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Educational Theories and Curriculum Aspects of American and Cyprus Secondary Schools

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EDUCATIONAL THEORIES AND CURRICULUM ASPECTS
OF AMERICAN AND CYPRUS SECONDARY SCHOOLS

being

A thesis presented to the Graduate Faculty
of the Fort Hays Kansas State College in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the Degree of Master of Science

by

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Date

July 29, 1954

Approved

W. Clement Wood

Major Professor

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Chairman Graduate Council

ABSTRACT

Kazamias, Andreas M. (M. S., Department of Education)

EDUCATIONAL THEORIES AND CURRICULUM ASPECTS OF AMERICAN AND CYPRUS SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Thesis Directed by: Professor W. Clement Wood

The purpose of this study was to compare American and Cyprus secondary education, in regard to purposes, content, organization and presentation in an attempt to arrive at unbiased generalizations whereby the two systems might be viewed more critically.

In order to obtain reliable information on the American and Cyprus secondary education the following procedures were adopted:

1. Fourteen American states were selected, two from each of the seven divisions as listed in the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association entitled Trends in City School Organization. A letter was sent to the superintendent of public instruction in each state requesting him to recommend ten public high schools. An information blank was then mailed to the administrative officers of the recommended schools, seeking information pertinent to the purpose of the investigation.

2. Three secondary schools were selected from Cyprus from the classification in terms of type of curriculum, as cited in the Report of the Department of Education, 1951-1952.

3. A wide range of educational literature relative to the problem was consulted.

It was ascertained that in the United States schools seek to

attain the democratic ideals through, (1) social-civic, economic-vocational and individualistic-avocational activities, (2) emphasis on the functional present and (3) training in how to think.

The theories subscribed to by the greatest number of schools were that, (1) education should be concerned with adjustment of students to meet changing conditions, (2) truth is pragmatic, (3) students should be trained in a general education and a specific vocational pursuit, (4) each student should be regarded as a unique individual and (5) the fundamentals should be emphasized more than the other course offerings.

In regard to the curriculum it was found that in the majority of the schools, (1) it is broad and varied to suit different needs and interests, (2) it is society-centered with due regard to children's interests and abilities, (3) offerings and method of presentation are largely organized into separate subjects especially in the senior high schools, (4) co-curricular activities are emphasized as indispensable requisites in the wholesome integration of the child, (5) the methods of classroom instruction are largely the recitation method and the resource unit method, (6) evaluation implies not merely testing of factual information, but also growth in attitudes, skills, mental processes, interests and so forth, (7) disciplinary problems are handled through self-analysis techniques and co-operation with the parents, (8) the administration seeks large co-operation with the staff in program and policy matters, (9) the pupils have some part in the determination of curriculum content, and (10) the administration seeks some pupil co-operation in program and policy matters.

The findings indicated that in Cyprus secondary education is

based on the principles that, (1) preparation for present and future life is achieved through a study of values and learning as established by the great thinkers of the past, (2) the function of the school should be to discipline its students to conform to and to acquire the values and learning of the past especially those of ancient Hellas and the Greek Orthodox Church, (3) a general education in the humanities and the sciences is indispensable for man's adaptation to life, and (4) the training of the body although important for intellectual development should be secondary to the mental development and be carried out on classical lines.

In line with the foregoing principles the majority of schools in Cyprus offer a rigid curriculum mostly of the academic type with very limited vocational offerings. The method of classroom instruction is largely the lecture method, offerings are organized into separate subjects and students have to conform to a strict disciplinary code.

In view of the comparative study of the American and the Cyprus secondary education the following broad generalizations were formulated:

1. There should be equality of educational opportunities for every youth.
2. Values are both subjective and objective; they are not pragmatic.
3. A school should provide opportunities for individual and social integration but neither should be overemphasized at the expense of the other.
4. A general education should be the primary aim of the school

with the provision of a vocational environment.

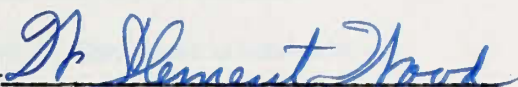
5. Close co-operation among the administration, the staff, the pupils and the community is essential in all aspects of the educational process.

6. The curriculum content should be presented in wholes not parts.

7. The school should have a varied extra-curricular program.

This abstract of about 700 words is approved as to content.

Signed



Advisor in charge of thesis

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The writer wishes to express his grateful appreciation to those persons who have in many ways helped in the preparation of this thesis. He is particularly indebted to Dr. W. C. Wood under whose direction and guidance the study was written, to Dr. Ralph Coder, Dr. Calvin Harbin, Dr. Kirk Naylor and Dr. Katharine Nutt for their suggestions and to Mrs. Pauline Lindner and Miss Geraldine Morris for their assistance in securing essential library materials.

Appreciation is also extended to the superintendents of public instruction of the fourteen American states, the administrative officers of the selected American and Cyprus schools, and the many American and Cypriot friends for their cooperation in gathering the required data.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The character of a country's educational system tends to be moulded by various forces and attitudes which govern the political, social, economic and cultural structure of that nation. Since, therefore, nations differ in their historical conditioning in regard to such forces and attitudes, their educational systems which tend to reflect their aims, aspirations and characteristics also differ. They possess features peculiarly their own which are outgrowths of indigenous national traits. For how else can the different educational theories and practices in such countries as France, England, Cyprus, the United States, Russia and India be explained.

Fundamentally the purposes and problems of education are in general somewhat similar in most countries. Almost all educational systems aim at citizenship, good character building, acquisition of skills and so forth. Or to set the objective on a more philosophical basis, practically all systems of education aim at the "good life". Nor are these commonplace purposes a twentieth century product. They have been the ideals for which man has striven since the early times of his existence as a civilized cosmic unit. From Plato to Dewey philosophers, religious thinkers, social reformers, teachers and citizens have shown the greatest concern in the induction of the young to the good life. Man has through the educational process endeavored to

imbue the young with the values of a good and full existence. While, however, the fundamental purposes and problems offer astonishing similarities in the many countries of the world, the solutions to such problems and the ways to achieve such purposes influenced by differences in traditions and cultures have given rise to as many different systems in organization, curricula, administration, discipline and evaluation as there are nationalities, societies or even small communities.

The peculiarities inherent in a country's educational system which has been built on deep seated national traditions and ideals, give it a unique color. This unique quality renders any attempts of transplanting a system or practices from one country to another futile without profound adaptations and modifications. A transplanting of the American¹ system to Cyprus would be like pouring water on the back of a duck. Nor can a single procedure be adopted without due regard to local conditions. This, however, does not negate the benefits of studying different systems of education. In fact the postwar conditions make the study of different systems a dire necessity. Having hardly survived the catastrophe of the recent global conflagration, the people of the world are faced with the impending possibilities of another, more fearful and more annihilating. Man, possessed of the most destructive weapons, is threatened by his own suicidal death. Mere material

¹The terms "American" and "America" as used in this investigation refer to the United States of America.

and financial aid has not solved the many problems of war-shattered countries. For the solution lies not in material things, but in values and the cultivation of values is the task of education.

It is incumbent, therefore, upon the people of the world to re-examine and reevaluate the prevailing educational theories and practices in order to seek and foster those values that will perpetuate the democratic and humanistic creeds. Herein, therefore, lies the significance of the study of various educational systems and especially those of countries that have been shouldered with the responsibilities of leadership in the post war era. The benefits are reciprocal. A nation cannot be a spiritual leader unless it is acquainted with the culture, the traditions and ideals of those over whom it has assumed leadership in the same way as a military alliance cannot be effective unless there is understanding of the parties involved in the alliance. Moreover, as a leading scholar of comparative education stated:

The study of foreign systems of education means a critical approach and a challenge to one's own philosophy and therefore a clearer analysis of the background and basis underlying the educational systems of one's own nation,²

The United States has assumed both the material and spiritual responsibility of affording leadership to many people of various nationalities since the second World War. It therefore behooves the educators of this country to cultivate in the younger generation the

² I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933), p. xix.

social, cultural and moral values that will be useful not only to their own people but also to the world. In 1943 I. L. Kandel in a prophetic tone said:

The United States will emerge from the present war into a position of world leadership such as she has never before enjoyed. If that leadership is to make any contribution to a sorely tired world, it will have to go far beyond mere philanthropy and humanitarianism, it will have to be a leadership which must concern itself not merely with the restoration of the financial economic and technological aspects of international affairs, but must furnish that guidance for which the world will look to the United States in human values and meanings.³ (Italics inserted by the writer)

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study is concerned with certain educational theories and curricular aspects of one hundred selected schools in the United States and three in Cyprus. Its purpose broadly conceived is twofold. In the first place it is an attempt to compare secondary education in the United States with secondary education in Cyprus in regard to (1) educational theories relating to the general purposes of education, the nature of knowledge, method and values and (2) curriculum content, organization, methodology of instruction, human relations and evaluation. In the second place it is an endeavor to arrive at unbiased generalizations so that elements in one system might be considered worthy of application to the other. The study,

³I. L. Kandel, The Cult of Uncertainty (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943), p. 116.

therefore, purports to present comparisons and peculiarities of the two systems so that reciprocal benefits may accrue.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The need for this⁴ thesis stems from three fundamental premises. The first premise relates to science and the scientific method. The scientific approach has since the time of Francis Bacon, Galileo and Newton so penetrated human endeavor in formulating statements and generalizations and in explaining the forces of the universe and the behavior of man that it merits continuous re-examination. The educational process has not escaped with immunity this general trend. If then the validity of this premise is accepted either wholly or partially namely, that education is a science or that scientific method should be employed in its study, the educator cannot afford any more than the chemist or physicist to ignore procedures which are being tried out under conditions somewhat different from those in which he is working.⁴ Procedures, therefore, that have been tried or are prevailing in the United States should be valuable to the educator in other countries and especially in Cyprus where knowledge of American education is scanty.

The significance of such a project is further to be sought in the second premise, namely, that since educational systems are

⁴I. L. Kandel, op. cit., p. xx.

living organizations compounded of traditions, cultures and ideals, their study provides a safeguard against over emphasis of the immediately practical, of nationalistic culture on the one hand and the freedom of individuals on the other. In other words the study of other systems by people of one nation helps to bring into relief the meaning and significance and the strengths and weaknesses of that nation's own system. By studying the American system of education, the people of Cyprus will be afforded the opportunity to examine critically and so revamp certain aspects of their own system. Conversely, the study of the educational system of Cyprus may offer challenges to the American system.

The third premise relates to the very important question of internationalism. It should be stressed at the outset that by internationalism the writer does not imply cosmopolitanism or world federation. What is meant here was best expressed by Kandel when he said:

Internationalism properly understood is inconceivable without nationalism, nor does it imply some form of supra-nationalism or cosmopolitanism, but rather the interplay and cooperation between the best spiritual contributions of each national group in the interests of a sane and sound development of world civilization and culture.... Self-determination of nations without regard for their neighbors is as unthinkable as the self-realization of the individuals of a nation without regard to their fellow citizens.⁵

Therefore, a study of the educational systems of the United States and Cyprus may contribute to the development of an internationalism based not on emotion or sentiment, but arising from an understand-

⁵Ibid., p. 14

ing of the two nations from the sense that all nations through their systems of education strive to contribute to the welfare and progress of the world.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The investigation is geographically limited (1) to the United States and the island of Cyprus and (2) to 100 secondary schools selected from fourteen American states,⁶ and three secondary schools selected from Nicosia, Cyprus.

A second limitation pertains to the type of the schools selected. All schools are on the secondary basis. Most of them are organized on the six-six and six-three-three plans.

Three schools follow the six-two-four plan, nine are four year senior high schools, two are three year senior high and three are three year junior high.⁷ These schools were included because they were recommended by the administrative officers. In the case of the State of Louisiana five of the six schools that answered the information blank were organized on a different plan than the one asked. All the selected American schools are public supported. The Cyprus schools are set up and financed through differing ways and methods.⁸

⁶The terms "secondary" and "high" are used interchangeably to refer to public supported institutions.

⁷For the names of these schools see Appendix A.

⁸There is no public system of secondary education in Cyprus comparable to the American. Schools are public in that they are open to the people, but private in that they (a) are not supported by taxes, (b) limit entries by payment of fees and passing of examinations.

The nature of the problem is so vast that an exhaustive treatment would be an impossibility. It would be too great a presumption to assert that 100 schools selected from only fourteen states would be a thorough representation of American secondary education. Notwithstanding such a limitation the schools have been selected from states representing areas of the United States so that a cross-section picture might be possible. The same holds true for Cyprus. The three schools selected although from only one city are representative of secondary schools on the island.

There are also limitations in regard to the educational theories and the aspects of the curricula with which the study is concerned.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF SCHOOLS

In order to obtain a representative selection the following procedures were adopted.

In regard to the United States. Two states were chosen from each of the seven divisions as listed in the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association entitled Trends in City School Organization.⁹

A letter was sent to the Superintendent of Public Instruction in each state requesting him to recommend ten public high schools

⁹National Education Association, Trends in City School Organization, 1938-1948. Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol., XXVII, No. 1 (Washington: National Education Association, February, 1949), p. 6.

organized either on the six-six or the six-three-three plan. Schools were recommended from twelve states. The Superintendents of Public Instruction of the States of Pennsylvania and Kansas did not commit themselves by recommending the number of schools asked, but each sent a copy of the Educational Directory. In the case of Kansas all the schools falling within the required category were selected from the directory.¹⁰ But the great number in the State of Pennsylvania called for a different selective process. The state is divided into 66 counties.¹¹ A school falling within the required category was arbitrarily selected from each fourth county and blanks were mailed to the administrative officer of each school.

In regard to Cyprus. The three schools selected from the island although they are all located in the same city, are representative of the secondary schools in Cyprus. The Pancyprian Gymnasium is the oldest school and considered the model of all the Greek Classical Gymnasiums which enroll about thirty percent of the high school population of the island.¹² The Samuel Commercial School represents the type of schools offering a general curriculum with subsidiary commercial subjects. The schools of this nature enroll about 28 per cent

¹⁰State Department of Public Instruction, Kansas Educational Directory, 1952-1953 (Topeka, Kansas)

¹¹Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction Directory, 1953-1954, Bulletin 70 (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania)

¹²Colonial Office, Report on Cyprus for the Year 1952 (Nicosia, Cyprus, Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 34.

of the high school population.¹³ The English School, Nicosia was chosen because:

(a) It represents the English modern type of school.

(b) It was the school from which the writer graduated and in which he taught for five years.

(c) It is the only school under direct government control.¹⁴

The others are under a Town School Committee or they are privately owned. Table I illustrates the types of schools in terms of the curricula offered.

A full list of all schools involved in this study is cited in Appendix A.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

The main sources of data for this study were:

(1) An information blank prepared by the writer and filled by the administrative officers of the selected schools in the United States. This technique sought opinion and fact.

(2) The official handbooks, catalogs, courses of study and other printed or mimeographed material published or issued by the selected schools of the United States and Cyprus.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Ibid.

TABLE I

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS ACCORDING TO THE CURRICULUM

Type of School in terms of Curriculum offered	Enrollment	Per cent of total
Greek Classical Gymnasiums under a town School Committee	4,336	30.47
Greek Classical (Private Schools)	744	5.23
Village High Schools (Greek) on a largely Greek Classical Curriculum	2,014	14.15
General Curriculum	949	6.67
General Curriculum with Subsidiary Commercial	3,953	27.78
English Modern	720	5.06
Turkish Classical combined with English Modern	1,515	10.64
Total	14,231	100.00

Compiled from G. F. Sleight, Report of the Department of Education of the School Year, 1951-1952 (Nicosia, Cyprus: Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 14.

(3) The Official Colonial Reports on Cyprus and the Official reports of the Department of Education of Cyprus.

Other sources of information used in this investigation were:

(1) Reports of national committees and commissions such as the Committee of Ten, 1893; the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1912-1918 and the Educational Policies Commission, 1938, of the National Education Association.

(2) A wide sampling of the literature written on the philosophy of education and the curriculum with particular emphasis on the Greek and American educational philosophers.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

An information blank was prepared and mailed to the administrative officers of the recommended and selected high schools. About 150 such blanks were sent. The response was very encouraging with 118 schools returning the completed blanks. The number of blanks received from some states especially Kansas and Pennsylvania, was unevenly distributed more than those of others. Consequently, a few of the returned blanks were eliminated, thus reducing the number to 100. Care was taken to include at least five schools from each state.

The investigation is arranged in seven chapters. Following the introductory sections comprising the first chapter there is a historical overview of American educational objectives and conceptions in Chapter II.

Chapter III deals with the philosophic dilemma and its educational implications in the United States with the last section presenting the data as accumulated through the information blanks and the official publications of the selected schools. The purpose of this chapter was to expound the views of the various schools of educational philosophy in order (a) to make the questions on the information blank more comprehensible (b) to indicate relationships between the views of experts and those current in the schools of the country.

Five aspects of the curriculum, (a) content, (b) organization, (c) method of presentation, (d) human relations and (e) evaluation form the gist of Chapter IV. After an introductory section on the nature and functions of the curriculum there follows a systematic treatment of the data as collected through the information blanks. This material is presented under the title of each above mentioned aspect.

The fifth chapter is concerned entirely with secondary education in Cyprus. The three sections in this chapter deal with (a) the general background, (b) philosophy of education, (c) the curriculum of the three selected schools.

In Chapter VI there is presented a comparison of the findings in the two systems, that of the United States and that of Cyprus.

In the final chapter the findings are summed up, generalizations are drawn and recommendations suggested in regard to both systems.

CHAPTER II

AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION: CONCEPTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

Point of View. Secondary education is generally conceived to be the schooling that educands receive from the time they graduate from the elementary school until the end of the senior year in the high school. In the United States secondary education implies, first, a process in that it is only one step in the formal educational ladder which begins with the kindergarten and ends with graduation from college, and, second, a product in that it seeks to inculcate values and skills for the attainment of a philosophy based on the democratic ideals as promulgated by the country's founding fathers and as reconstructed by the country's citizenry.

The American secondary school may be described in terms of various facets. It may be described as an enterprise with the citizens of the community as shareholders and the student population as the raw material, functioning for the purpose of moulding the younger generation into intelligent and self directive contributors to the general welfare of their country. It may be described as a microcosmic institution reflecting the broad American society in its multifarious manifestations, processes, and ideals. It may also be called a laboratory where a great deal of experimentation is carried out to test the validity of fast emerging educational theories. The processes and functions involved in all these three descriptions are interactive and aim at (a) the preservation of the national culture bequeathed to the Americans by

their ancestors (b) the integration of the personality of each individual to participate in that culture and (c) the promotion of leadership to further improve and reconstruct that culture to be in line with the continuous march of time. American culture throughout the country's national existence has rested on an endeavor to attain the American democratic ideals. To be true to the ideal of the worth of each individual the American public secondary school has been exercising a "Herculean effort" to set up programs with a wide scope of offerings extending to all youth and relating to the needs, interests and abilities of each individual.

In many respects the American public secondary school is unique in the world. In no other country, European, Asiatic or otherwise, does one find the comprehensiveness of offerings and activities of the American public school. In no other country can one find the experimentation, the revision and the constant development that characterizes the public secondary schools in the United States. Nowhere does the public secondary school reflect the milieu of society as in the United States.

It is, therefore, very unwise to judge American secondary education in terms of criteria set up in other countries. Many foreign educators in attempting to identify and explore American education examine only parts of it through their own country's standards and fall into the same mistakes as the blind men who sought to identify the elephant by touching its tail or its back. Two British educators comment on American education and interests in general thus:

A building, sixty years old in America is antique. American interests are all at the growing point of experience. Consequently the people are the slaves of fads and are in the incessant chaos of experiment; and their standards are little more than fashions.¹

Experimentation is a sign of healthiness in spite of the fact that on occasion it might lead to perplexity. The same approach is evidenced in the United States in regard to American judgment of foreign systems of education. The writer had occasion to converse with a high school principal in the state of Kansas on the relative merits and demerits of American and European systems. The American high school principal made this statement, "European schools stress facts but American schools place emphasis on functional activities." One, however, would ask, what are facts? Should facts be discarded? In this scientific age how can one arrive at conclusions without facts?

It is hoped that this investigation will elucidate certain points in regard to the nature and functions of two systems of education, the American and that of Cyprus and arrive at unbiased generalizations, based on opinion and fact and with due consideration to each country's own standards and ideals.

Historical background. There can be no arbitrary fixation of the year or period in which the American public high school as it is known today was started. By 1890 however, the establishment of public

¹Mary Stuart and Ellen C. Oaken, Matter and Method in Education (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubres & Co., Ltd, 1941), p. 76.

high schools was stimulated generally by state legislation or by state aid.

At first designed for a period of instruction beyond the elementary level to prepare students more fully for life, the high school soon came to be the only avenue of preparation for a large number of youths who wished to attend college.²

The incipency of the conflicting views in relation to the purpose of the high school can be seen in the early nineties. Was the function of the high school preparation for life or preparation for college? This dispute has not yet been settled and the expanded curriculum nowadays is an attempt to settle this issue.

At the close of the nineteenth century there were many social and economic forces operating to promote interest in secondary education. Amongst these there were three that directly affected the secondary school. These were the forces of urbanization, industrialization and the decline of the apprentice system.³ Education began to receive increasing attention from educational administrators, government agencies and professional organizations. The National Educational Association was the only important professional organization in a position to assume early leadership in the study of educational conditions. In 1892 it appointed the famous Committee of Ten which published in 1893

²J. Minor Gwynn, Curriculum Principles and Social Trends (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943) p. 17.

³Albert D. Graves, American Secondary Education (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1951), p. 11.

its Report on Secondary Education. This was the first important national report on American Secondary education and served mainly to provide the necessary preliminary standardization as a basis for future development.⁴

In view of the pressing needs that the changed economic and social conditions created the report of the Committee of Ten did not by any means resolve the problems of the times. Grizzell of the University of Pennsylvania says that, "The report is perhaps more significant because of what it failed to do than because of what it did."⁵ Inglis criticized the report in these words:

Without attempting a complete analysis of the recommendations we may note the following serious objections: (1) the almost complete failure to recognize the practical and vocational arts subjects; (2) the differentiation of curriculums on the basis of predominant subjects rather than on the basis of the activities of life to which pupils will apply their training; (3) the overemphasis on the study of foreign language required of all pupils and demanding from more than one-fifth to nearly one-half of all the time devoted to normal school work; (4) the failure to provide for those students who must leave school before the secondary school course can be completed; (6) the relatively small amount of flexibility afforded; (7) the failure in other ways to provide curriculums well suited to the demands of individual differences.⁶

It must not be overlooked, however, that Inglis was writing twenty-five years after the report was issued. The Committee of Ten

⁴Harl R. Douglass, editor, The High School Curriculum (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), p. 20.

⁵Ibid., p. 19.

⁶Alexander Inglis, Principles of Secondary Education (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1918), pp. 665-666.

could not possibly revolutionize the secondary school system overnight. The Committee of Ten recognized that the purpose of the high school is not primarily for college preparation but in its recommendations it saw no distinction in subject needs between college bound and non college bound students. The committee recommended four types of curriculum; the Classical, the Latin-Scientific, the English and the Modern Languages.

In spite of this division into four courses of study, the whole philosophy underlying the framing of the report was that the secondary school was primarily a college preparatory institution and that learning was to be acquired through the cultivation of the intellectual faculties. If people were properly trained in the proper use of their mental faculties then they would be prepared for life. This concept of course was not new in education. In essence it was the dominating psychological approach dating back to the Platonic and Aristotelian world framework which received great impetus under the British empiricist of the seventeenth century, John Locke. Locke like the Stoics and even Plato, Aristotle and Aeschylus compared mind to "white paper, void of all characters without any ideas."⁷ He believed that all knowledge is derived from experience through the senses and the faculties (perception,

⁷Thomas Fowler, Locke (London: Macmillan & Co. Ltd. 1902).

retention and discerning) or through sensation and reflection:

Our observation, employed either about external sensible objects or the internal operations of our minds, perceived and reflected on by ourselves, is that which supplies our understandings with all the materials of thinking, sensation and reflection.⁸

In Locke the emotions were encroached upon by the intellect. He would train the "gentleman" to consider always what is reasonable for this obedience to reason's dictates. As a preparation for this obedience to their own judgment when ripe the young should be trained to act in accordance with the judgments of the reasonable people who bring them up.⁹

However, Locke was writing "as a gentleman for gentlemen" for he believed that if those few "gentlemen" were by their education once set right, they would quickly bring all the rest into order. The same principles underlying Locke's class distinctive theory of education is to be found albeit somewhat different in Plato and Aristotle.

Modern social policy, however, emanating from modern conceptions of democracy dares not subscribe to Platonism, Aristotelianism or to Locke. Moreover, twentieth century psychology with its stress on individual differences and the organismic theory of learning has discredited the faculty psychology.

⁸John Locke, An Essay Concerning Human Understanding (Cambridge: the University Press, 1913).

⁹John Locke, Some Thoughts Concerning Education, with introduction and notes by R. H. Quick (Cambridge: The University Press, 1913).

The recommendations of the Committee of Ten and the principles embodied in its report originated a war between (1) those who believed that the primary function of a secondary school was for college preparation and (2) those who believed that its main purpose was to prepare for life. This conflict continued throughout the first decades of the twentieth century and full victory for the second group was not achieved until the twenties when experimental practices in psychology and education shifted the emphasis from subject matter to the child.¹⁰

Beginning with the Committee of Ten in 1893 there followed a number of such national groups which sought to settle the case of the place of the high school in American society. The ideas of these groups as regards the purposes of secondary education culminated in 1918 in the famous Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education formulated by a committee appointed by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. Some of the noteworthy groups between the period 1893-1918 were the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education (1895), the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), and the Committee on the Economy of Time in Education (1911).

The results of the type of thinking that stimulated the reports of these national organizations were epitomized by Graves as follows:

1. A highly compartmentalized curriculum and a thoroughly departmentalized faculty.
2. A course of study that was almost entirely academic.

¹⁰Gwynn, op. cit., p. 31.

3. A kind of learning devised to enable the student to pass examinations.
4. Growth measured in terms of credits and units.
5. Little articulation with the elementary school.
6. Increased attention to the selection of pupils.
7. Little vocational emphasis.
8. An emphasis on lesson learning rather than problem solving and upon verbal memory rather than competence.
9. A return to the concept of social distinction as a primary aim of the secondary school.
10. Little attention to individuals as such.¹¹

It should be emphasized here that the people who supported the principles underlying the recommendations of these national groups earnestly believed that through this type of content and method the high school youth could be better prepared for life. There are many people nowadays who still support these views. In other words, many people still believe that the proper way to equip the young people for competency and life adjustment is through the inculcation of subject matter, through mental discipline and through knowledge of the past as the prerequisite for life of the present and preparation for the future. These premises, of course, are not wholly devoid of validity. Such conflicting views will be discussed later in this investigation. Suffice

¹¹Graves, op. cit., p. 40.

it to mention here that it was not so much in regard to the ultimate aims of the high school that educators disagreed as to the means of implementing these aims.

The first decades of the twentieth century and World War I created more complex problems in American society. Educators were faced with problems of health, need for trained workers, increased urbanization, development of an industrial economy, a growing crime wave, increased admissions to mental hospitals and an unbalance in the distribution of goods and services in the general population. With the dawn of the century the United States had become a world power with commitments in all parts of the world. Her culture became more complex. The public looked at its secondary schools and did not like what they saw.

In 1912 the National Education Association appointed a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education under the direction of Clarence D. Kingsley. Its major recommendations for reorganization appeared in a bulletin entitled, The Cardinal Principles of Education (1918). This commission asked that secondary education be extended for all adolescents rather than confined to a selected group, that the emphasis be on training for citizenship and that specialized schools for special purposes be eliminated. It outlined the objectives of secondary education as, (1) health, (2) worthy home membership, (3) command of fundamental processes, (4) vocation, (5) civic education, (6) ethical character, (7) worthy use of leisure.

