



Democracy, the worth of the individual: eighty-fifth annual report, 1939-1940.

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DEMOCRACY ★ ★

The Worth of the Individual



DEMOCRACY

The Worth of the Individual

Eighty-fifth Annual Report 1939-1940

Philip H. Falk, Superintendent

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FOREWORD

● *For 150 years we have complacently enjoyed the privilege of living in a democracy. In the luxury of security much of our consideration for democracy has been focused on its weaknesses and not on its achievements. As a result we are tempted today in the clash between democracy and dictatorship to compare the weaknesses only of democracy with the strengths only of its challenger.*

Man's ideals have always been far ahead of his practices. The history of civilization reveals a few immortal pronouncements of idealism toward which man has struggled for centuries. American democracy did not arrive in full stature with the signing of the Declaration of Independence or the adoption of the Constitution. Democracy is more than a glorious pronouncement of human rights.

In 1789 "we, the people" of the Constitution represented only about four per cent of the total population. Gradually property ownership, tax payments, specific religious belief, and sex were eliminated as qualifications for the right to vote, until now we have almost universal adult suffrage.

Similarly the belief in the worth of the individual has been an evolving, expanding concept. The attitude of the school toward the individual child is vastly different today from that of a century ago.

The change has not been due to a sudden shift in emphasis at any particular time. Rather, it has been typical of the plodding struggle of men who conscientiously seek to square their practices with their professions. Many years elapsed in some cases between the awareness of a problem and the ability to cope with it. But the total progress made is indicative that the schools have taken seriously their democratic ideal of the worth of the individual and are trying to put it to work in the here and now.

By no means has perfection been attained by the school—there is still much to be done. But when viewed in retrospect, the past 80 years reveal a contribution by the schools to a living democracy that was highly significant but largely unappreciated and taken for granted by its contemporaries.

It is for this reason that the following report is presented. It is an attempt briefly to depict the part the Madison public school has and is playing in the fulfillment of the ideal, Democracy, the Worth of the Individual.

Reports and help from many members of the school staff were utilized in the preparation of this material. The assistance of Janet Millar, curriculum director, was especially helpful. Margaret Parham, public relations director for the schools, contributed much of the research, planned the arrangement, made many valuable suggestions, and prepared the manuscript for publication.

PHILIP H. FALK

Part I—Chapter I

DEMOCRACY'S CHALLENGE TO THE SCHOOLS

- The essence of democracy is its recognition of the worth, dignity, and integrity of the individual. But in its exaltation of the individual, democracy needs to guard against a narrow, selfish individualism. Democracy needs worthy individuals but individuals with social consciousness.

Plato once said that every form of government tends to destroy itself by an excess of its own basic principle. Aristocracies are destroyed, he said, by too much aristocracy, plutocracies by too much plutocracy, and democracies by too much democracy. If democracy is worthy of perpetuation, any conception of democracy that tends to destroy it is false and distorted. Unless we preserve our democracy all our concern for the individual will have been in vain.

The Danger of Mediocrity

Traditionally a weakness of democracy has been its tendency toward mediocrity. The concept of equality, as expressed by the right to vote, equality before the law, and recognition of the worth, dignity, and integrity of every human being tends to extend to all other phases of life's activity. Biologically we know that no two people are exactly alike in appearance, stature, ability, or in any other way. To assume that all are equal in musical ability is absurd. It is equally stupid to assume that all are equal in mechanical, academic, or any other kind of ability. To attempt to make all equal can result only in a dead level of mediocrity about which the great mass will hover.

Among the essential vocations in our social order are such groups as business men, industrialists, craftsmen, laborers, artists, clergymen, mechanics, doctors, lawyers, teachers, agriculturists, scientists, editors, financiers, social workers, etc. To believe that every child when he becomes an adult will be competent to participate in any or all of the above fields of activity on a level equal to that of any other person is mere wishful thinking unless the work is to be done on a level of mediocrity.

On the basis of known techniques of teaching and learning practically everyone recognizes that there are some things he can never do well. Or at least he realizes that the amount of energy and time required to do some things well could be spent much more productively in other fields. Hence the only way, in a democracy with majority rule, in which a majority may attain equality is by leveling down those with unusual ability. If all cannot attain excellence, in order that all may be alike, all must become mediocre.

Any vocation that succumbs to mediocrity cannot justify its existence in terms of service to society. Its existence must depend on power, pressure,

and logrolling against other equally mediocre and socially incompetent groups. And the same techniques of pressure and logrolling that provide the existence of one group are tempting techniques for use by that group to gain power over competing groups. The goal of the group becomes not the welfare of society but the welfare of the group at the expense of the rest of society and domination of society by the group.

No democracy can long survive in the modern world if its work is carried on by jealous, envious, competing, power and self-seeking groups of mediocre practitioners, whether they be teachers, capitalists, laborers, or doctors. Only a democracy of excellence can solve modern social, economic, and political problems.

A Democracy of Excellence

Rather than a democracy composed of capital versus labor versus agriculture versus medicine, we must have an integrated democracy composed of finance, labor, agriculture, medicine. There must be recognition that all are sailing in the same ship and that all survive or go down together. The justification for the farmer is that he is essential to our economic order. Those who practice farming should be its practitioners because they can render their greatest contributions to the common welfare in that field. Likewise the laborer, banker, and others should occupy their positions not because they are powerful but because they are necessary to the welfare of all others and because they are equipped to render a greater service to all through those fields than through other callings.

Democracy then is not a conception of equality based on a dead level of mediocrity but rather a conception of equality based on the mutual respect of individuals and groups for the excellent contributions of other individuals and groups to the common welfare and on respect for all persons as human beings. Equality is in the opportunity of each to contribute voluntarily to and to share in the total welfare in terms of his maximum capacity.

The Role of the Schools

Schools have a vital role to play in this conception of democracy. Some of these essential groups in our democracy need the type of ability that requires academic training in a high degree for its full fruition. Some have socially essential types of ability that require a type of training vastly different. Some need trigonometry; others need sheet-metal work.

If it is essential for our democratic society that every socially necessary group must mutually respect the significant contribution of every other group, such mutual respect must first permeate our schools. Excellence in every socially necessary type of work must be respected. The boy who is excellent in trigonometry should be respected by all others for his achievement, but by the same token he should respect the achievement of the boy who excels in sheet metal or of the girl who is an excellent violinist. Each

This world of ours



may wholeheartedly appreciate the excellent contribution of the other, and each may respect the other as a human being.

There is no place for jealousy in such a democracy. There is no need for the potential mathematics scholar to be envious of or to belittle or to be a drag on the future skilled craftsman or the musician, or vice versa. Each stands on his own feet on the basis of excellence in a socially necessary and useful activity. This democracy of excellence is a far more dignified and worthy conception of democracy than one which results in competing mediocrities.

The Early School

Our early high school, in spite of lip service to the contrary and efforts to make it otherwise, was a selective institution primarily concerned with preparation for college. Even now according to a recent poll of the American Institute of Public Opinion one-third of our public still think high schools are essentially college-preparatory institutions.

The college-preparatory function of the high school was on the ground first. As more pupils enrolled in high school and as the purposes of high school enlarged, adjustments have had to be made. New courses, arts, shops, and gymnasiums were added. As is true with all human institutions, those first in possession assumed a proprietary attitude. Just as science, sociology, and economics had to battle the old classical curriculum for recognition and respectability in halls of learning, so the shops and arts have had to battle the traditional academic curriculum for recognition and respectability in the secondary school.

Many supporters of the college-preparatory function of the high school resent and regard as intruders the new subjects as well as the new pupils. They have no very clear-cut idea as to what should be done with these "intruders" up to the age of 18 years except that they think they should not be in high school where they fear that such pupils will jeopardize the academic preparation of the "bright" children.

By the same token socially minded groups resent the fact that domination of the curriculum of the public school by the college-preparatory tradition is preventing large numbers of pupils from profiting personally or socially from the public school contact. For many pupils, they argue, school is merely a sterile ritual in which the classics are read but neither understood nor enjoyed and in which Latin is studied because of a belief that through it one learns "how to study" other subjects, etc.

Some believe that in a desperate effort to appease the opposing camps, schools have sought a middle ground with lowered "standards" which prepare pupils neither for college nor for life. Some academic groups have maintained a snobbish attitude toward the newer subjects so that although pupils have numerous electives to provide for their particular talents, social pressure decrees that choosing of certain subjects is frank admission of

academic stupidity or laziness. As a consequence, large numbers of potentially excellent mechanics are walking the streets seeking flunkie white-collar jobs or are sitting dully before bewildered college professors who wonder what has happened to the high schools.

In this un-American class struggle which has been raging over the schools for the past 50 years, the belief has been present that either the college or the non-college group can be served effectively by the school but not both. The assumption has often been that one group must suffer at the expense of the other.

The Modern School

School people still believe it is possible within the same school to care for the individual needs of all the children of a democracy. All children, no matter who their parents are or what their interests and capacities are, have the common job of American citizenship. There is no better training in the give-and-take necessary for a democracy than in working and playing together as children. Advocates of segregating groups of differing academic ability frequently ignore the citizenship-training function of the school.

Educators still think it is possible that there can be such breadth of social understanding among faculty specialists and parents that pupils with diverse interests and capacities may pursue their own bents in any socially desirable field of activity not only without being subjected to social snobbishness but actually with the stimulation of social praise for excellence.

Unless we in our democracy and schools are willing and able voluntarily to appreciate and respect the social significance of and necessity for diverse interests and capacities on the part of our citizens in this highly specialized interdependent society, we will be no match for a totalitarian challenger. If we cannot get together, the only question will be who the dictator will be. He will knock our heads together, crush our petty aristocracies under hobnailed boots, and make us work together whether we like it or not.

Personal and social welfare of every individual child is the goal for which American schools have been struggling these many years. The schools are far from perfect and far from having reached their goal. But there follows a brief survey of the strides made in Madison during the past half century which reveals definite progress. The school recognizes no inherent conflict among pupils with diverse types of interests and ability. Society needs them all. The welfare of each depends on the welfare of all. The school believes in a democracy of excellence, not of mediocrity. The American school believes in the worth, integrity, and dignity of each individual and assumes that each individual can rise to his full stature only when given opportunity to make his maximum contribution to the welfare of all.

Learning to walk again



Chapter II

RECOGNIZING THE INDIVIDUAL'S NEEDS

- Slow but persistent has been the transition from the school characterized by rod, dunce cap, ruthless retardation, and withdrawals toward the school characterized by all the children of all the people happily and eagerly exploring the mysteries of the world about them.

Apparently in the early days in Madison schools, as was typical of all early American schools with their European background, most cases of pupil ill-behavior and maladjustment were regarded as cases for discipline and the rod.

Switching Curtailed

One of the moot questions in the 1860's in Madison was corporal punishment in the schools. Elisha Burdick, a member of the school board for a quarter of a century, moved "that hereafter no corporal punishment in the schools of this city be allowed."

