receives instruction from his group relative to needs, desires, and opinions.

The teachers' council should be an advisory, not an administrative body; it should realize that it is not to usurp the prerogatives of the board or of the superintendent; it should not be a body for merely destructive criticism. Each delegate should represent fairly and frankly in the deliberation of the council the views of the group which he represents. Endeavor should be made to have all the discussions of the council lead to action that is helpful and constructive.

The following is from the 1926 report of the superintendent of schools of Chicago concerning the teachers' council in that city :

In accordance with a recommendation approved by the board of education on April 9, 1925, the superintendent of schools invited certain organizations within the Chicago school system to elect a representative for service in the Chicago public-school teachers' council. The board of education approved the organization of such a council "under the direction of the superintendent of schools for furnishing the superintendent with advice intended to maintain public-school service to a high degree of efficiency, the organization to be in accord with rules

and by-laws adopted and approved by the superintendent, or amendments hereafter made and approved by him. The meetings are to be held on call of the superintendent." Service is voluntary. The meetings are held at such times as best meet the convenience of the members and as avoid interfering with their other school service.

During the year the council considered: Banking in schools, distribution of milk, clerical work required of teachers, too much statistical reporting, distribution of circulars and notices to the rooms during school hours, exhibitions and pageants, collection of money, meetings called by principals during class time, too many fire drills, acceptance of gifts from pupils, teachers, etc., demands on parents for doing school work of pupils, minimum essentials, director of kindergarten, school publications, teachers' plan book, appraisal of teaching, rating the teachers, rating the principal.

THE VISITING TEACHER

In order to find out why the school does not function effectively for certain children, many city school systems are employing visiting teachers. The office of such teacher is to find the cause of maladjustments, whether they be in the school, the home, the neighborhood, or in the children themselves—in other words, the *whole* child must be understood, and not merely the five hours a day in which he is under the teacher's eye—and when the maladjustments have been found, it is the office of such teacher to endeavor to effect a cure.

The cases coming within the jurisdiction of the visiting teacher, to be more exact, are maladjustments in scholarship, involving subnormality, retardation, precocity; adverse home conditions—poverty, neglect, improper guardianship; misconduct, in and out of school; and irregular attendance.

In some cities, as Pasadena, Calif., visiting teachers are sent to children who are temporarily confined to their homes by reason of illness, so as to enable them to keep pace with their classes; also to those who are permanently removed from school, so that they may receive instruction. Every school day the visiting teacher is busy from six to eight hours visiting the homes of the smaller children, and every other day she visits the homes of the older children, hearing and outlining their lessons. In like manner Holyoke, Mass., is also undertaking the education of children who can not be transported to school.

The value of the visiting-teacher movement is attested by its growth. First adopted into the school systems of New York, Boston, and Hartford, Conn., in 1906-7, at the present time 74 cities report visiting teachers, many of which cities have from 15 to 20 such teachers each.

Among the cities emphasizing this activity may be mentioned Boston, Mass.; Dayton, Ohio; Chicago, Ill.; Cleveland, Ohio; Minneapolis, Minn.; New York City and Rochester, N. Y.

The staff of the visiting-teacher department of Rochester numbers 16—the director, 13 visiting teachers, a court representative, and a field worker for the Children's Memorial Scholarship Fund.

In Dayton, Ohio, the school board has recently established a visiting teacher's bureau as a part of the administrative department, with five teachers for the grade schools and two for the high schools. This number will be increased as the system becomes effective. New York City employs 22 visiting teachers.

In 61 of the 74 cities reporting the employment of such teachers their salaries are paid wholly from public funds. In 20 of these cities, it should be explained, the movement was sponsored by the national committee on visiting teachers of New York City, which paid two-thirds of their salaries for a stated time; then, when the value of the work had been fully demonstrated, it was taken over by the boards of education and the teachers were paid from public funds.

At the present time the national committee on visiting teachers is cooperating with six cities, and is paying two-thirds of their visiting teachers' salaries; in the remaining cities the salaries are paid wholly or in part from private funds of other organizations.

As further proof of the value of this movement the following quotations of city school officials and others are given:³

"Is as necessary to the school as the nurse or the doctor, the truant officer, the regular teacher. The work of the nurse and the truant officer is largely corrective; the work of the visiting teacher is essentially preventive."

"If I as principal were asked to give up one of my assistants or the visiting teacher, I should say: 'Take the assistant, but leave the visiting teacher.' She alone is able to care for the well-being—call it spiritual well-being if you will—of those children who need sympathetic guidance over the hard places in their young lives when there seems no one else quite ready to lend a hand."