The following paragraph from the report is indicative of the general trend that education was taking:

Secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available. These factors are by no means static. Society is always in the process of development; the character of the secondary school population undergoes modification; and the sciences on which educational theory and practice depend constantly furnish new information. Secondary education, however, like any other established agency or society is conservative and trends to resist modification. Failure to make adjustments when the need arises leads to the necessity for extensive reorganization at irregular periods. The evidence is strong that such a comprehensive reorganization of secondary education is imperative at the present time.¹²

The emphasis placed upon citizenship and vocational preparation was not new. In 1859 Spencer in his book, Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical thought of education in terms of the full orbit of "complete living". He set forth the over-all purpose in these words:

How to live--that is the essential question for us. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those forces of happiness which nature supplies--how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others--how to live completely.¹³

Spencer then classified life needs and activities as the basis for the determination of the major objectives of education as:

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation (Health, safety)

¹²United States Bureau of Education, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35.

¹³Herbert Spencer, Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1861), pp. 11-12.

2. Those activities which by securing the necessities of life indirectly minister to self-preservation. (Vocation)
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring. (Family)
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations. (Citizenship)
5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings. (Leisure time)¹⁴

In spite of the fact, however, that the objectives set out by the Commission of 1918 were not new in the educational literature, they were the first views to be expressed by an authoritative American association and were based on the need of society and the needs of boys and girls. Moreover, it was an attempt "to define the purpose and scope of secondary education in a democratic nation."¹⁵

The vocational aspect of secondary education was further stimulated by the passing of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 by which Federal aid was granted to secondary schools. Hitherto vocational training was largely in the hands of training schools. From then on it became part of the secondary school curriculum and an integral part of the general educational program aiming at the total integration of the child.

By the middle of the twenties the new concepts in regard to the purposes and functions of education were well under way. The philosophical tractates of the greatest New World educational philosopher, John

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 13-14.

¹⁵Graves, op. cit., p. 42.

Dewey, and of his disciple, William Kilpatrick, and the principles and practices embodied in them set a faster pace for the complete reorganization of educational procedures in both the elementary and the high school. Dewey's educational theories emanated from his general philosophy usually known as "Pragmatism" or "Experimentalism" or "Instrumentalism." It was usually associated with such pioneers as James, Pierce and Parker. The philosophy of pragmatism will be given more attention later in this thesis. It would be opportune, however, to mention here a few of the educational principles that grew out of pragmatism. No other book explains fuller the pragmatic theories of education than John Dewey's Democracy and Education which appeared in 1916 and soon became the "gospel" of educators and teachers. According to Dewey:

. . . life is development, and that developing growing is life. Translated into its educational equivalents, this means (1) that the educational process has no end beyond itself; it is its own end; and that (2) the educational process is one of continual reorganizing, reconstructing, transforming.¹⁶

Dewey believed that mind and intelligence have evolved in a purely natural way. He repudiated the age old dualistic theories of mind and body, man and society, play and work, subject matter and method or the dichotomy between the "intellectual" and "practical", "reason" and "Experience", "knowledge and activity". Education according to Dewey

¹⁶John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1921), p. 59.

is growth involving the entire human organism in its activities-- mental, physical, social, emotional--to adjust itself to the forces of the environment.

Since in reality there is nothing to which growth is relative save more growth, there is nothing to which education is subordinate save more education . . .

Since growth is the characteristic of life, education is all one with growing, it has no end beyond itself. The criterion of the value of school education is the extent in which it creates a desire for continued growth and supplies means for making the desire effective in fact.¹⁷

Education in Dewey's thinking is a process without any end. It is its own end. Nor is it to be conceived as "preparation for life", but it is itself life. The child while at school should be brought in contact with the total gamut of the experiences of the race. The school in other words should be a miniature society, a microcosm reflecting the macrocosm. Nor should education cease after school. Since human experience changes from moment to moment and since the individual has to continuously adapt himself to changing situations, then education is a life long process. The individual's changed activities to meet the societal changes bring about new experiences. Therefore, experience is revised, reorganized, reconstructed. This growing, changing, or reconstruction of experience is what Dewey understood as education.

It has been customary for educational philosophers to set up

¹⁷Ibid., p. 60-62.

ultimate aims and often also to define intermediate aims for each particular stage of development. Dewey did not countenance such aims. He said:

It has all the time an immediate end, and so far as activity is educative, it reaches that end--the direct transformation of the quality of experience. Infancy, youth, adult life--all stand on the same educative level in the sense that what is really learned at any and every state of experience constitutes the value of that experience; and in the sense that it is the chief business of life at every point to make living thus contribute to an enrichment of its own perceptible meaning.

. . . An aim implies an orderly and ordered activity, over in which the order consists in the progressive completing of a process.

. . . The aim . . . is experimental and hence constantly growing as it is tested in action.

. . . The doing with the thing, not the thing in isolation is his end . . . an end is both end and means.¹⁸

Basing his arguments on these assumptions Dewey sets as his aims, (a) growth or rational development, (b) social efficiency, i. e., industrial competency, good citizenship and (c) culture.¹⁹ Furthermore, the aims set up by the teacher or educator are not the aims which the child chooses for himself. Educational aims can be determined only by the child's own being, and are always approximate, never ultimate. As the child acts only in the living present, setting up approximate aims and readjusting his experiences as he goes along, the process of education

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 119-123.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 138-145.

is identical with the process of living. The continuous enrichment of experience by readjusting to the complexities of the environment constitutes, therefore, the heart of education.

According to Dewey the cardinal laws for education are two, the psychological and the sociological. There is on the one hand the individual child with all his native powers, capacities, interests and instincts, and on the other, there is the social world with all its on going activities, institutions, customs and attitudes. The child's instincts do not exist as mechanical forces that unfold in a predetermined way. They are mere tendencies to activity and develop a real character only as they are brought into exercise in social situations. Their nature is constituted in and by social activity. All these interests are brought into functions in pursuing the great social activities, getting food, shelter and clothing. These are the activities which have brought about the evolution of the human organisms and of society and which must form the curricula of the school.

The best method in Dewey's thinking so far as education is concerned is the method of direct experience. He demanded concrete, meaningful situations in the educational process. In other words Dewey initiated what was called the "activity" curriculum. As a corollary to direct participation in the concrete situations he insisted on interest, effort and motivation, which started another movement in American education, "The child-centered" school and progressivism.

It was to be expected then that Dewey emphasized "vocationalism"

in schools and play as the experience for the acquisition of knowledge as well as history and geography as the two bodies of intellectual material that most fully reveal the life of society as a whole. However, he repudiated the traditional methods of the teaching of these subjects, and Dewey is to be given full credit for inaugurating a more functional and meaningful approach to these two bodies of human knowledge.

Dewey envisaged a democratic society in his thinking. According to him society can be called democratic if it provides:

- (a) More numerous and more varied points of shared common interest
- (b) Free interaction between social groups plus change in habit and readjustment

. . . A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience . . .

A society marked off into classes need be specially attentive only to the education of its ruling elements. A society which is mobile, which is full of channels for the distribution of a change occurring anywhere, must see to it that its members are educated to personal initiative and adaptability.²⁰

Dewey's educational philosophy may be epitomized in terms of the following principles:

1. Education is life, not a preparation for life.
2. The aim of education is social efficiency; utilization rather than subordination of capacities of individuals.

²⁰Ibid., pp. 101-102

3. Education takes place by participation.
4. The means of education are: play, constructive use of tools, contact with nature, expression and activity.
5. Education is the means of social continuity.
6. The public school is the chief means of social betterment.
7. The ideal school is a miniature society.
8. The goal of the school is cooperation and mutually helpful living.
9. Learning takes place by doing; originality and initiative are the chief values of the school.
10. No obedience and submission.
11. Educational bases are psychological and sociological.
12. The method of education is the reconstruction of experience.²¹

The Deweyan educational principles have been expounded in greater detail for three fundamental reasons.

(a) Dewey is usually recognized as the chief exponent of the philosophy known as pragmatism which in many respects is indigenous to the United States.

(b) So far as twentieth century American education is concerned Dewey merits the title of "the philosopher" as Aristotle did in the medieval period.

(c) Dewey is known outside the United States more than any other American educational philosopher.

²¹Merritt M. Thompson, The History of Education (New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1951), pp. 51-52.

Statements by other well-known educators reflect the new course that education in the twenties was taking.

Inglis listed three fundamental aims of secondary education:

1. The Social-Civic Aims, i. e., the preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and cooperating member of society.
2. The Economic-Vocational Aim, i. e., the preparation of the individual as a prospective worker and producer.
3. The Individualistic-Avocational Aim, i. e., the preparation of the individual for those activities which, while primarily involving individual action, the utilization of leisure and the development of personality, are of great importance to society.²²

Bobbitt who in Bossing's words, "is the most thorough group disciple of the Spencerian idea"²³ lists the following activities as the major objectives of education:

1. Language activities, social intercommunication.
2. Health activities.
3. Citizenship activities.
4. General social activities--meeting and mingling with others.
5. Spare time activities, amusements, recreation.
6. Keeping one's self mentally fit--analogous to the health activities of keeping one's self physically fit.
7. Religious activities
8. Parental activities, the upbringing of children, the maintenance of a proper home life.

²²Inglis, op. cit., p. 368.

²³Nelson Bossing, Principles of Secondary Education (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), p. 29.

9. Unspecialized or non-vocational practical activities.
10. The labors of one's calling.²⁴

Koos reiterates the social-civic-vocational-recreational aims and functions of secondary education thus:

Aims

1. Civic-social-moral responsibility
2. Recreational and aesthetic participation and appreciation
3. Occupational efficiency
4. Personal efficiency

Functions

1. Achieving a democratic secondary education
2. Recognizing individual differences
3. Providing for exploration and guidance
4. Recognizing the adolescent nature of pupils
5. Imparting knowledge and skills in fundamental processes
6. Fostering the transfer of training.²⁵

Changes in the fabric of the American society and the developing scientific approaches to the educational process and the behavior of man, were moving at an accelerated pace in the twenties and the thirties. There was an extension of compulsory school attendance; there was development

²⁴Franklin Bobbitt, How to Make a Curriculum (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1927), p. 8.

²⁵Leonard V. Koos, The American Secondary School (Chicago: Gwinn and Company, 1927), pp. 153-157.

of a mechanized industry; there was a movement toward economy of time; there was the psychology of individual differences (the study of children's traits, instincts, abilities and responses); there was federal aid for vocational education; and there was the mass education motive which has been the controlling influence in the development of American education since 1920.

The new approach to educational problems came to be known as "progressivism". Two distinct camps were created, the "progressive" and the "traditional" or "essentialist". The differences of these two schools of thought are exhibited more in relation to method of implementing the aims rather than in the aims themselves. The "progressive" movement in education includes the philosophies of "pragmatism" and "naturalism", the traditional comprises also "idealism" and "realism".

The characteristics and persons associated with each concept have been aptly summarized by Gwynn as follows:

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

CHARACTERISTICS

Freedom
 Independent thinking
 Initiative
 Self-reliance
 Interests, urges and needs
 Social orientation
 Social organization and shared experience
 Problem solving
 Activity
 Individuality
 Self-expression
 Purposeful learning
 Connection with normal life outside of school

EDUCATORS

John Dewey
 Boyd Bode
 W. H. Kilpatrick
 Carleton Washburne
 Ralph Tyler
 Carson Ryan
 Lester Dix
 James Tippet
 Caroline Zachry
 E. L. Thorndike
 Harold Rugg
 George Counts
 Murray and Doris Lee
 Alice Keliher
 Harold Hand

Guidance of the child
 Development of the "whole" child
 Democratic sharing between pupil and teacher
 Individual differences
 Change and novelty
 No final or fixed values in advance
 Constant revision of aims
 Experimental techniques of learning and teaching
 Education as reconstructor of society

THE ESSENTIALIST (TRADITIONAL) MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION

CHARACTERISTICS

Freedom as a social privilege
 Freedom as an outcome, not as a means of
 education
 Discipline as needed in life
 Learning as a realization, not as creation
 Initiative as self-disciplining activity
 Interests as a part of law and order in the
 universe
 Intellectual development
 Learning for future use
 Gap between school life and the outside
 world

EDUCATORS

W. C. Bagley
 H. H. Horne
 M. Demiashkevich
 T. H. Briggs
 H. C. Morrison
 Franklin Bobbitt
 I. L. Kandel

Education as eternal striving for the perfect or absolute
 Training of the child for adaptation to the mores of society
 Certain fixed educational values
 Set curriculum
 Minimum essentials which all must learn, such as the classics in lit-
 erature, mathematics, history and science
 Education as conformity to the laws of the universe.
 Education as creature, not creator of society
 Education as the process of transmission of the heritage and culture
 of the race.²⁶

The "progressives" conceive of education as the constant re-
 construction of experience because in a continually evolving world ex-
 perience is always more or less in need of revision. The process of

²⁶Gwynn, op. cit., pp. 45-46.

growth will be education's own end. According to the "traditionalists", experience fluctuates too much to be a satisfactory source of educational aims, and consequently any aims arising out of such a flux could hardly be steady enough to give effective guidance to the educative process.²⁷ According to the progressives the curriculum should be fitted to the child's needs but the traditionalists believe that the child should be fitted to the curriculum. The progressives believe in experience and the scientific method. The unit element in the curriculum is neither facts and skills nor subjects of instruction but a novelty developing life situation. In other words, the curriculum uses subject matter but it does not conceive of it. The progressives adhere to the belief that education should be a preparation for life by presenting life as it is and any learning experience should be valued according to the child's use and own value. The essentialists believe that there are certain essential values that are immutable and the child should be trained in their acquisition. Moreover, the essentialists believe that preparation for life can be implemented through learning the present plus the past values.

The conflict of the progressivism versus traditionalism has not been reconciled. Conflicts, however, are healthy signs of development for they result in experimentation, revision and adaptation. Moreover,

²⁷John S. Brubacher, Modern Philosophies of Education (Second edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 22.

it would be a fallacy to insist that both concepts are carried out in extremities, for there are common objectives inherent in both.

This conflict in regard to the educational process coupled with the great depression of the thirties called for further restatements of educational objectives by individuals and national groups.

Nelson Bossing stated that the purposes of education in any society are:

1. Knowing or understanding of the approved cultural environmental behavior patterns of the group.
2. Insuring that every individual in the group acquires those skills which will enable him to achieve efficient adjustments to the approved behavior patterns demanded by him.
3. Insuring that society has inculcated in youth the approved attitudes of the group.

In criticizing modern trends Bossing stated:

We have suffered a cultural lag because scientific development has advanced in its reconstruction of our physical world far beyond our willingness or ability probably both to match physical reconstruction with appropriate social reconstruction.²⁹

In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association issued a 157 page tractate in which were embodied the most thorough and comprehensive objectives of education ever formulated by a national organization. The treatise was entitled, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.³⁰ It sought to specify certain principles and ob-

²⁸Bossing, op. cit., p. 264

²⁹Ibid., p. 265.

³⁰Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy (Washington: National Education Association, 1938), 157 pp.

jectives which would serve as guides for the American schools in setting up their programs and adopting procedures that would properly induct the American youth into the democratic processes and ideals as the surest safeguard for the consolidation of a democratic society against totalitarianism.

The Commission indicated five democratic processes, (a) the general welfare, (b) civil liberty, (c) the consent of the governed, (d) appeal to reason and (e) the pursuit of happiness.³¹

To make these fundamental principles directive in the life of every citizen the Commission formulated four groups of objectives:

1. The objective of self-realization
2. The objective of human relationships
3. The objective of economic efficiency
4. The objective of civic responsibility.³²

The Commission envisaged a truly democratic school system which "strives above all else to recognize individual differences and provide for the development of desirable traits."³³

According to this group:

There can be no lasting contribution to peace, reason and order from a school in which the discipline is based on autocracy; from a school in which the mainspring of effort is rivalry; from

³¹Ibid., pp. 7-8.

³²Ibid., p. 27.

³³Ibid., p. 22.

a school in which the chief purpose is personal advancement; from a school where the very atmosphere is heavy with intolerance, fear and suspicion; from a school that ignores and overwhelms the living individual personality of each child.³⁴

Speaking on the general end of education in America the Commission says:

The general end of education in America at the present time is the fullest possible development of the individual within the framework of our present industrialized democratic society.

. . . Education, therefore, seeks to encourage the mastery of such knowledge, the acquisition of such attitudes and the development of such habits as make a socially desirable way of living likely to be followed by the learner.³⁵

The work done by groups, state and national and by leading educators in relation to educational objectives and functions extends far wider than has been shown in this chapter. It would be humanly impossible to compile all the information within the scope of this investigation. Harold Spears cites nine study groups since 1918 that have been set to work to determine the place of the high school in American life.³⁶ However, this historical resume of educational purposes and principles in this chapter would be lacking if nothing were said about the Harvard Report entitled, General Education in a Free Society, published in 1945. The Harvard Committee that framed the report reiterates the point that

³⁴Ibid., p. 31.

³⁵Ibid., pp. 41-42.

³⁶Harold Spears, The High School For Today (New York: American Book Company, 1950), pp. 24-44.

secondary education should be twofold, (a) general and (b) specialized.

Taken as a whole, education seeks to do two things, help young people to fulfill the unique, particular functions in life which it is in them to fulfill and fit them so far as it can for those common spheres which as citizens and heirs of a joint culture, they will share with others.³⁷

This Harvard report does not repudiate completely traditional practices. It states:

Education, like all society's prime needs, changes as society changes. Yet since the general character of a culture changes more slowly and human nature more slowly still, if at all, there exist also relatively constant elements in education.³⁸

Though sketchily approached this section has sought to indicate some highlights in the flux of development of educational purposes in American education in the last sixty years in order to gain a deeper understanding of current theories and procedures.

³⁷Ibid., p. 38.

³⁸Ibid.

CHAPTER III

THE PHILOSOPHIC DILEMMA AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

Definition of philosophy and its purpose in education. The term philosophy is derived from the Greek words "philos" meaning lover and "sophia" meaning wisdom. Philosophy, then, literally interpreted implies the love of wisdom. The ancient Greeks held wisdom to be one of the four cardinal virtues, the other three being justice ($\delta\iota\kappa\alpha\iota\omicron\upsilon\sigma\acute{\upsilon}\nu\eta$), bravery ($\acute{\alpha}\nu\delta\rho\epsilon\iota\acute{\alpha}$) and temperance or sobriety or moderation ($\sigma\omega\phi\rho\omicron\sigma\acute{\upsilon}\nu\eta$). Commenting on the importance of the wise and good life Plato stated in his Republic:

For the fact is dear friend', said I, 'If you can discover a better way of life than office holding for your future rulers, a well-governed city becomes a possibility. For only in such a state will those rule who are really rich, not in gold, but in the wealth that makes happiness--a good and wise life.¹

Plato envisaged an ideal state ruled by the philosopher kings or people that climbed his social ladder and acquired the virtues of wisdom, justice and temperance. To Plato such a state was democratic. Modern democracy, however, differs from the Greek conception. Modern democracy rests on the worth of each individual and the right of each individual to choose his own representative form of government. Moreover, the government exists through the consent of the governed. Therefore, a truly modern democracy or a representative democracy can only survive

¹Plato, The Republic. English translation by Paul Shorey (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1935), p. 140.

if the individuals themselves are orientated to the wise and good life. Theories and practices in regard to attainment of the wise and good life have always been perplexing in spite of modern assertions to the contrary. Aristotle in his Politics wrote 2500 years ago:

As things are . . . mankind are by no means agreed about the things to be taught, whether we look to virtue or the best life. Neither is it clear whether education is more concerned with intellectual or moral virtue. The existing practice is perplexing: no one knowing on what principle we should proceed—should the useful in life, or should virtue, or should the higher knowledge be the aims of our training; all three opinions have been entertained: Again about the means there is no agreement: for different persons, starting with different ideas about the nature of virtue, naturally disagree about the practice of it.²

Aristotle's words might have been written today with a significance befitting the twentieth century situation of monarchistic, communistic and democratic political structures, industrial economies, international warfares and scientific advances. The fundamental age-old problems of how to educate the children for the dynamic social conditions in which they live is tantamount now as it was in the Aristotelian era. What is to be done, therefore, in the face of this perplexity. When one is confronted with conflicting educational theories and practices one must seek some common denominator, some "principle" as Aristotle said, which will enable modern societies to resolve the conflict or at least achieve some balance of mind. "This search for principle is, in a nutshell the mainspring for the study of philosophy."³

²Quoted by Brubacher, Modern Philosophies of Education. Second edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 1.

³ Ibid., p. 3.

Wahlquist defines philosophy as "The attempt to make our experience intelligible" and he proceeds,

This quest involves critical thinking, as distinguished from merely holding opinions or having prejudices. Moreover, critical thinking involves more than day dreaming, wool gathering or fantasies. Critical thinking has to be cultivated and sustained. The deeper the philosophic problem, the greater the power of thought.⁴

Alberty explains philosophy in terms of the cultivation of values.

Philosophy involves the cultivation of a set of values which serves as a guide to conduct.

Thus when we speak of the philosophy of a school we refer to the purposes that give direction to the activity which it sponsors, to the beliefs which the teaching staff holds concerning the development of human personality, to its inception of the nature of the good life in our society.⁵

If then philosophy is the attempt to make life intelligible, if it seeks to establish values whereby individuals can enjoy a full and happy life the educators cannot ignore it. The educator is concerned with goals, purposes and functions. He is concerned with curriculum, method of teaching, the nature of the school, the lives of pupils, the individual and society. Whether he likes it or not he must philosophize. Mathew Arnold's often quoted remark that philosophy is the attempt to see life steadily and to see it whole may be para-

⁴John T. Wahlquist, The Philosophy of American Education (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1942), p. 6-7.

⁵Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947), p. 29-30.

phrased by saying that educational philosophy, "is the attempt to see school life steadily and to see it whole."⁶

As one may see from the above an educator, whether he is a college professor, an administrator, a curriculum organizer, or a teacher, must have a philosophy to be guided by in his practices. Not only must he have a philosophy, but his philosophy must be consistent. Otherwise he will be like a rudderless boat in a tempestuous sea.

To have a consistent and purposeful set of principles and objectives in regard to either the individual's own life or to the educational process is not as easy as it is often interpreted to be. It is often said that each individual has his own philosophy. If by that it is meant that each individual has certain preferences, certain things he prizes most or certain desires to which he gives allegiance and which form a pattern of living then it must also be admitted that such an interpretation of philosophy is a half-truth. A true philosophy of life is that which draws its material from the answers to such questions as: What is man? What is the universe? What is man's relation and place in the cosmos? What is truth? What is reality? What is knowledge? What is right and what is wrong? What is beautiful and what is ugly? What is good and what is bad? A true philosophy also is characterized by unity and consistency in a set of values which give

⁶Wahlquist, loc. cit.

direction to action, to living.

Answers to philosophical queries have been given by various thinkers since the dawn of civilized existence. So many different philosophical views have emerged that the modern individual whether a professional educator or a layman is quite befuddled, for strangely enough there exist truths and unity in every school of thought. In the maze of this philosophical speculation many teachers either repudiate philosophy in its entirety or they become the indoctrinated disciples of the viewpoint of an instructor or institution to the extent sometimes of becoming radicals rather than liberals.⁷ Others adopt an "eclectic" viewpoint encompassing odd bits and pieces of the various schools. Be that as it may, provided that the student of education whether an idealist, realist, pragmatist, empiricist or eclectic has developed consistent principles of his own, and is not immersed in the meshes of confusion, then he may rightly be credited with worthwhileness in his calling. Even if a student espouses one school of thought he needs to be oriented in the pros and cons of the other schools. As Wahlquist said,

The student who is conversant with the arguments for several viewpoints holds a stronger position than that held by an individual converted to one, while in almost complete ignorance of the others.⁸

For the purposes of this study a concise view of the most impor-

⁷Ibid., p. 12.

⁸Ibid.

tant schools of philosophy will be given together with the implications of each in regard to education. The opinions of the administrators of the hundred schools selected together with the framed educational philosophies as located in the official publications of certain schools will follow.

Idealism and Rationalism. In the first place there is the school known as "idealism". In regard to the theory of reality the idealist holds that it is of the nature of mind. Far and beyond the visible physical world or the world of matter there is the real world of spirit or mind achieved through reason, intelligence, personality and values. To Plato this kind of metaphysical reality was the realm of ideas, the knowledge of "being", the unchangeable, the eternally real. To Aristotle it was the "pure form", to Thomas Aquinas, "God".

Man according to the idealist is a unique personality far removed from the animal world. He is more than a natural fact. He is a spirit guided by goals of his own creation. He is microcosm reflecting the macrocosm.⁹ According to some idealists, man is a microcosmic representation of God combining in him the elements of the universe.¹⁰ According to others man by realizing himself to the fullest of his capacities, reaches perfection in himself and in society.

In regard to what is truth or what is knowledge, the idealist

⁹Ibid., p. 48.

¹⁰Brubacher, op. cit., p. 72.

holds that anything is true if it corresponds to the metaphysical concept of reality. Truth is immutable and absolute, existing external-ly of man and man has to seek it. The true world according to the idealist is the changeless realm of concepts, essentials, universals and truths. Goodness, justice and beauty have a real existence, in- dependent of man, although revealing themselves in the minds of think- ing men.¹¹ Idealists are often times called the rationalists who hold that the mind consists of certain faculties which if exercised will lead to the discovery of truth.¹²

What then are the implications of "idealism" or "rationalism" in regard to education, its aims, its curriculum, its methodology and organization

Idealists like Jacques Maritain advocate a theological and meta- physical foundation for programs of general education with emphasis on religion and the classical humanities. These people hold that an ed- ucational system should seek to approach the system of "absolute truths" concerning the nature of man and his relation to God. Others like Mortimer Adler, Robert M. Hutchins and Mark Van Doren are more secular- ized in their approach, but their beliefs are common in that the clas- sical thinkers of the past have established certain values which have weathered all adversities and have emerged intact and unbesmirched.

¹¹Wahlquist, op. cit., p. 49.

¹²National Society for the Study of Education, General Education 51st. Yearbook. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1952), p.27-28.

Consequently, the aims of an educational system should be to inculcate those immutable values in the individual child. Values are absolute and not confined to any particular time or place. So is man's reason, the cultivation of which should be the sole aim of education. Since, therefore, values are the same everywhere and since man's reason is the same education should be the same.¹³ These people conceive of the educational process as the acquisition on the part of the young of the values and traditions of Western civilization embodied in the great works of literature, art and the sciences, both social and physical. They, therefore, emphasized the study of the established past as a preparation for the present and future existence. For according to them the past is carried to the present and continues in the future.

Mark Van Doren in his book, Liberal Education states:

The medium of liberal education is that portion of the past which is always present. It consists of the liberal arts, literary and mathematical, because they control thinking whenever thinking is done; and equally it consists of the great works in which meaning has been given to the ideal statement that human life is itself an art.¹⁴

Speaking about the curriculum he says that it already exists and adds that:

It remains only to be rediscovered and to be put into effect by teachers who know how discipline in language, literature and science is best made lovable and desirable, and

¹³Ibid., p. 28.

