

Personally, I have always been opposed to a co-ordinate college on other grounds than that of expense, unless it was located at the University. This would make the University co-educational in all but the name; and the sentiment of the University alumni has always been opposed to that. If not located at the University, the latter would be held responsible for all the former's shortcomings. The University would be bound to leave matters of discipline to the local authorities, subject only to slight supervision. If, for instance, the co-ordinate branch was located at Fredericksburg, and some of the students took a joy ride to Washington and landed up in the police court, the papers would be right apt to call them university students. In matters of scholarship also its control would be largely supervisory. The distance apart would permit only a limited use of the University faculty; and yet the co-ordinate college would expect the University president to sign the diplomas and the University seal to be affixed to them.

The class of girls who attend the teachers' colleges is mainly an earnest hard-working class of narrow means, to whom our action gives an opportunity of a general education not limited to preparation for teaching. Those who would attend a co-ordinate college are mainly able to live in higher style than their Cinderella sisters. Many of the latter could not afford a co-ordinate college and yet do not want teacher training. Our action gives them the chance. It gives the women of the State the same educational opportunities as the men, and that at reasonable cost.

I disclaim any intention of apologizing for my action. I have tried to render patriotic service to my native State in several ways. As I review my work, I can now, in the evening of my life, think of nothing which gives me more satisfaction than my labors on the State Board of Education.

ROBERT M. HUGHES

### THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

IT is a far cry from the provisions for public secondary education as offered in the first American high school in Boston in 1635 to the present nation-wide system of public secondary education. The first permanent settlements in America had hardly gotten under way at Jamestown and Plymouth before serious efforts were inaugurated to provide educational opportunities for the boys and girls of the settlers and for the instruction of the Indians. The first serious attempt to establish a secondary school in America was made in Virginia when plans were laid in the year 1621 for the establishment of the "East Indie Schoole" at "Charles Cittie," Virginia. According to the plans this school was designed as a secondary institution to prepare youth for admission to the University "intended to be built" at Henricopolis. This school, however, was never established due to the great Indian Massacre of 1622 which prevented any successful educational efforts in Virginia until the founding of the Symms free school in 1644. The first successful secondary school in America, founded in Boston in 1635, was called the Boston Latin School. Here Ezekiel Cheever taught for thirty years and became the outstanding educational leader of the colonial period. The movement for secondary education, begun in Boston, soon spread throughout the colonies and by the close of the colonial period all of the thirteen colonies had made some provision for the education of their youth in such schools as the Latin grammar schools, the colonial grammar schools, the

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parochial schools, the old field schools, and schools for indigent children. This movement for secondary education was stimulated in large measure by the Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647. The law of 1642 provided that all children be taught to read; the law of 1647 established the right of the state to require communities to establish and operate schools.

The type of secondary school which characterized the colonial government of New England had its prototype in the grammar schools of England. It was the type of secondary school best known to the fathers of Plymouth Rock who transplanted it in all essential features to the American shores. The ideals and attitudes of the Puritans were to be fostered and developed through this type of institution which, as a feeder to the colonial college, would assist in rendering complete a program of training consonant with those aims in life cherished by the settlers of the New England Colony. These people, in quest of religious freedom, seeking refuge in a foreign land, brought with them the heritage of their fathers which embraced the Calvinistic conception of an educational system positing a cooperative relationship between church and state. To them, education of the socially élite was fundamental to the welfare of both church and state and this philosophy necessitated that the burden of education be shared equally by both of these institutions. The leadership demanded by both church and state could be recruited only from the highly educated classes. It was this attitude towards the role of education in society—a close alliance between church and state—which brought about the early establishment of secondary schools under the control and partial support of the New England town.

In the middle colonies the parochial school idea was dominant. The underlying educational philosophy called for a system of schools to serve primarily the needs of

the church. Accordingly, education was considered as a church function and there developed a system of schools encouraged and maintained by the church. It was this dominant educational attitude that prolonged the battle to eliminate the element of sectarianism from the schools and thus delayed the development of state educational systems free from denominational influences.