"She has distinctly lessened the number of disciplinary cases * * * has lessened tardiness * * * is a valuable agent in selling the school to patrons * * * cooperates with the school nurse * * * finally, is the agent who interprets the school to the home and the home to the school."

"She has secured regular attendance on the part of truants * * * has explained why children were unable to keep up with their work, has given the class teacher more sympathy with the difficulties of the pupils * * * has brought assistance to children and mothers in need, many of whom would not ask, or did not know how to ask, for badly needed help."

The presiding justice of the children's court of New York says:⁴

Many children would find their way annually into the children's court if they were not assisted by a visiting teacher at the critical moment in their lives when the sinister influences of their environment begin to destroy what the schools are endeavoring to build up. The most effective treatment of delinquency and crime is their prevention. It saves human misery and taxpayers'

³ From the Visiting Teacher Movement, by Julius John Oppenheimer, published in 1924 by the Public Education Association, New York City.

⁴ *Ibid.*

dollars. If the full significance of the visiting teacher's work as a factor in preventing social wreckage and in building good citizenship, particularly in the adolescent period of our school children's lives, were understood, I believe that the board of education would provide a visiting teacher for every school in the city as a measure of economy.

SCHOOL PUBLICITY

One of the outstanding movements of recent years is the effort on the part of school boards and superintendents to keep the people informed about the schools—their aims, their work, their cost, their problems. Not so many years ago school superintendents hesitated about giving school news to the city papers or about issuing any publicity bulletins, partly because they thought that they would be accused of having an ambitious desire of seeing their names in print; but school publicity as now conceived has nothing to do with names of school officials except incidentally. The main purpose is to give news concerning the schools, not news concerning superintendents, principals, or teachers.

The movement for greater publicity has no doubt been hastened by American Education Week, when school superintendents in practically every city of the country make a special effort to interest the people in their schools. But the progressive superintendents have recognized the fact that, however valuable a week's intensive publicity may be, there should be continuous publicity; so they are making use of the press and are issuing bulletins on special phases of school work, giving talks before civic bodies on matters pertaining to education, exhibiting pupils' work, using the radio, and in many other ways keeping up a constant dissemination of news about the schools.

Several cities have organized school information bureaus, so that newspapers and others may obtain school news without, as Supt. William McAndrew expresses it, having to "corkscrew" it out of officials submerged in something else and who have no sense of news.

Many cities have put over big bond issues by intensive campaigns of publicity showing the need of new school buildings, but if a superintendent never gives out any information regarding the schools of his city except when money is needed he need not expect as hearty a response to his special appeals as if he had been conducting a continuous publicity program.

THE ALL-YEAR SCHOOL

Much has been written regarding the all-year school, but comparatively few cities are operating their schools on the all-year plan. Many have organized summer schools of 6 or 8 weeks in duration, but these schools usually serve only two classes of pupils, those who

have failed and those who by intensive work may gain an extra promotion. Since many school administrators favor the all-year school, the question arises, Why have not the cities of the country extended the summer session to 12 weeks as an integral part of the course? Possibly it is because the general public is not sufficiently well informed as to the advantages of a school session of 48 weeks, or it may be that boards of education hesitate on account of the additional expense involved.

That the school budget would have to be increased temporarily to run the schools 12 additional weeks is obvious, but if children may complete the 12-year course in fewer years the cost per pupil for his entire course might not be any greater than if the schools were in session only 36 weeks a year. To pass from the first grade up through high school requires 12 years, or 432 weeks, with 36 weeks to a year. Under the all-year plan a pupil would, theoretically at least, make the same advancement in 9 years of 48 weeks each. If this be true the cost per pupil completing the course would be no greater under the all-year plan. It might even be less, since the cost of maintenance during the summer months would be less.

The question to consider, however, is whether the schools can be made more efficient if operated on the all-year plan. Economy should not be measured by expenses but by returns. Increased expenditure often increases the rate of dividend. Many a business man fails because he does not put enough money into his business to make it pay. No doubt our schools would pay better dividends on the money invested if they were operated for the entire year. No business concern would let its plant lie idle for three months in the year, yet the school buildings of the country are idle for this length of time, and since there is nothing profitable for the great majority of the children to do during the summer vacation they are loafing or playing in the streets.