Finally, after discussion of the matter for several sessions the board decided that it would not be "safe or wise to abolish such punishment from our schools altogether" but advised restraint in this direction and required written detailed reports to the superintendent of each case "with the nature and size of the instrument used, if any."

Beginning of Child Study

A forerunner of our current mental hygiene point of view, that we study *causes* of behavior, was expressed in 1897 in the Madison school superintendent's annual report:

"The wise physician makes a careful diagnosis of the disease before he ventures to prescribe. Before the teacher attempts to develop the mental and bodily power of the child he should know something of the needs, conditions, and laws of child-life. The demand of the hour is for patient, painstaking, unbiased observations, and a systematic gathering of data, in regard to the physiology and psychology of the child. . . . This new science of child-study involves the observation and measurement of children as to their constitutions, functions, and activities, and includes the study of both body and mind."

He cited a few of the many conclusions which had been reached through child study including hindrances to natural mental growth because of defective hearing and vision. In the conclusion of his treatise he added that the Madison schools would doubtless benefit from the new department of pedagogy established at the University of Wisconsin.

Youth Charged With Softness

With the swing away from the rod toward a more considerate attitude of the child as a human individual, fears were expressed that youth was becoming soft. In 1900 the superintendent made the following statement in answer to a criticism that the schools were not developing such qualities as virility and morality in the youth of the day:

"We have no desire to return to . . . 'birch pedagogy,' but we do recognize many merits in the schools of our fathers They did emphasize the 'ought' and 'must' in a way that engendered a wholesome respect for duty and obligation.

"The reaction which has taken place along these lines is not due entirely to schools, but in part at least to the changed conditions of social life A greater leniency and an excessive indulgence characterize the home life of the child With tens of thousands of city children the school, with its orderly discipline and definite demands, is a saving influence."

It is interesting to note that the adult generation of 1940 that is complaining about our youth having gone soft is the one about whom the same charge was made 40 years ago.

The "Bad Boy"

An awareness of the fact that there were in school in Madison individual pupils whom the school was not reaching was indicated in 1904.

"The 'bad boy' is present in every school and is the trial of the teacher's life. Every teacher feels that if she could be relieved of the one or two most trying pupils her work would be a pleasure and her school a delight. The 'bad boy' is not interested in his work and dislikes the school. When forced to attend he becomes a constant annoyance to the teacher and a disturbing element to the whole school. After a time patience ceases to be a virtue and the boy is sent home or is suspended from the school. If forced to enter school again he becomes more rebellious than ever, runs away from school, and is classed as a truant. Such boys are not usually wholly bad but possess many good qualities. They are often alert, kindhearted, and intelligent in a general way. They are not without keen interests but there is nothing in the school work that appeals to them. They may be on the highway to destruction but they are not yet criminals. Judicious management and timely care can save a majority of them. To save such boys is an educational problem and should be dealt with by school authorities. It is only when they become incorrigible and a menace to the community that they should be subject to municipal control and police regulations.

"What can our schools do for such cases? To be sure they are not numerous in our city, but they are with us and the schools will fail of their fullest accomplishment if they do not do something for them. The ordinary methods of the school will not reach them. The experience in many cities has shown that the best way to deal with the truant class is to organize special schools in which are utilized a wide range of devices and methods for the purpose of arousing interest and directing their varied tastes and inclinations. . . .

"It may not be practical to open such a school in Madison at present, but the advisability of opening one in the near future should receive serious consideration. Such a school will cost something, but it will be worth all it costs, because every dollar expended to save this truant class saves itself many fold in reduced police, court, and prison expenses. It pays morally, mentally, and financially."



Rest in the nutrition center

Saving precious eyesight



Several years later, in 1909, the superintendent announced that a special school for boys had been organized in one of the rooms of the high school building. The aim of the school was to give individual aid to boys who were behind their grades because of irregular attendance or other causes. A special effort was made to arouse their interest by means of gymnasium work, manual training, and excursions.

At the end of a year and a half the school was discontinued, although the teacher in charge reported that the school had been particularly beneficial for adolescent boys who had lagged behind their classmates. Reasons for the discontinuance of the special school were lack of proper school room, expense involved, lack of organized means of enforcing attendance, and futility of attempting to deal with backward and wayward pupils by the same methods and in the same school.

Need for Special Schools

The superintendent declared that three types of schools were needed, namely, the ungraded school, the school for truants, and schools for defectives. At this time the ungraded school was not meant for mentally retarded pupils since these were included as one type of defective. The ungraded schools were meant to provide concentrated attention similar to tutoring for pupils who, due to illness or some temporary retarding factor, had fallen from the proper grade level but who should be able to profit by the boosting and so return to their regular places.

The fact that failure to learn no longer automatically brought forth the stigma of dunce is indicated by the report in 1910. Investigations indicated that irregularity of attendance, absence, illness, physical and mental handicaps caused 33 per cent of the failures. Other causes named by the teachers included slowness in development, immaturity, and unfavorable home environment.

Concern for better service to all of the children of all of the people was recorded in the report of 1910-11:

"Our schools cannot fully measure up to their opportunities until they in some way afford means of improvement to every child in the community, whatever may be his station in life, his physical condition, or his natural capacity. . . . The most feasible plan would probably be the formation of special classes in the high school in which these pupils could receive the kind of instruction best suited to their needs. The work would of necessity be varied and its nature determined by the ability and special tastes of the individual pupils."

New Services Established

In 1912 the superintendent was "gratified" to announce the appointment of a supervisor to take charge of the matter of school attendance.

"The mere matter of enforcing attendance on the part of children reported absent from school is a small part of the work of such an office. Back of truancy and irregu-

larity of attendance are causes and conditions, that not only affect the welfare of the children concerned, but are inimical to home life and a menace to social institutions. It is not only sufficient to get the child into school, but the causes and conditions that make truancy possible must be investigated and as far as possible removed. The field of work for an attendance officer is wide and the duties multitudinous."

Over a period of years various departments for handicapped children have been established in Madison. The department for the deaf and hard-of-hearing was established in 1908; for the mentally slow, 1917; for speech defectives, 1924; for physically unwell children such as those with heart ailments, nutrition and rest centers, 1926; for the crippled, 1927; and for children with seriously defective eyesight, 1937.

This year, 1939-40, 33 children were registered in the school for the deaf, 67 in the Madison orthopedic school, 286 in the state hospital orthopedic school, 18 in the sight-saving room, 484 received work in speech correction, 110 were admitted to the nutrition centers, and 109 were enrolled in classes for the mentally retarded.

For the first time since their organization the schools for the deaf and the crippled children were located in rooms built specifically for these purposes. The unit for the crippled children was built in the new Washington school and that for the deaf children in the new Lapham school. The educational opportunities of both groups were greatly enriched by the facilities of the auditorium, art room, library, gymnasium, which they enjoy with all the children of the school. This fact has special influence on the mental health of handicapped children.

The Guidance Department

Fifteen years ago, in 1925, under the direction of Pauline Camp, the department of guidance and special education was established. All the special departments which had been established to minister to the needs of individual children possessing physical and mental handicaps were included in the department.

Today seven teachers in the guidance department, three in the high school field and four in the elementary school, aid in the guidance of approximately 11,000 pupils.

The establishment of the guidance department is an indication of the realization that large numbers of children, outwardly normal in every respect, are frequently in need of special help as individuals. They face serious social, educational, vocational, and personal problems in adjustment. Even some unusually bright children need guidance in social relationships and stimulation to work up to capacity.

In addition to handicapped children and normal children with special problems, the guidance department is much concerned about problem children—overt and especially incipient cases.

Traditionally schools have regarded as problems in need of special consideration those children who have exhibited behavior which interferes

with the routine of the school: the disturbers of other children, the whisperers, the note passers, the pranksters, the quarrelsome, the tardy, the truants, those who failed to "keep up with the class."

Truly these are problems and must be dealt with if the work of the schools is to proceed at maximum efficiency, since the entire group as well as the individuals are involved. The mental hygiene point of view, however, recognizes that many early indications of maladjustment are not characterized by the above types of behavior. Such formerly ignored types of behavior as shyness and withdrawal may be indicative of greater maladjustment than some of the annoying, overt types.

Penology has long recognized that one cannot judge a case of unsocial behavior solely in terms of the offense committed against society. Treatment accorded prisoners is modified in terms of background, motive, and circumstances pertaining to the crime.

For too long a time schools judged problem children largely in terms of the offenses committed. Truancy was truancy whether the youngster skipped school for a lark or because he had to take care of a drunken father.

The guidance department with its mental hygiene point of view seeks to permeate the entire staff with a desire to be as much concerned with *why* a child acts as he does as with *what* he does. The goal is to understand the child before treating him. As in the medical profession, prevention or diagnosis and treatment in early stages are far more effective than the attempt to cure aggravated cases. It is felt that a sympathetic understanding and removal of causes of unsocial behavior may do much to avert potentially serious problems.

The Central Registration Bureau

Three years ago the central registration bureau was established where all problem children in the community who needed study or treatment might be registered. More than 300 children displaying various types of behavior problems were registered the first year. Problems causing difficulty were introvertive behavior, environmental pressure, extrovertive behavior, irregular school attendance due to various causes, dissocial behavior, educational problems, and truancy. The bureau did not prove to be an adequate solution for the problem, however.

The Guidance Clinic

In the fall following the establishment of the bureau, an experimental guidance clinic and a series of mental hygiene lectures for teachers were set up for a two-year trial period with the cooperation of the medical school of the University of Wisconsin.

This year marks the close of the two-year demonstration period of the clinic and the lectures. During the last school year the lectures in



After high school, what?

Vibration helps the deaf child learn to speak



mental hygiene were given to a smaller class, a particular advantage for this type of work.

During the past year the number of children seen in the clinic was 66 of which 42 were boys and 24 were girls. Half of these children were referred by school representatives and half by agencies outside the school. The total number of clinic visits was 155.

In 57 cases, according to the conclusions reached in the clinic, the home was a principal conditioning factor, in 20 cases, health, and in 4 instances, the school. Classification of cases according to behavior indicated that 33 were aggressive, hyperactive, and non-conforming, 10 were withdrawn, shy, and inattentive, 10 were neurotic, 3 were definitely abnormal, 2 had poor school achievement not due to mental inferiority, and 8 were special problems.

As a result of treatment in the clinic 25 were reported improved, 29 were reported unimproved or questionable, 8 needed further treatment next year, 4 needed medical care, 6 were untreated or recommendations were given to a social worker, and no reports were given on 8 children who were seen late in the year. These diagnoses overlap somewhat.

Building principals reported 32 cases of improved pupil-school relationships and 18 cases of unimproved relationships between the pupil and the school as a result of the clinic. Thirty-six cases of improvement in the rapport between the home and school were cited as the result of the clinic, and 19 cases were recorded as not having been affected by the clinic. In 29 cases teachers were reported as having received definite help from the clinic on problem pupils.