The Southern colonies were settled largely by the land-owning class or large plantation holders, and consequently the environmental setting was not conducive to the development of free public school systems. However, the fundamental reason for the retarded development of school systems in the South is to be found in the attitude of the people. The "no business of the state" attitude in matters pertaining to education prevailed and the individual parent assumed full responsibility for the education of his children. However, this section was not unmindful of its obligation to the poor and orphans and entered upon its statutes such laws as were deemed necessary to protect and train those who by reason of their indigence or the neglect of parents, could not help themselves. The charity conception of state educational responsibility was an inheritance from England; the Cavalier bore it with him across the seas to Virginia and it became a very vital part of the life of the colonial planters. These people were willing to contribute to the support and education of the poor and indigent, but, since they regarded education as a private and not as a public concern, were reluctant to tax themselves for free public education. This individualistic attitude was a part of their philosophy of life and the charity conception became so deeply imbedded in their thinking as to withstand any attempts on the part of a few to provide by means of taxation free schools for all. As a result of this fundamental philosophy, the battle to make the schools entirely free and

equally open to all was considerably prolonged and the coming of state systems based on the theory of state responsibility for education was delayed in the South.

The principal educational institution of the colonial period was the Latin grammar school—a school transplanted from England and representing the dominant educational theories of the Continent. It was controlled by the privileged classes and designed to serve the needs of a social aristocracy. It was brought to America as the child and servant of the church; it wore the cloak of classical learning; and it was designed to encourage the growth of Christian doctrine. The Latin grammar school was a tuition school and in the modern sense it cannot be said to have been free, but it was public in that it was controlled and partially supported by the town. In schools of this type were found the great teachers of the colonial period. Boys were admitted at the age of seven or eight and prepared for college by the age of fifteen or sixteen. The purpose of its program, preparation for college, was rigidly adhered to, and its curriculum, little modified during the 150 years of its existence, was confined in large measure to the study of Latin and Greek. It was never a popular institution although it flourished in all the colonies and attained its greatest development in New England. It made no provisions for the education of the masses and fostered class distinctions in the colonies—a fact which is largely responsible for the development of the colonial grammar school, and later, the American academy. Few Latin grammar schools survived the American Revolution out of which grew the demand for a more democratic secondary school. Due to its exclusive nature, its narrow curriculum, and its outworn educational philosophy, the Latin grammar school, by the close of the eighteenth century, was replaced by the American academy.

The colonial grammar school was a modi-

fication of the Latin grammar school—a school made necessary by the practical and commercial needs of the middle classes. This school supplemented the work of the true Latin school and set as its goal preparation for life as well as preparation for college. Training was provided for the various occupational fields. It not only filled a gap in colonial secondary education occasioned by the narrow curriculum of the Latin grammar schools, but in a real sense may be considered as the forerunner of the academy.

The parochial schools were established in the middle colonies, particularly in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York. They were church-controlled, the teachers were usually clergymen, and they were usually co-educational. The curriculum was elementary rather than secondary, emphasis being placed primarily on reading, writing, arithmetic, and religion. The schools were in the hands of religious sects and each parochial group did as it pleased, unhampered by state legislation.

The old-field schools which flourished principally in the Southern colonies were privately controlled. They were established at convenient centers by the people of a neighborhood to provide educational advantages for boys and girls whose parents could not afford to employ private tutors. This type of school represented a co-operative effort on the part of parents anxious to provide educational opportunities for their children. Instruction was both elementary and secondary. The teachers employed by the patrons of the school were often highly educated men, and it was customary for them to "board around" among the patrons of the school. This type of school flourished until well into the middle of the nineteenth century, and provided educational opportunities not only for the masses, but often for those who were anxious to enter college.

Free schools for the children of the poor

were early established in the Southern colonies where indifference to general education generally prevailed. In such colonies tutorial and private schools were maintained for those who could afford them, and free and charity schools were provided for the children of indigent parents. These schools for indigent pupils, which were largely elementary in character, reflected the English charity school idea. During the seventeenth century there were several free schools founded by means of bequests from benevolent persons, and in some cases the resources still exist in some form to perpetuate the names of those "deserving to be chronicled." The charity schools were usually established in cities and supported by the benevolent people of the city. The charity school at Alexandria, Virginia, endowed by George Washington, was established, for the support and education of poor children, especially those whose fathers had died in defense of their country. In 1933, it was proposed to make this school a national shrine to our faith in free education.