The time children spend in school is a comparatively small part of the time at their disposal. If a child sleeps 9 hours a day he has 15 waking hours. If he is in school 5½ hours a day for 5 days a week and 36 weeks in the year, he is in school only 990 hours out of the 5,475 hours that he is awake during the 365 days of the year, or he is in school only 18 per cent of his waking time. If the schools were conducted for 48 weeks a year a child would be in school 1,320 hours out of the 5,475 hours he is awake, or he would be in school only 24.1 per cent of his waking time. Supt. William McAndrew, discussing the all-year school in his report to the Chicago board of education, says:

Every real teacher is certain to remark some time in the opening weeks of school in September that her pupils seem to have forgotten during the summer everything they ever learned, as well as the ability to study, to carry

on under the school regimen. After 9 or 10 months of faithful, conscientious, painstaking work she sees her pupils leave school for the summer recess alert, mentally keen, morally alive youth of whom she is rightfully proud and in whom she has great hopes; but these same boys and girls too often come back to her in September stunted physically, intellectually, and morally. It is not humanly possible for the adolescent to loaf, to run the streets, for two or three months each year, without suffering a loss of knowledge and a breaking down of habits of application. The Board of Education of Chicago has stood out against interruptions of school work by extraneous interests. The summer recess is the most serious interruption the child encounters in school life. The only valid justification ever offered for closing schools in summer is the need for the help of the children on the farm. There exists no such need in urban circles.

During the past few years interest has been centered on the all-year schools of Newark, N. J. The board of education considered the matter of discontinuing the all-year schools of that city, which were first established there in 1912. Good results were reported until the superintendent of schools in his report to the board of education in 1924 called attention to certain disadvantages of the plan. The board, however, decided to continue the all-year schools until further study could be made of them. A preliminary survey was made by Dr. M. V. O'Shea and Dr. William Farrand in June, 1925. They recommended that a complete survey be made of the all-year schools. The school board adopted the recommendation, and a survey was made by Dr. M. V. O'Shea, Doctor Farrand, Dr. W. C. Ryan, Dr. W. A. McCall, Dr. A. T. Wylie, and Dr. P. K. Atkinson. The survey was made primarily to determine the efficiency of the all-year schools in comparison with the so-called traditional schools.

The committee found that while the all-year schools do not do what was originally claimed for them—that is, carry any considerable numbers of pupils through eight grades in six years—they do advance their pupils more rapidly and give them greater educational attainment than pupils of similar ability, heredity, and social background receive in the traditional schools; that while it takes the average pupil in the all-year school nearly eight years to complete the elementary grades, it takes the pupils of corresponding capacity in a traditional school a distinctly longer time; that while the all-year graduates do not make as good a showing in the high school as traditional graduates, the reason is not less efficient work in the schools but the innate capacity of the pupils themselves and the fact that the all-year schools are holding and carrying through a class of pupils who in the regular schools would be likely either to drop out or to be seriously retarded; that these schools, in the face of great difficulties, are doing extremely valuable work and are rendering a great service, particularly to children of foreign

parentage and unfavorable home conditions, and that these children will suffer educationally if the all-year schools are abolished; and that the additional cost is not excessive, considering the service rendered.

In view of all the evidence, the survey committee recommended that the all-year schools in Newark be continued and that they be given every facility to make their work even more effective than it has been thus far.

The Newark board of education, after giving the report of the survey committee due consideration, decided to continue the all-year schools. The report of the committee will no doubt awaken interest in other cities in the all-year school.

Nashville, Tenn., is another city that has from all reports made a success of all-year schools, which have been in operation in that city for three years, and which apply not to a part but to all of the schools or grades in the public-school system. The summer term of the all-year plan differs from the usual "summer school" or "vacation school" in that the work done is exactly the same in time spent and length of course as in any other term. No effort is made to crowd 18 weeks of work into a period of 8 or 10 weeks, the summer term having the same course of study as any other term. The school year is divided into four terms, or quarters, of 12 weeks each. A student completes a year's work either by carrying three terms' work during the regular year or substituting the summer term for one of the others. Attendance is not compulsory during the summer term, but by attending during this term a student so desiring may secure exemption from attendance during one of the other three following terms.

A report on the results of the experiment was published after the first year's experience. No later reports have been published, but the superintendent of schools writes that the second and third years were practically duplications of the first year, even to the per cent of number attending, number promoted, etc. On this basis the summer term's attendance, which is wholly voluntary, is 64 per cent of the regular term's enrollment, the per cent of attendance of those enrolled for the summer term is 94, and the per cent of punctuality is 99.78. At the end of the summer term 84.9 per cent are promoted, as against 79.3 per cent promoted at the end of the regular term.

The medical inspectors, who visit the schools regularly during the summer just as in any other term, report that they notice no bad effects from attending the summer term, but that on the contrary the general health of the children is improved by holding them to regular habits of living.

In the employment of teachers preference is given to regular ones, and 86 per cent of them elect to teach the summer term. The teachers

are paid their regular monthly salaries, thus enabling them to receive 12 months' pay and still have two weeks' vacation twice a year.