Obviously a clinic is no panacea for all problem pupils. It has demonstrated, however, that it can be a definite aid in understanding and helping unadjusted children.

Recommendations Made

Recommendations of the supervisor of the department and the psychiatrist at the end of the trial period were as follows: that the mental hygiene clinic should continue and that it should be an integral part of the school system; that a psychiatrist, whose chief interest would be in this position, be employed at least on a part-time basis; that such psychiatrist be an employee of the school system.

It was their belief that the service of the psychiatrist should not be limited to the work in the clinic, but that he should be available for advice on problems presented by children who are not clinical cases. His advice should also be available to school officials on policies or methods that indirectly affect the adjustment of children.

The psychiatrist attached to the school system would become much more a part of the school than was possible under the organization for the period of demonstration, in their opinion. He would become familiar with

its operations, know the teachers and principals, and be able to observe problem children in the classroom.

We see then over a period of 80 years the gradual extension of the interest in and concern for the worth and dignity of every individual child. In the early days those who did not fit the prescribed pattern of the school were proper subjects for the rod or expulsion from school. It was assumed that all could conform if they only would—and the rod or a threat of expulsion was the persuader.

Gradually it was recognized that some children possessed physical defects of hearing, sight, malformation, etc., which made it impossible, regardless of how hard a child tried, to meet the normal requirements. Special provision was made for them.

In time recognition was given to the fact that children differ in mental ability as well as physical. Classes for the slow learning were established because it was cruel and unreasonable to expect slow-learning children to compete with normal children, to say nothing of whipping them or making life miserable for them for not doing so.

Behavior problems, it was realized, could not all be grouped under the one blanket charge of being possessed with evil spirits which had to be driven out with the rod. There were frequently specific environmental causes for unsocial behavior and rarely were two cases exactly alike. To prescribe a whip for every case was just as ineffective and unscientific as for a doctor to prescribe iodine for every patient regardless of the illness.

Gradually it was recognized that not all cases of maladjustment were indicated by overt nuisance action. Many of the most serious types of ill-adjustment were evidenced by just the opposite type of behavior—shyness and withdrawal.

And finally the school has become aware of the fact that the forgotten child is likely to be the normal child or the unusually gifted child who at times is in serious need of help in making his adjustment to this highly complicated world.

Every child, therefore, has his own special problems in addition to those which all have in common. The school is struggling to meet insofar as possible the needs of each educable child.



The science of life

Chapter III

RETARDATION AND SCHOOL STANDARDS

● Many laymen and a few teachers object strenuously to what they call the current practice of "pushing pupils along whether they know anything or not." Not only do below-grade pupils not belong in the upper grades, they say, but pupils get the notion that because they are always "promoted" regardless of their achievement or effort, they need never work at anything.

The history of the policy on retardation in the Madison schools is interesting. Study of the annual reports from the early days reveals great dissatisfaction with the organization of the school which at that time was ungraded. In the year 1862 the superintendent of Madison's schools wrote:

"In passing pupils from one department to another, the capacity of the room rather than that of the pupil has been considered. This is an evil which can only be remedied by a more rigid adherence to a course of study, and by providing room so that each grade may be kept by itself."

The desired grading having been at least partially established, although it had not been possible to provide a separate room for every grade, the opinion of the superintendent as to the policy was expressed thus:

"No departure should be allowed from the prescribed course. If pupils cannot maintain their rank, they should be degraded to the class below."

One of the tragic consequences of adhering to this rigid school policy regarding classification was the resultant chronological overageness of pupils. A child has many ages among which are chronological, social, mental, physical, and achievement age. But such a policy recognized achievement age only.

Overageness of Some Pupils

To be concerned about only the achievement age of a child, on the other hand, is to create some extremely undesirable learning situations. For example, during the school year 1908-09 the chronological age range in Madison's second grades was from 6 to 16 years of age inclusive. Certainly from the standpoint of mental hygiene it is both cruel and inhuman to keep a 16-year-old youth in the same grade with a 6-year-old child.

In spite of all our talk about the mental hygiene point of view, we still have far more retardation than most laymen and even some teachers are aware of. In Madison's fifth grades during 1939-40 there were pupils not yet 9 years of age and others almost 14—a wide range in maturity level. A similar range existed in every grade from the second through the sixth. In Madison's seventh grades were pupils ranging from 11 to 17 years of age.

Range in Reading Ability

Although a certain portion of the retardation today is caused by transfers into the Madison schools, basically our retardation is an attempt to improve the relative equality of abilities in fundamental skills among pupils in each grade. What evidence we have as to the success of this effort is not very encouraging.

As measured by standardized tests, which are far from perfect but still very useful, some pupils in Madison's fifth grades in 1939-40 showed the ability to read as well as average twelfth grade pupils, while others appeared to be able to read only as well as good first grade pupils. However, the middle 80 per cent of these fifth grade children ranged in ability from fourth to seventh grades, and the middle 50 per cent, quite naturally, read as the average fifth grader would be expected to read. At every grade and in every subject in which it is possible to get a standardized grade-level score, a range of from five to ten years in achievement age may be expected.

One might be inclined to think that because 80 per cent of his pupils are able to read within a three-year range, fourth to seventh grade ability, to take care of these differences would be enough of a problem for a teacher without attempting to provide for the upper 10 per cent and the lower 10 per cent. However, translated in terms of a typical classroom of 30 pupils, this would mean that there would be 3 brilliant pupils in the class who would be unchallenged in reading and whose unusual abilities would not be fully developed. On the other hand, there would be 3 young Americans who, lacking the ability to read well, would be hopelessly swamped by the assignments. Yet these same young Americans are potentially good citizens who probably have other types of ability which are socially desirable and necessary. It is the duty of the schools to prepare each child to make the contribution he can best make. The great danger is that these children will be faced with such continual failure in tasks which they cannot do that they will come to believe they cannot do anything well, and thereby society may lose their possible contribution.

Range in Arithmetic Ability

In a report submitted by Clifford Hawley, mathematics teacher at West high school, on behalf of the secondary curriculum study committee in mathematics, is evidence that a similar condition exists in arithmetic. On standard arithmetic tests the median Madison pupil was almost one-half a grade ahead of the test standard. Madison's seventh grade pupils, however, ranged in ability from approximately third grade to eleventh grade. Among the conclusions to this 1940 study are:

"One cannot escape the conclusion that both seventh and eighth grade arithmetic are well taught in the Madison schools when compared with national norms for the standardized tests used. . . .

"A large number of students are beginning formal algebra in the ninth grade who do not have the necessary preparation in arithmetic. This lack of preparation is not an indictment against the quality of instruction in earlier grades, but rather it is due to the naturally wide range of ability of the students. It is a fallacy to assume a readiness for formal algebra merely because a student has completed the eighth grade. . . .

"The course of study in the eighth grade and the seventh grade should be examined critically by the mathematics curriculum committee with particular emphasis given the problem of providing for individual differences at these levels. Particular attention should be given also to caring for the upper third or fourth of the eighth grade who do not need intensive work in arithmetic fundamentals. . . ."

In other words, in spite of our efforts to maintain grade standards by retardation from one to five years, we still have in *each* grade a tremendous range in pupil ability. It is facts such as these that are gradually forcing a new conception of the school grade—a group of children of approximately equal social age each working as nearly as possible at his own level.

In the beginning



New Conception of Achievement Needed

We need to redefine our popular conception of achievement in school. Movement from grade to grade or even graduation from high school is not necessarily indicative of any definite level of scholastic achievement for every pupil.

This may sound like heresy, but in reality it is merely a frank statement of a condition that has existed for many years. It is a condition the alternative of which is selection—which is intolerable. If Madison in 1941 were to drop half its elementary pupils between the first and eighth grades and then eliminate half of those remaining before the twelfth grade, as occurred 30 to 40 years ago in Madison, a none-too-pleasant situation would exist in the city. Even though the law did not require pupils to remain in school until the age of 18, what would these pupils do except to roam the streets? And further, with all the elimination in 1900, the work of the pupils was far from satisfactory to the public, according to the printed report of the Madison superintendent of that year.¹

For years colleges have required more than the high school diploma for admission. They have demanded, and rightly so, evidence of the *quality* of the work done in high school. Unfortunately some business men still assume that graduation from high school should guarantee a certain minimum standard of academic excellence. When they find a graduate who falls below this, they question the quality of the school.

Colleges know that there are some pupils who could not attain a level of work in high school which would assure success in college if they stayed in high school 10 or 20 years. These pupils probably have other socially necessary and desirable types of ability—but not academic. There are pupils in high school who would never make first-class stenographers if they remained in high school all their lives.

No business man can guarantee first-class products unless he can select only first-class raw materials. If he must accept all the raw materials that are presented, all he can do is utilize to the utmost efficiency the materials with which he must work and then classify or grade his product accordingly.

The Meaning of Graduation Today

Graduation from high school in 1940 means that the graduate is about 18 years of age, that he has behaved himself at least reasonably well, that he has been exposed to an environment that is trying to make good American citizens, that he may possess academic ability equal to the average junior or senior in college or equal to an average fourth or fifth grade pupil, or that he may have any other type of ability within about the same range of possibility. The measurement of a pupil's ability in any particular field is not so much in his grade placement as in his record of achievement which is filed in the principal's office.

The early American high school was essentially and primarily a preparatory school for college. The fact that sports writers even today frequently

¹See Chapter IV.

refer to high schools as "prep" schools indicates the persistence of this belief. Yet in Madison only approximately 50 per cent of high school graduates go on to college, although this is a much higher percentage than in most cities in the nation. Undoubtedly the proximity to the university is a factor. Probably many local students attend the university who would not do so if it were not so convenient. It is still one function of the high school to prepare for college, but that is by no means the sole function.

In the past almost the entire program of the school was in terms of those who would ultimately go to college, although many of the graduates never attended. With practically all the children in the community now in school until the age of 18, it is obvious that large numbers of them never should and never will pursue an academic career. These boys and girls are going to have to fill the entire occupational pattern of Madison 5, 10, and 20 years hence, and they are all going to be citizens in a democracy —we hope.

For some time it has been recognized as grossly unsound to attempt to drive all children through a traditional college-entrance sieve when we know that large numbers of them have not the slightest chance of passing satisfactorily. There is no sound satisfaction for a child in being forced into a class where he is doomed to failure before starting or where he is given a consolation mark for good behavior in a course that he knows he has failed.

Obligations of the School

More and more schools are recognizing that, without jeopardizing the preparation of strong, academically minded pupils for college, they must fulfill the following two obligations:

1. Since the schools are destined to enroll practically all the children of a community for a 13-year period, until the age of about 18, they are obligated to provide a type of educational opportunity which will enable pupils best to develop both socially and personally the desirable and useful native capacities they possess.
2. Except for brief exploratory courses no child should be *required* to take a course in which he has no chance of doing satisfactory work. If a child *elects* such a course there may be educational value in his failure as an aid to the reconciliation of his ambitions with his abilities.