The American Revolution brought to an end the Latin grammar school, and to some extent the other types of secondary institutions which flourished during the colonial period. The political, economic, and social development which followed the American Revolution made necessary a broader and richer educational program consonant with the needs of the now vocal middle class. The rapid commercial and industrial developments in America made necessary a different secondary school.

The American academy came into being to serve the needs of the new democracy born of the Revolution. It was an institution designed to provide educational opportunities for the children of all classes so that a trained citizenry capable of self-government might be possible. The academy, an institution representing a protest against the narrow curriculum of the Latin grammar school, was a child of the Revolu-

tion and reflected in many ways the true revolutionary spirit. The chief function of the Academy was to give a training necessitated by the new commercial and industrial developments and its program included courses in surveying, navigation, modern languages, and similar practical subjects.

The first American academy, Franklin's academy in Philadelphia, was founded in 1751. This school "represented the transition which took place in the Latin schools toward a more practical curriculum." Unlike the old Latin grammar school the curriculum of which was almost entirely classical and the purpose of which had been to prepare boys for admission to the colonial colleges, the academy provided instruction in a number of new studies adapted to the needs and demands of a new social order as well as instruction in the subjects of Latin and Greek. Its aim was to prepare for life as well as for college. It was open alike to boys and girls and did much to stimulate and encourage the development of the education of women in America.

The Academy was a success from its very beginning and its development was very rapid. The academy movement soon spread throughout the states of the new Republic and by the middle of the nineteenth century had become the dominant secondary school in America. Almost every American community of any size and prominence had its academy where instruction was offered in almost every academic and industrial field. There were academies for young men, academies for young women, often called seminaries, and co-educational academies. Many of these academies provided dormitory facilities, and drew their students from a wide territory. Many of the early academies later became colleges and several of them are still in existence. In 1800 there were 42 academies all located in New England—the old home of the Latin Grammar school. The academy, as a type of institution for secondary education, became so

popular that by 1830 there were something like one thousand such schools in the United States. By the middle of the nineteenth century there were more than six thousand, located in 38 states, with 200,000 pupils and more than 12,000 teachers. The student life of the academy was varied and stimulating. Provision was made for various types of student activities such as debating and literary societies. Many of these schools developed an *esprit de corps* with fine traditions and a wholesome atmosphere of culture. The academy had a profound influence upon the development of education in America. It served to stimulate interest in the education of women; it fostered the growth of many colleges; and it emphasized the need for the training of teachers. It established the fact that the secondary school has a finishing function as well as a preparatory function, that preparation for life is as important as preparation for college.

The academy, confined almost entirely to the territory east of the Mississippi, was a private institution under the control and supervision of a board of trustees. It was usually chartered and given legislative sanction by the state, and was often a semi-public institution through grants to it by the state. It was built upon the curriculum of the elementary school instead of running parallel to it as was the case with the Latin grammar school, although the curriculum of the early academy "began nowhere in particular and ended nowhere in particular." It made no demands for funds through local taxation. Although it started out as an institution free from the control and domination of the college, by 1850 it had become to all intents and purposes a college preparatory institution. Since the academy was a tuition school, it was destined to become a transition institution, a forerunner of the public high school. It exists today as an important American institution for experimental secondary education, for the edu-

cation of youth not suited to the program of the public high school, and for the education of those who feel the need for an exclusive type of training.

There are now approximately 2700 tuition academies enrolling slightly more than 300,000 students. Nearly three-fourths of these schools are denominational. Most of the 700 non-sectarian academies are located in large centers of population; many of them have been established for experimental purposes.

Just as the academy came into existence because of the failure of the Latin grammar school to enrich and popularize its curriculum in terms of the needs and demands of the new Republic, so the public high school arose not only because the academy continued to remain a tuition school and had in large measure abandoned its finishing function, but also because of the increasing public sentiment and conviction that secondary education should be in the hands of the state. The Latin grammar school contributed the idea of state or local control of secondary education; the academy contributed the idea of an enriched curriculum embracing the so-called extra-curricular activities. The public high school is a natural descendant of both of these institutions since it was established under state control with a curriculum designed to meet the needs of the expanding Republic.

Boston deserves the honor not only of establishing the first Latin grammar school, but also the first public high school.