Mr. H. C. Weber, superintendent of the Nashville schools, summarizing the results of the all-year schools of that city, says:

These results confirmed the belief that there was real demand for educational opportunities at all times, that better results through continuous occupation were attained in all those things regarded as of prime importance in the training of the child—regularity, punctuality, attention to duty, contentment, cheerful obedience to authority, health of body, mind, and soul; that it is possible to shorten the time of preparation for productivity not only without hurt to the individual but with positive advantage to him, his country, and to the world at large.

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

One of the problems that school administrators have been attempting to solve is that of adapting the school to the individual pupil so that each may work according to his ability, and so that he may at the same time participate in the life of the school and thus be a member of a community and not a mere individual independent of every other child in the school.

The plan that is most used in solving this problem is to divide a given grade into a number of groups so that pupils of like ability will be in the same group. The usual plan is to form three groups, the rapid, the average, and the slow, and to adapt the curriculum and the instruction to each group. In some schools as many groups as possible are formed. If, for instance, there are 200 second-grade children in a building, the grade is divided into five or six groups, usually with more children in the faster-moving groups.

Various bases are used for classifying the pupils, as intelligence quotient, mental age, educational age, and teacher's judgment. There is usually a combination of two or more of the bases, the teacher's judgment appearing most often in combinations, and only rarely as the only basis for classification.

The plan of grouping pupils is used in the elementary grades more than in the junior and senior high schools. Of 163 cities with from 10,000 to 30,000 population reporting to the Bureau of Education, 145 have adopted the plan in some or all the elementary grades, 119 in some or all the junior high school grades, and 81 in some or all the senior or regular four-year high schools. Of 89 cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population reporting, 66 use the plan in elementary grades, 57 in the junior high school, and 36 in the senior or the four-year high school. Of 40 cities of 100,000 or more population, 36 use the plan in the elementary grades, 28 in the junior high school, and 26 in the senior or the four-year high school.

Among other methods of adapting the school to individual pupils may be mentioned the Dalton plan and the Winnetka technique.

Since much has been written about each of these plans, a description of their respective methods is not necessary. A few years ago Dalton, Mass., and Winnetka, Ill., were the only schools in the country using these plans. That each is being adopted is evident from replies made to a questionnaire submitted by the Bureau of Education to all cities of 10,000 or more population. Of 280 superintendents in cities of this size reporting, 44 are using the Dalton plan or some modification of it and 42 are using the Winnetka technique or an adaptation of it.

No scientific evaluation of the Dalton plan has been reported, but evidence from the schools that have adopted it indicates that it has certain merits. Possibly no school has operated on the plan long enough to make such an evaluation, but before the plan becomes widely adopted the school people will want all the data possible.

The Winnetka schools, after operating on an individual instruction plan for four years, were studied with a view of discovering the advantages and limitations of the plan. Some of the questions the survey sought to answer were answered quite satisfactorily, while no answers could be found to other questions. Among the latter were: Is individual work in the content subjects, as history and geography, as effective as in the "tool" subjects of reading, spelling, formal language, and arithmetic? Do pupils learn to use facts, and do they recognize their social significance as well when the facts are taught in individual self-corrective exercises as when introduced in their natural setting?

The report shows that the drill subjects are better mastered in the individual instruction plan, that grade repetition is eliminated, that more time per day is free for group and creative activities, that the effect of individual work in the elementary school as measured by marks in high school is satisfactory, and that no additional cost appears to be involved.

An experiment in individualizing instruction is described in the report of the board of education of Montclair, N. J., for 1925. The experiment was made to determine the relative effectiveness in arithmetic and spelling between the more formal, stereotyped, regimental, traditional method and one adapted to individual differences and personal needs. The one is described as the formal method and was used for a period of four months, and the other is described as the self-directed method and was used for three months. In each the personnel of the class was the same and was under the same teacher. The Stanford achievement test was used as a criterion to evaluate the results of the experiment. It was found that much greater gain had been made under the self-directed plan.