¹⁴National Society for the Study of Education, loc. cit.

and who have the discipline themselves because they have mastered its medium.¹⁵

The practical program of the rationalists consists of lectures, discussions and reading of material drawn from the history of literature, philosophy, science and the arts.¹⁶

The social philosophy of this system is that of protection and conservation of an orderly society. In its relation to man and society it implies a class distinction in that those endowed with strong faculties of reasoning and abstract speculation should receive higher education.¹⁷ Furthermore, according to the rationalists the student,

Who has been educated in the rationalist style needs only the ability to reason on the basis of his knowledge of the Western tradition in order to carry out the responsibilities of citizenship.¹⁸

Realism. The second great school of philosophical thought is often labeled "modern realism". In regard to the nature of reality, the followers of realism contend that the universe is composed of reals that exist in and of themselves independent of any relation to the mind of man.¹⁹

¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 29.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 30.

¹⁹Wahlquist, op. cit., p. 56.

According to the realist the scientific method through analysis is the best approach to truth.

The ultimate determinant of the truth of an idea is regarded as something beyond mere personal satisfaction, something external to the personality and not dependent upon it. Consequently truth must be discovered by objective means, as free as possible from the subjectivity of the experimenter.²⁰

For the realist the ultimate source of authority is nature and man's characteristic emphasis should be on conformity or adjustment to the laws of nature. Man according to the realist is nature's creature, therefore, the body is real in that it is the product of nature. Values to the realists are empirical facts on which man places value, hence they are subjective.

The modern scientist to the extent that he is a philosopher is a realist. The scientific relationship of the new realism is aptly expressed by the British Bertrand Russell in the following words:

The first characteristic of the new philosophy is that it abandons the claim to a special philosophic method or a peculiar brand of knowledge to be obtained by its means. It reflects philosophy as essentially one with science, differing from the special sciences merely by the generality of its problems and by the fact that it is concerned with the formulation of hypotheses where empirical evidence is still lacking. It conceives that all knowledge is scientific knowledge to be ascertained and proved by the methods of science. It does not aim, as previous philosophy has usually done at statements about the universe as a whole, nor at the construction of a comprehensive system.

. . . It aims only at clarifying the fundamental ideas of the sciences and synthesizing the different sciences into

²⁰Ibid.

a single comprehensive view of that fragment of the world that science has succeeded in exploring.²¹

Educational implications of realism. The scientific approach to the determination of knowledge has exercised tremendous influence in the field of education in both matter and method. The realist would have children learn the objective discoveries of science; he would discard opinions and traditions, but would base conduct upon "nothing less than clear knowledge, scientific knowledge of the facts of life."²² In spite of the fact that the realist advocates change or progress, he by no means completely repudiates the established knowledge of the past nor does he hold such knowledge as relatively true as the pragmatist does. In fact the realist likes to be called the conservative liberal. No one could have better explained this than F. S. Breed the champion of American neo-realism when he said,

Conservatism,....means a healthy respect for the human values realized to date. It maintains that these values represent our most precious social inheritance. Its respect is not thereby lessened for the source from which these blessing flow--the process of inquiring and reflection.²³

The attempts to secure objective and factual data have resulted in what may be called "a science of education" including historical

²¹Quoted by Wahlquist, ibid., p. 60-61.

²²Wahlquist, op. cit., p. 66.

²³National Society for the Study of Education, Philosophies of Education, Forty-first Yearbook, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1942), p. 96.

and documentary methods, surveys, statistical analysis, laboratory experimentations, classroom experimentations, case studies, educational diagnoses, testing and observation, rating, the questionnaire and so forth.²⁴ There have been great improvements in the basic subject matter fields. Rupert Lodge stated:

Each subject now has its standard tests by which the attainment in systems, schools, classes and individuals may be appraised and the progress of the pupils may be recorded. An administrator or a teacher would be as lost without the tests as a carpenter without his level or plumb line. In many fields of work the objectives have been more clearly defined by a survey and analysis of social usages, as in the case of spelling . . . On the question of interest and motivation some investigations have thrown light and have given aid in the selection of subject matter.²⁵

The scientific method in regard to human behavior has resulted in the tremendous growth of the science of psychology thereby ushering in a new era in the theory of learning based on psychological and biological development of the learner.

There are one or two other significant implications on regard to the educational process. The realist in contrast to the instrumentalist does not worship change nor does he wholeheartedly support the quixotic schemes of educational, political, economic and social reforms as advocated by the pragmatist. He has venerated respect for the established truth of science. Moreover, man does not create his environment, he

²⁴Wahlquist, op. cit., p. 62.

²⁵Ibid., p. 63.

simply conforms to it.²⁶

In regard to the two important educational principles of interest and discipline, the realist is more in accord with the idealist rather than the instrumentalist. Breed emphatically states:

Realism is a gospel not devoid of discipline in the sense of external pressure--even accepting the idea of compulsion from without, a factor in method so dreaded and derided by certain educational extremists. The teacher operates not only 'in loco parentis', more fundamentally still he operates 'in loco naturae' The basis of discipline in life is nothing more than the requirements implicit 'in rerum natura', the demands of laws of nature.²⁷

Concerning interest Breed says there are two kinds:

(a) Immediate interest which is a response to an object or an end in itself.

(b) Mediate interest which is a response to an object as a means to an end.²⁸

According to Breed in responding to a situation a child is motivated by one of the two types of interest. Therefore, the school must operate on the basis of interest but in accord with his interpretation of discipline he adds:

. . . but one should also observe that discipline as defined above is not thereby excluded, for it appears in the guise of mediate interest. A pupil who fails to find arithmetic in itself attractive lacks immediate interest for the subject. If he desires to become a civil engineer and we show him how absolutely

²⁶National Society for the Study of Education, Philosophies of Education, op. cit., p. 101

²⁷Ibid., p. 102

²⁸Ibid.

essential mathematics is in the engineering profession and he there upon devotes attention to that which makes no direct appeal to him, he is moved by mediate interest.²⁹

Breed therefore, reiterates the view that though direct or immediate interest cannot be discarded, mediate interests should also be sought.

The general assumption is that if a thing is worth doing, a good teacher can prove it; and if so, an intelligent class, like an intelligent community will approve it. It is the doctrine of consent. A teacher employing this doctrine must know his objectives and must, like a real statesman, carry the electorate for his cause.³⁰

Breed sums up the whole concept of discipline and interest in the following pregnant sentence:

Freedom is acknowledged as the first principle, but discipline is acknowledged as an indispensable supplement.³¹

Pragmatism or Instrumentalism. The philosophy of "pragmatism" or "instrumentalism" as elaborated by William James, John Dewey and William Kilpatrick is often ascribed as indigenous to the United States. The educational principles that have emanated from this school of thought and have come to be known under the term of "progressive education" have not only exercised great influence over American educational procedures but also over procedures in educational systems of non-American countries.

²⁹Ibid., p. 103.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Ibid., p. 104.

"Pragmatism" repudiates the metaphysical conceptions of reality as advocated by either idealists or realists. Knowledge according to the instrumentalist is created within human experience and its interaction with the environment.

Kilpatrick says:

. . . any human knowing of whatever degree or kind must go on within human experience. . . process of experiencing is the process of living. . . therefore, it implies organisms and environment. . . Life everywhere is a continual interactive process between organisms and environment.³²

According to the pragmatist the truthfulness of an idea is to be determined "By the consequences when the idea is put to a practical test."³³ If the results are good, or if the idea works it is to be accepted. If not it was faulty. The pragmatist, does not subscribe to any absoluteness or immutability or certainty or stability. Everything is dynamic, constantly changing and relative. Therefore, truth is relative. What was true yesterday may not be true today or tomorrow. The aims of education should be the constant reconstruction of experience to meet environmental and social changes. James points out the differences between pragmatic and classical viewpoints by saying:

A pragmatist turns his back resolutely and once for all upon a lot of inveterate habits dear to professional philosophers. He turns away from abstraction and insufficiency, from verbal

³²National Society for the Study of Education, Philosophies of Education, op. cit., pp. 41-42.

³³Wahlquist, op. cit., p. 71.

solutions, from hard 'a priori' reasons, from fixed principles, closed systems, and pretended absolutes and origins. He turns toward concreteness and adequacy toward facts, toward action and toward power.³⁴

Brubacher sums up the pragmatist's viewpoint in regard to the theory of knowledge and ascertaining of truth in these words:

Truth is what 'works' and learning is verifying. Knowledge is the outcome of this process, but it appears in the curriculum principally as dates for future enquiring.³⁵

The instrumentalist like the idealist and rationalist, but in some contrast to the pure realist, places great emphasis on values. While like the idealist he places great emphasis on values his interpretation of them is quite different. In line with his epistemological theories the pragmatist argues that there are no absolute values nor does he subscribe to any hierarchy in his value theory. Values to him are subjective not intrinsic. As such they cannot be proclaimed in advance nor can they hold for all occasions. Values like truth are relative or personal.

Kilpatrick commenting on the origin and nature of values emphatically states:

What I accept to act on, that I build at once into character that--if I think straight I must tell myself and the world is the kind of man I propose to be. Thus, do human values come out of human choices, choices that build character at the same

³⁴Quoted by Wahlquist, Ibid.

³⁵Brubacher, op. cit., p. 90.

time that they assign values. Thus do choices and values cut, both of them alike, as deep as morality itself can go.³⁶

The instrumentalist is interested in the uses of knowledge. Truth and goodness according to him are found through inquiring and active search,

. . . through the experience of finding that certain values, ideas and acts are true and good . . . the human reason is a part of nature—that part which acts to conceive goals and standards by which life, truth and morality can be judged.³⁷

The pragmatist like the realist emphasizes the scientific method of arriving at truth, but differs in that the realist believes in an analytical approach and is not concerned with ideas whilst the pragmatist stresses ideas and through his own intelligence works out rules of thumb. Many of the educational principles that have accrued from this school of thought have been treated earlier in this thesis. Suffice to mention here that in regard to the learner and the learning process the pragmatist holds the following:

- (a) The individual is a 'behaving organism', therefore, the emphasis should be placed upon continuity and integration—integration of the passions and the intellect, of thought and action, of heredity and environment, of the individual and society, of the past and the present, of knowledge and values, of matter and mind.
- (b) The pragmatist regards the pupil as an individuality more than a personality.

³⁶National Society for the Study of Education, Philosophies of Education, op. cit., p. 53.

³⁷National Society for the Study of Education, General Education, op. cit., p. 36.

- (c) Any program of education must be related to the needs and interests of the pupils.
- (d) Learning takes place through problem solving procedures employing the formation of a hypothesis, the gathering of data and the application of the solution.
- (e) Psychology and the social science supply material for the educational program.
- (f) One of the aims of education should be the reconstruction of society.
- (g) Freedom of the individual to develop in his own way. The task of the school is to furnish the environment whereby the individual in the interactive process between himself and the environment will grow according to his interests, needs and abilities.³⁸

Kilpatrick sums up the instrumentalist's philosophy in terms of the following principles:

1. Each person is to be treated always as end and never merely as means. In this ethical respect all men are to stand equal.
2. Each person is under moral obligation so to act as negatively, not to hurt the good life of others and positively to foster the good life for all.
3. The more honestly and carefully study is carried on by different individuals and groups the more likely will they reach like results. What is good study is itself to be determined by other study. We begin where we are and examine the results of our study so as to improve our methods of study.
4. The free play of intelligence stands as our final resource to tell us what to do--intelligence playing freely upon experience in any and all of its content, including the use of intelligence itself.

³⁸National Society for the Study of Education, Philosophies of Education, op. cit., p. 153.

5. We know no absolute principles; that is none which now stand properly above criticism or which may not conceivably be modified perhaps in intent, perhaps in application as new conditions arise.
6. From all the foregoing democracy follows as the effort to run society on the combined basis of the good life and ethics as these are managed co-operatively by the members themselves.³⁹

Social policy of the three schools of philosophic thought. It is interesting to note that all three schools though differing in their theory of reality (metaphysics, theory of knowledge (epistemology) and theory of values (axiology) conceive of democracy and the democratic ideals as the only social and political structure and aspirations possible for the individual in America and the world.

Herman H. Horne expressing the idealistic viewpoint stated five ways in which the schools, the reflection of society, help in improving society. The schools

1. Can suggest lines of future growth. The teachers of social science as well as teachers of literature are in a position to do this very thing.
2. Can educate for leadership and followership. . . 'Having in mind the need for leaders and followers, the school should help pupils to think and act for themselves, to be self-confident, to cultivate spontaneity and initiative, to command and to obey.'
3. Should express appreciation for right social emphases and criticisms of misplaced emphases.

³⁹Ibid., p. 54.

4. Can assist in handling social problems in a scientific way.
5. Can assist in transmitting the established values of the past.⁴⁰

The idealist stresses the point that if man learns the truth as he conceives it democracy will follow as day follows night.

Breed voices the realist's viewpoint:

. . . in the United States of America one's educational theory cannot be seriously regarded unless it is consistent with the principles of a democratic state.⁴¹

The realist's educational theory of independence and liberty and interest is in line with the first principle of democracy, namely, respect for individuality.

Breed continues:

The realist has, therefore, no quarrel with a child-centered school if it is not child-circumscribed. He does not object to the school that makes integration of personality its central objective, if the aim is comprehensive enough to include external as well as internal integration. He can even absorb the individual growth objective into his system, if growth receives its direction from social as well as from individual demands. . . .

After some years of wandering in the wilderness, educators are becoming more and more convinced that individual interest, freedom or liberty furnishes no complete foundation for either the schools or the government of a democracy. Liberalism in state and schools means acceptance of the principle of freedom linked with the principle of authority.⁴²

The pragmatist's conception of the relationship between school and society is aptly expressed by John Dewey in these words:

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 176-178.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 131.

⁴²Ibid., pp. 132-133.

Democracy is much broader than a special political form, a method of conducting government, of making laws and carrying on governmental administration by means of popular suffrage and elected officers. It is that, of course. But it is something broader and deeper than that . . . It is . . . a way of life, social and individual. The key-note of democracy as a way of life may be expressed, it seems to me, as the necessity for the participation of every mature human being in formation of the values that regulate the living of men together; which is necessary from the standpoint of both the general social welfare and the full development of human beings as individuals.⁴³

The instrumentalists emphasize co-operative intelligence in the social field and its free play. Individuals should be trained how to think, how to solve their own social problems and plan their society. They should not offer blind allegiance to an already planned society. According to the pragmatist there should not be any social stratification, people should think freely, experiment freely, even emotional and aesthetic life should be free. He is against indoctrination in the school. The school should not be dominated by society but help to reconstruct society.

George S. Counts in a brochure entitled, Dare the School Build a New Social Order called on the teachers to deliberately reach for power and then make the most of their conquest. As a guidance to the teachers he suggested:

A society fashioned in harmony with the American democratic traditions would combat all forces tending to produce social distinctions and classes; repress every form of privilege and economic parasitism; manifest a tender regard for the weak, the

⁴³John Dewey, "Democracy and Educational Administration, School and Society, 45:457-462, April 3, 1937.

ignorant and the unfortunate; place the heavier and more onerous social burdens on the backs of the strong; . . . exalt human labor of hand and brain as the creator of all wealth and culture . . . strive for genuine equality of opportunity among all races, sects and occupations. . . . Transform or destroy all conventions, institutions and special groups inimical to the underlying principles of democracy; and finally be prepared as a last resort in either the defense or the realization of this purpose to follow the method of revolution.⁴⁴

Current philosophy and objectives. On the information blank (see Appendix C) sent to the hundred selected secondary schools ten items were included in order to determine opinion and practice in regard to the educational philosophy to which the American secondary school subscribes. The data together with excerpts from school publications is presented in this section.

Accessibility. The first item of the information blank sought information in regard to accessibility of the secondary school to all youth. The answers (Table II) indicated that eighty-two schools (82 per cent) were accessible to all youth of high school age regardless of social or economic status, color, creed or nationality. Eighteen schools (18 per cent) located in the South (Florida, Louisiana and Texas) specified that accessibility was restricted by state law on the basis of color. (For recent ruling of the Supreme Court see Appendix B)

⁴⁴George S. Counts, Dare the School Build a New Social Order (New York: The John Day Co., 1932), pp. 41-42.

TABLE II
 ACCESSIBILITY ACCORDING TO SOCIAL OR ECONOMIC
 STATUS, COLOR, CREED OR NATIONALITY IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Number of Schools	Number of Checks	
	Yes	No
82	82	
18		18
Total	100	82

Preparation for life-activities. The second item related to the type of activities that the schools emphasized for life in a democracy. The findings (Table III) indicated stress on all three types of activities, social-civic, economic-vocational and individualistic-avocational. However, there seemed to be more emphasis on social-civic activities (mentioned by all schools), than on economic-vocational (mentioned eighty-eight times) or individualistic-avocational (mentioned seventy-two times).

Some of the comments that followed this item are indicative of the general viewpoint. One school commented: "Also emphasize the fact that school is living. School is not just a preparation for life, but is a vital part of life itself." Another school voiced the democratic ideal by saying: "To have a well-rounded personality, I believe the school should emphasize all aspects of a student's life."

TABLE III

NUMBER OF TIMES AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TYPES OF
ACTIVITIES FOR LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY WERE GIVEN
BY 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Type of Activities	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Social-Civic activities	100	38
Economic-vocational activities	88	35
Individualistic-avocational activities	72	27
Total	260	100

Preparation for life-values. Another item of the information blank sought information in regard to value-emphasis for life in a democracy. Only ninety-two schools answered this item. Table IV indicates that the greatest emphasis is on present values and only those values of the past that will be functional to the student in his or her present day experiences; this part of the item was checked fifty-eight times (43 per cent of the total); present values were checked forty-two times (31 per cent of the total) and past values thirty-five times (26 per cent of the total). Eight schools commented on the difficulty of separating values and consequently they were reluctant to commit themselves. A comment from one school indicates the trend in this matter: "All teaching is adjusted to real situations of living, weighing the successes and failures of the past and the effect upon the present."

TABLE IV

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TIMES VALUES WERE
CHECKED BY NINETY-TWO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Values	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Past values	35	26
Present values	42	31
Present values and only those values of the past that will be functional to the student in his or her present- day experiences	58	43
Total	135	100

Theory of truth or theory of knowledge. The fourth item sought the opinion of the schools in regard to the theory of truth or the theory of knowledge. The findings (Table V) show a tendency on the part of educators to regard truth as pragmatic or empirical. Of the total checks numbering 104, eighteen pertained to truth as being absolute and immutable, thirty-five as being pragmatic, thirty-two as being empirical and nineteen as being purely scientific. Twenty-five schools failed to check anything. Some considered the question as not being very clear. Others said that their viewpoint was an eclectic theory while others asserted that they did not have a formulated philosophy but that it depended on the individual teacher's interpretation.

TABLE V

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TIMES THE FOUR
INTERPRETATIONS OF THE THEORY OF TRUTH WERE
CHECKED BY SEVENTY-FIVE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Interpretations of the theory of truth	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Absolute and immutable	18	17
Pragmatic and therefore mutable	35	34
Empirical (as determined by ob- servation and experiment)	32	30
Purely scientific	19	19
Total	104	100

School and society. Table VI indicates the opinion of one hundred secondary schools in regard to the relationship between the school and the society. In line with the pragmatic viewpoint shown to be the most favorable (Table V), the majority of schools subscribe to the theory that education should be concerned primarily with adjustment of students to meet changing conditions. This concern of the school was checked eighty-four times (48 per cent of the total). The theory that education should be concerned with adjustment of students to present life conditions was checked thirty-seven times (21 per cent of the total); the theory that education should be concerned with adjustment of students to life conditions and participation in the reconstruction of society was checked forty-three times (24 per cent of the total) and that education should be concerned with participation of students in

the reconstruction of society twelve times (7 per cent)

TABLE VI

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TIMES FOUR THEORIES RELATING TO THE
FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL IN REGARD TO THE INDIVIDUAL
AND SOCIETY WERE CHECKED BY 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Theories	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Adjustment of students to present life conditions	37	21
Adjustment of students to meet changing conditions	84	48
Adjustment of students to life conditions and participation in the reconstruction of society	43	24
Participation of students in the reconstruction of society	12	7
Total	176	100

Individual differences. The seventh item of the information blank under the title of "Philosophy and Objectives" was an attempt to obtain information in regard to whether the school regards each student as an individual differing from all other students. According to the answers (Table VII) each student is considered as an individual differing from all other students physically, mentally and emotionally by ninety-eight schools. Only one school answered in the negative while another did not answer at all.

TABLE VII

CONSIDERATION OF THE PHYSICAL, MENTAL AND
EMOTIONAL DIFFERENCES OF STUDENTS IN
NINETY-NINE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Number of Schools	Number of checks	
	Yes	No
98	98	
1		1
Total	98	1

General and vocational training. There is a great deal of controversy in regard to what type of training the school should provide for the student. Some assert that schools should provide a general education regardless of future vocation, others that some vocational training should be provided. The findings to a question pertaining to this important aspect of education (Table VIII) indicated that the majority of the ninety-seven selected schools believe that the student should be trained chiefly in a general education and a specific vocational pursuit. This belief was mentioned sixty-six times (62 per cent of total times) while the belief that the student should be trained chiefly in a general education regardless of future vocation was mentioned forty times (38 per cent of the total times).

TABLE VIII

THE OPINION OF NINETY-SEVEN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
REGARD TO THE TYPE OF STUDENT TRAINING

Type of training	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
A general education regardless of future vocation	40	38
A general education and a specific vocational pursuit	66	62
Specific vocational training only	0	0
Total	106	100

To think--how or what. Another controversial educational objective is whether students should be trained how to think or what to think. Table IX indicates that opinion in regard to this issue is not unevenly divided. The theory that students should be trained how to think rather than what to think was mentioned forty-seven times while the theory that students should be trained both how to think and what to think was mentioned thirty nine times. Most of the comments that followed this item indicated that quite a number of schools are of the belief that students should be trained in what is of value in the democratic way of life.

TABLE IX

THE OPINION OF NINETY-SIX SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
REGARD TO THREE OBJECTIVES RELATING TO THINKING

Objectives	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
How to think rather than what to think	47	45.6
Both how to think and what to think	39	38
Simply to think	17	16.4
Total	103	100.0

Values--cultural or practical. One of the ten items seeking information about the philosophy of education and educational objectives related to cultural or practical values. The findings (Table X) indicate a unanimous decision. All school subscribe to the theory that education should chiefly emphasize a combination of cultural and practical values.

Educational objectives through the curriculum. The last item on the educational philosophy of the selected schools, pertained to curriculum objectives. Curriculum objectives were classified under four major categories, (1) the maintenance of the "status quo" by stressing mastery of the subject matter accumulated by specialists, (2) the spirit of independence in thought and action, (3) those that spring from an analysis of society i. e., teaching of democracy, use of intelligence, improvement of human relations and (4) those resident in the learner, i.e.

TABLE X

THE OPINION OF 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
REGARD TO CULTURAL OR PRACTICAL VALUES

Values	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Cultural values	0	0
Practical values	0	0
A combination of cultural and practical values	100	100
Total	100	100

personal growth, physical well-being, personal integrity, vocational skills and aesthetic expression in music, art or literature. All schools indicated their first preference as shown on Table XI. It can be seen that the objectives resident in the learner were mentioned fifty-seven times, those that spring from society thirty-five times, the spirit of independence nineteen times and the maintenance of the "status quo" four times. The checkings for second, third or fourth preference were inadequate for tabulation.

The philosophy and objectives as expressed in official publications. In the preceeding section certain educational theories and procedures of 100 public schools were recorded as furnished by an information blank sent to the administrative officers of the said institutions. This section will consist of statements of similar nature, namely relating to the educational philosophy of the American public school, as

TABLE XI

FOUR GROUPS OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AS CHECKED
FOR FIRST PREFERENCE BY 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Objectives	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
The maintenance of the "status quo"	4	3.5
The spirit of independence in thought and action	19	16.5
Those that spring from analysis of society	35	32.6
Those resident in the learner	57	47.4
Total	115	100.0

formulated in handbooks, catalogues or other mimeographed material of a few of the selected group. This procedure is adopted for the purpose of arriving at more reliable conclusions in regard to the educational philosophy of American secondary education.

In a pamphlet entitled, Opportunities in Secondary Education, issued by the Guidance Department of the New Britain Public Schools, New Britain, Connecticut, the purposes of secondary education are stated as follows:

The high school attempts to provide opportunities for adjusting the individual to his school life in preparation for adequate adjustments in adult life. For all its pupils the high school is concerned with continuing the preparation for (a) social growth, family living and a fuller life, (b) promotion of desirable work habits, physical and mental well-being, self-reliance and self-direction, (c) the training for wise use of leisure time, economic well-being and self-direction, (d) the development of

individual capacities, cultural appreciation, ethical standards and character.⁴⁵

The faculty and administration of the Clarion Senior High School, Clarion, Pennsylvania in a bulletin entitled, A Program of Work Guide list the following "Fundamental concepts" in regard to their general educational philosophy:

1. The type of political organization most desirable for society is one in which all individuals share in the determination of policies in proportion to their abilities.
2. The economic organization most desirable is one in which private enterprise is encouraged but with restrictions assuring the conservation of natural resources and with provisions for the distribution of a considerable portion of the results of production in the interests of the workers and of the general public.
3. The social organization most desirable is one in which all individuals have equal social status regardless of economic, cultural or intellectual qualifications and regardless of race or nationality.
4. In a democracy the school should place most emphasis upon helping to prepare pupils to make adjustments to meet changing conditions.
5. In a democracy free secondary education should be provided for all adolescents who are not mentally or physically defective to such an extent that they cannot be educated with normal children.
6. In a democracy the financial support of secondary education is primarily the responsibility of the local district with the state participating on an equalization basis.
7. Education is an enterprise involving many community agencies. As the chief institution developed by society for education, the school should welcome suggestions from and opportunities

⁴⁵Opportunities in Secondary Education, Grades X, XI, XII
(Guidance Department, New Britain Public Schools, New Britain, Connecticut)

for cooperation with community agencies in the interests of a better educational program for the community.

8. Attendance at a secondary school should be required by law for all pupils from the time they leave elementary school until they complete a curriculum appropriate to their needs regardless of age.⁴⁶

Under the title, "Curriculum", the same school emphasizes the following point:

The responsibility of the secondary school for assisting in the development of well-rounded pupil personalities requires exploration of pupil, revelation of social heritage and guided differentiation, all within a broad pattern of social integration.⁴⁷

Under "Outcomes" these two points are stressed:

1. The pupil should be taught to recognize what is worth thinking about as well as how to think.
2. Participation in the program of a secondary school should result in development of generalizations, appreciations, attitudes and ideals in addition to the acquisition of knowledge, habits and skills.⁴⁸

In the Committee reports issued by the Apopka Memorial High School, Apopka, Florida, the following four points are emphasized for the "Development of the individual so that he may be able to adjust himself to the responsibilities of life."⁴⁹

1. Personal growth:
Develop a spiritual consciousness, an inquiring mind, desirable health habits and worthy use of leisure time.

⁴⁶A Program of Work Guide (Clarion Senior High School, Clarion, Pennsylvania), p. 1.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 2.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 3.

⁴⁹Apopka Memorial High School Committee Reports Pre-School Planning, 1953-1954. (Apopka, Florida), p. 11.

2. **Human relationships:**
Develop the ability to work and play with others and live successfully in a changing society.
3. **Economic adjustment:**
Provide information and guidance regarding requirements and opportunities of the various occupations of our society.
4. **Civic responsibility:**
Encourage the student to take part in civic affairs, tolerate differences of opinion and establish a strong belief in the democratic way of life.⁵⁰

In a mimeographed leaflet Lawrence W. Hanson, principal of Grand Forks High School, Grand Forks North Dakota stated the philosophy of this school as follows:

1. The main purpose of the school is to impart knowledge and develop skills in the academic cultural and practical subjects which have been proven to be the most valuable in a secondary school curriculum.
2. The American school has a great responsibility in the training of democracy. Through student club work, student council activities, class organizations, home room meetings, Central offers this training in functional democracy by encouraging students to participate in these activities, believing that the best way to learn democracy is by practicing it.
3. Emphasis is placed on spiritual and moral values at Central. The development of high ideals, moral conduct, good sportsmanship, democratic principles, courtesy, consideration for others, and all the traits which make for fine personalities are stressed in the whole educational program.⁵¹

Other significant points emphasized in this leaflet are leadership, guidance and counseling, job-training and health.⁵²

⁵⁰Ibid.