The establishment of this first high school in 1821, the English High School, merits consideration since its founding was typical of the origin of many of the early high schools. It originated at a time when Boston felt the need of secondary school opportunities for those who were not going to college. At that time Boston provided free elementary school facilities up to the age of fourteen and secondary school opportunities by means of the Latin Grammar

school beginning with age twelve. In addition, there were private academies offering a variety of subjects. Since these academies were not an organized part of the town school system, the people felt that the public school system, the people felt that the public school system should be extended upward. The committee appointed to investigate the situation made a comprehensive report recommending a reorganization of the system then in vogue. They criticized the length of time devoted to the elementary branches, (7 years) and recommended a shortening of the period to five years and the establishment of a new type of school the curriculum of which would begin with the child of twelve years. According to the report of this committee, such an enlargement of the system would not only make possible a saving of time, but also the acquisition of those "early habits of industry and application which are so essential in leading to a future life of virtue and usefulness." The introduction of a different type of work at the age of twelve would be more extensive than that offered in the "English Grammar Schools," and more in keeping with the changing interests of the child at adolescence. The seven-year elementary school "was not sufficiently extensive nor otherwise calculated to bring the powers of the mind into operation nor to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed." A century later we find similar arguments advanced for the establishment of junior high schools.

The recommendations of the committee prevailed and thus the first public high school came into existence. It was, however, a school for boys. The passing of a strict entrance examination was necessary for admission. The program of studies extended over three years and a University trained faculty was employed. This school, under public control and support, was tuition free.

The Boston school for girls was established in 1826, and at once became a flourishing institution. On account of inadequate resources, it was closed two years later. The Central High School of Chicago, established in 1856, was the first co-educational high school in America.

When the first public high school was established, the academy was a dominant institution and its friends did not wish to see it replaced by this new "people's college," as the high school was called. The struggle to establish and maintain public high schools was a real one and it was not until 1865 that the academy had ceased to be a serious competitor of the high school in Massachusetts. By 1840 there were only about fifty public high schools in America. After 1850 the public high school grew rapidly in favor and importance, and by 1890 it had become the dominant secondary institution in the United States. The Massachusetts law of 1827 which established the high school movement in Massachusetts gave impetus to the development of these schools in the United States. After it had been established through the Kalamazoo Case of 1872 that the state had a legal right to use public funds for high school support, the chief barrier to the development of public high schools was removed. By 1890 the high school was accepted as an integral part of the state common school system supported through state funds derived from taxation.

Public high schools were established without question in the new states of the West which accepted from their formation the principal of public support for both elementary and secondary education. The battle for free state schools under proper state supervision and control, embracing both elementary and secondary training, which had been fought and won by 1890 in the Eastern and Central states was unnecessary in the states west of the Mississippi which based

their school legislation on what the states east of the Mississippi had earlier fought out. Thus it came about that the only important secondary school of the Western states was the public high school, in which territory it found its best opportunity for development and expansion. Many of the new movements for the downward and upward extension of public secondary education as evidenced in the junior high school and junior college organizations found ready advocates among the educators of this section.

After 1840 the public high school began to offer the college preparatory curriculum, and by 1890, college preparation seemed to be its principal function. The demands of the increasing number of institutions of higher learning for a larger number of students adequately prepared for college accentuated the importance of the fitting function of the high school. The diversity of college entrance requirements brought into the high school curriculum a wide array of subjects which made necessary differentiated offerings. As a result, the high school program was expanded in scope to meet the needs of college entrance, a fact which brought about an increasing lack of uniformity and standardization in the curriculum of the high school. By 1890, due to the insistent demands of the college, the high school had become almost entirely a college preparatory institution. Whatever non-college courses for students not college bound were offered as a result of public needs and social pressure, they were provided as a mere gesture toward commercial and vocational training.

The year 1890 marks the beginning of a new era in secondary education. At this time the American public school system was fully established and the public high school had been definitely accepted as the chief agent of secondary education. The economic, social, and political changes since 1890 have been responsible for the enlarged

and reorganized programs of the high school. They are also responsible for the concept of universal secondary education and for the definition of secondary education in terms of the life needs of boys and girls between the ages of twelve and eighteen years. Since 1890 the high school enrolment has doubled every decade until now 23,000 high schools with a quarter of a million teachers and administrators are giving instruction to nearly 6,000,000 boys and girls.