This does not mean that scholarship should take a secondary position in the school. It means rather that scholarship should be stepped-up for the potential scholars who should be freed from the drag of the non-scholars. But it does mean that a spurious scholasticism should not permeate the entire school as in the past.

In the modern school the question of whether a child shall repeat a grade or not is decided in terms of the welfare of the child. A child repeats a grade only when his teachers, parents, principal, and specialists, who may be consulted regarding his case, agree that the best interests of the child will be served by repetition. The needs of the child are paramount. The only question is where these needs can best be met.



Future homemakers at work

Chapter IV

THE SELECTIVE SCHOOL AND STANDARDS

- Although the average citizen is only vaguely aware of the tremendous change in the population and philosophy of the schools of Madison during the past 40 years, he has expressed much concern for what he calls "lowered standards" of the schools. He finds some high school graduates who cannot read well or write legibly or spell perfectly or solve problems in fractions, and he assumes that none can.

A common assumption as to the cause of this deterioration is the general softness of the age with its sugar-coated educational methods. Of course, also, there is the tempting halo of the good old days when men were men, etc. Rarely is there an understanding of the change from the school that eliminated its poor students to one that is trying to help and to improve them.

The old rigid graded school failed in its attempt to meet the needs of individual pupils. Not only did it fail in its major purpose, but it was highly successful in driving pupils out of school. It was recognized even in 1868 that a system of rigid grading with its attendant retentions and demotions was having a questionable effect on pupils:

"Most pupils leave school before completing their fifteenth year, and hence a large majority are in the primary and intermediate grades, and there they obtain most of their education."

Trimming of Classes

In 1881 the superintendent expressed his awareness of the shortcomings of the graded system by stating:

"Some teachers are forever trimming their school by dropping out of it all doubtful cases, the very ones upon whom genuine ability would display itself."

Evidence of the "trimming" of school enrollment is indicated in the following tabulation of enrollments by grades in Madison for the school years 1899-1900, 1909-10, as compared with 1939-40:

Note for the year 1899-1900 a first grade enrollment of 377, a fourth grade enrollment of 314, and an eighth grade enrollment of only 180. Assuming a relatively equal distribution of children of various ages, the school lost over half its children between the first and eighth grades. Substantially the same story is told in the data for 1909-10.

Contrast this situation with that which existed the past year. Exactly 789 pupils were enrolled in the first grade and 720 in the eighth grade. The drop between kindergarten and first grade in 1939-40 is due largely to the fact that many parochial schools do not have kindergartens. Many parents send their children to the public school for kindergarten and then transfer them to a parochial school for the first grade.

The same sort of story as to change in school population is revealed in the enrollment of grades nine to twelve. In 1899-1900 there were 199 pupils in the ninth grade. The slight increase over the eighth grade was undoubtedly due to new enrollments from the parochial schools and from the rural non-resident areas. But by the twelfth grade almost half the class had been lost. A similar situation existed in 1909-10.

Number of Pupils Enrolled

Grade Kdg.	1899-1900	1909-1910	1939-1940
1	169	240	915
2	377	524	789
3	341	448	759
4	351	428	742
5	314	416	778
6	281	349	754
7	277	333	734
8	187	274	723
9	180	238	720
10	199	228	1,189
11	154	211	999
12	118	152	1,003
	107	137	1,037
	—	—	—
	3,055	3,978	11,142
			227 specials
			11,369

Although the large influx from the parochial schools and non-resident areas in 1939-40 greatly increased the ninth grade enrollment, comparison of grades ten, eleven, and twelve indicates the retaining power of the school.

Granted that the foregoing enrollment figures by grades were subject to some withdrawals to parochial schools and to some increases due to tuition pupils, in general, the picture is accurate and typical of the time.

Serving All of the Children

There is much difference between a school that is a selective institution and a school that seeks to minister to the needs of all who enroll. In a selective school many pupils who do not learn readily can be told in words or actions that they do not belong in school. Ultimately life in school becomes so disagreeable that these pupils withdraw.

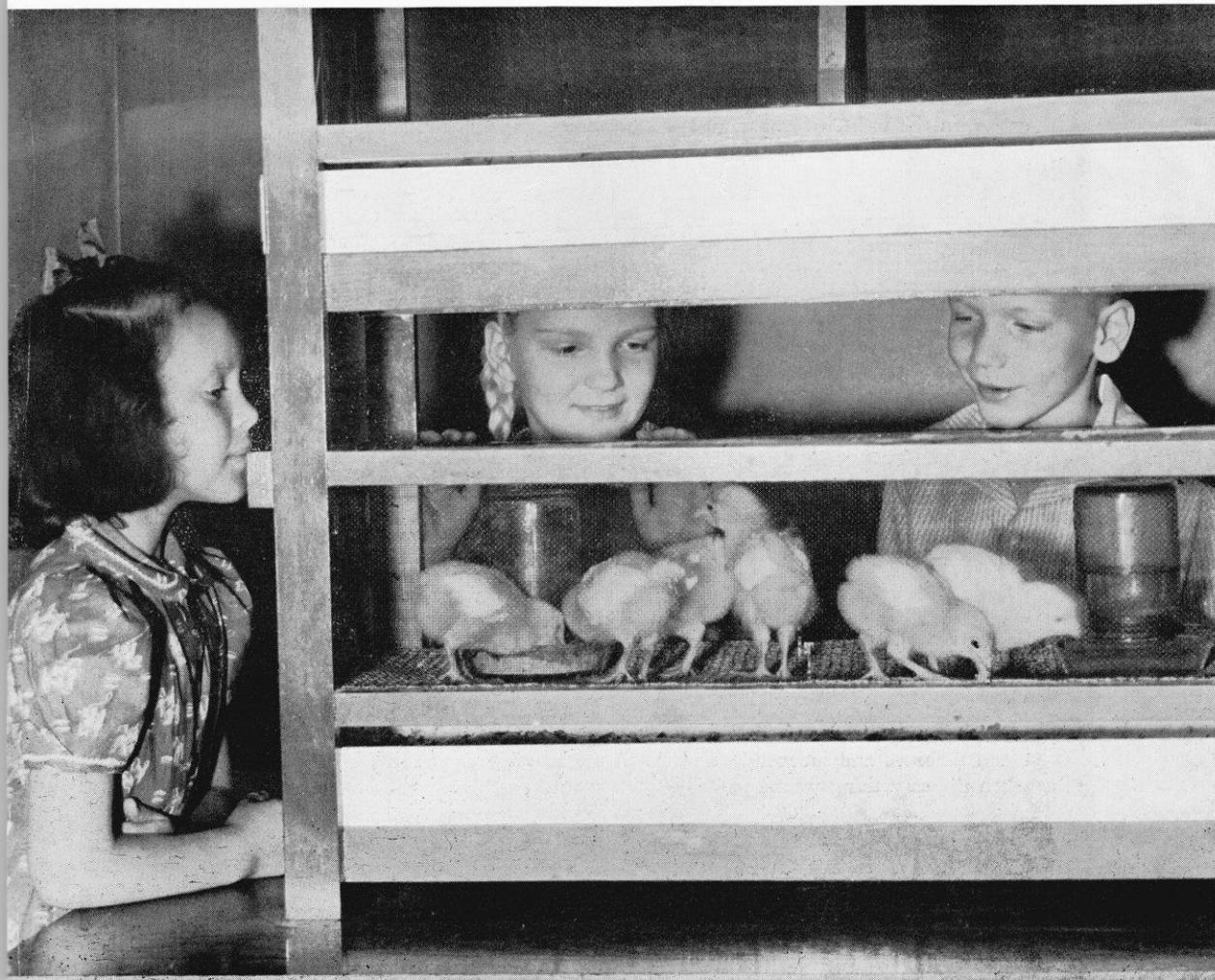
The early school tried to maintain standards by dismissing those who failed to meet them. What happened to the eliminated pupils was of no concern to the school.

In the schools of Madison today practically all the children who enroll remain until the age of about 18 years, which is the equivalent of graduation from high school for most of them. The modern school cannot smugly

solve pupil problems by the simple process of eliminating children from school. The 1940 teacher must live with her problems. She must endeavor to elevate her pupils' skills, abilities, attitudes, tastes, and habits regardless of the level on which they come to her. What happens to *every* child is the concern of the school. All cannot become scholarly Ph.D.'s, but all can and will become the means, good or poor, through which our democracy must function.

One would take for granted that in schools with the policy of eliminating children who could not keep up with the class, such as Madison had 30 to 40 years ago, it would be relatively a simple matter to maintain high standards of achievement.

Bringing the farm to the city school



Criticism of the Schools in 1900

But in spite of all the "trimming" of the school in the year 1900 in Madison, all was apparently not well with the achievement of its pupils. In the annual report of the Madison public schools for 1900-1901 we find the following comments:

"There seems to be a growing disposition on the part of the people to criticize the public school. Expressions of discontent and disapproval are common, and severe denunciations and sweeping indictments are not infrequent."

Thoroughness

"It must be confessed that many of the schools are not doing the thorough work that is desirable. Criticism at this point certainly finds some justification. It must be remembered, however, that even the excellent quality of thoroughness has its limitation."

Spelling

"A criticism with which we are all familiar, and which usually goes unchallenged, is that our schools fail to make good spellers. It is undeniably true that there is a great deal of bad spelling in our schools, and that methods of teaching in this line may be greatly improved. Poor spelling, however, is not a weakness that is confined to the present generation. It is a matter of record that the school authorities of Boston gave a written examination some sixty years ago that led them to comment with severity upon the spelling of the pupils in the public schools. Letters and notes from parents lead one to doubt seriously the efficiency of the methods of teaching spelling in the past. Although it is entirely impossible to make comparisons between the past and present, every evidence goes to show that the average pupil in the eighth grade of the schools today is a better speller in the written form than was the average pupil in the schools of fifty years ago."

English

"The teaching of English in the public schools is subject to much criticism. That the public schools do not teach English has been asserted so commonly and with so much assurance that the statement has become almost stereotyped. We must confess, on the whole, that the use of English is not taught as well as may be desired. Every effort is being made to improve, and the schools are improving rapidly, in this direction. Much of the criticism in this line comes from young instructors and inexperienced assistants in higher institutions of learning who fail utterly to appreciate the difficulties under which the elementary and secondary schools are laboring."

Morality

"Because the United States census shows that there has been a marked increase in the enrollment of the schools and in the number of inmates of the prisons during the same period, it is argued that the increase of prisoners is the result of the increase of attendance upon the schools. Rev. A. W. Gould shows the absurdity of such reasoning when he remarks in a discussion on this subject, that diseases have increased during the past half century and so has medical skill; but that does not prove that one increase was caused by the other."