⁵¹Lawrence W. Hanson, Philosophy (Mimeographed leaflet issued by the Grand Forks High School, Grand Forks, North Dakota)

⁵²Ibid.

The Burnet Junior-Senior High School, Burnet, Texas in its 1954-55 Handbook seeks, "to train students in the value of a pleasing personality, to train them to develop resources and to live in the community; to give students health instruction and practice, including special education for exceptional children . . . and to enable them to adjust themselves to other environments, such as college training or life in the city to which one might move."⁵³

The Hays Junior-Senior High School, Hays, Kansas states its educational philosophy in these words:

We believe that education is a process of living as well as a preparation for future living. The school is a social institution and provides a life that is as real and vital to the student as that which he carries on in the home, in the neighborhood or in the playground. The problems of the child created by the social, economic and religious forces as implications of a modern society have all the seriousness and complexity of the problems of adulthood.⁵⁴

The East Hampton High School, Connecticut lists the following objectives of education:

1. Health--physical and mental--and happiness
2. Communicative skills
3. Home and family life
4. Religion

⁵³Burnet Junior-Senior High School, Handbook (Burnet, Texas 1953-54)

⁵⁴General Information and Program of Studies (Hays Public Schools, Hays, Kansas, 1953-54), p. 17.

5. Financial independence and vocational specialty
6. Citizenship
7. Ethics
8. Esthetics
9. Worthy use of leisure time
10. Education⁵⁵

In view of the foregoing discourse relative to various schools of philosophic thought, their educational implication and the findings from the information blank and the various school publications, the following generalizations may be drawn:

- a. A school should have a consistent set of principles which should be the guiding posts for carrying out of its educational functions.
- b. This set of principles should be in line with the democratic ideals.
- c. The American secondary schools seek to provide educational opportunities for all youth in order to make them contributive members of society. Schools stress social and individual activities and adjustment to present day conditions.

⁵⁵Grace S. Wright and Walter H. Gaumnitz, Education Unlimited, Bulletin, 1951, No. 5 (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951) p. 33.

CHAPTER IV

THE CURRICULUM AND THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL

I. POINT OF VIEW

The United States of America like all progressive countries has undertaken the gigantic responsibility of providing education for all its youth. This task stems from the belief, deeply rooted in the American people, that democracy cannot survive unless the electorate become intelligent voters and are schooled into the American way of living and thinking.

The "mass education" motive is not a peculiarity of American way of life and thought. Nor, as it was previously stated, is the ultimate aim of education, namely the enrichment of life through the cultivation of the true and the good, an indigenous American product. What is peculiarly American is, (a) the American way of life itself, and (b) the means of implementing the objectives demanded by such life. There are certain characteristics inherent in this way of life. These may be epitomized as follows:

1. The state is responsible for the education of its members, for only through this process can the social organism be perpetuated and improved.

2. Each individual has intrinsic worth and the right to determine his own destiny within a pattern contributing to the common welfare, regardless of his race, color or creed.

3. The school is responsible in assisting youth to understand and to evaluate the basic principles and to motivate them toward appropriate ways of thinking and acting.
4. The activities of the school should be so organized as to contribute to the understanding of those parts of the American social heritage which have common worth to all people and the understanding of one's self as an individual having personal needs, capacities, opportunities and responsibilities.
5. Schools should cater for individual differences.
6. Schools should provide guidance services.
7. The administration of the school is effective only when the education of the pupil is facilitated by the provision of competent leadership and instruction and the provision of physical facilities and tools which are appropriate, stimulating and effective.

In other words the mass-education enterprise seeks, first, individual self-integration, second, differentiation and the fostering of social relationships and, third, social integration. The individual in that he is a personality of his own must be given the opportunity to realize himself, to effect harmony within himself through the satisfaction of his physical, mental, social and emotional needs. The individual in that he differs from others must be afforded the opportunity to satisfy his special needs and develop to the maximum of his ability. The individual likewise in that he is a member of a group should be guided through experiences in and out of the classroom into good social attitudes

and relationships. Individual self-integration and realization, however, are not enough. The individual must also be integrated with the social world in which he lives. He must also be adjusted with the economic, domestic, political, aesthetic and cultural affairs which constitute modern society. He must be inducted into the accepted common knowledge, ideas, attitudes, practices and appreciations of modern democracy and help improve them.

To realize these aims the schools in the United States set up organized bodies of knowledge and devise educational experiences to suit individual and social needs, and individual interests and abilities. They set up what is known as the school's curriculum, which implies both subject matter or the "what" and the "how" of education.

The curriculum in the American secondary school like the American political, social, economic and cultural facets of life presents aspects characteristically American, for the curriculum is nothing else but a reflection of national facets and traits. In regard to the course offerings the curriculum in the American school is strikingly broad and varied, varying from the academic to the practical, the scientific to the cultural, the creative and the intellectual to the non-creative and recreational. In regard to the organizational pattern the curriculum varies from the strictly subject-curriculum to the activity and the core curriculums. In regard to the method of presentation it varies from state to state, county to county, community to community and school to school, ranging from the lecture method to

the unit approach and the project method. In regard to evaluation it seeks to measure not only achievement, but also interests and attitudes through both standardized and teacher-made tests, personal inventories and cumulative records. Moreover, the curriculum in the United States is characterized by constant experimentation in regard to content, organization, the teaching-learning process and evaluation. Educators stress the importance of constant curriculum development in order to be in line with the constantly changing social and economic conditions. In spite of this, there seems to be a lag between theory and practice.

The broad and varied curriculum to encompass life in all its manifestations, and with its stress on attitudes and social habits as well as skills and knowledge to live in this world here and now, seems rather strange and too artificial to the traditional educator who is too skeptical about the ramifications of modernity. If, however, the original premise upon which this thesis was written, namely, that educational systems are national and the outgrowths of national traits and aspirations is borne in mind, then it can rightly be said that the American educational system so far as American nationalism and culture are concerned, adequately fulfills that function. For American nationalism and greatness have depended and continue to depend on change, exploration, experimentation, assimilation, free enterprise, individualism plus social integration and social relationships. In the opinion of the writer, the American educational system is lacking in regard to the international aspect of education. The traditional isolationism and rugged individual-

ism are obsolete ideologies. American nationalism and greatness would be in grave danger if the United States disregarded the importance of understanding the culture and the peoples of other countries. Furthermore, American leadership cannot hold strong unless America respects and understands the life and thought of the people over whom she has assumed leadership. So far as the curriculum, therefore, is concerned it becomes a dire necessity that it should include more foreign languages, world history and geography, literature and social studies.

II. NATURE AND FUNCTIONS

The term "curriculum" has been variously defined and interpreted by educators. Despite the great amount of activity concerning this important aspect of education during the past quarter century there is still great confusion on the part of many persons. It is absolutely necessary for individuals who have anything to do directly or indirectly with schools or education in general to develop a clear concept of what the curriculum is and what it implies. The nature of an enterprise is determined largely by the definitions and principles that are accepted for guidance.

Definitions. Broadly conceived definitions of the curriculum fall into two general groups. The first group includes uses of the term in a restricted sense, that is, to indicate a group of subjects or fields of study arranged in a particular sequence, i. e., classical

curriculum, college preparatory curriculum and general curriculum.¹ When this meaning is employed, the plural form is often used. Specifications of time units and sequential arrangement of large segments of subject matter are the principal tasks of curriculum making when this definition of the curriculum is accepted.²

There are some writers on educational problems who hold this general concept of the curriculum. Harl R. Douglass, for example, employs two definitions of curriculum one of which is:

The systematic arrangement of a number of courses into a unit group for differentiated groups of pupils; for example the college-preparatory curriculum³

Most non-American countries employ the above meaning of curriculum.

The second group of definitions is much broader than the foregoing one. These definitions have sprung from the recent emphasis on the experience of the learner rather than the sequential arrangement of subject matter only. Consequently, the task of curriculum making is very complex under this concept for pupil interests and activities, content and method in fact the entire educational process, have to be considered.⁴

¹Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, Curriculum Development (New York: American Book Company, 1935), p. 65.

²Ibid.

³Harl R. Douglass, editor, The High School Curriculum (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), p. 46.

⁴Caswell and Campbell, op. cit., p. 66.

Most of the meanings of curriculum in recent educational literature are of this second group. Douglass gives a second interpretation of the curriculum thus, "The whole of the various courses of the study and other learning experiences in the school."⁵ Albery explains the curriculum as follows: "The activities that are provided for students by the school constitute its curriculum."⁶ Caswell and Campbell define curriculum as, "The school curriculum is held to be composed of all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers."⁷ Smith, Stanley and Shores write:

A sequence of potential experiences is set up in a school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting. This set of experiences is referred to as the curriculum.⁸

The American Association of School Administrators in their thirty-first yearbook entitled, American School Curriculum, accept this definition, "The school's curriculum is the total of those situations which are purposely used to produce favorable learning responses."⁹ Romine voices

⁵Douglass, loc. cit.

⁶Harold Albery, Reorganizing the High School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947), p. 95.

⁷Caswell and Campbell, op. cit., p. 65.

⁸B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley and J. Harlen Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (New York, World Book Company, 1950), p. 4.

⁹American Association of School Administrators, Department of the National Education Association of the United States, American School Curriculum. Thirty-first Yearbook (Washington, D. C., February, 1953), pp. 54-55.

the same viewpoint when he says, "Curriculum is interpreted to mean all of the organized courses, activities and experiences which pupils have under the direction of the school, whether in the classroom or not."¹⁰

If the premise that education is concerned primarily with the good and full life, and if the premise that the good and full life can be attained through individual self-realization, social integration and the cultivation of worthwhile values, then those educational experiences organized in a school for the attainment of those high ideals should constitute the school curriculum. Such activities or experiences may rightly be termed curriculum if they become part of the individual and modify his behavior and attitudes towards the approximation of the ultimate purpose of education. The curriculum, therefore, in a school should signify all those learning activities or experiences organized and directed by the school which bring about desirable variations in the behavior, attitude and knowledge of the students. This definition of the curriculum is in line with the second group of definitions mentioned previously. However, in spite of the emphasis on the part of many educators on the broader interpretation, the narrow meaning of the curriculum is still widely observed in actual practice.¹¹ In view, therefore, of the wide acceptance of the narrow sense the term curriculum in this study has also been used to signify only those organized courses

¹⁰Stephen A. Romine, Building the High School Curriculum (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954), p. 14.

¹¹Ibid.

and activities which are a specified part of a program such as "college preparatory", "general" or "vocational."

Basic Principles. Schools exist for the purpose of serving individual and social interests and cultivating the highest ideals of humanity. These inextricably interwoven functions should constitute the bases on which the curriculum is constructed. To state the matter more in line with current educational terms, the school or the curriculum can neither be wholly "child-centered" nor wholly "society-centered" for in being entirely "child-centered" society and the world are disregarded. Similarly in being entirely society-centered it presupposes an ideal and non-changing society. The school can neither disregard the needs and abilities of the child nor the demands of society. But the school should also seek to create an ideal environment so that the highest values that are accepted may be sought to be realized. For the most important criterion in regard to the effectiveness of an educational system is neither individual nor social competency by themselves, but the degree of the cultivation of the highest moral and ethical principles, that the school seeks to effect in the younger generation.

The functions of the curriculum are identical with the general functions of the school and education in general: In that there should be ample provision for individual needs, interests and aptitudes the school curriculum should be of the following nature:

1. It should be encyclopedic. Educational literature is full of discussions of youth needs. Daniel A. Prescott classified youth needs

under three categories:

1. Physiological needs: essential materials and conditions, rhythm of activity and rest and sexual activity.
2. Social or status needs; affection, belonging, and likeness to others.
3. Ego or integrative needs: contact with reality; harmony with reality, progressive symbolization increasing self direction, fair balance between success and failure and attaining self-hood or individuality.¹²

Perhaps the most thorough list of student needs was the one stated by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Planning for American Youth. The ten imperative needs according to this group are:

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experiences as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness and mental health.
3. All youth need to understand the right and duties of the citizens 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, and to have an understanding of the nations and people of the world.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of

¹²Romine, op. cit., p. 114.

their acts.

6. All youth need 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. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfaction to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others, and to grow in the moral and spiritual values of life.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.¹³

Equally important in regard to curriculum building are pupils' interests which in reality are closely akin to needs. On the relationship between the two, Romine says:

The former (interests) are indicators of the latter, and they reflect the impact of the home, playground, school, church and other agencies and forces on the individual and his basic needs and urges. Not always, however, are expressed interests and actual needs entirely constant. Individual teachers and entire school faculties will find it helpful to discover and utilize existing pupil interests and to broaden the interests of youth. The importance of interest to effort is rather generally recognized in theory, but it is much less generally applied in practice.¹⁴

¹³National Association of Secondary School Principles, Planning for American Youth (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1944), p. 9.

¹⁴Romine, op. cit., p. 118.

The "doctrine of interest" in the educational field received its greatest impetus during the twenties and thirties when the progressive movement was well under way. Educators like John Dewey, Boyd Bode, W. H. Kilpatrick, Harold Rugg and George Counts were its foremost advocates. Bode for instance interprets interest in either of two ways,

1. Interest as construed to mean that every activity must be motivated by immediate interest
2. Or that every activity must have a recognized bearing on a way of life which the individual accepts as his own.¹⁵

Curriculum planners, however, cannot entirely depend on the immediate interests of children to set up aims and learning experiences. Though such interests cannot be overlooked it is imperative on the part of educators to emancipate the pupil from dependence on immediate interests which, would tend to vary according to the environmental factors and the physical constitution of the learner.

2. It should be planned, executed and evaluated on sound psychological bases of the teaching-----learning process.

There is considerable diversity of opinion as to the nature and psychology of the learning process. There is little agreement even as to the conditions which favor it.¹⁶ There is, first, behaviorism and the

¹⁵Boyd Bode, Progressive Education at the Crossroads (New York: Newson and Company, 1938), p. 52.

¹⁶Rudolf Pintner, Educational Psychology (New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1932), p. 51.

conditioned response theory of repetition and recency; second, there is Thorndike's stimulus response (S-R) theory with its laws of readiness, repetition, belongingness and effect¹⁷ and third, there is the theory that grew from the Gestalt psychologists who regard learning, (a) as a process of directing activities to some end or goal¹⁸ and (b) as "determined by the pattern or configuration of the stimuli."¹⁹ According to the Gestalt school of psychology which has in many respects discredited the behavioristic school learning takes place in "wholes" or in large units. In Sorenson's words:

Gestalt psychologists have caused psychologists and educators to conceive of the problems of learning in more comprehensive terms and units.

In a general way, Gestalt psychology can be applied to teaching and education by organizing subject matter and activities into large units. In fact education is getting away from the bit-by-bit, piece-by-piece, method substituting large meaningful wholes instead, and thus in effect Gestalt principles are being practiced to a considerable extent.²⁰

Romine states the Gestalt principle more in line with modern educational jargon.

Denying the importance of trial and error, Gestalt psychology conceives of learning more as perceiving and patterning than it

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 87.

¹⁹Herbert Sorenson, Psychology in Education. Second edition (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 311.

²⁰Ibid., p. 312.

does simply as drilling. Learning is not a matter of driving home specific points but is the structuring and organizing of experience to promote the emergence of individual reaction or solution from a total organismic background.²¹

In curriculum making it is important that the various theories of learning be taken into consideration. This is emphasized by Caswell in an article in the Journal of Educational Research. Caswell points out that in the determination of aims, in the method of defining the scope of the curriculum and in the organization of instruction, the organismic approach is more preferable and more in line with modern research than the mechanistic approach.²²

Fundamentally education is a social process. Consequently, the curriculum should be based on sociological foundations. It should never be too idealistic and disregard the realities of the society from which it springs and for which it exists. For after all education is concerned with the improvement of living. The curriculum, therefore, should take into consideration the changes brought about by the various socio-economic forces and seek to perpetuate and improve the culture of the society in which it functions. The educational literature written in regard to the interrelationship between the school curriculum and society and the societal forces that affect curriculum development is inexhaust-

²¹Romine, op. cit., p. 135.

²²H. L. Caswell, "Practical Applications of Mechanistic and Organismic Psychologies to Curriculum Making," Journal of Educational Research, 28:16-24, September, 1934.

ible. Douglass succinctly states:

The nature and objectives of the program of public education not only must be adapted to current conditions and needs and therefore constantly changing, but it must so educate the individual that he has the capacity for adjustment to changes to come in the future and to maintain an open mind to the possibilities for change in social and individual behavior.

. . . The curriculum should be sufficiently flexible to enable its annual adaptation to the changing conditions and needs of American life and the teacher must be sufficiently well read and informed to be able so to adapt the curriculum constantly.²³

Stratemeyer depicts very colorfully the picture of the American society thus:

Skyscrapers and busy harbors; broad avenues and narrow business streets; well dressed people going to business and school, to libraries, theaters or shops--it is what skyline photography has taught the world to recognize as a thriving American city. Factories with black clouds of smoke; dingy tenements; children hurrying or loitering on narrow streets, many of the older going to the factories, the younger to smoke darkened schools--it is the same American city but a view rarely photographed.

. . . public and private schools; churches of many denominations, on the other side of the tracks the Polish towns and Italian sections, Chinatowns and Mexican quarters--it is the composite of an American town.

In between is the open country--wheat fields and truck gardens, farms with tools unchanged since colonial days and farms completely mechanized; some lands wasted by careless generations and some saved by great engineering experiments.

Large city and small; town and village; the industrial, the commercial, the largely residential; compact or sprawling, beautiful or ugly, prosperous or poverty stricken, different in mores and in functions and contribution to national life--they are all American.²⁴

²³Douglass, op. cit., p. 95.

²⁴Florence B. Stratemeyer, et. al., Developing A Curriculum for Modern Living (New York: Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), p. 25.

The American community reaches from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. This reality affects the organization and conduct of American education. The isolated school community, the isolated and self-contained rural neighborhoods of the pre-industrial era no longer exist under the impact of steam, gasoline and electricity. Consequently, an educational program focused narrowly on the immediate surroundings might be limited. This is perhaps the chief criticism of the "community-centered" school.²⁵

Population is very mobile in the United States. According to a report of the Bureau of Census published in March, 1950, twenty-eight million persons or about one out of twenty-five in April 1949 were living in a different house from the one they lived in a year earlier.²⁶

Another important characteristic of the American society is the great number of voluntary or quasi-voluntary organizations differing greatly in scope, solidarity, purpose, and power.²⁷

According to Counts some of these organizations serve very worthwhile purposes, others find themselves in bitter and violent conflict over matters of economic interest and public policy. As a result the whole society may be the scene of an unprincipled campaign of misrepresentation, vilification and falsification.²⁸

²⁵George S. Counts, Education and American Civilization (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. p. 435.

²⁶Ibid., p. 436.

²⁷Ibid, p. 437.

²⁸Ibid, p. 443

Moreover, these organizations advocate differing and conflicting educational conceptions, policies and programs.²⁹ In this complex, changing heterogeneous society, therefore, how can a curriculum be developed so as to create citizens who will mould the America of today and tomorrow.

Stratemeyer lists nine curriculum principles emerging from the consideration of American society. These in outline are:

1. A curriculum which gives children and youths guidance in dealing with the persistent problem of living in our industrial democracy.
2. A curriculum which fits children and youths to make a responsible contribution of the work of the world.
3. A curriculum which helps children and youths to develop the skill and attitudes needed for creative use of leisure.
4. A curriculum which helps children and youth deal with the concerns of family life.
5. A curriculum in which the problem and concern of the home, school and community are seen in the light of the large national and world problems of which they are a part.
6. A curriculum which will develop world-minded citizens able to make the sound judgments and willing to make the sacrifices necessary to maintain peace.
7. A curriculum designed to give children and youth a respected and vital part in society in keeping with their maturity and in terms of the problems and situations which they face. It means a curriculum through which children and youth grow to respect the unique work of each individual including themselves.
8. A curriculum which develops children and youths to make reasoned decisions on the values they hold.

²⁹Ibid, p. 448.

9. A curriculum which develops children and youths committed to make constructive use of their powers and those of others for the common good.³⁰

III. SOME CURRICULUM ISSUES

When the curriculum is interpreted to include all elements of pupil activities and experiences, its development becomes a very complicated process because it needs "to touch at every point the complex web of moral and intellectual processes and beliefs which ultimately define the political, economic and social arrangements of any society."³¹ It can be accomplished if it seeks the assistance of many workers and fields of study like philosophy, sociology and psychology.³² Even then the mere compilations of materials is not enough. These materials have to be so synthesized, arranged and presented that they become "a unity in the experience of the learner."³³ The questions, problems or issues that arise in the process of curriculum development are innumerable, especially in dynamic and changing societies like the American.

The issues that present themselves in any curriculum situation involve principles pertaining to education in general. Issues that relate to secondary education are also curriculum issues. In 1936 the

³⁰Stratemeyer, et. al., op. cit., pp. 29-34

³¹Smith, Stanley and Shores, op. cit., p. 134.

³²Caswell and Campbell, op. cit., p. 19.

³³Ibid., p. 70.

Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association made a careful study of the character of secondary education for the purpose of bringing to light the most important conflicts in American educational theory and practice in an effort to improve the educational systems, and "to suggest which possible alternative in a given conflict is the more in harmony with the major social ideals of America and to indicate the educational procedure which adherence to this alternative would dictate."³⁴ The Committee listed the following ten major issues in American secondary education:

1. Shall secondary education be provided at public expense for all normal individuals or for only a limited number?
2. Shall secondary education seek to retain all pupils in school as long as they wish to remain, or shall it transfer them to other agencies under educational supervision when, in the judgment of the school authorities, these agencies promise to serve better the pupils' immediate and probable future needs?
3. Shall secondary education be concerned only with the welfare and progress of the individual, or with these only as they promise to contribute to the welfare and progress of society?
4. Shall secondary education include vocational training, or shall it be restricted to general education?
5. Shall secondary education be primarily directed toward preparation for advanced studies, or shall it be pri-

³⁴Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, Issues of Secondary Education Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education (Chicago: Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, January, 1936), p. 20.

marily concerned with the value of its own courses, regardless of a student's future academic career?

6. Shall secondary education provide a common curriculum for all, or differentiated offerings?
7. Shall secondary education accept conventional school subjects as fundamental categories under which school experiences shall be classified and presented to students, or shall it arrange and present experiences in fundamental categories directly related to the performance of such functions of secondary schools in a democracy as increasing the ability and the desire better to meet socio-civic, economic, health, leisure-time, vocational and pre-professional problems and situations?
8. Shall secondary education present merely organized knowledge, or shall it also assume responsibility for attitudes and ideals?
9. Shall secondary education seek merely the adjustment of students to prevailing social ideals, or shall it seek the reconstruction of society?
10. Granting that education is a "gradual continuous, unitary process," shall secondary education be presented merely as a phase of such a process, or shall it be organized as a distinct but closely articulating part of the entire educational program, with peculiarly emphasized functions of its own.³⁵

Specific curricular problems or issues were enumerated by various authorities in education. These include questions on purposes and objectives of curriculum organization, sources of authority in curriculum building, selection and presentation of content, needs and interests of student and society and evaluation. For the purposes of this investigation some of these conflicting theories and practices were selected and direct opinion and fact were sought in regard to them. The material collected is presented in the section that follows.

³⁵Ibid., p. 20-21

IV. CURRENT THEORY AND PRACTICE

In order to determine current procedures in regard to certain aspects of the curriculum twenty-five items were included in the information blank. These items sought opinion and facts pertaining to, (a) content, (b) organization, (c) methodology of instruction, (d) human relations and (e) evaluation. The findings are presented under each of the above headings.

Content. Curriculum objectives should be in line with the general educational objectives that the school seeks to attain. In the second chapter a resume of educational objectives as expounded by professional groups and individuals was presented in order to indicate the trend of emphasis in the last fifty years. The results of this investigation show a marked similarity of the general trend. The table on page 72 illustrates an emphasis on the learner, his growth, well-being and integration, and on society. Ranked in order of preference current emphasis is first on the learner, second on society, third on spirit of independence and fourth on the maintenance of the "status quo".

1. Nature. It has often been said that the curriculum should provide for the various needs of the students. It should not only satisfy the needs of those students who wish to pursue higher studies, but it should also provide for the needs of the many who will not go beyond the secondary school level. An item was included under curriculum content of the information blank, seeking information from the selected high schools on the nature of the curriculum offered in those schools.

The eighty-nine answers received (Table XII indicated that the curriculum content was largely preparatory for higher education and general-informational and cultural. The first of these two was mentioned sixty-two times (32 per cent of total) and the second fifty-six times (20 per cent of total). The schools, however, indicated that to a lesser degree the content of their curriculum is preparatory for vocational life (mentioned thirty-nine times) and preparatory for homemaking (mentioned thirty-seven times).

TABLE XII

THE NATURE OF CURRICULUM CONTENT IN
EIGHTY-NINE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Nature of Content	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Preparatory for higher education	62	32
Preparatory for vocational life	39	20
Preparatory for homemaking	37	19
General-informational and cultural	56	29
Total	194	100

One school commented as follows: "I feel our program includes all four items. The content of the curriculum for each pupil varies according to individual ability, interest and purpose."

Another item was included on the information blank to determine how far current practice attempts to meet the needs of all the students,

i. e., the gifted, the average and the slow learner. The answers received from ninety-eight schools (Table XIII) show that the content of the curriculum is geared largely to meet the needs of the average student (mentioned sixty-six times). Thirty-seven schools indicated that they seek to meet the needs of all students equally.

It seems that in a number of cases the gifted and the slow students are neglected. This was brought out by certain comments that followed the item. The comments specified that limits in personnel and school facilities prevented the carrying out of a program in line with the aim of meeting the needs of all groups of students.

TABLE XIII

THE CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM RELATING TO SATISFACTION OF NEEDS OF GROUPS OF STUDENTS IN NINETY-EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Groups of Students	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
The gifted student	8	7
The average student	66	55
The slow learner	8	7
All students equally	37	31
Total	119	100

2. Determination of content. One of the current curriculum issues is how shall the content of the curriculum be determined. Should it be determined by local needs, state needs, national needs or inter-

national needs Current practice in ninety-eight selected secondary schools (Table XIV) points to a curriculum content determined largely by all kinds of needs, i. e., local, state, national and international. However, 38 per cent of the markings indicated the schools based the content of their curriculums on one or more, but not all, of these needs: Fourteen per cent related to local needs, 15 per cent to state needs, 5 per cent to national needs and 4 per cent to international needs.

TABLE XIV

THE DETERMINATION OF THE CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM
RELATIVE TO FIVE KINDS OF NEEDS AS GIVEN
BY NINETY-EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Kinds of Needs	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Local needs	17	14
State needs	18	15
National needs	6	5
International needs	5	4
All of the above	77	62
Total	123	100

3. Emphasis on offerings. Another current curriculum issue relates to the type of offerings that schools should emphasize. On the information blank four broad divisions of offerings were listed and schools were asked to rank them 1, 2, 3, 4 in order of preference. All schools indicated what their first preference was, eighty-three schools

indicated their second preference, seventy-six their third and only forty schools indicated their fourth preference (Table XV). In view of this no conclusive statement can be made in regard to second, third and fourth preferences. However, the findings indicated that the emphasis on the fundamentals is greater than any other group of offerings. Of the total checkings indicating first preference sixty-six pertained to the fundamentals, thirty five to all course offerings in the school, three to practical training and four to activities. So far as second preference is concerned 47 per cent of the eighty three schools checked practical training, eighteen the fundamentals, nine extra-class activities and nine all course offerings in the school.