With the address of President Eliot before the meeting of the National Education Association in 1888 a new note was sounded in educational progress. It was an earnest plea for a fundamental reorganization of our entire school system and it marked the beginning of the extension of the secondary school downward and upward to include the last two years of the eight-year elementary school and the first two years of the traditional four-year liberal arts college.

The address of President Eliot prompted the appointment of the famous "Committee of Ten," which made its report in 1892 and which constituted a landmark in the history of secondary education. Following the leadership of its chairman, President Eliot, this committee recommended that the length of the elementary school period be shortened and that secondary school work be introduced into the seventh and eighth grades. The committee was of the opinion that the early introduction of high school subjects would not only avoid the needless repetition of monotonous drill work in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school, but would serve to broaden early the experiences of children and thereby enrich their school life. The recommendations of the committee were not only influential in initiating the movement for the reorganization of secondary education but served a real purpose in bringing greater uniformity and standardization throughout the high schools of the United States.

The question of the reorganization of our public school system continued to engage the attention of various educational groups. Subsequent committees and university conferences devoted a great deal of attention to the problem. The Committee on College Entrance Requirements, appointed two years after the Committee of Ten had made its report, was of the opinion "that the most far-reaching reforms in secondary education must begin in the seventh and eighth grades of our schools." This group of representatives of the colleges and secondary schools recommended very urgently the introduction of subjects formerly taught in high school into the upper grades of the eight-year elementary school. Dr. John Dewey argued that six years was ample time to devote to the tools of learning, and President Harper of the University of Chicago in 1902 submitted a tentative plan in which he suggested that the period of elementary education be shortened, that the period of secondary education be administered so as to include a part of the eight-year elementary school and the first two years of the traditional college. The Committee on Six-Year Courses, reporting in 1907, 1908, and 1909, recommended a Six-Six plan for elementary and secondary school organization. The Committees on "Economy of Time" and on the "Reorganization of Secondary Education" approved the six-year elementary school and the Junior-Senior divisions of secondary education, and by the close of the first decade of the present century the reorganization of our school system was under way. Junior high schools were established in Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio, in 1909, and by 1922 there were nearly 1500 schools of the junior and junior-senior types.

Somewhat less pronounced, but no less significant has been the growth of the municipal junior college as an upward extension of secondary education. The development of the junior college as an integ-

ral part of the secondary school program bids fair to continue in spite of the many limitations under which it now moves forward. Public education up to the age of twenty is now being advocated as a means of relieving unemployment.

In 1918 the seven cardinal objectives of secondary education formulated by the National Education Association gave both to teachers and the general public a new and broader conception of the purposes of the modern secondary school and were influential in the movement for the reorganization of secondary education.

The secondary school curriculum, influenced greatly by the psychological developments since 1905 and complicated by the needs and demands of the heterogeneous enrolment, has become the chief problem of the modern secondary school. The program for secondary education formulated by the "Committee of Ten" represented the first step in the evolution of the modern high school curriculum. Since then the curriculum of the high school has engaged the attention of educators. It has been the special concern of committees, research workers, experimental schools, school administrators and teachers, and students of Education. Curriculum programs, based upon scientific study and investigation, have been formulated and made available for schools anxious to provide better educational opportunities for their pupils. Almost all of the high schools of America have felt the need for curriculum construction and for curriculum revision and many of them have developed a program of studies suited in some measure to the needs of modern youth and the demands of the social order. The curriculum has come to signify a *way of life* for the pupil.

The high school has developed an extra curriculum to care for the out of school life of boys and girls, a guidance program to assist the pupil through counsel to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpreta-



tions in connection with critical situations in his life, and a system of pupil accounting to secure all pertinent information concerning the school progress of pupils.

The American high school, the most important social institution in American life, has become a highly complex school ministering to the needs of a large and heterogeneous group of boys and girls. Its essential features are a competent teaching staff, an enriched functional curriculum, a functional administrative and supervisory program, worth-while instructional materials, an effective guidance program, an adequate system of school records, co-operative community relationships, and an ample school plant.

Our modern extended secondary school is an institution of which only America can boast. It now enrolls approximately 65 per cent of the population of secondary school age. Its pupil population now represents every segment of the social order.