Vigorous Independent Work

"It is thought by some that under our prevailing methods pupils are not trained to do vigorous and independent work. In the reaction against the old methods of grind, when the easy thing was necessarily the wrong thing, and gratifying activity was demor-

alizing excess, too much has been made of gush and involuntary interest. In the effort to make work pleasing much of the ardor and zest which accompanies achievement has been lost. It is a serious mistake to think that to make a task interesting is to make it necessarily easy."

Not only were pupils 40 years ago weak in work habits as well as in fundamentals, but even prior to 1900 in Madison perfect schools in which *everyone* learned thoroughly all his fundamentals did not exist. Perusal of the earlier reports of the superintendents of schools in Madison reveals the following facts.

Faults of the Schools Before 1900

In 1871 reading "does not receive that careful attention in our public schools its importance merits." In 1873 "faultless spelling is now very rare even in our best schools" and there were pupils in high school who could "scarcely write a legible hand." In 1888 it was "difficult to account for the poor reading so general in our schools."

The report for 1894 revealed "many faults in pronunciation, mainly those of indistinct and slovenly articulation." Also, it recommended "more thorough drill on the four fundamental rules of arithmetic . . . and a more bountiful supply of fresh air."

In 1895 pupils could recite rules of grammar, but they did not know how to apply them. Doubt was expressed during the same year as to the advisability of requiring classics whose meanings were beyond the depth of both teachers and pupils. The following year a plea was made for more distinct and comprehensive reading and for elimination, if possible, of the "traditional public school 'sing song.' "

Pupils in arithmetic in one department in 1897 computed:

" . . . with reasonable accuracy, but with painful and laborious effort notations of millions and billions. But the majority of the children who wrote these numbers hesitated, a few moments later, over results in simple addition, showing plainly how much better could have been used the time devoted to writing what they truly found 'long numbers.' "

Hence, that golden age before the days of frills, democracy, and progressiveness in education when schools maintained high standards in fundamentals that were attained by all is apparently just another fiction of a glorified but none-too-glorious past. The old school undoubtedly did an excellent job considering the conditions under which it operated. But to assume that it was the Utopia for excellence in fundamentals, as many would like us to believe, just does not square with the record. In spite of ruthless elimination from the classroom for the sake of "standards" and cruel disregard for the mental health of the children who did not fit, schools still were unable to maintain so-called satisfactory standards.



“The world is full of a number of things”

Chapter V

PROVIDING FOR THE INDIVIDUAL WITHIN THE GROUP

- Not long after the graded system had been established in Madison, school authorities discovered that apparently grading, as practiced, was not solving all problems. In 1867 the thought was expressed that whatever maladjustment there was could be ascribed to failure to locate pupils at the exact grade for which they were prepared.

"Experience has fully shown the advantages of more exact grading. It sometimes happens that pupils make very little progress, and thus bring discredit upon the teacher and upon the school, when the entire fault is in the improper grading of classes, or because the established grade has not been strictly followed."

By 1868 a definite criticism was made of the established system of grading as the panacea to all ills.

"There is a defect in our grading, owing to the fact that our programme of studies is indefinite in that it is a programme by text books instead of a programme by subjects."

That individual differences were recognized as a factor in education, in spite of the faith expressed in grading as a means of achieving a homogeneous group upon whom the same procedure could be exercised with the same effect, is revealed by the following excerpt from the same report (1868):

"The teacher must govern the school in mass. There is not time, as many suppose, to govern individually. The latter would be the better course, could it be done, and the more the teacher governs his pupils by private admonition the better."

Individual Differences Recognized

In spite of heavy elimination of pupils from the early graded school there was recognition of the wide divergence of ability in scholarship among those remaining even though differences in other phases of growth were ignored. The need for provision for the individual within the group or grade was acknowledged. In the annual report of the superintendent in 1893 he stated:

"When the demand for education became more general and pupils more numerous the necessity of some means of classification became apparent. Step by step the details of the graded school were worked out. . . . That the graded system of schools has many advantages over the ungraded will not be denied by anyone. That a rigid system of classification is subject to serious evils is apparent to every intelligent supervisor. The applying of uniform programs and methods of instruction simultaneously to large numbers of children, implies that all children are about equal in capacity and require about the same treatment. Everyone knows this is not so To put large numbers of



Through the microscope

Mathematics—the keystone of science



children into one room, to give them all the same tasks, to demand of all the same progress, and to move them all in a body from grade to grade, is unnatural and unphilosophical Some natures develop slowly and must have more time to reach certain stages. Other natures develop rapidly and require less time. In a large class where all are doing the same work in the same time, it is very evident that the bright pupils must be held back and the slow ones pushed on. This is an injustice to both classes. The bright ones, not tried to the full extent of their ability, lose much of the discipline which they should gain, and instead of doing their best under the exhilaration of a conscious onward motion and the inspiration of engaging studies, they fall to the level of careless plodders. The slow pupils are strained to their utmost and are dragged over the ground without time to digest or assimilate what is offered to them. These frequently become discouraged and drop out of the class, and sometimes out of the school altogether. The most serious harm befalls those who fail to reach the standard for promotion. The work of the next year is entirely beyond their power, and to spend a second year going over the same work is disheartening in the extreme and has little promise of valuable results."

Suggestions which were made at this time to improve teaching included the old-even-then plea to teach subjects instead of textbooks. It was urged that this would do much to allow the needed flexibility in adjusting to individual needs both as to quantity and quality. It was suggested that the course of study might be revised to include minimum essentials which all pupils would be expected to master and to include provision for the bright pupil to go further by "additional applications, testing results, confirming judgments, fortifying his positions by recorded testimony of others."

Semi-annual promotions, ability grouping, and "a judicious plan of individual promotion" were considered as possible remedies. Only the latter was feasible for use in the Madison schools at that time, in the opinion of the superintendent.

By 1903-04 the feeling was very strong that the highly vaunted graded system was inadequate. The superintendent stated, "Without question the Madison system of schools may be strengthened by the adoption of a more rational and flexible system of grading." The report contained suggestions for meeting the needs of individuals who were not thought to be satisfactorily served by the graded system. An ungraded room was advised for

" . . . children who are slow to learn and not able to do the regular work assigned. . . . In such a school, under an intelligent and sympathetic teacher, these children could receive inspiration and encouragement and the needed individual attention, aid, and guidance."

Individual Instruction Emphasized

Individual instruction was one of the major points of consideration in the report of 1905-06. A description was given of the range of possible teaching techniques from the individual tutorial system to the lecture plan in which one erudite professor addressed hundreds of students who held the entire responsibility for their own improvement therefrom.

The weak points of mass teaching which were pointed out at this time were that it ignores differences in disposition, temperament, mental power, and needs. That it gives little opportunity to the slow or backward

and no encouragement to the bright was also claimed. At the same time it was pointed out that experiments with individual instruction had been marked by lack of all-round development and adjustment.

It was concluded that a little of both were necessary since numbers supply "emulation," the stimulation of one mind upon another, and help to instill a realization of the validity of many viewpoints. A wise admixture of the two was thought to keep more pupils in school, more pupils passing, make better provision for weak pupils, necessitate less home study, lessen home worry and annoyance, reduce the amount of time that pupils would need to be kept after school, relieve the teachers of undue worry and strain due to excessive anxiety for the progress of the pupils, improve parent-teacher relationships, help to meet pupil needs without exposing weaknesses to the group, and all in all to work both intellectual and moral good upon the pupil.

That all this good might be accomplished it was recommended that individual instruction be provided for in the high school by: longer periods, allowing ten or fifteen minutes of each period for individual help; one period set aside each day by each teacher for this purpose; one period set aside each week by each teacher for this purpose.

In the elementary schools it was suggested (1905-06) that every teacher set aside one period every day for this purpose. In advocating this procedure the following caution was given:

"All individual instruction must supplement and aid the regular recitation work and must serve as a corrective of the evils incident to class teaching. . . . The individual period in order to be of value must be devoted regularly to systematic and regularly planned individual instruction . . . the work should be of such a nature as to arouse interest, stimulate thought, and encourage honest effort. . . . The effectiveness of individual instruction is due largely to the personal relation which is established between teacher and pupil. The manner of intercourse, the interest shown, and the sympathy expressed by the teacher are all matters of prime importance."

Various Plans Considered

In 1908-09, still feeling a need for some plan that would provide for individual differences within the limitations of the necessary group work of the public school, Supt. R. B. Dudgeon wrote:

"In handling large numbers of pupils some system of classification is necessary. To secure continuity of work and definiteness in the results, courses of study must be logically arranged and systematically administered. To avoid confusion and chaos pupils must be gathered into classes and programs of work must be arranged and followed. In a rigid classification of any kind differences in the capacity of children cannot be fully recognized nor is the adaptation of the work to individual minds possible to any large degree. To devise some remedy for these evils has employed the best efforts of the most thoughtful and intelligent educators."

The report then goes on to describe semi-annual promotions and grouping methods which had been used in other cities in an effort to solve the problem. In discussing the semi-annual promotion plan, pro and con,



Reading is fun

Gaul is still divided



the superintendent believed the best gain was that a pupil needed to repeat only a half year if failing and could more easily skip forward half a year if doing well. But it was still necessary under this system to try to get all pupils to progress at the same rate. Where it had been necessary to place two sections in one room, more mechanical teaching rather than improved instruction was the result.

Following his presentation of the advantages and disadvantages of the semi-annual promotions, the superintendent described the various grouping plans. He wrote:

"It is generally agreed that the machinery of the graded school system must be preserved, and that a remedy for the attending evils must be sought through some plan whereby the whole-class instruction with its benefits may be retained, and systematic and efficient instruction for the individual afforded. . . . In several systems of schools some form of grouping has been tried whereby pupils of a grade may be placed in divisions on the basis of ability and individual needs."

The Cambridge plan provided for a two-track plan going on from the third grade allowing four or six years for the completion of the rest of the work through the eighth grade. Pupils might transfer between groups and thus take five years to do it. There was to be no failure under this plan but instead various rates of progress. The greatest difficulty had been found to be the placing of several sections in one room with the old evil of more mechanical and less vital teaching.

Another plan was to have grammar-grade centers at central locations. This was something of a forerunner of the junior high school idea except that in these schools the selective factor was to result in admitting to the central schools only superior pupils. The classes were to be allowed to progress as rapidly as possible probably taking only five years to complete the grammar grades and high school. Where this plan had been tried, there had been difficulties due to expense and it had been felt that the pupils suffered from too limited social contacts.

Grouping Plans Tried

A fourth suggestion was a plan of three presentations of every lesson. The first time the whole class would be taken together after which a test would be given to determine which pupils had mastered the lesson. These would then be assigned seatwork and the remainder of the class would be taken over the same lesson at the next meeting of the class. At the testing period this time another group would be found ready to retire from the drill and take up seatwork. A final presentation would then be made for the remaining pupils and the procedure would start over with a new lesson. The advantages to be found in such a plan, which had been used in some of its phases in the Madison schools, were set forth:

"The stronger pupils are left more to themselves and permitted to direct in some degree their own efforts and to make such progress as their individual capabilities will permit. They become more self reliant and more purposefully industrious."