Some of the conclusions reached regarding the self-directed or individual method were:

1. The interest of the children in the work was largely spontaneous. They felt a keen need for further knowledge. They applied themselves eagerly to the work. They asked for more books to read and asked for more work in arithmetic.
2. The success of each child received recognition, often in graphic form. One of the greatest motives for further effort, for adults as well as children, is the satisfaction of accomplishing a given task successfully.
3. A difficulty met was a challenge to each child to think, independently, or cooperatively with a self-selected group. Often his approach to the teacher was an inquiry if his original method of solution were correct.
4. Each child was actively making an effort during a much longer proportion of the time than under the more formal, traditional plan of instruction.
5. In the discussion of the results and methods of others the pupils were learning to weigh advantages and disadvantages and to come to the conclusion of a judgment. Thus they were helping to determine their own methods of study; and they were frankly criticising each other.
6. Anyone who is having the experience of such frequent discussion of his methods and results, free and frank and yet under the kindly control of the teacher, *is developing an attitude that will enable him more intelligently to face adverse criticism.*
7. It is only fair to all children to let each progress at his own rate.
8. With the greater variety of opportunity for each individual more abilities have the chance for expression.
9. In individualizing instruction there is always the query: Is not real social intercourse eliminated entirely? In this experiment actual social intercourse and cooperation occurred to a far greater extent than under the formal classroom procedure.
10. The degree of achievement was greater under the self-directed than under the formal procedure.

No doubt other studies at Winnetka and in other cities that have adopted an individual instruction plan will tend to prove or disprove the worth of such plans, or they will indicate how they may be modified so as to produce the best results. Every school wants to know how to individualize instruction so that each pupil may advance according to ability and effort and at the same time be "socialized."

CURRICULUM REVISION

Within the past few years the reorganization of the elementary and the secondary school curricula has been receiving more attention from educational leaders than any other phase of school work. That conditions have changed in the cities of the country, and that a curriculum prepared only a few years ago no longer meets the needs of modern city life, have been fully recognized. The fact, too, that our ideas of education are changing has had its influence on curriculum construction. Not so many years ago the course in arithmetic was weighted down with "mental discipline problems." English

grammar courses were exercises in parsing and diagraming. No reputable educator to-day thinks of holding to these courses founded on a philosophy that has no scientific support. According to present-day thought the curriculum should be reconstructed largely in terms of contemporary American life and of the needs of the individual child as they are now understood. It naturally follows that, as conditions change and as our knowledge of the child changes, the school curricula must be revised to meet changed conditions and to conform with the newer conceptions of child life.

The need of a thorough revision of the curriculum having been recognized by the educational leaders, various national committees have been at work on curriculum studies and several reports have been prepared. Among these are the Fourth and Fifth Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence and the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

In many cities committees have been appointed composed of officers and teachers to make revisions of the curriculum. For this purpose some cities grant teachers leave for weeks or months on pay. Thousands of dollars are being spent to cover the extra expense for substitute teachers, research, and clerical assistance.

Although there is great interest in curriculum revision, not every city has made changes except possibly by the adoption of new textbooks. Of 390 cities of 10,000 or more population reporting to the Bureau of Education, 175 have made revisions or are in process of revising the curriculum. According to a study⁵ made by Dr. S. A. Courtis, 60 per cent of 132 cities replying to a questionnaire have made a general revision of their elementary school curriculum during the last three years and 75 per cent within the last five years.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The number of cities adopting the junior high school has continued to increase. In 1918 such schools were reported by 123 cities; now 484 cities report this type of organization. In these 484 cities there are 990 junior high schools.

The usual plan of organization includes grades 7, 8, and 9. Approximately 73 per cent of the cities include these three grades in the junior high school; 19 per cent include grades 7 and 8; 2 per cent grades 6, 7, and 8; 4 per cent grades 7, 8, 9, and 10; and 2 per cent grades 8 and 9. The aims and purposes of the junior high school are more clearly defined. It is no longer looked upon as a mere departmentalized organization of grades 7, 8, and 9, but as a school integrating elementary and secondary education. It concludes

⁵ Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I.

elementary and initiates secondary education. As expressed by Mr. James M. Glass: "It carries forward progressively its transitional articulation of elementary and secondary courses of study. It closes by starting the differentiation of secondary education. It continues the elementary school, it coordinates the school system, and it starts the secondary school."⁶

The junior high school, it is generally agreed by those who have made a study of its aims and purposes, should be free to work out its own program and courses of study adapted to the needs of boys and girls from approximately 12 to 15 years of age. In some cities, however, the junior high school program shows the influence of teachers higher up. Some senior high-school teachers of mathematics, for instance, want algebra as such taught in the junior high school instead of general mathematics. Some science teachers in senior high schools can not think in terms of the general science course offered in the junior high schools. This attitude of the senior high-school teachers, which was somewhat pronounced some years ago, is disappearing.

Even the colleges show a disposition to let the junior high school function as a separate organization. Some colleges already accept three years of senior high school work (12 units) for admission without reference to preceding work, and many others are inclined to accept 12 units of senior high school work for entrance; other institutions and accrediting agencies approve such procedure.

It is thus evident that the tendency is to leave the junior high school free to work out its own courses of study.

⁶ School Life, February, 1927.