Organization. The six items in this section sought to determine current practices relative to the actual structure of the "Curriculum," i. e., the various types of curricula, the unit requirements and the organization of offerings.

I. Types of curricula. Table XVI indicates the types of curricula offered by ninety-eight schools. Of the six types listed, the general, "college-preparatory," "business," and "homemaking" curricula were the most widely offered. These four were mentioned over ninety times whilst "vocational agriculture" was mentioned sixty-one and other vocational curricula thirty-six times. The other vocational curricula included nursing, industrial arts, workshop, metal shop, distributive education, co-operative training, trade and industry, retailing, diversified co-operative training, scientific, art, music, mechanical arts, auto-mechanics, printing and mechanical drawing.

TABLE XV

CURRICULAR OFFERINGS RANKED IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE
IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Curricular Offerings	Ranking 1, 2, 3, 4 in order of preference							
	First preference of 100 schools		Second preference of 83 schools		Third preference of 76 schools		Fourth preference of 40 schools	
	Number of times checked	Per cent of total	Number of times checked	Per cent of total	Number of times checked	Per cent of total	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
The fundamentals	66	61	18	22	1	1	0	0
Practical training	3	3	47	57	26	34	26	35
Activities	4	4	9	10.5	45	59	45	60
All courses	35	32	9	10.5	4	6	4	5
Total	108	100	83	100	76	100	75	100

TABLE XVI

NUMBER OF TIMES AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL THE SIX TYPES
OF CURRICULA ARE INCLUDED IN THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES
OF NINETY-EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Types of Curricula	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
General	94	20
College-preparatory	94	20
Business	93	19.7
Homemaking	92	19.3
Vocational agriculture	61	13
Other vocational curricula	36	8

2. Required units.³⁶ The purpose of the second item under curriculum organization was to get information in regard to the required subjects for graduation and the units for these subjects. The findings are not very reliable for some states have different unit systems. However, the answers received (Table XVII) are indicative of an approximation in regard to emphasis on the specified subjects and the units required. Eighty-eight schools require from three to six units of English; seventy-six from one to three units of Science; seventy-five from one to four of mathematics; seventy-nine from one to four of social sciences and seventy

³⁶A unit here is interpreted to mean the successful completion of an approved subject offered for thirty-six weeks.

five from one to four of physical education. Only eight schools require foreign languages and twenty-nine require other subjects such as home-making, driver education, shop, music, art, health, industrial arts and problems in democracy.

TABLE XVII

NUMBER OF UNITS REQUIRED ACCORDING TO SUBJECT
IN SECONDARY SCHOOL SURVEY

Subject	Number of Schools	Number of Units Required
English	23	4
	28	3
	12	5
	25	6
	1	1
Total	89	19
Science (Lab.)	39	1
	26	2
	11	3
	7	4
	1	5
	1	6
	1	8
Total	86	29
Mathematics	29	1
	17	2
	18	3
	11	4
	2	5
	1	6
	1	7
1	8	
Total	80	36

TABLE XVII (continued)

Subject	Number of Schools	Number of Units Required
Social Science	10	1
	30	2
	21	3
	18	4
	5	5
	5	6
Total	89	21
Physical Education	28	1
	13	2
	13	3
	11	4
	6	6
	2	8
Total	73	24
Foreign Language	7	$\frac{1}{2}$ -8
	1	6
Total	8	$6\frac{1}{2}$-8
Other	29	$\frac{1}{2}$ -4
Total	29	$\frac{1}{2}$-4

3. Credit for activities. It is indicated by Table XVIII that a number of schools in the United States offer credit for what are norm-

ally called extra-curricular activities. Band was checked by eighty-six of the eighty-eight schools that answered this item. The next highest extra-curricular activities for which credit was found to be given were orchestra, glee-club and chorus, and library. In fourteen schools credit was given for football and basketball. Other activities (not included on the specified list) for which credit was given were driver training, dramatics, office work, journalism, clubs, cafeteria work, stage work and school yearbook.

TABLE XVIII

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES AND NUMBER OF
SCHOOLS WHERE CREDIT IS GIVEN

Types of activities	Number of Schools
Orchestra	44
Band	86
Glee club and chorus	53
Football	14
Basketball	14
Track	13
Minor Sports	8
Library	25
Debate	15
Others	2

Some schools indicated that football, basketball, track and minor sports fell under the physical education program for which credit in the form of units was given.

4. Organization of offerings and method of presentation. One of the burning issues in regard to the curriculum relates to the organization of offerings and their method of presentation. Should the curriculum offerings be organized on the traditional separate subject lines, or should there be some correlation or fusion? If the organismic approach to learning is accepted to be valid, then subjects should be correlated in some form or other for the life of man is a complete whole not fragments. Youth should be trained to see life in meaningful wholes rather than isolated parts. The current practices in ninety-four selected senior high schools as indicated in Table XIX, point that the educational process is very slow in its evolution. Sixty-nine per cent of the total checks related to separate subjects, 19 per cent to broad fields, eight per cent to correlated subjects and only four per cent to cores.

However, practices in the junior high schools are more encouraging. Forty-three per cent of the total checks related to separate subjects, 35 per cent to broad fields, 19 per cent to correlated subjects and 3 per cent to cores.

5. Child-centered or society-centered? Another burning curriculum issue is: On what should the curriculum center? Should it center on the child and its interests, the society or the study of great books? Curriculum planners find themselves in a dilemma. On the one hand child interests cannot be neglected on the other hand children are to live in an already established social order which aims at pre-

TABLE XIX

NUMBER OF TIMES AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL FOUR TYPES OF ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULUM OFFERINGS AND METHOD OF PRESENTATION WERE CHECKED BY EIGHTY-TWO JUNIOR AND NINETY-FOUR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Types of Organization	Number of Times Checked		Percent of Total	
	Junior High	Senior High	Junior High	Senior High
Separate Subjects, i.e., Chemistry, Grammar Spelling, Arithmetic	49	84	43	69
Broad fields, i. e., Language Arts, General Science, Social Studies, Mathematics	40	23	35	19
Correlated Subjects, i.e., History and Geography, or History, Geography and English	22	10	19	8
Cores of general ex- periences cutting across many subjects	4	5	3	4
Total	115	122	100	100

servation of its values and culture. According to the answers received from ninety-eight secondary schools (Table XX) the emphasis is on a curriculum which is chiefly society-centered. However, the child-centered theory is not completely neglected for it was mentioned twenty-

eight times. Thirty per cent of the total checkings related to an interaction of the three approaches, i. e., the child centered, the society centered and the study of great books.

TABLE XX

BASIS OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION IN
NINETY-EIGHT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Basis of Curriculum Organization	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Child-centered depending solely on interests of students	28	23
Society-centered depending on subject matter pre-arranged by experts	57	47
Organization on study of great books	0	0
Interaction of these	36	30
Total	121	100

6. Co-curricular activities. With the emphasis on growth, wholesome integration, activity and influence of environmental factors, certain activities which used to be regarded as extra-class, have gradually come to be considered as integral parts of the curriculum of the schools. The answers (Table XXI) from ninety-three schools illustrate

very clearly the trend of emphasis on co-curricular activities. Ninety-five per cent of the schools that checked this item specified that co-curricular activities are emphasized as indispensable requisites for wholesome integration of the child. Five per cent of the schools answered in the negative.

TABLE XXI

EMPHASIS ON CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AS INDISPENSABLE
REQUISITES FOR WHOLESOME INTEGRATION OF THE CHILD
AS INDICATED BY NINETY-THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Number of Schools	Co-curricular emphasis		
	Yes	No	Per cent
88 5	88	5	95 5
Total 93	88	5	100

Methodology of Instruction. Curriculum implies the selection and organization of content or subject matter and the provision of various activities or experiences. Curriculum also implies the method of presentation of content or subject matter or experience so that these may become part of the child and thus modify his behavior. The behavior of the child is also influenced by the physical environment he finds himself in, and the various aids used in order to make the curriculum

more meaningful and interesting. This section will be concerned with this aspect of the curriculum.

1. Classroom instruction. Methods used in classroom instruction differ from school to school. The success of a method depends largely on the teacher and the learning environment. The item on classroom instruction sought to determine the trend in the American high schools in this important aspect of the curriculum. The answers received (Table XXII) indicate that of the five methods listed the recitation method and the resource-unit method seemed to be the most favored ones. Twenty-six per cent of the total checkings related to the former and 28 per cent to the latter. Twenty per cent related to the unit method, 19 per cent to the project and 8 per cent to the lecture method.

TABLE XXII

TYPES OF METHOD OF CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION
IN NINETY-THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Methods of Classroom Instruction	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Lecture method	21	8
Recitation method	65	26
Unit method	52	20
Resource unit method	69	28
Project method	42	17
Other	2	1
Total	251	100

2. Instructional aids. Under methodology of instruction an item was included relating to supplementary materials for learning in the form of library aids, audio-visual aids and so forth. The findings (Table XXIII) indicated that 90 per cent of the selected schools have library aids in the form of books, magazines, reference sets and pamphlet file; 98 per cent have audio-visual aids and 25 per cent other aids which included such aids as tape recorders, movie projectors, opaque projectors, record players, radios, slide projectors and film strip projectors.

TABLE XXIII

TYPES OF SUPPLEMENTARY INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS
IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Types of supplementary aids	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Library aids	90	42
Audio-visual aids	98	46
Other aids	25	12
Total	213	100

Human relations. Education is a process that deals with people. Consequently the effectiveness of a system of education depends to a great extent on the relationships between administrators and teachers, teachers and pupils, and administrators and pupils. In order to

determine current practices in this aspect of the educational process four items were included on the information blank.

Administration-staff relations. The answers to a question relating to administration-staff co-operation in the determination of the program and policies of the school (Table XXIV) indicate that in a great majority of the schools, the administration seeks large co-operation with the staff. This practice was mentioned eighty-two times. The rest of the schools indicated that the administration seeks some co-operation with the staff.

TABLE XXIV

ADMINISTRATION-STAFF CO-OPERATION RELATING TO THE
DETERMINATION OF THE PROGRAM AND POLICIES
IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Degree of Co-operation	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Some cooperation	19	19
Large Cooperation	82	81
No cooperation	0	0
All responsibility	0	0
Total	101	100

Administration-Staff-Pupil relations. Democracy rests on the co-operative process and the worth of the individual. In the educational process these two fundamental ideals should be sought. One of the items

on the information blank asked for information in regard to the degree of pupil consideration in the determination of the content of the curriculum. The answers (Table XXV) showed that in the great majority of the schools pupils have some part in determining the learning activities according to their interests. This was mentioned ninety-one times (90 per cent of the total times checked). Nine per cent of the total times related to the practice that pupils have a large part in determining the learning activities according to their interests; only 1 per cent related to the fact that they have no part at all.

TABLE XXIV

PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN THE DETERMINATION
OF THE CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM IN
100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Degree of participation	Number of times checked	Per cent of total checked
Pupils have some part	91	90
Pupils have a large part	9	9
Pupils are entirely free	0	0
Pupils have no part	1	1
Total	101	100

The comment from one school indicates the current trend. "Pupils should have a part in determining the learning activities. They can make contributions and need to develop ability to choose. Interest is also stimulated by student participation."

Another item under the same heading sought information in regard to pupil co-operation in the determination of the program and policies of the school. Table XXV indicates that 72 per cent of the schools seek some pupil co-operation and 28 per cent seek large pupil co-operation.

TABLE XXV

SCHOOL-PUPIL CO-OPERATION IN REGARD TO THE
DETERMINATION OF PROGRAM AND POLICIES
IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Degree of co-operation	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Some pupil co-operation	72	72
Large pupil co-operation	28	28
No pupil co-operation	0	0
Total	100	100

The comments that followed this item indicated a strong activity on the part of student councils.

Discipline. One of the most important and at the same time difficult problems in education from both the administrative and the instructional points of view is the problem of discipline. Very often a school is judged on the way it handles its disciplinary problems.

There are various techniques and procedures in regard to the handling of disciplinary cases. People differ, circumstances differ, offenses vary. It would have been impossible to compile conclusive

evidence in regard to the techniques and procedures employed in American secondary schools. However, the item included some very common procedures and schools were asked to indicate what they practice. The answers received (Table XXVI) show that the majority of the schools tackle disciplinary problems through self-disciplinary techniques such as self-analysis, self-criticism and self-control, and through co-operation between parents and teachers and principal. The former technique was mentioned seventy times and the latter eighty-seven. Character developing experiences were mentioned fifty-seven times, staying in after school fifty one times and corporal punishment fourteen times.

TABLE XXVI

DISCIPLINARY TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES
EMPLOYED IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Techniques and procedures	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Self-analysis, self-criticism	70	25
Character developing experiences	57	20
Corporal punishment	14	5
Staying in after school	51	18
Co-operation between parents and teachers	87	32
Complete freedom	0	0
Others	0	0
Total	279	100

Evaluation. The concept of evaluation is as old as teaching itself. Educators since the Graeco-Roman times have always striven to devise ways and means whereby the worth of their educational endeavors would be ascertained for the purpose of justifying to society and to themselves their procedures and for the improvement of their instructional activities. Evaluation therefore is desirable for every purposeful activity in which man engages. Education, however, deals with human nature. Human nature is not a mathematical formula. Consequently, in evaluating educational results there can be no absoluteness. In devising techniques for evaluation the educator must consider the fact that he deals with so many variables that his results will never be absolute, but always subject to modification and re-examination. Whatever the situation may be, the fact remains that in education as in any human endeavor people should strive for unbiased, constructive and as far as possible objective critical appraisal.

1. Evaluative techniques. In the study five items were included in order to obtain information in regard to the evaluative techniques adopted in the American secondary schools. Table XXVII indicates the findings. A very high percentage of schools use standardized tests of aptitude, intelligence and achievement and cumulative records; 65 per cent use personality test, 50 per cent anecdotal records, 44 per cent rating scales, 64 per cent teacher made tests, 53 per cent tests to determine growth in interest and 39 per cent use tests to determine growth in attitudes.

TABLE XXVII
 NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND PERCENTAGE IN REGARD TO
 THE USE OF VARIOUS EVALUATIVE TECHNIQUES

Evaluative techniques	Number of schools using techniques	Percent
Standardized tests of aptitude	82	82
Standardized tests of intelligence	93	93
Standardized tests of achievement	92	92
Personality tests	65	65
Anecdotal records	50	50
Rating scales	44	44
Teacher made tests	64	64
Tests of growth in interests	53	53
Tests of growth in attitudes	39	39
Cumulative records	92	92

2. Reporting of scholastic achievement. How to report scholastic achievement has been another of the many issues in regard to the school curriculum. The last item on the information blank pertained to this issue. Four of the most common systems were included. The answers received (Table XXVIII) indicated that by far the greatest number of the schools use the five point system. This system was checked ninety times. The "satisfactory-unsatisfactory" system was checked fourteen times, the numerical percentage sixteen times and the explanatory words five times. Five schools checked that they used other systems in addition to one already included in the item but they did not specify what these were.

TABLE XXVIII
 REPORTING OF ACHIEVEMENT IN TERMS OF VARIOUS
 SYSTEMS IN 100 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Systems	Number of times checked	Per cent of total
Five point system	90	69
Satisfactory or unsatisfactory	14	11
Numerical percentage	16	12
Explanatory words	5	4
Other systems	5	4
Total	130	100

Many schools commented that numerical percentage were used on the office records and the five point system on the report cards. Others specified that the "satisfactory or unsatisfactory" system was used for such areas as music, physical education, study habits and social habits and the five point system or numerical percentage for other areas.

CHAPTER V

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN CYPRUS

I. GENERAL BACKGROUND

Historical Outline. Prior to the British Occupation in 1870 the general state of education in Cyprus was at a very low standard. There were very few elementary schools and scarcely any secondary schools. The first report of the High Commissioner of Cyprus in 1879 summarizes the general position as follows:

The state of education in Cyprus must be considered to be at a low standard if judged by modern ideas. The majority of the agricultural population have received little or no education. In many villages not a single person can read or write and the education of the women is almost completely neglected.¹

Beginning with 1880 both elementary and secondary education have gradually developed. The government offered grants-in-aid to the villages to enable them to maintain an existing elementary school or establish a new school.² Under a law passed in 1905 the village authorities fixed and assessed the salaries of teachers. This led to many corrupt practices and in 1920 and 1923 laws were passed under which teachers were appointed by the governor on the recommendation of the boards of education. The

¹Quoted by G. F. Sleight, Report of the Department of Education for the School Year 1948-49 (Nicosia: Cyprus Government Printing Office, 1950) p. 3.

²Ibid.

salaries were paid from direct taxation earmarked for education.³ Under another law in 1929 elementary school teachers "were brought under the direct control of the government for appointment, promotion, dismissal and all disciplinary purposes and their salaries paid by government."⁴ In 1933 another law was passed establishing the governor as the central authority. Until 1933 the control of the curriculum remained solely in the hands of the board of education. In 1935 a new curriculum was published for introduction into all elementary schools.

While elementary education has gradually developed in the direction of centralization and direct governmental control, secondary education has developed differently. At the time of the British Occupation there was only one secondary school, the Turkish Rushdie School for Boys in Nicosia,⁵ supported and controlled by the Ottoman Government.⁶ A Greek school was also in operation but it was not until 1892 that it fully emerged as a secondary school. It came to be known as the Pancyprrian Gymnasium. Soon various gymnasia were set up in the chief towns. Numerous private secondary schools have also been established since then. In 1900 the English School Nicosia was founded as a private school, but in 1936 it became the

³Ibid., p. 4.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Cyprus was part of the Ottoman Empire before 1878.

property of the governor, "to be managed on his behalf by a board nominated by him."⁷

The American Academy (for boys and girls) at Larnaca, and the American Academy (for girls) at Nicosia were founded in 1908 and 1922 respectively by the Reformed Presbyterian (American) Mission. By 1952 there were fifty secondary schools on the island.⁸ Some of these schools are offered government grants, some are privately owned, some are controlled by governing bodies, and one is directly under the control of the government.

Most of the secondary schools were for the most part founded to provide education of the academic type, but some vocational work largely in the form of commercial studies was done.⁹

Organization, Enrollment, Admission. Elementary education is directly controlled by the Education Department, a governmental body. Secondary education is also indirectly controlled by the Education Department. Before a secondary school can operate it must apply to the government for registration. The requisites for registration are listed in article 7 of the Secondary Education law. The article reads as follows:

⁷ Ibid., p. 5.

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Colonial Reports: Cyprus 1952 (Nicosia: Cyprus Government Printing Office, 1953) p. 34.

No secondary school shall be registered unless the Director¹⁰ is satisfied

- (a) that the governing body, if not constituted under the provisions of any law in that behalf in force for the time being, is composed of persons who have a knowledge of, and an interest in secondary education and who are in all respects fit and proper persons to have the control of a secondary school.
- (b) that the school premises are suitable and adequate with regard to accommodation, ventilation, lighting and sanitation.
- (c) that the number of teachers is sufficient.
- (d) that the financial resources of the governing body are reasonably adequate for the establishment and efficient management and maintenance of the school.
- (e) that there is a reasonable need for a school with such a curriculum in the town or village in which it is proposed to open, maintain or conduct the same.¹¹

The government also has the right to inspect all secondary schools and obtain any information it requires. All secondary school teachers have to be registered and licensed by the government before they can be employed or act as teachers.¹²

Most of the schools are organized on the six-six plan, (Grades 7-12). Some are four year high schools (Grades 7-10), others are five year (Grades 7-11). The increase in the total high school enrollment within the last 11 years is indicated in Table XXIX.

The figure for the 1952-1953 year represents about 17 per cent of the population between the age of thirteen to eighteen.

¹⁰"Director" means the Director of Education.

¹¹The Secondary Education Law, Chapter 205 of the Colony of Cyprus, 1949 (London: C. F. Roworth Ltd., 1950) p. 1575.

¹²Ibid., p. 1576-1577.

TABLE XXIX

ENROLLMENT WITHIN THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS
IN CYPRUS SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹³

Year	Number of pupils
1938-39	5,000
1948-49	10,253
1949-50	11,022
1950-51	13,007
1951-52	14,231
1952-53	16,634

¹³Compiled from Reports of the Department of Education, 1948-49, 1949-50, 1951-52 (Nicosia: Cyprus Government Printing Office 1950, 1951 1952).

There is no free secondary education in Cyprus. Children attending secondary schools pay fees. The fees are lower in the grant-aided than in the other schools. The average annual fee for all secondary schools is about 20 (\$56.80).¹⁴

Education, both elementary and secondary is voluntary in Cyprus. However, about 95 per cent of the children between the ages of six to fourteen attend the elementary schools for at least part of the normal period of elementary education.¹⁵

Secondary schools are located only in larger towns. They are within reasonable accessibility and pupils may attend secondary schools provided they can afford the fees and qualify in the entrance examinations. Of the 7,782 boys and girls that were in the sixth grade in the year 1951-52, 4,857 enrolled in the first year of the secondary schools for the year 1952-53, a proportion of 62.4 per cent of the elementary school graduates.¹⁶ This proportion, however, does not graduate from secondary school. The number of secondary school graduates for the year 1952-53 was 980 which represents 20 per cent of the number of students enrolled in the first year of secondary school, and only 12.6 per cent of the elementary school graduates.

¹⁴Colonial Reports, Cyprus 1952, Op. cit., p. 34.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 33.

¹⁶G. F. Sleight, Report of the Department of Education for the School Year 1951-52 (Nicosia: Government Printing Office, 1953) p. 9.

Political and Economic Conditions. Cyprus was occupied by Great Britain in 1878. Before that it was a part of the Ottoman Empire. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 it passed under the administration of Great Britain in exchange for a promise to assist Turkey against Russian encroachment on her eastern province, although nominally it was still Ottoman territory and its inhabitants Ottoman subjects.¹⁷ At the outbreak of war with Turkey in 1914, Cyprus was annexed to the British Crown and in 1925 it became a Crown Colony.¹⁸ The island's population which amounts to about half a million is largely Greek in origin, language, religion, habits and customs. Consequently a "movement among the Greek population for the union (Enosis) of Cyprus with Greece has been a constant feature of local political life in the British period".¹⁹ This movement has exercised an influence on the education of the island, especially on the secondary level. The Greek element headed by religious leaders has sought to keep secondary education outside governmental direct control and in many cases has refused any subsidies from or cooperation with the Education Department. In 1952 there was an amendment of the Secondary Education Law whereby schools had the option of becoming "public-aided" with the following conditions:

¹⁷Colonial Reports, Cyprus 1952, Op. cit., p. 62.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 63.

¹⁹Ibid.

. . . that Government pays the salaries, pensions, and gratuities of all teachers; that teachers are appointed by Government after consultation with the governing body of the school concerned; that a maximum is set on tuition fees; that a generous proportion of the pupils are admitted free; that teachers appointed by Government must belong to the religious community served by the school unless the governing body has consented that this condition should be waived; and that the curriculum is not varied without the authority of the Director of Education.²⁰

This amendment received stormy criticisms on the part of the Greek population of the island. It was repudiated on the ground that it was an attempt by the government to bring secondary education under its control like elementary education and that it sought to rob the independence that existed in most Greek schools in the pursuit of their Greek cultural and educational objectives. The following extract from a circular issued by the Holy Synod of Cyprus illustrates the stand of the Greek element.

The foreign government which rules Cyprus contrary to the wishes of us, the Cypriots taking advantage of the financial difficulties of our schools, seeks to "strangulate" them (the schools) completely, bringing under its absolute control the teaching personnel, and general administration of the schools. Having succeeded, through authoritative legislation in bringing under its control elementary education it plans now the "enslavement" of secondary education, offering in exchange, financial relief. The Church and the whole Cypriot population condemned unanimously the new governmental measures and authorized the subsidization of the Secondary Schools, thus helping them to maintain their educational and administrative autonomy.²¹

Cyprus is predominantly an agricultural country with few industries which are largely for local consumption. It has no oil, coal or iron consequently it has no heavy industries. Rural science, therefore,

²⁰Ibid., p. 34.

²¹Translated from the Cyprus newspaper Eleftheria, August 19, 1952.

should be an indispensable part of the curriculum. Technology is in its infancy, but is gradually advancing. There is a Cyprus Broadcasting Service, Public Works Department, Central Electrification Scheme, Cyprus Airways and so forth all of which require a great number of technicians.

II. PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

The Pancyprrian Gymnasium, Nicosia, Cyprus. The Pancyprrian Gymnasium was established in 1812 by Archbishop Kyprianos as the first purely Greek secondary school on the island. In 1893 it was recognized by the Ministry of Education of Greece as equivalent to the Greek Classical Gymnasia of the 6-6 pattern. It is not a strictly co-educational school. Boys and girls are schooled in separate buildings, but in most subjects they are taught by the same staff. There is only one principal called the "Gymnasiarch", and the governing body under the direction of which the school operates is the same for both sections. Various extra-curricular activities are arranged in which both boys and girls participate together as groups. The rules and policies are applicable to both sections.

The school has a total enrollment of about 1,600 students. All students are Greek Cypriots and members of the Greek Orthodox Church. The teaching staff numbers sixty-three, most of whom are graduates of the University of Athens and hold a teacher's license from the Government of Cyprus.

Until very recently the school had rigid required courses of study from the seventh through to the twelfth grades. Elective offerings

were only limited to certain out-of-class activities. In 1948 the two higher grades (grades 11 and 12) were separated into the "Classical" section following a strictly classical curriculum and the "Practical" or "Scientific" section which included more science and mathematics hours for the benefit of those students who wished to follow a curriculum in the natural or physical sciences. There also operated a commercial class in the twelfth grade with emphasis on a commercial curriculum for the benefit of those students who wished to enter a vocation or pursue higher studies in the commercial field. Beginning with the school year 1953-54 further curricular changes took place. As Dr. Spyridakis, the Gymnasiarch, said this was done in order "to meet the many educational problems that have arisen in Cyprus."²² The program of studies in grades seven, eight and nine has remained unaltered. But grades ten, eleven and twelve have been separated into three departments.

- a. The classical department which operates on the same lines and principles as before.
- b. The practical department for the study of the sciences plus the humanities and
- c. The department of "Languages and Commerce" for studies primarily in commercial subjects and secondarily in humanities and sciences.²³

After completing the ninth grade the student is free to choose any one of the three curriculums according to his interests and needs. No

²²Translated from Κώστας Σπυριδάκης "Αι Μεταρρυθμίσεις του Έχολείου μας," Μαθητικά Έξοτρία, Άρ. 9: Σελίς ι, Άπριλίος - Ιούλιος, 1953

²³Ibid.

student can switch from one curriculum to the next after he has attended part of it.

The institutional philosophy that fundamentally has remained unaltered even with the splitting up of the program of studies in the upper three grades since the early establishment of the school was very succinctly stated by Dr. Spyridakis at the official opening ceremony on September 29, 1951. Dr. Spyridakis said:

Under the blessings of our holy Church we inaugurate today the beginning of classes for the new school year. For years we have held this ceremony in conjunction with the Flag ceremony so that both will constitute the symbol of the ideals for which our school strives, the ideals of Christianity and Hellenism.²⁴

On another occasion Dr. Spyridakis reiterated that the objectives of the school will always be a humanistic and Hellenistic education. "The humanistic basis of our education has not only been recognized as the one and only education for us but also the one which will continue to be valid in the future."²⁵

The significant words in these translated quotations are Christianity, Hellenism and humanitarianism. The religious influence inherently manifest in the philosophy of the school is not a contemporary one but dates back to the origin of the system. Hellenism is interpreted to mean the upholding and perpetuating of the ancient and modern Greek cultures which have been based on the cultivation of intellect as the prime factor

²⁴Translated from Ἐπετηρίς Ἐχολικῆ Ἔτους 1951-1952 (Λευκωσία: Τύποις Κόσμος, ΛΤΔ) Σελίς 5.