During the past twenty years we have witnessed a succession of techniques or devices by means of which the school has attempted to reach the individual as a member of a class or grade or group. One recalls such terms as the "project," the "problem," the "problem project," the "socialized recitation," the "contract plan," the "laboratory plan," "unit plans," the "activity movement," and the "workshop."

Each of these programs has its strengths and its weaknesses. Each has made its contribution to provision for individual differences within the group. But no one is a solution to the problem under all conditions. Even the ungraded room which was abandoned in Madison with such conviction in 1863 is being experimented with again in some places.

Semi-Annual Promotion Plan Discontinued

In the 1920's the semi-annual promotion plan was finally tried in the Madison schools. But in April, 1933, the board of education voted to discontinue midyear promotion because of "the educational advantages to the pupils" of the annual plan as well as economy.

The present attitude of the school toward grading was stated in the superintendent's report for 1937-38 when the final midyear class was graduated.

"With the increase in our awareness of individual differences brought about by improved measuring devices, grouping of children in school rooms for the purpose of giving them the best opportunities for individual growth is not the inflexible A and B classes in each room. It is better that the entire group in each room be measured and the grouping be made which will best meet the needs of the individuals. Under the annual promotion plan, with the teacher in the elementary schools having the same group of children for an entire school year, this provision for individuals can be obtained much more generally than under the semi-annual promotion plan."

The Importance of the Teacher

Probably the most important factor in serving the needs of the individual within the group is the quality of the teacher. Even this is no recent discovery. In 1895-96 the superintendent reported:

"The real work of the teacher is to quicken the intellect and to stir the ambition of every child under his tuition."

In 1908-09 the superintendent, after a long discourse on the type of administrative set-up which would enable schools to do what it was felt they should do, concluded with this statement:

"The essential factor in every school is the teacher. . . . The able, well educated, broadminded, sympathetic teacher will exert an influence for good upon her pupils that is independent of any system or plan."



Keen mind and nimble fingers

Chapter VI

PROVIDING A CURRICULUM FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

- In addition to the part played by the philosophy and organization of the school in providing for pupil differences, by the techniques employed within that organization, and by the quality of the teachers as factors in reaching the individual child, the subjects offered by the school are likewise very important.

Supt. Samuel Shaw in a report to the Madison board of education dated January 1, 1880, stated:

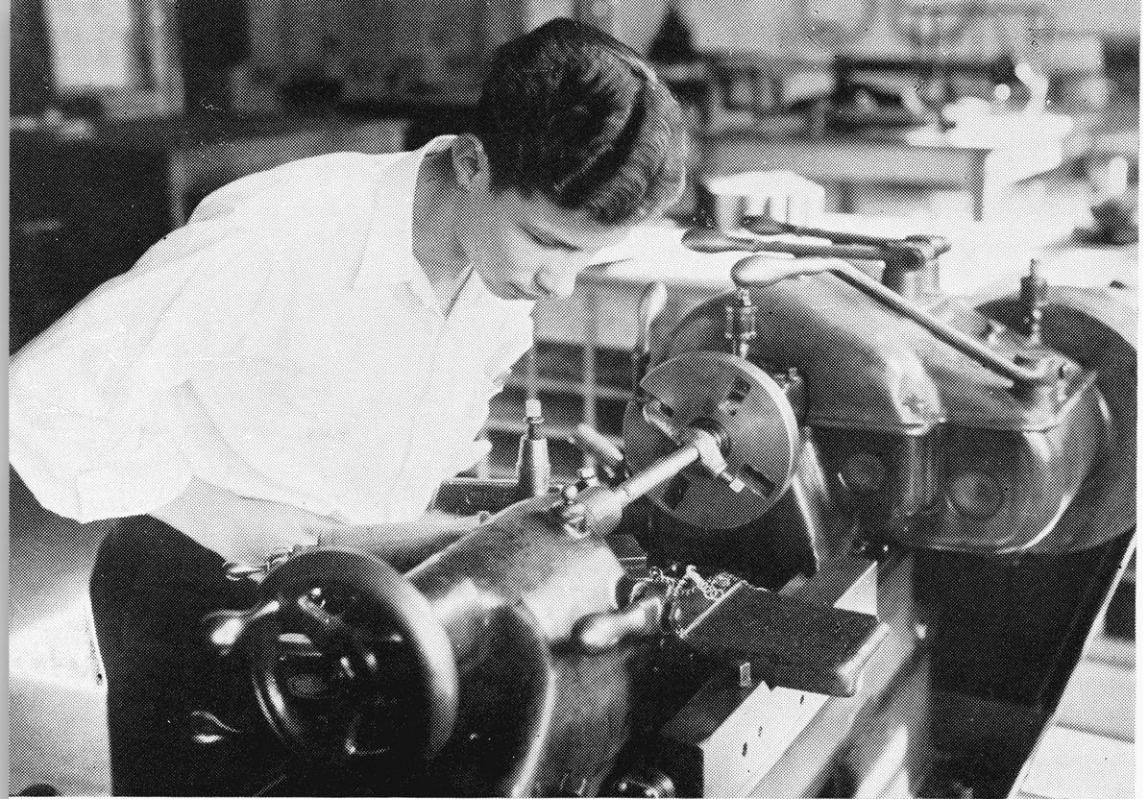
"Your High School curriculum for some years has been characterized by flexibility. There have been an Ancient Classical, a Modern Classical, and a Scientific course of study, to fit students upon graduation to enter the corresponding courses in the State University. . . . You have also arranged an English Course for the benefit of those who can graduate from your high school but cannot enter college. A Review Course has been adopted in addition to these for those who expect soon to teach in rural districts. The above distribution of studies has in the main given satisfaction to the patrons of the school; and your recent inauguration of a Commercial Course has intensified their feeling of approbation. Any one who is at all conversant with our public schools knows that they embrace the children of all classes and conditions of society. The limitations of life are such that the vast majority of these cannot hope for a liberal education; they must be content with the rudiments of knowledge, unless by self-culture they can supplement in later life the work done for them by the schools. Hence the necessity of not disregarding the claims of the many, while we are supplying the demands of the few. Hence the wisdom of so arranging our school work that it shall guide outward to active life as well as upward to scholasticism. . . . You have said that the moneys you expend upon your High School shall not be wholly devoted to a preparation for higher education. . . . You have determined that henceforth, bookkeeping, commercial law, commercial arithmetic and kindred subjects shall have a place in your curriculum."

Need of Other Courses

An awareness of the inadequacy of the traditional curriculum to meet the needs of all pupils was indicated in the superintendent's report of 1883. He felt that "purposeful work" was important in the development of boys and girls. Book learning was insufficient, particularly for city children who had few home duties. Over a period of 20 years the superintendent suggested manual training and domestic science as needs in the public schools.

"What can be done for the boys?" he questioned as early as 1883 after explaining that the best mothers kept their daughters employed in house-keeping even though the home had domestics.

"They may attend the chores about the house; but these are scattering and light. Our city has but few manufactories, and the system of apprenticeship is dead or fast dying. . . . Thus our boys have an education of the tongue; but that other great imple-



Fundamental—to social welfare and national defense

Tea for three



ment of expression, the hand, is ignored. . . . The workshop has not yet been successfully grafted into the schoolroom, and I doubt if it ever will be. . . .

"The technical school for manual training may do for a large city, where wealth abounds and patronage is large; but this plant is so expensive as to rank it among the luxuries; we can hardly expect it here in the near future."

Experiment in Manual Training

An experiment in manual training was carried on in the basement of the high school during the school year ending in 1891 with prospects of being very successful, but it had to be abandoned when the instructor received the offer of a more lucrative position elsewhere. The superintendent reported on the project:

"In our schools we are not expected to completely prepare our students for any trade or profession, but we are expected to give them the essentials of a good practical education; to fit them for intelligent citizenship; to make them capable of earning an honest livelihood; to interest them in further study. Our free educational system with its extended opportunities should not lead anyone to think that it is not as manly and respectable to earn an honest living by manual labor, as by a profession. There are those in all schools to whom an advanced course of study will not be profitable. There are avenues open where manual labor directed by intelligence and judgment will lead to independence and usefulness. We do not believe it is a kindness to encourage anyone to enter upon a professional career for which he is not adapted, and in which he would be likely to meet only with disappointment. Any kind of training that will lead our pupils to feel that idleness is disgraceful, and that honest labor anywhere is respectable and honorable, is deserving of consideration."

At the end of the next school year in 1892 the citizens' visiting committee

" . . . earnestly urged a movement in the direction of industrial education in the near future. Manual training is now recognized as a necessary part of every complete school. Our city is amply able to provide abundantly for the needs of her children. . . . While so much is being done for the improvement of our streets and for the purpose of beautifying our city, an equally generous policy should be maintained with respect to public education."

After 20 years of agitation, in 1904, manual arts was added to the course of study when a private citizen, T. E. Brittingham, furnished benches and woodworking tools for a room in the old Washington school. A year later, in 1905, through the efforts of the educational committee of the Woman's Club, "domestic economy" was added to the curriculum.

In the school year 1895-96 it was reported that the introduction of the kindergarten into some schools was felt to have had a widespread effect upon the emphases given by teachers in those buildings. It was felt that all teachers in the schools where the kindergarten had been installed were helped in giving less attention to technicalities and arbitrary rules and more to moral and intellectual improvement. These teachers also seemed to take a deeper interest in the individual child and to employ gentler and more wholesome methods.



Art in metal

Extension of the Curriculum

In the years following the curriculum was extended in various ways. A supervisor of drawing was added in 1893. A teacher of music was employed from 1885 to 1892 and a director of music was placed on the staff in 1895.

A supervisor of physical culture was engaged from 1893 to 1897; then again in 1909 a physical education director was employed. A playground director was added in 1907, and a department of recreation was established in 1926.

All these so-called special departments have expanded greatly during the past 50 years in their efforts to meet the needs in interest and ability of an ever-growing group of students.

Likewise the traditional subjects have broadened and deepened their content and offering during this same period in an effort to correct the weaknesses of the old curriculum as expressed by the superintendent of schools of Madison in 1910:

“The bane of the schools of the past was their formalism, the form without content. School life and real life had little in common, and all school experiences were artificial and unnatural. The aim of the modern school is to lessen the gap between school and life and to make the school not a preparation for life, but the entering into life itself. . . .

“The closely graded conventional school (of the past) was organized and maintained on the assumption that all minds should develop in the same way and that culture, refinement, and power should result from the pursuance of the traditional courses. When viewed from the standpoint of theoretical organization, these schools approached perfection, but when viewed from the standpoint of results in the way of human efficiency, they were disappointing. . . .