The public high schools of today are vastly different from those of a few decades ago. Perhaps the most significant of all developments in secondary school theory is that of the recognition of individual differences in pupils. During the second decade of the present century various plans for teaching the individual rather than the group came into vogue—the Dalton, Winnetka, Morrison, Miller, and Unit plans. They have all gone through the necessary experimental stages, and perhaps the most significant fact concerning all these various modifications in classroom procedure is that all of them are attempting to do the same things in the same way. The clarity with which the principles of learning and teaching have been formulated have made it possible for the advocates and sponsors of each of these plans to find a common ground upon which to base their teaching efforts. An analytical study of the various plans will show that the principles and techniques common to one are common to all; the

characteristics of one are the characteristics of all. The trend with reference to the individualization of instruction is decidedly towards some form of the unit assignment, representing a complete reorganization of subject matter in terms of broad and significant aspects of the environment centering around the life interests of children, and developed according to the principles of learning and teaching.

At its beginning the public high school had as its function preparation for active life. It soon, however, due to the establishment of state normal schools and universities, accepted preparation for college as its principal task.

Unlike its predecessors, the high school became a sequential school in that it continued the formal training of the elementary school and prepared its students for college. One of its first problems was articulation between these two units. Occupying a central position between the elementary school and the college, the public high school has ever been concerned with its curriculum and its methods of instruction so as to make it possible to give the proper kind of instruction to those who come up from the elementary school and at the same time provide the necessary training for those anxious to enter college at the close of the high school period. This problem of articulation has never been solved and is still a live issue. Out of it has grown two well defined movements—the downward extension of the high school to include the last two years of the elementary school and the upward extension of the high school to include the first two years of the college. The first of these movements resulted in the 6-3-3 plan of organization, or modification of this plan, such as the 6-6 plan, 6-2-4 plan for twelve grade school systems and the 6-2-3 plan and the 5-3-3 plan for eleven grade systems. The 6-3-3 plan has become the most frequent type of organization, consisting of a six year elementary school, a three year

junior high school, and a three year senior high school. The second of these movements resulted in the recognition of the junior college as the upper level of the secondary school, that is, that the secondary school period is an eight year period divided into three parts—the junior high schools, the senior high school, and the junior college. This movement is known as the 6-3-3-2 plan. In recent years it has been suggested that this plan be changed into a 6-4-4 plan,—a plan that divides the eight years of secondary education into two divisions of four years each. Secondary education is now regarded as training for individuals from twelve to twenty. Such a program of secondary education, if generally adopted, would not admit youth into industry until after the "teen" age.

The chief problem of public secondary education is the curriculum. It must meet both adolescent needs and the needs of the increasing complexity of modern life, and it must provide the richest possible experience suited to young people between the ages of twelve and twenty years.

The high school is the product of American social life designed as an institution of society to meet the life needs of all normal adolescents between the approximate ages of twelve and twenty years. Beginning with the last decade of the last century, the high school entered upon an era of growth and progress unparalleled in the history of any social institution. It is now regarded as the "people's college" in which the sons and daughters of all the people, rich and poor, may have an equal opportunity for educational development. A high school education is the birthright of every American child, and the continued support of this institution during the greatest of depressions when "pruning knives grew into swords" bears testimony to the unchallenged faith of the American people in their system of public education. During the three hundred years of its existence the American high

school has kept pace with the development of this country, reflecting its ideals and endeavoring to anticipate its needs. It has won its way into popular favor by the sheer merit of its work and is now regarded as one of the most precious possessions of the American people. Its past achievements and its present programs for improvement are an earnest of what it will mean to the future life of America.

WILLIAM R. SMITHEY

### MUSIC IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

WHEN I first glanced at the program for this afternoon and saw that of the four school studies to be discussed, music came last, I was very forcibly reminded that this is the position that music has long held in the school curriculum. As compared with the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, music is considered non-essential and *can* be done without. This accounts for the fact that music is usually one of the first subjects to be cut out of the curriculum in an economy program.

But things are improving. One of the most promising developments within the new curriculum is the opportunity for training in the field of the creative and recreative arts, the provision for individual differences and freedom of expression. And a new standard is being set up. We are asking not only "What is a study worth in the work of life?" but also "What is a study worth to the enjoyment of life?"

There is no doubt but that music is for life's enjoyment, and this end should be the aim of school music. There are two general avenues of approach: first, through a developing appreciation, and second, through skill in performance. And this brings us to the

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