²⁵ Σπυριδάκης, "Αἱ Μεταρρυθμίσεις τοῦ Ἐχολείου μας", Μαθητικὴ Ἔσθια, *op. cit.*, Σελίς 121.

for participation in life where that culture exists. In view of the changed social and economic conditions some curricular changes were required. But fundamentally the same philosophy pervades the whole system. Dr. Spyridakis states this point of view when he says:

The most important consideration to be borne in mind is that all departments will be governed by the same spirit of our school which is national and humanitarian. The division in the three upper classes will not make our youth different people. They will develop in the same spirit, but more capable of facing in a different way life which exists in so many different forms. In spite of these changes our school will continue to remain primarily a classical school."²⁶

The philosophy, therefore, of the Pancyprrian Gymnasium may be epitomized in terms of the following objectives:

- (a) To train its students for intellectual pursuits through the study of a classical education.
- (b) To give its students a humanitarian education through the study of man's growth and the forces bearing in this growth.
- (c) To impart subject matter in the various field of study.
- (d) To prepare students to face life primarily through a study of their national heritage and the humanities and secondarily through scientific and vocational courses.
- (e) To uphold and foster moral intregation through religious instruction.

The Samuel Commercial School, Nicosia, Cyprus. The Samuel Commercial School was founded in 1924 by Constantine Samuel as a four year

²⁶Ibid., p. 122.

commercial secondary school extending from grade seven to grade ten. In 1940 an eleventh grade was added and since 1952-53 it has operated on a six-six basis covering grade seven to grade twelve.²⁷ It is a privately owned institution with an enrollment of about 1,016 pupils.²⁸ It is coeducational, with a teaching staff of 26 who are licensed as secondary school teachers.

The general philosophy of the school is very clearly stated in terms of the following purposes:

The purpose of the Samuel Commercial School is the Hellenistic education of its student population, through the possession of a classical and commercial schooling, so that they may become capable, both in theory and in practice, to carry out in full the various transactions pertaining to matters of a commercial or industrial nature, or of Banking, Co-operative Savings Banks, and in general of any commercial enterprise.²⁹

Ever since its establishment the school's objectives have primarily been (1) the preparation of its students for life through the provision of a general education in line with the Christian and Greek traditions and ideals; and (2) the preparation of its students for life in the Cyprus environment through the provision of vocational experiences largely of a commercial nature. The specific objectives of the school will be dealt with later in this investigation when the school's curriculum will be considered.

²⁷Translated from Κανονισμός τῆς Ἐμπορικῆς Σχολῆς Σαμουήλ
(Λευκωσία: Κύπρον, 1953) Σελ. 3-4

²⁸This is the figure for the 1952-1953 school year.

²⁹Translated from Κανονισμός τῆς Ἐμπορικῆς Σχολῆς Σαμουήλ
op. cit., σελ. 6

The English School, Nicosia, Cyprus. The English School, Nicosia, Cyprus was founded in 1900 and until 1936 had operated as a private institution. In 1936 it became the property of the Governor of Cyprus to be managed on his behalf by a Board of Management appointed by him.³⁰ It is completely different from the two above mentioned institutions. In the first place, it is exclusively for boys with a limited enrollment of about 500 students. In the second place, it is more heterogeneous in its population than either the Pancyprian Gymnasium or the Samuel Commercial School. Its student body consists of Greeks, Turks, Armenians and English. The Greek element is by far the largest. The nature of its population, of course, means that its students are of different religions and denominations also. There are Greek Orthodox, Mohammedans, Protestants and Catholics. The faculty which numbers 30 people are also of different nationalities and religions. Seven members of the teaching staff are English, fourteen are Greek, five are Turks and four are Armenians. Many of these teachers are graduates of British Universities. Thirdly, its curriculum is narrower in course offerings than the two other schools. In line with the English "grammar school", its curriculum includes, mostly English, history, geography, mathematics, science, Latin, and Greek. Unlike the other schools its chief medium of instruction is English. Fourthly, the English School emphasizes sports and other extra-class activities more than either the Pancyprian Gymnasium or the Samuel Commercial School. Fifthly, a noticeable proportion of its student

³⁰Supra, p. 123.

population reside in boarding houses. The resident students in the other two schools are few in proportion to their enrollment. And last but by no means least, the English School differs in its general philosophy from the other two schools.

Unlike the Pancyprian Gymnasium and the Samuel Commercial School the English School seems to be devoid of any stated philosophy or underlying principles. Perhaps this a reflection of certain essential British characteristics like "the horror of theory and fear of mechanical organization."³¹

The English School seems to follow a line akin to that of the British Constitution and the British national system of education; it just grows. However, certain sporadic statements and the examination of the curriculum are expressive of the aims and general character of the school. The original aim of the school was stated by its founder Canon F. D. Newham thus: "to provide Government offices with Cypriot clerks having a sound knowledge of English."³² To a large degree this aim operates at the present time. Most of the government offices are to a large extent staffed by graduates of the school. The current philosophy of the school was broadly expressed by its principal as follows:

³¹I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933), p. 59.

³²E. G. Jackson, "Founder's Day," The English School Magazine, Christmas 1953, p. 6.

Constitutionally we are like the British Constitution--we "just grew," and it is this strong growth rooted in the past which will spread steadily into the future extending far beyond the school boundaries with the lives of many citizens of this Colony and of the Great Empire to which we all belong."³³

In other words the English School, Nicosia, Cyprus attempts to fuse the various cultural elements inherent in its student population for the purpose of producing well-rounded citizens fit to take up their place in Cyprus and the broader British Empire. More specifically the philosophy of the school may be stated in terms of the following objectives:

- (a) Mastery of the basic skills, knowledge and attitudes demanded by the Cyprus as part of the British Empire.
- (b) Moral intergration through religious instruction.
- (c) Preparation for higher studies in the fields of the humanities and the sciences.
- (d) Preparation for the requirements of certain government and private posts.
- (e) Wholesome integration through a number of extra-curricular activities.
- (f) Aesthetic appreciation through music and art.
- (g) Mastery of English and Greek in the case of the Greeks and English and Turkish in the case of the Turks and Armenians. Apart from these there is instruction in Greek for the Turks and in Turkish for the Greeks for better human relationships between the two groups.

³³Ibid.

III. THE CURRICULUM

The three schools chosen for this investigation represent the various types of curricula offered in the Cyprus secondary schools. The Pancyprian Gymnasium represents the strictly Greek classical curriculum; the Samuel Commercial school, the general curriculum with emphasis on vocationalism in the form of commercial offerings, and the English School the narrow "grammar" type of curriculum with emphasis on the study of the English language, and preparation for certain local and British examinations like the Cyprus Certificate of Education, and the British General Certificate of Education.

The Pancyprian Gymnasium. The general objectives of the curriculum of the Pancyprian Gymnasium are akin to the general philosophy of the school. In line with the classical traditions the content of the curriculum is strongly academic, pre-arranged by experts, society-centered and emphasized for its disciplinary qualities. The school stresses the fundamentals like language arts, mathematics, history and general sciences, and the maintenance of the "status quo" by subject-matter as accumulated through the ages and especially the classical Greek learning. Through its curriculum the Pancyprian Gymnasium seeks to train the intellect of children at the expense of total child growth, for the child is disciplined to fit to the curriculum, otherwise he either repeats the grade or is forced to leave the school. Subjects like mathematics and ancient Greek are emphasized for the disciplinary values of the mental faculties.

The curriculum is departmentalized by subject. The methodology

of instruction is largely the recitation method, but the "memoriter" type of instruction is still practiced. There are home assignments which require two or three hours of work daily. The school practices the system of examinations mostly the essay type. It encourages competition through award of prizes and scholarships and articulation from one class to the other depends on the satisfactory passing of the yearly examinations. It maintains a strict disciplinary code in matters of behavior, attendance, dress and punishment in the form of corporal chastisement, and temporary or permanent expulsion are resorted to.

The extra-class activities of the school are conducted on the same educational lines as the classroom activities, namely, on the lines of intellectualism. Here again the school follows faithfully the classical concept of mental discipline of the young. Out-of-class activities include classical athletic events, drill in gymnastics, dramatics, orchestra and choir. Recently soccer, basketball and volleyball have been included.

Other factors bearing on curriculum are library facilities, audio-visual aids, plant and supplies and trips. The Pancyprian Gymnasium has one of the richest collections of books in the island. Its library contains 13,000 volumes of literary and scientific value, magazines, newspapers, professional publications and bulletins. It has a museum and well-equipped laboratories, but its classrooms are overcrowded and it lacks adequate supplies in audio-visual aids.

The program of studies of the classical department is indicated in Table XXX.

TABLE XXX

PROGRAM OF STUDIES OF THE CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT
OF THE PANCYPRIAN GYMNASIUM³⁴

Subject	Grades					
	Seven	Eight	Nine	Ten	Eleven	Twelve
Religious education	2**	2	2	2	1	1
Classical Greek	8	8	8	8	8	9
Modern Greek	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin			3	3	2	2
World History	3	3	3	3	2	3
History of Cyprus						1
Mathematics	3	4	3	3	4	4
Science	3	3	3	3	3	4
Cosmography						1
Geography	2	2	2	1	1	
Hygiene					1	
Philosophy					2	2
English	5	5	5	5	5	4
Physical education	3	3	3	3	3	2
Art	2	2	1	1	1	3
Music	2	2	1	1		
French (elective)		(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Total Units	36	37(2)	36(2)	36(2)	36(2)	36(2)

**Each unit represents one class period of fifty minutes.

³⁴Compiled from Ἐπετηρὶς Ἑλληνικοῦ ἔτους 1951-1952, op. cit.

The program of studies of the "Practical" or "Scientific" Department is the same as that of the classical for grades seven, eight and nine. From the tenth grade upwards the program of studies is as shown on Table XXXI.

TABLE XXXI

PROGRAM OF STUDIES OF THE UPPER THREE GRADES OF THE
"PRACTICAL" OR "SCIENTIFIC" DEPARTMENT
OF THE PANCYPRIAN GYMNASIUM³⁵

Subject	Grades		
	Ten	Eleven	Twelve
Religious education	1**	1	1
Ancient Greek	5	5	6
Modern Greek	2	2	2
Latin	-	-	-
World History	2	2	2
History of Cyprus			1
Mathematics	6	6	7
Science	8	8	9
Cosmography			1
Geography	1	1	
Geology	1	1	
Hygiene	1	1	
Philosophy	2	2	2
Physical Education	3	3	2
Art	2	2	3
Music	-	-	-
French (elective)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Total Units	39(2)	39(2)	40(2)

**Each unit represents one class period of fifty minutes.

³⁵Ibid.

The Department of "Commerce and Languages" like the Practical Department follows the same program in grades seven, eight and nine, but a different one in grades ten, eleven and twelve (Table XXXII).

TABLE XXXII

PROGRAM OF STUDIES OF THE UPPER THREE GRADES OF THE
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LANGUAGES OF THE
PANCYPRIAN GYMNASIUM³⁶

Subject	Grades		
	Ten	Eleven	Twelve
Religious education	1**	1	1
Ancient Greek	3	2	2
Modern Greek	3	3	3
Commercial Arithmetic	2	1	1
Algebra	2	2	2
Experimental Science	2	1	
Chemistry	2	1	
Commerce		1	2
Commercial Transactions			1
Geography	1	1	1
Hygiene		1	
Commercial Science	3	1	1
Commercial Correspondence	1	1	
Accounting	3	3	3
Practical Office Work		1	2
French	3	3	3
English	6	6	5
Citizenship			1
Principles of Law		1	
Commercial Law			1½
Political Economy		1	1½
Penmanship	1		
Decorative Arts		1	
Typing	1	2	2
Shorthand		1	2
Physical Education	2	2	1
Total Units	38	39	39

**Each unit represents one class period of fifty minutes.

³⁶Ibid.

The Samuel Commercial School. The Samuel Commercial School follows the curriculum of the six-year commercial high schools of Greece, as set by the Greek Ministry of Education with increased number of hours for the study of the English language due to the prevailing local needs. Local conditions necessitate preparation for (a) The Cyprus Certificate of Education, (b) The London Chamber of Commerce (c) the London General Certificate of Education.³⁷ The curriculum therefore, of this school seeks to provide opportunities to meet present-day needs. In the school bulletin issued in 1953 it is stated:

Thus the pupils of the Samuel Commercial School through the combination of the curriculum as set by the Greek Ministry of Education, and the demands of local conditions, acquire much useful knowledge for jobs in Cyprus, so that they may succeed in the difficult struggle for existence . . .³⁸

Some of the specific objectives sought in the various subjects are as follows:

1. Scripture

To cultivate the religious feelings of the students and to mould their soul and conscience according to the teachings of the Greek Orthodox Church.

2. Ancient Greek

To acquire knowledge of the Ancient Greek language on which modern Greek is based, and of the life and civilization of the Ancient Greeks.

3. Modern Greek

To acquire a linguistic and rational education, to develop an aesthetic appreciation of Greek literature and to use correctly the written modern Greek language as it is encountered in the various phases of life and the commercial world.

³⁷Translated from Κανονισμός τῆς Ἐμπορικῆς Σχολῆς Σαμουήλ
op. cit., p. 6.

³⁸Ibid., p. 18.

4. **Citizenship**
To afford an opportunity to understand the meaning and character of the State, the duties of each citizen for the fulfillment of the purposes of the state, and the responsibilities of each citizen.
 5. **History**
To study the development of the political and social life of man and man's material and spiritual civilization, since the prehistoric time, with special emphasis on Greece.
 6. **Practical Arithmetic**
 7. **Practical Geometry**
 8. **Commercial Arithmetic**
 9. **Algebra**
 10. **Theoretical Geometry**
 11. **Trigonometry**
 12. **Analytical Geometry**
 13. **Zoology**
 14. **Botany**
 15. **Mineralogy**
 16. **Geology**
- To provide sufficient knowledge in mathematics, first, in order to understand the various computational questions that arise in the practical world and especially in the field of economics . . .
- To provide an encyclopedic education, and the elementary knowledge of the usefulness to man of the various physical bodies.

Through courses in the various commercial arts (for example, accountancy, commercial science, shorthand, typing) the school seeks to equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills for efficiency in the various occupations.³⁹

The program of studies of this school includes forty-two subjects. These are: Religious Education, Ancient Greek, Modern Greek, Citizenship, General History, Economic History, Practical Arithmetic, Practical Geometry, Commercial Arithmetic, Algebra, Theoretical Geometry, Trigonometry, Elements of Analytical Geometry, Zoology, Botany, Mineralogy, Geology, Physics, Chemistry, Commercial Science, Geography, Economic Geography, Hygiene,

³⁹Ibid., pp. 18-25. Translated and adapted in outline form.

Accountancy, Commercial Correspondence (in English and French), English, French, General Law Principles, Commercial Law, Political Economy, Penmanship, Decorative Arts, Drawing, Typing, Shorthand, Physical Education and Music.⁴⁰

In its extra-curricular activities this school is similar to the Pancyprian Gymnasium. The classical athletic events, drill in gymnastics, soccer, volley ball and basketball, dramatics, choir and orchestra comprise the extra-curricular program. However, the emphasis is secondary and, due to the fact that the school lacks supplies grounds and room accommodations, the extra-curricular activities are grossly neglected.

Like the Gymnasium the school is very strict in matters of behavior, dress, attendance and so forth. Punishments, range from reprimanding, and staying in after school, to temporary or permanent expulsion.⁴¹

The school lacks adequate premises, library facilities, audio-visual aids and classes are overcrowded.

The curriculum organization and methodology of instruction are similar to the Pancyprian Gymnasium.⁴²

The English School, Nicosia, Cyprus. In line with the general objectives, the English School offers a curriculum embodying elements from three different cultures, the English, the Greek and the Turkish.

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 18-42.

⁴¹Ibid., pp. 15-16.

⁴²cf ante, p. 137-138.

Like the other two schools it emphasizes the study of the past as a preparation for present and future living. Like its British prototype, the Grammar School, the system of examinations at the English School constitutes an integral part of the entire school program. The content is organized on the separate subject type, except for some correlation in the first three grades.

From grade seven to grade ten all courses offered for each grade are required courses. Beginning with grade eleven there is a division into three departments offering varying courses. These departments are (a) the Arts Department (b) The Science Department and (c) the Certificate Department.

The courses offered from grade seven through grade ten are:

Grade Seven

Modern English, Greek or Turkish
Arithmetic
History of Cyprus
Geography
Science
Music
Art
Physical Education
Scripture or Mosque Games

Grade Nine

English
Modern Greek or Turkish
Arithmetic
Geometry
Algebra
Science
Music
Art
Physical Education
Scripture or Mosque Games

Grade Eight

English
Modern Greek or Turkish
Arithmetic
Geometry
Correlated History and Geography
Science
Music
Art
Physical Education
Scripture or Mosque Games

Grade Ten

English
Modern and Classical Greek or Turkish
Turkish for Greeks and Greek for Turks
Arithmetic
Geometry
Algebra
Science
Music
Art
Physical Education
Scripture or Mosque Games⁴³

English in all four grades includes reading, writing, spelling, composition and grammar all taught as separate subjects.

Science in grade seven includes (a) Chemistry (water solvent power, natural water, solutions, crystallization, distillation, liberation of hydrogen from water and acids by sodium magnesium and iron, reversible reaction of iron and steam, synthesis of water, preparation of hydrogen and properties of H_2O , air, uses and properties of oxygen, elements, mixtures and compounds), (b) Biology (external features of typical plants with functions of each; flowers, part and structure, pollination and fertilization; fruits, seeds (broad beans); simple outline of earthworm, mosquito, housefly and bee; metamorphosis of above).

The science syllabus in the eight grade is the same as the seventh grade, the only difference being (a) that it is taught in English instead of Greek and (b) that it is taught in greater detail.

In grade nine science is divided into (1) physics (2) biology and (3) chemistry. The physics course includes such topics as: mechanics (forces, velocity, speed, acceleration, density, pressure, Boyle's Law, pulleys, levers, jacks). The biology course includes seasonal changes, animals, perennials, biennials, ephemeral herbs; trees; vegetative propagation; foods, seeds and their commercial value; grafting; soil, elements necessary to plants--manure, rotation of crops, soil organisms, bacteria, fungi. The chemistry course includes outline of Dalton's atomic theory, atoms, molecules, symbols and formulas, valency equation, atomic and molecular weight; equivalents (Law of constant composition); law of

multiple proportions and of reciprocal proportions, Boyle's and Charle's Law, diffusion, fundamental parts of electrolysis, Faraday's laws, electrochemical series, solubility, super saturated and saturated solutions, oxidation, reduction.

Science in grade ten is also divided into (1) physics (2) biology and (3) chemistry. The physics course includes heat and light (all aspects with simple problems and many experiments). The biology course includes simple anatomy of root stem and leaf, osmosis, transpiration, photosynthesis, nutrition in mammal (rabbit); alimentary canal, digestion, absorption. The chemistry course includes: characteristics of metals and non-metals, acids, bases, salts; water of crystallization, chemistry of carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide (preparation, properties and uses), coal fuel, gas, calcium salts as found in nature, hard water, lime water, oxygen, ozone (preparation, properties, reactions); hydrogen dioxide (preparation, properties, reactions).

In grades eight and nine history is taught in correlation with geography with particular stress on the growth of man as influenced by social economic and scientific factors. In grade eight there is a correlated course called "The Growth of the Map of the World" with historical accounts of the ancient civilizations of the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans, Marco Polo, Henry the Navigator, Columbus, Vespucci, Vasco de Gama, Magellan, Cabot, Drake and Raleigh, Tasman, Dampie, Cook and Livingstone, and the geography of the regions associated with the explorations and discoveries of these people. In grade nine there is a

course entitled "Power". Its purpose is the study of power from the ancient Egyptian use of muscle power to the present use of atomic power. The geography of the regions and scientific factors are also included.

In grade ten there is a departmentalization of history and geography. European and Cyprus history form the content of the history course. Geography is limited only to physical geography.

The courses offered in the two upper grades are as follows:

GRADE ELEVEN

<u>Arts</u>	<u>Science</u>	<u>Certificate</u>
English	English	English
Modern Greek or Turkish	Modern Greek or Turkish	Modern Greek or Turkish
Latin	Geography	History
History	Physics	Geography
Latin	Chemistry	Arithmetic
History	Biology	Algebra
Geography	Arithmetic	Geometry
Arithmetic	Algebra	Arithmetic
Algebra	Geometry	Algebra
Geometry	Music	Geometry
Music	Art	Music
Art	Physical Education	Art
Physical Education	Scripture or Mosque, Games	Physical Education
Scripture or Mosque, Games		Chemistry
		Biology
		Physics
		Scripture or Mosque, Games

GRADE TWELVE

<u>Arts</u>	<u>Science</u>	<u>Certificate</u>
English	English	English
Classical Greek or Turkish	Greek or Turkish	Modern Greek or Turkish
Latin	Mathematics	History
Advanced Mathematics	Biology and Physics	Geography
English Literature	Chemistry	Mathematics
History	Music	Chemistry
Art	Art	Biology
Music	Physical Education	Physics

Physical Education
 Scripture
 Games

Scripture
 Games

Music
 Art
 Physical Education
 Scripture
 Games⁴⁴

The course offerings in the upper two grades are geared to meet the requirement of certain public examinations like the Cyprus Certificate of Education and the London General Certificate of Education. The history course includes periods like (1) "Europe 1789-1939" (2) "British History 1815-1922" (3) History of Cyprus from early days to 1191. The mathematics course includes elementary and advanced mathematics. The English course includes language (reading, writing, spelling and grammar) for all departments except the Arts department of the twelfth grade where literature is taught. Used as textbooks are Wells, The Story of Mr. Polly, Pope's Rape of the Lock and Shakespeare's As You Like It.

The physics course includes, light sound, properties of matter, electricity, magnetism. The biology course includes blood, arteries, veins, capillaries, respiration in plants and animals, excretion, irritability, amoeba, rabbit, and dogfish. The chemistry course includes inorganic (general and physical), acid radicals, phosphorus, allotrophy, oxides, chlorides and acids.

The three subjects of art, physical education and games are required in all years, but no examinations are given and they do not appear on the personal record of the student. The instruction for art

⁴⁴Ibid.

and physical education is only once a week for a period of forty minutes and for games twice a week for the same length of time for each period.

Classroom offerings as given above are offered only in the mornings from eight o'clock to one o'clock and each subject is given either twice or three times each week for periods of forty minutes each. Home assignments are required daily. The time allotted is one hour and a half in the first two grades and two or more hours in the upper four grades.

From two to four o'clock in the afternoon all extra-class activities take place. The English School like all similar schools in England places great emphasis on these extra-class activities which include the following:

- (a) Games--soccer, hockey, cricket and volley-ball.
- (b) Athletic events, track and field events.
- (c) Societies like the Historical Society, the Scientific Society, the Dramatic Society, the Astronomical Society, the Literary and Debating Society, the Greek Society, the Turkish Society and the Philatelic Society.
- (d) The St. John's Ambulance Association for training in first aid to the injured.
- (e) Library
- (f) Chorus, orchestra.

Students may join these societies according to their interests. No fees are paid. All societies are supervised by teachers and almost all students--especially those of the upper four grades belong to them. The school organizes inter-class, intra-mural and inter-school events.

The English School has three libraries with English, Greek and Turkish books, magazines, papers and professional publications. It is perhaps the best equipped school on the island. Both its chemistry and physics laboratories have been recognized by London University as suitable for practical work for the advanced level of the General Certificate of Education. It maintains a separate history and geography room well-equipped with supplies and aids for the instruction in these two subjects. Its buildings are the most modern school buildings on the island with sufficient playgrounds for the various games and athletic events.

From grade nine upwards students are prepared for various government and university examinations. After grade nine students take the Government examinations in lower English. In grade ten they take the Government examination in higher English. In grade eleven they take either the ordinary levels of the London General Certificate of Education or the Cyprus Certificate which includes various academic subjects. In grade twelve they take the advanced level of the London General Certificate of Education. This certificate, completed with advanced and ordinary passes qualifies students to enter any British University, the Cyprus Teacher's Training College, or to be employed in the Cyprus Civil Service. The Cyprus Certificate of Education qualifies students to enter the Teacher's Training College or be employed in the Cyprus Civil Service.

The methodology of instruction is largely the lecture method and the recitation method. Students have to conform to disciplinary rules and regulations and the principal has the right to inflict corporal punishment.

The testing program is largely conducted on subjective methods of testing and achievement is reported in numerical percentages with space for comments by the teachers.

It was originally stated that a study of education in the free and democratic countries.¹ To present social ideals and the form of social organization, with a view to the development of the social organization of secondary education should be accordingly. A comparative analysis of a country's educational system could be made by studying through analysis of that country's political, economic, religious, and social conditions, which in turn is a direct consequence of the social organization of that country. The results of this study are presented in this investigation to compare a number of countries and to identify the similarities and differences between education in these and the United States.

Methodology. The educational systems are studied and compared rather than the methods of analyzing them.

1. Both the American and foreign secondary schools are of high realization as one of their chief objectives. It has been found that both systems attempt to provide learning experiences by which the student can effect a harmony with himself and be free to follow to the fullest of his aptitude. They are well equipped in the field of gathering where this objective is realized. For example, the American secondary schools have achieved the ideal pertaining to the development

CHAPTER VI

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND CYPRUS: A COMPARISON

It was originally stated that systems of education differ from one country to another.¹ Dominant social ideals and the form of social organization differ with nations. Consequently, the aims and organization of secondary education should vary accordingly. A thorough analysis of a country's educational system would necessitate an equally thorough analysis of that country's political, social, economic, moral and cultural character, which is perhaps a life-time endeavor. Notwithstanding limitations of time, space and research, sufficient data have been presented in this investigation to indicate a number of important similarities and differences between secondary education in Cyprus and the United States.

Similarities. The similarities between the two systems seek to attain rather than the methods of accomplishing them.

1. Both the American and Cyprus secondary school aim at "self-realization" as one of their prime objectives. By that it is implied that both systems attempt to provide learning experiences by virtue of which the student can effect a harmony with himself and he can develop to the maximum of his aptitude. There are various instances in the data gathered where this objective is manifest. For example of the ninety-seven schools that answered the items pertaining to general and vocational

¹Supra, p. 1.

education 38 per cent subscribe to the school objective of general education and 62 per cent to general education and a specific vocational pursuit.² In regard to the type of activities that the school emphasizes, social-civic activities were mentioned ninety-eight times, economic-vocational, eighty-eight and individualistic-avocational, seventy-two times.³ The majority of the schools seek to implement objectives resident in the learner, that is, personal growth, physical well-being, personal integrity, vocational skills and aesthetic expression in music, art or literature.⁴

The Cyprus secondary schools strive for the objective of self-realization as earnestly as the American school. The only difference being that the majority of the Cyprus secondary schools believe that the individual realizes himself through strictly academic pursuits rather than a balance between that and vocationalism or practical training. Through the provision of a classical curriculum consisting of languages, the sciences, the humanities, music and art the individual prepares for the vocation of life rather than to earn a living.

2. Another aim sought by both systems is the acquisition of worthwhile values. The systems differ in what values to attain and whether values are pragmatic, whether they are absolute and immutable, whether they are subjective or objective or both. The fact remains that they emphasize values as an integral part of the educational

²Supra, p. 68.