“The strength of the modern school must lie in the provisions made to meet the needs of individual pupils and in the opening of the door of opportunity to all alike.”

Plan of Flexible Grouping Used Today

In line with the problem which has permeated the whole historic survey, the schools are attempting at the present time to provide a means of starting the school life with a flexible grouping. Thus pupils while remaining throughout the year with one teacher may do their reading with other children who are needing about the same type of work at about the same stage of advancement. While each teacher has a period for individual help scheduled on her program daily, the plan is that this may be used for any child who needs it because of absences or even because he is doing exceedingly well and may be able to make great strides forward if given a little help temporarily.

Flexibility is an essential part of this plan because it is found that pupils lag in the beginning stages of reading for many other reasons than lack of ability. Some children are at first held back by physical defects. Diseases of childhood causing prolonged absences are frequent factors. Some children do not get off to a good start because of their work habits or attitudes.

It is important that during this period of initial adjustment the child be given the opportunity to work along at a reasonable rate, avoiding strain, worry, and frustration. This plan is not without its drawbacks any more than have been any of those recorded in the past, but it has seemed to have many advantages.

Attempt to Meet the Needs of the Slow Learner

There have been many claims in educational literature that a certain mental age should have been attained by every child before the school attempts to teach him to read. We have been slow to adopt an arbitrary mental-age basis for admission to the reading classes because of evidence which shows not only that there are many other causes of early reading difficulties but also that a small proportion of the pupils who apparently start with low mental ages achieve amazing success.

If children are slow to learn, there is reason to believe that rather than to put off the beginning stages of reading we ought to be getting about the task since the road will be long and arduous for most of them. Our plan is not to delay the start but to provide for a slow rate of progress along the way. By means of this plan teachers may be free to spend time clearing up misunderstandings and achieving repetition in a variety of ways and doing what seems to be best and most profitable without the strain of covering a traditional number of pages or books.

Pupils who find the task of beginning reading very easy and soon sail into advanced stages of work are provided for. Even the average child, who was supposed to have been sometimes forgotten in the zeal of the schools to meet the needs of the atypical, finds his own place in the sun.

In the intermediate grades there must also be provision for children of widely differing abilities not only in reading but also in writing, spelling, arithmetic, speaking, and thinking.

We have long since given up hope of achieving that old ideal, homogeneity, where each child is equal in ability to every other child. Whenever the extreme pupils are removed from the group, someone else immediately becomes the extreme and does not seem to belong there.

We have as yet found no way to do away with the problem of the slow learner, but we have tried to substitute for a standard of minimum essentials, which could never be so adjusted as to be reasonable for all, a standard of growth and development which will encourage each pupil to make the most of himself and thus become the best citizen of which he is capable.

The course of study for any grade level must therefore be extremely flexible so that the teacher may be free to work with the children at whatever level she finds them. Regardless of the plan or machinery that is set up, in the final analysis, this is all that can be done.

Attempt to Meet the Needs of the Bright Child

We do not teach a textbook course of study but use many books of many different levels of difficulty and many different viewpoints. There is no reason for the brilliant child to be shoved ahead into classes where the children are older and have a different social and emotional outlook from his own and where he is likely to become a social misfit. There is no limit to the extent to which the topics being studied may be investigated except the inquiring quality of mind of the learner.

The work of superior children is characterized by deeper appreciation of literature, by the capacity to see relationships and arrive at conclusions in science, by interest in causes and in effects in history far beyond the achievement of the normal child, who may be content with covering the assignment in a routine way or in learning mere facts. The contributions of children with unusual ability enrich every class in which opportunity for the exercise of their talents is provided.

There is no reason why the superior child needs to be smug, self-satisfied, or bored. If he comes to school with an open mind and the keen interest which is his natural attribute, he is stimulated to carry his study and research far beyond the traditional work of the grade. For most children of this sort the teacher's problem is to see that they do not overwork. Care must be taken to see that they have a sufficient variety of social experiences and that they give due consideration to their physical needs as well as to their mental hunger.

Increasing Problems at Upper Levels

As we reach the upper levels of the school our problems become more difficult. Good education increases the natural differences in people and rightly so. Thus we must create for ourselves an increasing problem as the years go on. The junior high school came into being partly because of this fact. Within this school there is possible more flexibility in the handling of children of differing capacities, needs, and interests.

Because the problems of adjustment are more difficult at the upper levels, because they are the result, in a measure, of the great influx of pupils into the high schools in recent years, because they tie up so closely with our involved and constantly changing social and economic structure, they are far from solved. The high schools of the country and Madison are greatly concerned as to what they should do for the youth of the country and how they may best do it.



Marquette school

Part II—Chapter VII

THE PHYSICAL PLANT

- The opening of the second semester in the Madison public schools this year was a historic date. On February 5, 1940, approximately 1,700 elementary school children moved from nine outmoded buildings into three new modern schools—the Lapham, Marquette, and Washington schools.¹

Transfer of this large number of children from the old buildings to the new schools without a break in the school routine was an outstanding feat that took careful planning. Due to the efforts of principals, teachers, janitors, parents, and everyone else concerned, the big shift was made with a minimum of commotion.

School authorities drew new district boundary lines after making a survey of preference of parents. They also cooperated with the police department in outlining new safety routes to the schools.

Teachers acquainted their charges with the routes and the layouts of the new schools by means of tours during the last week of the first semester. First, they took the children to their new classrooms and assigned desks and lockers. Then they conducted them to the art, science, and music rooms, library, auditorium, and gymnasium.

Moving Into the New Buildings

During the week-end between semesters nine moving vans and a crew of men under the direction of the supervisor of buildings and grounds transferred the equipment. The exodus began on Friday afternoon and was completed Saturday.

On the morning school opened policemen, school guards, boy patrols, and many parents assisted the children on the new routes. Thus on the first day of school in the new buildings, classes operated on normal schedules.

Although careful planning for the transfer and the efficient work of those concerned cannot be minimized, the successful moving into the new buildings and the immediate adjustment of the children were partially due to the efficient and practical arrangement of interiors.

Hours of labor on the part of architects, board members, school administrators, teachers, school nurses, and librarians went into the planning of these truly functional school buildings.

With the completion of the new buildings and the moving of the children into them, a plan established more than a decade ago by the board of education came to fruition. This plan was the equalizing of school plant facilities in all sections of the city including the supplanting of old and obsolete buildings with modern schools.

¹Buildings abandoned for school purposes: Brayton, old Lapham, Harvey, Hawthorne, old Marquette, Doty, Draper, old Washington, and Longfellow orthopedic.



Labham school

Activities of parents, cooperation of city officials, approval of the voters, and aid of the federal government all contributed to the realization of this plan.

Educational Policy of the Board

The carrying out of the plan was essential to the success of the educational policy of the board which is "to provide every phase of educational service needed to bring about the best development of the children and youth of Madison." In general, this includes healthful environment, adequate instruction, and provision for each child as an individual.

Healthful environment includes "clean, well-lighted, properly heated and ventilated, fireproof buildings with adequate room and facilities for physical development and outdoor grounds of sufficient size, properly graded and surfaced, for play and outdoor exercise."

The full import of the statement that approximately 1,700 children have been moved to new and modern schools can only be realized by people who are familiar with the old, obsolete buildings. The only redeeming quality of the old buildings was that they were clean. Here comparison with the new schools ceases and contrasts begin.

The old buildings, particularly Brayton, Draper, Washington, Lapham, and Marquette, were unattractive and even forbidding as to exterior. Interiors were dark and dingy, poorly lighted and ventilated, hazardous as to health and safety, wasteful of space, and grossly inadequate as to modern educational facilities.

A serious fault of all the old buildings was the lack of facilities for modern education. There were no gymnasiums for healthful exercise and play, no elbow room for drawing and coloring except on the floor, no space for storing scientific collections or making a real study of growing things, no room in which to sing without disturbing another class, and no place for large groups to get together.

Superior Qualities of the New Schools

Outstanding features of the new buildings are provisions for every phase of school life, efficiency of arrangement, economy of space, and attractiveness through the use of modern building materials. Besides being decorative these materials are practical, easily cleaned, and fire-resistant.

The new schools are adequately lighted by broad, high windows and semi-indirect artificial lights. Heating and ventilating are automatically controlled.

Facilities vitally necessary to the modern educational program include the physical education and recreation unit, the art, science, and music rooms, the library, the auditorium, and the carefully planned classrooms.

Of all the features in the new buildings which were lacking in the outmoded ones, the pupils take most delight in their new gyms. Here they

find relief for their pent-up energy and partake of healthful exercise for growing boys and girls.

Although the teachers carried out the school physical education program as best they could in the cramped quarters of the old buildings, their efforts are much more successful in the new quarters.

Besides offering better facilities for physical education and intramural sports for public school children, the new centers are used by parochial school children. They will also be used in the summer playground program.

Not only did school authorities think of the children in planning the physical education units in the new schools but also of the adult population of the community. Besides two regulation gymnasiums with adjoining shower and locker rooms, the physical education unit in each new school has a social center on the ground floor with recreation rooms and also a kitchen.

Other Improvements in the Physical Plant

Three new additions were used for the first time during the school year 1939-1940. They were the manual arts addition at East high school, the Longfellow school addition, and the Dudgeon school second story.

Although all rooms on the second floor of the Dudgeon school were not completed, increasing school population will make necessary the finishing of another room for the next school year.

Improvement of Grounds

An important acquisition during the past school year was Reynolds field for Central high school, which had been deprived of a field for athletics and outdoor gymnasium by the use of Burrows field and Barry park for the new school sites. The new athletic field has been leveled off, fenced, and seeded.

Grounds of the three new schools have been beautifully landscaped and the playgrounds leveled and surfaced. A retaining wall and very high fence have been built at the back of the Washington school playground and the remaining sides fenced.

The portion of Rogers street which formerly crossed the Marquette grounds has been closed making that strip of land part of the permanent playground. For the protection of the children the Lapham and Lowell school grounds have also been fenced.

The old Longfellow white building which formerly housed the crippled children has been razed to give more play space to the children of Longfellow school. Other improvements in grounds have been made at Lowell and West high schools.



The process—East high school students at work

The product—Lapham school mural





Washington school

Chapter VIII

FOR THE RECORD

City Civil Service Rules Adopted

- A city civil service system was created by the common council in August, 1937. This includes all board of education employees, including part-time employees, except members of the teaching staff.

New rules and regulations were approved by the city council in October, 1939. Under the new regulations, changes occurred for both the clerical and custodial staffs of the schools.

Cumulative sick leave privileges have been reduced from 90 to 30 days. Time for emergency leave has also been reduced. Vacations for all workers after three years of service will be two weeks. Uniformity among all city departments is the objective.

WPA Book-Mending Project

At the second meeting in February the board of education voted to take advantage of the WPA book-mending project in the old Draper school.