³Supra, p. 63.

⁴Supra, p. 70.

process and the guiding posts for all educational procedures.

3. Both countries emphasize the interrelationship and inseparability of the individual and society. The Greek schools of Cyprus have never deviated from the Platonic idea which ran as follows: "Man is a social and political animal, and nothing but abstract dialectics can come of the attempt to isolate his psychology and ethics from the political and social environment that shapes them."⁵ American secondary education lays great stress on the social function of education. The curriculum objectives that spring from the analysis of society, i.e., teaching of democracy, use of intelligence, improvement of human relations occupied a second place as regards the first preference given by the one hundred schools.⁶ Social-civic activities with such aims as:

1. The development of ideals and habits of conduct
2. The development of ideals and habits of cooperation
3. The development of a knowledge of important social institutions or agencies and their place in the social order...
4. The development of a knowledge of the civic activities involved in community life...
5. The development of a knowledge of the major activities of state and national life...
6. The development of a knowledge of political principles and duties...⁷

were mentioned by all the schools concerned with this investigation.

Differences. The differences between American and Cyprus secondary

⁵Plato, The Republic, op. cit., p. xii.

⁶Supra, p. 70.

⁷Inglis, op. cit., p. 369.

education relating to aims, organization, curricula and evaluation were found to be as follows:

1. The United States seeks to provide equal educational opportunities for all its youth of high school age. This is done by direct taxation of the people. The answers to the first question on the information blank sent to the one hundred schools indicated that 82 per cent of the schools are accessible to all youth of high school age regardless of social or economic status, color, creed or nationality. To be sure there may be certain economic barriers but the fact remains that there are high schools in almost every reasonably inhabited community. However, unlike Cyprus there are no fees and students are not barred from entering a high school by not qualifying in the entrance examinations. One of the greatneses of the American system is that social and economic stratification are not a barrier to obtaining a high school education. This is not the case with Cyprus. The fee requirements, the examinations requirements and the limited number of schools are a stumbling block to the uplifting of its people through the provision of a high school education.

2. It was previously stated that both the American and the Cyprus system seek to perform social functions and to socially-integrate the individual. Though the objective is the same in both systems, the method to achieve it varies. The American school seeks to adjust the individual socially by creating an environment in the school which is reflective of the outside environment and by encouraging the individual to participate in that environment. The underlying belief is that one does not learn something unless one lives that which he wants to learn, Consequently,

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democracy can be taught by practicing it in the classroom, the playing field, in the setting up of the curriculum and policies of the school and so on. The view held by the Cyprus schools is different. They hold the belief that if the individual achieves self-realization he will be adjusted to society as surely as the day follows the night. Therefore, the sole aim of the school should be the provision of the opportunities whereby the individual can realize himself. The individual, moreover, by being inducted into the traditions and ideals of the past, or by learning what the truth is, will "ipso facto" choose the right way of life for his own benefit and for contribution to society. This raises another fundamental difference between the two educational systems, namely, what is truth or what is knowledge?

3. The theories concerning truth are so many that educators are rather confused in their interpretations of it. The answers received from the American selected schools illustrate this. Twenty-five of the hundred schools did not commit themselves at all; others said that the question was not clear. It should be admitted at the outset that to some extent the administrative officers who failed to check the item are quite justified for not only is there some degree of overlapping in the statements of the item, but also it was perhaps too presumptuous to request persons to subscribe to single statements relating to entire schools of thought that involve a host of other theories, principles and ideas. Nevertheless, what answers were received and what comments followed this item bring out certain points that seem to coincide with the general theories as expounded by the educational literature of the United States. These may be epitomized as follows:

a. The views on the theory of truth vary from state to state.

- school to school, and individual to individual.
- b. Some schools do not seek to establish any guiding principles in regard to this aspect of education.
 - c. The findings show that schools subscribe more to the "pragmatic" and "empirical" theories rather than the "absolute" or "purely scientific".
 - d. Some adopt an eclectic viewpoint encompassing all schools of thought.
 - e. Some checked all four theories thus committing themselves to ignorance on the matter.

There is a striking difference between the American and Cyprus systems in relation to this aspect of education. There is no doubt that the greatest percentage of the Greek schools on the island do wholeheartedly subscribe to truth as being absolute and immutable. No explicit statement was made to that effect, but as it was indicated in the philosophy of the Pancyprrian Gymnasium and the Samuel Commercial School, the ideals of the Greek Orthodox Church and Classicism are held to be absolute credos and the aim of the schools is to indoctrinate its students into them. Truth to those schools is not "what works". Truth is what has weathered the stormy passage of time and, consequently, children should be disciplined into the acquisition of it. Once that is achieved according to them, the mind is liberated, the soul is comforted and the body is taken care of.

What is truth is perhaps one of the most difficult questions to answer. On the one hand it is impossible to repudiate the permanence or certainty of certain beliefs, and on the other it is equally impossible

to repudiate what science has established through experimentation. To accept the theory that truth is pragmatic in the sense that a thing or axiom is true if it works, is to sign the death warrant of that acceptance. The fact also remains that scientific conclusions establish how certain natural phenomena work, but why they behave like they do and for what purpose are queries beyond the scientific realm. Scientific research establishes facts; but what to do with those facts or what values to seek using those facts are questions unanswered by the scientific method. Having then arrived at the importance of values, which go beyond science, the questions still to be answered are what values, where should they be sought and how. The pragmatic viewpoint is that values are relative, changeable, subjective and tested by consequences; if it be so then economic exploitation and dictatorship should be justified if the consequences are good and if those values "work." Science for the most part ceases to be concerned with what happens after the facts are established.

A sound educational philosophy, therefore, should be empirical in its foundation, but should project further than that. It should project into the realm of values and values can neither be purely subjective nor purely objective. For instance the diamond is not valuable in itself; it must be valuable to someone and in some capacity, but on the other hand its qualities are not created by people; for it is not people who make the diamond hard and brilliant. A value, therefore, is always a "value-relation or "value-situation". Reasonable values a system may seek to educate its youth to attain may include health, character, social justice, skill, production and enjoyment of art, love, knowledge, philosophy and religion.

It can be seen that these values are to some extent sought by both systems with these differences:

- a. American secondary education is secular in that it does not include religious instruction.
- b. Cyprus secondary education neglects health and certain vocational skills.
- c. American education lacks a consistent educational philosophy.
4. In the foregoing discussion the "value" aspect was included.

Though both systems emphasize the importance of values, the following differences have been found to exist:

- a. The greatest percentage of the American schools emphasize present values and functional values of the past. The emphasis on past values occupies last position. This is quite the opposite in the Cyprus schools. An emphasis on the past is the accepted procedure, the conviction being that if the student is inducted into the learning, values, and ideas of the past, he will understand and be prepared for the present and future. However, this may be the case with the average student, but what about the average and the below average? In view of the fact that American secondary education has undertaken the responsibility of providing secondary education for all its youth according to their needs, interests and abilities, sole emphasis on the past would not be conducive to the fulfilment of that objective. The average and the dull children are slower to make adjustments and need more help in doing so. They are not sufficiently able to understand the message of the past, nor to make the applications of this knowledge to the present. The principle underlying the Cyprus system is that children are enabled to understand conditions today better by learning how they grew up.

Therefore, they learn the history of Greece, Cyprus and Europe, act Sophocles and Shakespeare and read the Iliad, and As You Like It.

It is very difficult to decide which of these methods is the better. One is reminded of the Johnsonian classic remark. Johnson and Boswell talked of the education of children and Boswell asked Johnson what he thought was best to teach them first. Said Johnson,

Sir, it is no matter what you teach them first, any more than what leg you shall put into your breeches first. Sir, you may stand disputing which is best to put in first, but in the meantime your breech is bare; sir, while you are considering which of two things you should teach your child first, another boy has learnt them both.⁸

b. The same difference in principles as the previous one, is evidenced when the results of item number nine under "Philosophy and Objectives"⁹ is examined. Ninety-nine of the hundred American schools subscribe to the theory that education should chiefly emphasize a combination of cultural and practical values.

5. It is often argued that the schools ought to give the rudiments, at least, of a vocational education, so that the children may leave school fitted for taking up some vocation in their district. Others contend that a general education in history, geography, literature and the sciences is more valuable as a preparation for future happiness and success than type writing, office work, cafeteria or driver education. The belief in the American high school tends to be that the student while at school should receive some vocational training. However, there is also a high percentage of schools favoring a general education

⁸Quoted by Stuart and Oakden, op. cit., p. 20.

⁹Supra, p. 70.

without specific vocational pursuit. Of the three statements relating to general and vocational education checked by ninety-seven schools "general education" and a specific vocational pursuit was mentioned sixty-six times, and "general education" forty times, a proportion of 62 per cent and 38 per cent respectively of the total times checked.

The Samuel Commercial School of Cyprus and the other schools similar to it are the only type that may be considered similar to the American, the only difference being that the former are limited in their vocational offerings to commercial subjects alone, while the latter include commercial arts, manual arts, vocational agriculture, shop, distributive and consumer educational training.

It was only within the last two or three years that the Pancyprian Gymnasium introduced some form of vocational training as interpreted above, that again in the form of commercial education. A great number of the other "gymnasias" in Cyprus still pursue the strictly classical curriculum.

The English School, Nicosia, offers no vocational training at all; in that, it follows its British prototype and the belief that a general education ultimately is a more preferable one. The lack of some vocational training is a great weakness of the Cyprus schools and reflects their stratified and exclusive character. Cyprus is predominantly an agricultural country. Schools, therefore, should introduce curricula to train students in order to be able to carry out the various agricultural practices more efficiently. As the moment too many students are trained in academic subjects and too few in practical ones.

6. Another marked difference between the two systems relates to the theory of learning. American schools for the most part follow the

"organismic" theory of learning, namely that learning takes place when the whole child, mental, emotional, physical and social, reacts as an organism to certain environmental factors and thus a change in his behavior is effected. For this reason learning through the training of mental faculties is out dated in the American way of thinking. And rightly so, for experimentation has discredited the faculty psychology. In the secondary schools in Cyprus and especially the classical gymnasium this theory still persists. Consequently, students are given subject matter and mental drill to cultivate the faculties of reasoning, memory and so on. Therefore, mathematics and ancient Greek are regarded as two of the most important subjects of the curriculum and if a student fails in them in the yearly examinations he has to repeat the class. The English School and the Samuel Commercial School are more liberal in that respect.

- The fundamental difference between the American and the Cyprus system in this respect is this: The Greek system believes that thinking is developed through the cultivation and discipline of the mental faculties by special subject matter believed to have disciplinary qualities. The American system emphasizes "problem-solving" situations in the teaching-learning process; that thinking develops when the child is confronted with a problem solving situation. The purpose therefore, of the teacher, according to the American school of thought, is to provide experiences whereby the child's interest will be aroused, and his behavior changed after it has solved the problems that confronted it.

This approach of the American system is evidenced from the following instances in the data gathered. First, the answers to the question relating to the methodology of instruction indicated that the recitation

method, the unit method, the resource-unit method and the project method were the ones most widely used. Second, the requirements for graduation do not solely include academic subjects. Third, the curriculum is not so rigid as in Cyprus nor is the infiltration of subject matter an acceptable procedure. For instance in the question relating to the determination of the content of the curriculum ninety-one of the one hundred schools mentioned that pupils have some part in determining their learning activities according to their interests.

7. There is more consideration of the child itself in the United States than there is in Cyprus. The doctrines of interest, individual differences, and wholesome integration according to one's needs and abilities are not practiced on the island. American educators lay great emphasis on these principles and notwithstanding the handicaps they have to face, that is, teachers, buildings, supplies, and equipment, they are striving towards them as best as they can. Almost all of the selected schools answered that they consider each student as an individual differing from all other students physically, mentally and emotionally.

The curriculum is many-sided and varied so that students of varying needs and capacities may follow an education more conducive to their own growth. Here is a list of offerings in the California High Schools:

- English
- Social Studies
- United States History, Constitution and Civics
- Science Laboratory
- Physical Education
- Science (Non-laboratory)
- Mathematics
- Foreign Languages
- Homemaking

Industrial Arts
 Driver Education
 Health
 Business
 Typing
 Practical Arts
 Fine Arts
 Art
 Social Arts
 Music
 Home Management
 Journalism
 Speech
 Citizenship
 Psychology
 Music appreciation
 Agriculture
 Family relations
 Ability to swim
 Geography
 Typing
 Senior Review
 Crafts
 First Aid 10
 Costume design

Here is another list of curriculum offerings of the New Britain Public Schools, New Britain, Connecticut:

Language Arts: English, Speech and Drama, French, Latin, German

Social Studies: American History, Modern History, Geography, problems of democracy, international relations, Latin American history, World history.

Science: Applied science, biology, chemistry, physics.

Mathematics: Algebra, geometry, intermediate algebra, solid geometry and trigonometry, vital mathematics, general mathematics.

Health and Physical Education.

¹⁰California State Department of Education. Bulletin. Curricular Offerings and Practices in California High Schools, 1950-1951, Vol. XXI, No. 4, (Sacramento, California, March 1952) p.

Safe Driving

Music: Music appreciation, harmony, band, chorus, orchestra.

Industrial Arts: Machine, automotive, metal working, electricity, woodworking, printing.

Business: Stenography, bookkeeping, accounting, business law, commercial arithmetic, office practice, transcription, type-writing.

Distributive Education: Typing, bookkeeping, arithmetic, salesmanship, retailing.

Art: Fine art, design, commercial art, costumes, architectural drawing, drafting, blue print reading, interior decorating.

Home Economics: Foods, clothing, house and home management, home nursing and family relations, homemaking (boys).¹¹

The data obtained from the question relating to curriculum objectives indicates that American schools emphasize objectives resident in the learner as a first preference, those that spring from society as a second, the spirit of independence as third and maintenance of "status quo" as fourth.

Some American schools set-up a curriculum which is chiefly "child-centered" depending solely on the interests of students. Twelve of ninety-eight schools mentioned that their curriculum is entirely "child-centered", twenty-nine that it is an interaction of "child-centered", "society-centered" and "study of great books" and thirty-nine that it is entirely society-centered.

The testing program also of the American school indicates that there is more consideration of the student. Out of one hundred schools

¹¹Opportunities in Secondary Education, Grades X, XI, XII, op. cit.,

sixty-five use personality tests, fifty anecdotal records and forty-four rating scales. Fifty-three checked that they use tests to determine growth in interest and thirty-nine growth in attitudes.

The Cyprus schools seek to develop primarily the mental faculties of the child and to impart subject matter without specific attention to the needs of the students nor the usefulness of the subject matter itself. The student has to fit into the already-prearranged curriculum and acquire the societal values and culture. The testing program is devised to test the subject matter taught in the school. Testing devices are for the most part subjective in the form of teacher made test of the essay type.

8. The importance of extra-curricular or co-curricular activities can never be over-emphasized. The Bulletin of the California State Department of Education lists the following purposes in relation to student activities:

1. To provide experiences that will help students accept responsibility.
2. To give as many students as possible an opportunity to develop their leadership ability.
3. To provide opportunities for the personal satisfaction that comes from being a member of a group engaged in interesting purposeful activity.
4. To provide school spirit and pride in belonging to the school.
5. To stimulate interest in leisure reading and cultivate the enjoyment of music and art.
6. To provide through the expanded curriculum a resource of stimulating activities that make use of the habits, attitudes and skills acquired in the classroom.

7. To cultivate capacities and devices for creative expression in music and the fine arts.

8. To provide an opportunity for students to practice the social graces, habits of etiquette, and other desirable patterns of behavior not normally experienced in the conventional classroom.¹²

The greatest number of the American schools emphasize co-curricular activities as indispensable requisites for the wholesome integration of the child. Of the ninety-three schools that answered the question relating to co-curricular activities eight-eight answered in the affirmative and only five in the negative.

Here is a list of extra-curricular activities in the Gatesville High school, Gatesville, Texas.

Boy's Basketball	Tennis Club
Football	Girls' Basketball
Track	Girls' Volleyball
Baseball	Cheerleaders and Pep Squad.
Physical Education Program	Hornets Nest
Student Council	Choral Club
Library Club	Band
Future Homemakers of America	Crafts
Future Farmers of America	Home Room Activities
Annual Staff	Class Activities ¹³

The New Britain Connecticut Public Schools, New Britain, Connecticut list the following extra-curricular activities:

Football	Tennis
Basketball	Golf
Baseball	Swimming
Track and Cross country	Archery
Intramural League	Volley Ball

¹²Bulletin of the California State Department of Education. op. cit., p. 81.

¹³Handbook for Teachers, Gatesville High School, Gatesville, Texas 1952-1953.

Field Hockey
 Badminton
 Softball
 Beehive
 Stage Arts

Glee Club
 Chorus
 Orchestra
 Red and Gold Review
 Journalism¹⁴

Excepting the English School in Nicosia almost all other high schools in Cyprus lack in the extra-curricular program. The load of student work prevents students from participating in out-of-class activities. Moreover, most of the schools are handicapped by lack of grounds, room and equipment.

The English School, Nicosia offers the following activities:

St. John's Ambulance
 Scouts
 English Association
 English Dramatic Society
 Greek Literary and Debating Society
 Greek Library
 Turkish Literary and Debating Society
 Turkish Dramatic Society
 Scientific Society
 Savings Bank
 "The Weekly Searchlight"
 Philatelic Society
 Soccer
 Hockey
 Cricket
 Volley Ball
 Tennis
 Swimming
 Young Farmers Association
 Gardening¹⁵

The difference between the extra-curricular or co-curricular program of the American and the Cyprus school is that in the former case credits

¹⁴ Opportunities in Secondary Education, Grades X, XI, XII. op. cit.,

¹⁵ The English School Magazine, op. cit., p. 10.

are given for some of the above mentioned activities while in the latter no credits are given at all. The investigation revealed that of the hundred selected schools, forty four give credit for orchestra; eighty-six for band, fifth-three for glee club and chorus, fourteen for football, fourteen for basketball, thirteen for track, eight for minor sports, twenty-five for library and fifteen for debate. Two schools indicated that they gave credit for office work; cafeteria and school yearbook, and credit was also given to office girls, stage crews and library assistants.

9. The organization of curriculum offerings presents both similarities and differences between the two systems. The two systems are similar in that they practice largely the "separate subject" type of organization. In the case of the Cyprus schools, if the English School is excepted, it is the only type of organization. The English School practices some correlation in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades in regard to the teaching of history or geography. But all others are taught on the strictly subject approach.

Though the majority of the schools in the United States practice the subject organization there is an appreciable number that experiment with correlation, broad fields and core. In the investigation separate subjects was checked eighty-four times, broad fields twenty-three, correlation ten, and core five. The percentage of total times each item question was checked was sixty-nine for the separate subjects nineteen for the broad fields, eight for correlated subjects and four for core.

Though separate subjects is the predominant practice, the investigation indicates that practices like the broad field, correlation and core which are relatively newcomers in education are not entirely neglected. This is more clearly evidenced in the case of the Junior High School, where it seems they are gaining. Of the eighty-two schools that checked what they practice in the Junior High grades thirty-one checked only "separate-subject", and twenty-two broad fields. The percentage of the total times checked was forty three in the case of "separate-Subject", thirty-five of broad fields, nineteen of correlated subjects and three for "cores of general experiences or cutting across many subjects."

10. Differences between the two systems are also noticed in regard to the administration-staff-pupils relationships. In the United States there is more cooperation between the administration, the staff and the pupils than there is in Cyprus.

In regard to the staff-administration relationships eighty-one of the hundred schools indicated that in the determination of the program and policies of the school, the administration seeks large cooperation with the staff, eighteen that it seeks some cooperation and one that it seeks both.

In regard to the determination of the content of the curriculum, ninety schools indicated that pupils have some part in determining the learning activities according to their interests, eight that they have a large part and only one that they have no part at all. In regard to administration-pupil relationships seventy-two per cent of the schools indicated that the school seeks some pupil cooperation and twenty-eight

per cent large cooperation.

In the Cyprus schools the situation is different. Students have no part at all in the determination of the program and policies of the school or of the content of the curriculum. In some schools the administration seeks some cooperation with the staff in regard to the program and policies of the school but in others it does not.

11. Disciplinary techniques and procedure also differ. The strict conformity to rules and regulations that is demanded of the pupils in the Cyprus schools is not to be found in the American schools. Here are some of the rules to which students of the Pancyprian Gymnasium have to conform.

- a. Students should wear the official school uniform, cap and badge.
- b. Students should not stay out of their own homes after dark.
- c. Students are not allowed to go to the cinema without special permission of the gymasiarch, nor are they allowed to visit coffee-shops, clubs and horse racing.
- d. Smoking, gambling, driving a car, or riding are prohibited as unbecoming to the status of the pupil.
- e. It is forbidden for students to join non-school activities.¹⁶

Some of the disciplinary techniques and procedures resorted to by the school include:

- a. Reprimand

¹⁶Translated from Ἐρωτηρικό Κανονισμός τοῦ Παγκυπρίου
Γυμνασίου, op.cit., σελ. 9-11.

- b. Isolation in the classroom during the lesson.
- c. Sending out of the classroom.
- d. Depriving of any school offices, grants or scholarships.
- e. Temporary or permanent expulsion.¹⁷

Rules techniques and procedures of this nature albeit somewhat modified are a characteristic of all schools on the Island of Cyprus. The majority of the schools also can resort to corporal punishment.

A glance at the disciplinary techniques as given by the hundred schools in the United States indicates great differences. Corporal punishment was mentioned only fourteen times; cooperation between parents and teachers or parents and principal was mentioned eighty-seven times; character-developing experiences fifty-seven times; staying in after school fifty-one times and self-discipline techniques seventy times.

These differences in matters of discipline like the many others enumerated in the foregoing pages are outgrowths of the principles, ideals and conditioning of the two different countries.

¹⁷ Ibid. 6eλ.13-14

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY. GENERALIZATIONS. RECOMMENDATIONS.

I. SUMMARY

In this investigation a systematic attempt was made to present current fundamental educational theories and curricular aspects of one hundred selected American and three selected Cyprus secondary schools. The purpose was to compare American and Cyprus secondary education, and to arrive at unprejudiced generalizations so that elements inherent in one system might be considered worthy of application to the other.

The educational theories with which this study was concerned, related for the most part to the general purposes of education, the nature of knowledge, method and values. The curricular aspects were content, organization, methodology of instruction, human relations and evaluation.

Current theory and practice are nurtured in the womb of the past. The character of a system of education, like of any other social institution is historically conditioned. Therefore, presenting any aspect of a system of education without any relevance to its historical evolution would be a purpose only half-served. In view of this fundamental consideration, a historical overview of the growth of American secondary education in its theoretical and practical aims, functions and procedures was treated first. The period covered the years 1890 to date. Emphasis was placed on the most significant events, trends, and theories like the appointment of the Committee of Ten in 1893 and its Report on Secondary Education; the Commission of the Reorganization of Secondary

Education and its bulletin, The Cardinal Principles of Education, which appeared in 1918; the theories associated with the school of philosophy known as "pragmatism" or instrumentalism, its chief spokesmen, John Dewey and William Kilpatrick and the outgrowth of that school known as "progressivism"; the new advances in child psychology and the theory of learning; the educational conflict between "progressivism" and "traditionalism" or "essentialism"; the publication of The Purposes of Education in American Democracy by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938 and the Harvard report entitled, General Education in a Free Society which appeared in 1945.

The historical preview indicated the following trends in the evolution of secondary educational theories and practices within the last sixty years:

1. The gradual extension of the purposes and functions of the secondary school. With the dawn of the twentieth century the seeds had already been sown for a secondary education that would not be the privilege of the few, but the right of the many, a secondary education that would not prepare students solely for college, but for the various walks of life, a secondary education that would not aim at inculcation of subject matter as embodied in the learning of man's past, but one that would be based on the activities of life to which students would apply their training, a secondary education arising from the matrix of human experiences and needs and channeled towards usefulness in the children's endeavors. These trends have continued and are still characteristic of American secondary education. The seeds were well sown, the plants are still growing.

2. Increased emphasis on "vocationalism" for its intellectual and practical benefits .
3. Increased regard for child growth and individual differences.
4. Broadening of the curriculum so that it may encompass the varying needs, interests and aptitudes of students.
5. An organismic rather than a mechanistic approach to learning.
6. An emphasis on the environmental factors bearing on children's behavior.
7. An increased stress on social behavior and attitudes.

Education is concerned with goals, purposes, values; with methods; and with the individual and society. In setting up goals, or in organizing the curriculum, the educator like a philosopher has to determine what is good and what is bad, what is beautiful and what is ugly, what is right and what is wrong; in short he has to philosophize. He has to frame a consistent pattern of thought so that his practices will be meaningful and purposeful rather than haphazard and inconsistent. Questions on right and wrong, good and bad, beautiful and ugly have been variously interpreted throughout the ages. In order, however, to develop one's own philosophy, one needs to be oriented to the various schools that exist and their implications in regard to education. Therefore, after having defined educational philosophy as the consistent and purposeful set of principles relating to man and the universe, the theory of knowledge and axiology, there followed an analysis of three important schools of philosophic thought, (a) idealism, (b) realism and (c) pragmatism, and the educational implications of each school.

Idealism was interpreted to imply first, a theory of reality which is of the nature of the mind, or the spirit, and which can be

achieved through reason, intelligence, personality and values; second, the existence of an absolute truth independent of man and third, that there are values which are unchangeable. In line with his thinking the idealist advocates the cultivation of reason and the development of personality as the two most important aims of education, and a general education through the acquisition of the values and traditions of Western civilization embodied in the great works of literature, art and the sciences, both social and physical.

Realism was explained to conceive of reality as existing independent of man's mind, therefore, man's characteristic emphasis should be on conformity to the laws of nature. According to the realist man arrives at truth through the scientific method.

This method with its emphasis on factual and objective data, experimentation and testing ushered the period when education was treated as a science. It likewise created new developments in regard to the science of psychology and the theory of learning.

The third school of philosophic thought treated in this study was "Pragmatism". It was indicated that the pragmatist repudiates the metaphysical conceptions of reality, but believes that knowledge is created within human experience and its interaction with the environment. Truths and values are relative according to the pragmatist and their validity is to be tested by their consequences. Truth is what works, therefore, there are no absolute truths, since everything is in a continuous state of flux.

The pragmatist emphasizes freedom of the individual to develop in his own way. The task of the school is to provide an environment reflective of the total gamut of the broader society, whereby the indi-

vidual will grow according to his interests, needs and abilities.

Cooperation, free play and free thinking should be particularly stressed. Moreover, according to the pragmatist the school should not be dominated by society, but help to reconstruct society.

The second part of the third chapter was a recording of the findings from the information blank sent to the one hundred selected schools. The data gathered may be epitomized as follows:

1. The majority of the schools are accessible to all youth of high school age regardless of social or economic status, color, creed or nationality. In the South accessibility to certain schools is restricted by state law on the basis of color.
2. Most schools aim at the democratic way of living through social-civic, economic-vocational and individualistic-avocational activities with greater emphasis on social-civic activities.
3. There seems to be more emphasis on present values or present values and only functional values of the past rather than past values as such.
4. The greatest number of the schools subscribe to the theory of truth as being pragmatic. The order of preference indicated by the study was first, the pragmatic interpretation; second, the empirical; third, the purely scientific and fourth the absolute.
5. The theory that education should be concerned primarily with a adjustment of students to meet changing conditions seems to be the most favored one in regard to the relationship between the school and society. Adjustment of students to life conditions and participation in the reconstruction of society was the second highest theory checked.

6. Ninety-nine per cent of the schools regard each student as an individual differing from all others physically, mentally and emotionally.

7. Most of the schools believe that students should be trained chiefly in a general education and a specific vocational pursuit, but quite a large number of schools (thirty-one) believe that the student should be trained chiefly in a general education regardless of future vocation.

8. The study indicated that there is more emphasis on training children how to think rather than what to think. This aim was mentioned forty-seven times (46 per cent). The aim of training children "both how to think and what to think" was mentioned thirty-nine times (38 per cent), while "simply to think" was mentioned only seventeen times (16 per cent).

9. All schools subscribe to the theory that education should chiefly emphasize a combination of cultural and practical values.

10. Curriculum objectives were ranked as follows: a. Those resident in the learner, that is, personal growth, physical well-being, personal integrity, vocational skills and aesthetic expression in music, art or literature; b. Those that spring from an analysis of society, that is, teaching of democracy, use of intelligence, improvement of human relations; c. The spirit of independence in thought and action; d. The maintenance of the "status quo" by stressing mastery of the subject matter accumulated by specialists.

Following a preliminary section on the nature and functions of the curriculum as observed in educational literature, there was presented

the data accumulated in regard to the five curricular aspects with which the investigation was concerned. These data may be summarized as follows:

1. The content of the curriculum is largely preparatory for higher education (mentioned sixty-two times, 32 per cent) and general (informational and cultural) (mentioned fifty-six times, 29 per cent) rather than preparatory for vocational life (mentioned thirty-nine times, 20 per cent) or preparatory for homemaking and family living (mentioned thirty-seven times, 19 per cent).

2. The content of the curriculum is largely geared to meet the needs of the average students. According to the comments the gifted students and the slow learners are rather neglected, because of limitations in personnel, plant and equipment.

3. It was found that 64 per cent of the schools indicated as their first preference an emphasis on the fundamentals (language arts, mathematics, history and general science) and 31 per cent indicated "Equally all offerings in the school". Second preference was indicated to be emphasis on practical training.

4. The types of curriculum that most of the schools offer are (a) General, (b) College-Preparatory, (c) Business and (d) Homemaking. Sixty-one schools checked vocational agriculture and thirty-six offer other vocational curricula.

5. The requirements for graduation were as follows:

- a. English, from one to six units
- b. Science (Lab.), from one to eight units
- c. Mathematics, from one to eight units
- d. Social Science, from one to six units
- e. Physical education, from one to eight units
- f. Foreign languages, from one-half to six units
- g. Other requirements, from one-half to four units.

76 per cent of the schools require from three to six units of credit in English; 76 per cent require from one to three units of science, 75 per cent from one to four of mathematics, 79 per cent from one to four of social science and 65 per cent from one to four of physical education. There were only eight schools that required foreign languages, seven of them from one-half to two units and one six units.

5. It was found that 86 per cent of the schools gave credit for band, 44 per cent for orchestra, 53 per cent for glee club and chorus, 14 per cent for football, 14 per cent for basketball, 13 per cent for track, 8 per cent for minor sports, 25 per cent for library and 15 per cent for debate.

6. The study indicated that the curriculum offerings and method of presentation are largely organized into separate subjects (mentioned eighty-four times for senior high schools and forty-nine for junior high schools). Broad fields was mentioned twenty-three times for the senior high schools and forty for the junior high; correlation was mentioned ten times for senior high and twenty-two for junior high and core five times for senior high and four times for junior high.

7. According to the answers received the curriculum seems to be chiefly society-centered (mentioned fifty-seven times). However, twenty-eight schools mentioned "child-centered" and thirty-six, interaction of child-centered, society-centered and study of great books.

8. Ninety-five per cent of the schools indicated that they emphasize co-curricular activities as indispensable requisities for wholesome integration of the child.

9. The methodology of instruction was indicated as follows: Lecture method was mentioned twenty-one times, recitation method sixty-

five, unit method fifty-two, resource unit method sixty-nine and project method forty-two.

10. The study showed that 90 per cent of the schools provide library aids, 98 per cent audio-visual aids and 25 per cent other aids.

11. It was found that in 81 per cent of the schools the administration seeks large co-operation with the staff in the determination of the program and policies of the school, in 90 per cent the pupils have some part in the determination of the content of the curriculum, and in 72 per cent the schools seek some pupil co-operation in the determination of the program and policies of the school.

12. It was ascertained that in the majority of the schools disciplinary problems were handled through co-operation between the school and the parents or through self-disciplinary techniques. The practice of keeping students in after school is still widely employed, but corporal punishment seems to be the least employed technique.

13. The study indicated that evaluation in the American schools does not imply testing of mere factual information. In evaluating the student's program various techniques are employed such as standardized tests of aptitude, intelligence and achievement; personality tests, anecdotal records and rating scales; teacher made tests, and cumulative records. Cumulative records were used by 92 per cent of the schools. In a number of schools student progress is also evaluated in terms of growth in interest and attitudes.

14. The most widely used system for reporting scholastic achievement was found to be the five-point system. This technique was mentioned ninety times.

Secondary education in Cyprus in regard to its philosophy and its curriculum was indicated to be based on the following general principles:

1. Preparation for present and future life is achieved through a study of values as established by the great thinkers of the past.
2. A general education in the humanities and the sciences constitutes an indispensable prerequisite for man's adaptation to life and the art of living.
3. Values are immutable. It is the function of the school to create independent thinkers through an acquisition of these values.
4. Education should aim at disciplining the mind through the infiltration of subject matter as accumulated by specialists.
5. Aesthetic appreciation in music, literature and art is an indispensable prerequisite for the integration of the individual.
6. The training of the body is important in that it is conducive to the intellectual development, but it should be secondary to the mental development and be carried out on classical lines.

The Pancyprrian Gymnasium and all other similar institutions particularly emphasize intellectualism and mental discipline as the foremost purposes of education. The individual according to the philosophy subscribed to by these schools should be indoctrinated into the great learning of the past and especially the Ancient Greek learning. Moreover, these schools believe that the individual's education should consist of the great humanistic and religious beliefs, dogmas and ideas as embodied in the Greek culture and the Greek Orthodox Church. The Samuel Commercial School and all other similar institutions stress the view that the individual's school education should consist of a general

cultural and informational background, and skill in some vocational pursuits especially of the commercial type. In spite of some vocationalism, these schools like the gymnaesia believe also that an education in the great humanistic and religious beliefs, dogmas and ideas as embodied in the Greek culture and the Greek Orthodox Church should be one of the primary aims of the school.

The English School seeks a fusion of various cultures through the provision of an education primarily of the academic type. Though it does not offer courses in practical vocations it prepares students for the various governmental and secretarial jobs. It is the only school that has a wide extra-curricular program and modern buildings and equipment.

A comparison of America and Cyprus secondary education based on the data gathered from educational literature, the information blanks and official publications showed marked differences in regard to the nature, the objectives, the functions and the methods of the two systems.

II. GENERALIZATIONS

In addition to the previous summary statements drawn in regard to specific areas studies, the following broad generalizations may be made:

1. A nation's welfare depends on the literacy of its people. Consequently, there should be educational opportunities for every individual in the state regardless of social or economic status, creed, color or nationality.

2. The individual is both a separate self and member of society. Harmony is achieved when the individual is integrated in relation to himself and in relation to society. Consequently, an educational system

should provide opportunities whereby the individual becomes a contributive member to society without losing his own individuality.

3. Education should be concerned with values. Values are not purely pragmatic. They are both subjective and objective. It, therefore, behooves the educator to imbue the youth with already established values so that their lives will be fuller, better and more meaningful.

4. Learning becomes knowledge when it is made meaningful to the child. It becomes meaningful when the child sees usefulness in it. Learning situations that are not meaningful or useful should be discouraged.

5. Interest of youth must not be discarded. However, it is incumbent on educators to create interests in the pursuit of worthwhile objectives which youth cannot by themselves envisage.

6. The education of the individual should be encyclopedic. A general education should be the first and foremost aim of the school. However, the school should provide a "vocational" environment so that the pupil may explore his special aptitudes.

7. The study of the humanities and the sciences should be the core of the general education program which should be required for all youth.

8. Extra-curricular activities should be many and varied to encompass all student interests, but they should not be stressed at the expense of other activities.

9. Curriculum content in its presentation should be organized to bring about learning in wholes rather than in parts.

10. Close co-operation among the administration, the staff, the pupils, and the community is essential in all aspects of the educative process.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

From the examination of the educational literature and the findings of this investigation the following recommendations are suggested:

United States:

1. That the schools have a more consistent philosophy of education in line with the democratic ideal.
2. That the international aspect of education be more emphasized through the study of foreign languages, the humanities and the social sciences.
3. That there be more correlation or fusion in regard to the curriculum offerings and method of presentation.
4. That the schools strike an equilibrium between emphasis on the social function and the individual functions of education.

Cyprus:

1. That there be less emphasis on the past and more on the present.
2. That there be more emphasis on the usefulness of subject matter and less on mental drill.
3. That there be more equality of educational opportunity.
4. That the total youth integration, namely mental, physical, social and emotional receive more attention.
5. That a broad extra-curricular program be provided and more emphasis be placed on its benefits.
6. That the curriculum be more flexible so that the demands of a changing society may be better served.
7. That learning take place on the basis of an organismic rather than a mechanistic theory.

8. That there be more vocational and less academic provisions.
9. That more cooperation among the administration, the staff, the parents and the community exist.
10. That there be improvement in the socio-physical environment of the youth.
11. That the use of the unit, resource-unit and project methods receive more attention.
12. That there be correlation or fusion of curriculum offerings and method of presentation.
13. That there be more emphasis on the social function of education.

It has often been asserted that the survival of the free Western world depends on its unity and solidarity. But no unity can exist unless there is understanding and cooperation without domination, freedom without exploitation, and consideration without the motive of personal advancement. These are the ideals for which the various national systems of education should strive. They should be the ideals, the attainment of which should be the fundamental objectives of the schools. The future of a world rests on the education of its people.

Man's survival depends on man. As Shakespeare so masterfully phrased it:

The fault dear Brutus is not in our stars
But in ourselves that we are underlings.

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"A Program of Work Guide." Mimeographed guide issued by the Clarion Senior High School, Clarion, Pennsylvania.

F. NEWSPAPERS

The Eleftheria, August 19, 1952.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

CONNECTICUT

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Berlin High School	Berlin	6-6
Bloomfield High School	Bloomfield	6-6
Guilford High School	Guilford	6-6
East Hampton High School	East Hampton	6-6
Darien High School	Darien	6-3-3
Glastonbury High School	Glastonbury	6-6
New Britain Senior High School	New Britain	6-3-3
Newington Senior High School	Newington	3 yr. senior high

NEW HAMPSHIRE

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Concord High School	Concord	6-3-3
Keene Senior High School	Keene	6-3-3
Portsmouth Junior High School	Portsmouth	6-3-3
Spaulding High School	Rochester	6-6
Lancaster High School	Lancaster	6-6
Berlin Junior-Senior High School	Berlin	6-3-3
Hanover High School	Hanover	6-6

NEW YORK

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Hamburg Junior High School	Hamburg	6-3-3
Liberty High School	Liberty	6-6
Bethlehem Central Junior High School	Delmar	6-3
MacLiff Jansen Central School	Hilldale	6-6
Cassadaga Valley Central School	Sinclairville	6-6
Lewerk Valley Central	Newark Valley	6-3-3
Battle Hill School	White Plains	6-3
Royalton-Hartland Central School	Middleport	6-6

PENNSYLVANIA

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Forbes Joint High School	Kontners	6-3-3
Emporium High School	Emporium	6-3-3
Clarion Joint Schools	Clarion	6-3-3
Coudersport High School	Coudersport	6-3-3
Greencastle High School	Greencastle	6-6
Saltsburg Joint High School	Saltsburg	6-6
Wyalusing Valley Joint Junior-Senior High School	Wyalusing	6-6
Essegertown Area High School	Essegertown	6-6

FLORDIA

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
E. O. Douglas Vocational School	Sebring	6-6
Madison High School	Madison	6-6
Osceola High School	Kissimmee	6-6
Mantin County High School	Stuart	6-6
Wimauma High School	Wimauma	6-3-3
Apopka Memorial High School	Apopka	6-2-4

LOUISIANA

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Ruston High School	Ruston	4 year
Haynesville High School	Haynesville	4 year
L. E. Rabouin Vocational High School	New Orleans	4 year
Francis T. Nicholls Senior High School	New Orleans	4 year
Alcee Fortier Senior High School	New Orleans	3 yr. senior high
Neville High School	Monore	6-6

ILLINOIS

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Gilman High School	Gilman	4 year
Sheffield Community Consolidated School	Sheffield	6-6
Lombard Junior High School	Galesburg	6-3
Delavan Community Unit High School	Delavan	6-6
Community Unit School District #208 (Knox County)	Oneida	6-3-3
Genesco High School	Genesco	4 year
Homence Community Unit High School	Homence	6-2-4
Abingdon High School	Abingdon	4 year

TC: IGAH

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Washington Gardner High School	Albinon	6-6
Leslie High School	Leslie	6-6
Central School	Felding	6-6
Senior High School	Iron Mountain	6-3-3
Tecumseh High School	Tecumseh	6-2-4
Grand Haven High School	Grand Haven	6-3-3
Hillsdale High School	Hillsdale	6-6

NEW MEXICO

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Santa Rosa High School	Santa Rosa	4 year
Hatch Valley High School	Hatch	6-6
Tularosa High School	Tularosa	6-6
Gadsden High School	Anthony	6-3-3
Carrizozo High School	Carrizozo	6-6
Farmington High School	Farmington	6-3-3

TEXAS

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Gatesville High School	Gatesville	6-3-3
Hillsboro High School	Hillsboro	4 yr. high School
Belton High School	Belton	6-3-3
Kirby High School	Woodville	6-6
Burnet High School	Burnet	6-2-4
Denton Senior High School	Denton	6-3-3
Vernon Senior High School	Vernon	6-3-3

KANSAS

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Syracuse Junior-Senior High School	Syracuse	6-6
Caney High School	Caney	6-6
Paola High School	Paola	6-6
Concordia High School	Concordia	6-6
Hays Junior-Senior High School	Hays	6-6
Cherryvale High School	Cherryvale	6-3-3
Larned High School	Larned	6-3-3
Hiawatha High School	Hiawatha	6-3-3

NORTH DAKOTA

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
St. John Public School	St. John	6-6
Central High School	Grand Forks	6-3-3
La Moure High School	La Moure	6-6
Garrison High School	Garrison	6-6
Wahpeton High School	Wahpeton	6-3-3
Devils Lake High School	Devils Lake	6-3-3
Crosby High School	Crosby	6-6

CALIFORNIA

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Corona High School	Corona	6-3-3
Claremont High School	Claremont	6-6
Mar Vista High School	Imperial Beach	6-3-3
San Lorenzo Valley High School	Melton	6-6
Tahoe Truckee High School	Truckee	6-6
Yucaipa Junior High School	Yucaipa	6-3-3

WASHINGTON

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Chelan High School	Chelan	6-3-3
Foster Junior-Senior High School	Seattle	6-6
Okanogan High School	Okanogan	6-3-3
Mt. Baker Junior-Senior High School	Deming	6-6
Raymond High School	Raymond	6-6
Senior High School	Ellensburg	6-3-3
Colville High School (Stevens County School District #115)	Colville	6-2-3
Prosser Junior-Senior High School	Prosser	6-6

APPENDIX B

Accessibility. The data obtained through the information blank related to accessibility prior to the decision of May 1954, made by the Supreme Court of the United States, whereby segregation on the basis of race was declared illegal. The following is an extract from the New Republic relative to this decision:

The Supreme Court has spoken. It has caused the wrath of Constitutional condemnation to descend upon the system of segregated public schools.

The Court acted unanimously, with Chief Justice Earl Warren as its spokesman. Dealing with the separation of white and Negro school children in South Carolina, Virginia, Delaware and Kansas, the Court held unequivocally that such segregation, even though the physical facilities and other tangible factors are equal, deprives Negro children of the equal educational opportunities guaranteed them by the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Forever interred in the Constitutional graveyard, at least insofar as public education is concerned, was the doctrine of "separate but equal". In the Court's words, "Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. . . . To separate children from others of the same age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone."

"The Court has made an Historic Decision", New Republic 130:3
May 24, 1954.

January 1, 1977

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The purpose of this document is to provide information regarding the health status of the State of Texas and to identify areas where health services are needed.

This document is intended to provide information to the public and to health care providers regarding the health status of the State of Texas and to identify areas where health services are needed.

The information in this document is based on data collected from various sources and is intended to provide a general overview of the health status of the State of Texas.

APPENDIX C

The information in this appendix is based on data collected from various sources and is intended to provide a general overview of the health status of the State of Texas.

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State Health Officer

Deputy Health Officer

FORT HAYS
KANSAS STATE COLLEGE
HAYS, KANSAS

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

December 2, 1953

As a part of my requirements for the master's degree, I plan to study certain factors relating to public high school programs in selected secondary schools.

This project will require an examination of representative school programs from various States and will be limited to public high schools of the 6-6 and the 6-3-3 patterns with an enrollment between 200-600 students.

I wonder if you could help me by recommending ten secondary schools in your state within the enrollment limits of 200-600 pupils--five organized as six year (7-12) and five organized as three-three (7-9 and 10-12)--and the name of the principal or chief administrative officer of each school. Enclosed is a form sheet and a self-addressed stamped envelope for convenience in answering. In addition, I would be grateful if you could supply me with selected bulletins or other printed material issued by your office relating to secondary school programs.

I might add that I am a native of the island of Cyprus studying here on a Rotary Fellowship. The completion of such a project will be of the greatest value to me when I return to my country.

Your assistance in helping me carry out the investigation will be greatly appreciated.

Very truly yours,

Andreas Kazamias
Graduate Student

enc.

IN THE STATE OF _____

Six Year (7-12) Schools

	High School	Address	Administrative Officer
1.	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____

Three-Three (7-9 and 10-12) Schools

	High School	Address	Administrative Officer
1.	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____

Signed _____

Address _____

Please return to:

Mr. Andreas Kazamias
 Department of Education
 Fort Hays Kansas State College
 Hays, Kansas

FORT HAYS
KANSAS STATE COLLEGE
HAYS, KANSAS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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March 15, 1954

Mr.

Dear Mr.

Recently I sent a letter to the State Department of Education requesting the names of ten secondary schools in the State of and their administrative officers, in regard to a study I am making on American Secondary education. Your school and your name were among the ones recommended to me.

I wonder, therefore, whether you could help me in carrying through a project the completion of which will be of value not only to myself but also to my country.

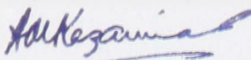
I am a native of the island of Cyprus studying at Fort Hays Kansas State College on a one year Rotary Fellowship which expires this summer. I am on leave of absence from the Cyprus Department of Education where I was employed for five years as a secondary school teacher. My purpose here is to study the American Educational theories and practices so that I may apply what knowledge I shall have gained for the improvement of the educational system of Cyprus. For my Master's degree I am working on a project that requires certain information relating to curriculum theories and practices in the American public high school.

It is with this view in mind that your help and co-operation are requested.

I am enclosing an information blank largely in the form of a check list and a self addressed stamped envelope for convenience in answering.

Your assistance and advice in this matter will be greatly appreciated.

Yours very truly,



A. M. Kazamias

Department of Education
Fort Hays Kansas State College
Hays, Kansas
April 14, 1954

Mr.

Dear Mr.

Some time ago I mailed a letter together with an information blank to your address as recommended to me by the State Department of Education requesting your assistance in regard to an investigation I am making into the American Secondary Education.

In view of the fact that my time in the United States is very limited and that further delay would endanger the possibilities of the completion of the project, I would greatly appreciate it if you could possibly supply me with the information asked.

In the event that you can not locate my previous communication I am enclosing copies of my original letter and the information blank together with a self-addressed stamped envelope for convenience in answering.

I trust that I am not causing you undue inconvenience.

Yours very truly,

A. M. Kazamias

FORT HAYS KANSAS STATE COLLEGE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Hays, Kansas

A PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL INFORMATION BLANK

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Would you be willing to provide the information asked for on the following pages. These data are needed in a cross-section national survey of the public high school for a relative study of the American and Cyprus secondary education. Please return this blank with your comments in the stamped envelope enclosed.

Name of High School _____

Location _____

Administrative Officer _____

I. Organization of school: Six year _____ Three-three _____ Other _____

Number of Faculty _____

Total enrollment (Grades 7-12) _____ Boys _____ Girls _____

II. Philosophy-Objectives

1. The school is accessible to all youth of high school age regardless of social or economic status, color, creed or nationality. Yes _____ No _____

If not how is it restricted _____

Comments (if any):

2. The school emphasizes preparation for life in a democracy by (check those that apply).

- () Social-Civic activities
() Economic-vocational activities
() Individualistic-avocational activities

Comments (if any):

3. The school emphasizes preparation for life in a democracy through the provision of opportunities for an understanding primarily of:

- () Past values
() Present values
() Present values and only those values of the past that will be functional to the student in his or her present day experiences.

Comments (if any):

4. The school subscribes to the theory of truth as being:

- Absolute and immutable (unchangeable)
- Pragmatic (what "works") and therefore mutable (changeable)
- Empirical as (determined by observation and experiment)
- Purely scientific (objective and factual data as determined by laboratory experimentation and educational measurement.)

Comments (if any):

5. The school subscribes to the theory that education should be concerned primarily with (check those that apply)

- Adjustment of students to present life conditions.
- Adjustment of students to meet changing conditions.
- Adjustment of students to life conditions and participation in the reconstruction of society.
- Participation by students in the reconstruction of society.

Comments (if any):

6. The school considers each student as an individual differing from all other students physically, mentally and emotionally. Yes _____ No _____

7. The school believes that the student should be trained chiefly in

- A general education regardless of future vocation.
- A general education and a specific vocational pursuit.
- Specific vocational training only.

Comments (if any):

8. The school believes that the students should be afforded the opportunity to be trained primarily in

- How to think rather than what to think.
- Both how to think and what to think.
- Simply to think.

Comments (if any):

9. The school subscribes to the theory that education should chiefly emphasize

- Cultural values.
- Practical values.
- A combination of cultural and practical values

III. Curriculum--Content

1. Through the curriculum the school seeks to attain the following objectives (Check those that apply, if more than one statement is checked, please rank 1,2,3,4 in order of preference).

- The maintenance of the "status quo" by stressing mastery of the subject-matter accumulated by specialists.
- The spirit of independence in thought and action.
- Those that spring from an analysis of society, i.e. teaching of democracy use of intelligence, improvement of human relations.
- Those resident in the learner, i.e. personal growth, physical well-being, personal integrity, vocational skills and aesthetic expression in music, art or literature.

Comments (if any):

2. The content of the curriculum is largely

- Preparatory for higher education.
- Preparatory for vocational life.
- Preparatory for home-making and family-living.
- General-informational and cultural.

Comments (if any):

3. The content of the curriculum is geared largely to meet the needs of

- The gifted student.
- The average student.
- The slow learner.
- All students equally.

Comments (if any):

4. The content of the curriculum is determined largely by

- Local needs.
- State needs.
- National needs.
- International needs.
- All of the above.

Comments (if any):

5. The content of the curriculum emphasizes (please rank 1,2,3,4 in order of preference)

- The fundamentals (language arts, mathematics, history and general sciences)
- Practical training (manual arts, commercial arts).
- Activities (extra-class activities).
- Equally all course offerings in the school.

Comments (if any):

IV. Curriculum--Organization

1. The program of studies includes the following types of curricula

- General
- College-preparatory
- Business
- Homemaking
- Vocational agriculture
- Other vocational curricula

Comments (if any):

2. The school requires for graduation these subjects:

SUBJECT	JR. HIGH UNITS	SENIOR HIGH UNITS	TOTAL UNITS
English	_____	_____	_____
Science (Lab.)	_____	_____	_____
Mathematics	_____	_____	_____
Social Science (U.S. History, World History, Civics)	_____	_____	_____
Physical Education	_____	_____	_____
Foreign Language	_____	_____	_____
Other (Please list)	_____	_____	_____

Comments (if any):

3. The school gives credit in the form of units for the following activities (Please check those that apply)

- Orchestra
- Band
- Glee Club and chorus
- Football
- Basketball
- Track
- Minor sports
- Library
- Debate
- Others (Please list)

Comments (if any):

4. The curriculum offerings and method of presentation are organized into

	JR. HIGH		SENIOR HIGH	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Separate subjects, i.e. Chemistry, Grammar, Spelling, Arithmetic	—	—	—	—
Broad fields, i.e. Language Arts, General Science, Social Studies, Mathematics	—	—	—	—
Correlated subjects, i.e. History and Geography or History, Geography and English	—	—	—	—
Cores of general experiences or cutting across many subjects	—	—	—	—

Comments (if any):

5. The curriculum is chiefly

- Child-centered depending solely on interests of students
- Society-centered depending on subject matter prearranged by experts
- Organized on "study of great books"
- Interaction of these

Comments (if any):

6. Co-curricular activities are emphasized as indispensable requisites for whole-
some integration of the child. Yes _____ No _____

Comments (if any):

V. Methodology of Instruction

1. The method of classroom instruction is largely

- Lecture method by teacher with students as passive listeners
- Recitation method (daily assignments and teacher dominated)
- Unit method (long range assignments)
- Resource--unit method (pupil - teacher participation)
- Project method
- Other (please name method used) _____

Comments (if any):

2. Home assignments are

- Compulsory
 Optional
 Occasional
 Not required

Comments (if any):

3. The pupils are required to do independent study to supplement classroom instruction

- In the library
 At home
 Through community projects

Comments (if any):

4. The school provides ample supplementary materials for learning in the form

Library aids

Books (please state number of volumes) _____

Fiction _____

Non-fiction _____

Reference Sets _____

Magazines (Please indicate number of titles subscribed to) _____

Pamphlet file: Yes _____ No _____

- Audio-visual aids
 Other aids

Comments (if any):

VI. Staff - Pupils

1. In the determination of the program and policies of the school, the administration

- Seeks some co-operation with the staff.
 Seeks large co-operation with the staff.
 Seeks no co-operation at all.
 Delegates all responsibility to the staff.

Comments (if any):

2. In the determination of the content of the curriculum, pupils

- Have some part in determining the learning activities according to their interests

- Are entirely free to determine their learning experiences according to their interests.
- Have no part at all in determining their learning activities.

Comments (if any):

3. In the determination of the program and policies the school seeks

- Some pupil co-operation
- Large pupil co-operation
- No pupil co-operation

Comments (if any):

VII. Discipline

1. The school tackles disciplinary problems through the following techniques and procedures (Please check those which apply)

- Self-analysis, self-criticism, self-improvement and self-control.
- Character-developing experiences.
- Corporal punishment.
- Staying in after school for special study or help.
- Co-operation between parents and teacher or parents and principal.
- Complete freedom.
- Others (please name) _____

Comments (if any):

VIII. 1. Evaluation

The school's testing program includes

1. Standardized tests of

- Aptitude
- Intelligence
- Achievement

2. Personal adjustment devices

- Personality tests
- Anecdotal records
- Rating scales

3. Teacher made tests

4. Tests to determine

- Growth in interests
- Growth in attitudes

5. Cumulative records.

Yes _____ No _____

Comments (if any):

6. Scholastic achievement is reported in terms of

- Five point system (A,B,C,D and F) (1,2,3,4,5,etc.)
- Satisfactory or unsatisfactory
- Numerical percentage
- Explanatory words (Excellent, Good, Average, Below Average, Poor)
- Other system (Please state) _____

Comments (if any):

IX. Please send a copy of your latest handbook, catalog, course of study and any other printed or mimeographed material descriptive of your high school.

Thank you for your courtesy.

Andreas M. Kazamias
Fort Hays Kansas State College
Hays, Kansas