Since the schools own more than 100,000 books and since many of these are used as regular texts in the classrooms, it is necessary to repair and to clean hundreds of books every year.

By taking advantage of this project the board pays only the cost of materials. The books are cleaned, bindings are repaired, new covers are put on, and titles are engraved on the covers. These copies are then ready for several more years of hard usage. In fact, rebound books will usually last longer than new books.

Teachers remark on the interest shown by the children for the renovated books with their bright covers and clean pages.

Extension of the Health Program

In order to be consistent in the health program in the schools, the board of education at the meeting in mid-April in 1940, extended the policy regarding physical examinations to include all substitute teachers.

All teachers on the substitute list at that time were requested to take the health examination and all new substitutes will be required to present certificates of health examination.

The policy also includes all temporary, part-time, or other employees such as WPA or NYA workers who come into contact with pupils or teachers or with materials or equipment used by them. Such workers must obtain certificates from the board of health stating that their physical health

is such as will not imperil directly or indirectly the health and welfare of the children.

The Public Relations Program of the MEA

School public relations activities in Madison during the past year were directed by a joint committee appointed by the president of the Madison Education Association and the superintendent of schools.

Many other members of the association served on sub-committees working on the various activities. Projects during the year 1939-40 included radio programs, motion pictures, the speakers' bureau, and a newspaper issued in cooperation with the Vocational school.

Radio programs included a series of eight forums participated in by staff members, parents, and board of education members; and musical programs by student groups under the direction of the music staff.

Activities in the motion picture field consisted of reviewing and editing of films taken in the Madison schools and of studying films from other school systems. Plans were made to set up objectives and write scripts for new movies of Madison school children.

Before the end of the school year the speakers' bureau was set up and functioning. Experienced speakers formed the nucleus of the bureau. Topics had been chosen by means of a questionnaire. Numerous staff members served on committees to make outlines of talks in the various fields.

The interest, enthusiasm, and effectiveness with which the Madison teachers have responded to the program have been not only exceedingly gratifying but also indicative of their awareness of the problem of public relations and of their ability to cope with it if given the opportunity.

Acceptance of the Gift of a Planetarium

The board of education accepted with appreciation the gift of a planetarium for the schools from F. D. Winkley in December, 1939. Mr. Winkley made the planetarium with its intricate gear mechanism and perfect mathematical duplication.

Following is the description of the planetarium written by R. L. Liebenberg, chairman of the staff science committee of the schools:

"The planetarium is a delightful combination of engineering ingenuity and mechanical perfection. At its center is an electric light representing the sun. A small ball representing the planet Mercury is mounted on a disc which is tilted at the proper angle to represent the plane of this planet's orbit. Venus is on a larger disc tilted at the proper angle for its orbit. The Earth is the next disc. The moon is shown in a similar way with its orbit having the Earth's axis at its center though the disc representing the orbit of the moon is tilted at the proper angle to the plane of the Earth's orbit.

"The entire exposed portions of the planetarium are made of polished chromium (stainless) steel. It is in the neighborhood of three feet in diameter and is mounted on a sturdy, well-finished, solid oak table which was especially constructed for it. The planetarium is driven by turning a crank which drives the mechanism. The various planetary movements have been calculated to have the proper motions with respect to one another."

Establishment of the School Music Policy

In October, 1939, the board of education adopted a policy, which was formulated by the music staff and high school principals, regarding the participation of school musical organizations in non-school affairs. The general statement follows:

"The schools are glad to cooperate with responsible groups of citizens of Madison in worthy civic projects. Such participation, however, must always take into consideration the major purposes of the school as well as the health, safety, and welfare of the participating pupils."

Factors to be taken into consideration include the wishes of the pupils themselves, parents, and staff members, conditions under which the performance is to be conducted such as time and place, advance requests, etc.

The principal of the school involved, who is held responsible by the board for the welfare of the pupils, is to be the final judge of the conditions and to make the decision as to whether a musical organization of a school shall participate in a particular civic enterprise.

An introduction to instrumental music



Chapter IX

Statistics and Financial Statement

Comparative Total Enrollment Figures for June

SCHOOLS	1930		1935		1939		1940	
	K-6	7-8-9	K-6	7-8	K-6	7-8	K-6	7-8
Brayton -----	181	49	90	---	55	---	---	---
Doty -----	125	---	186	---	164	---	---	---
Draper -----	231	74	215	---	173	---	---	---
Dudgeon -----	282	---	257	---	246	---	272	---
Emerson -----	764	308	795	---	773	---	752	---
Franklin -----	315	58	340	87	312	107	316	84
Harvey -----	179	82	223	---	225	---	---	---
Hawthorne -----	313	---	332	---	293	---	---	---
Lapham -----	247	---	263	---	229	---	429	---
Lincoln -----	256	143	317	117	348	62	217	58
Longfellow -----	613	205	607	---	517	---	505	---
Lowell -----	713	151	744	---	707	---	694	---
Marquette -----	389	---	345	---	317	---	764	---
Nakoma -----	---	---	191	49	264	64	295	64
Randall -----	687	279	839	---	748	---	721	---
Washington -----	236	103	216	---	208	---	506	---
TOTAL ELEMENTARY	5,531	(1,452)*	5,960	(253)*	5,579	(233)*	5,471	(206)*
Opportunity -----	85		120		111		109	
Crippled -----	20		45		68		67	
Deaf -----	26		25		31		33†	
Sight-Saving -----	---		---		14		18‡	
TOTAL HANDICAPPED	131		190		224		227	
Central Junior-----	---		500		546		551	
Central Senior-----	1,761		812		672		683	
East Junior-----	---		1,046		1,052		1,097	
East Senior-----	1,193		1,151		1,320		1,299	
West Junior-----	---		677		753		778	
West Senior-----	---		917		994		1,057	
Junior high school pupils in elemen- tary schools*-----	1,452		253		233		206	
TOTAL HIGH SCHOOL	4,406		5,356		5,570		5,671	
GRAND TOTAL**	10,068		11,506		11,373		11,369	

*Junior high school pupils, grades 7-8-9, enrolled in elementary schools.

**Does not include part-time parochial or orthopedic hospital pupils.

†Three also enrolled in high school; one in Vocational.

‡Two also enrolled in high school.

Graduates from Madison High Schools

Year	Central	East	West	Total
1930-----	334	182	---	516
1935-----	228	293	256	777
1939-----	184	361	267	812
1940-----	197	410	332	939

Enrollment for All Schools

Public		11,369*
Junior-senior high school	5,671	
Elementary school	5,471	
Handicapped	227	
Includes non-resident pupils	1,109	
Junior-senior high	798	
Elementary	311	
Vocational (June actual enrollment)		114
Full time	71	
Part time	43	
Parochial (October enrollment)		2,795
High school	353	
Elementary	2,442	
Wisconsin high		308*
Lakewood (Madison children attending this school)		63
Total		14,649

*June, 1940, total enrollment.

Comparison of Census Totals by School Districts

SCHOOL DISTRICTS	1930	1935	1939	1940
Brayton	492	—	346	—
Doty	656	828	598	—
Draper	855	864	730	—
Dudgeon	683	632	657	664
Emerson	1,660	1,727	1,732	1,699
Franklin	658	734	774	783
Harvey	416	490	543	—
Hawthorne	818	941	877	—
Lapham	638	685	608	1,563
Lincoln	815	1,013	882	303
Longfellow	1,833	1,957	1,791	1,833
Lowell	1,583	1,740	1,650	1,618
Marquette	653	704	754	2,094
Nakoma	—	254	463	548
Randall	1,939	2,269	2,223	2,154
Washington	772	866	736	1,932
Joint District No. 8	264	328	364	374
TOTALS	14,735	16,032	15,728	15,565

Census Totals by Age Groups

	1939	1940
Birth to 3 inclusive	3,563	3,603
Age 4 to 19 inclusive	15,728	15,565
Age 21	714	—

Significant Changes in Ten Years

ENROLLMENT

	1930	1940	Increase
Junior-senior high school -----	4,406	5,671	+ 1,265
Elementary -----	5,662	5,698	+ 36
Total -----	10,068	11,369*	+ 1,301

QUALITY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN USE

	1930	1940
Excellent -----	2	5
Good -----	5	6
Fair -----	3	0
Condemned by Industrial Commission -----	8	0
Total -----	18	11

SAFETY OF ELEMENTARY BUILDINGS

	1930	1940
Fire-resistant -----	2	5
Semi-fire-resistant -----	5	6
Hazardous -----	11	0
Total -----	18	11

BARRACKS

	1930	1940
Portable wooden barracks in use -----	14	0

HIGH SCHOOL CAPACITY

- 1930 Central high school overcrowded with 1,761 pupils
- 1930 East high school crowded with 1,193 pupils
- 1930 West high school built, enrolling 1,319 pupils, relieving Central high school
- 1932 Addition made to East high school more than doubling capacity
- 1940 Central high school enrolled 1,234 pupils comfortably
- 1940 East high school enrolled 2,396 pupils without crowding
- 1940 West high school enrolled 1,835 pupils, a desirable maximum

VALUATION

- 1930 Value of school buildings without depreciation approximately \$5,000,000
- 1940 Value of school buildings without depreciation approximately \$7,000,000

*Does not include 615 parochial pupils who take home economics or manual arts in the public school or 286 pupils at the state orthopedic hospital.

Community Use of School Buildings

Following is a list showing the groups which used the buildings and the number of times the schools were used, but with no reference to the number of rooms used or the number of hours used in each case:

Educational and Recreational Groups:

Recreation Department	911
Parochial School Recreation	256
Parent-Teacher Associations	139
Pre-School and Kindergarten Mothers' Clubs	31
Vocational School	105
General School Programs	72
Music Department	24
Physical Education Department	26
Guidance Department (Mental Hygiene Lectures)	14
Wisconsin Education Association	1
Wisconsin Interscholastic Athletic Association	5
Board of Health Round-up Clinics	7
Other School Districts	8
Boy Scouts	87
Cub Scouts	40
Girl Scouts	5
Junior Optimists Club	58
Southern Wisconsin Education Association	2

Civic Groups:

Attic Angels	81
City (Civil Service Examinations)	1
Dane County Citizenship Day (Ward Groups)	43
Dane County Credit Association	1
East Side Woman's Club	1
Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation	2
ICOR	5
Labor Local No. 83	2
Lutheran Brotherhood Chorus Concert	2
Madison Opera Guild	2
Nakoma Homes	1
South Side Band	30
"What America Should Do About War" Group	1
Women's Relief Corps Drill Team	8
WPA	1
Miscellaneous Groups	11
Special Classes (not summer school)	122
 Total	 2,105

Balance Sheet as of June 30, 1940

ASSETS

Particulars	
FIXED ASSETS	
Land and Land Improvements	\$ 886,530.55
Buildings and Attached Structures	4,305,933.72
Machinery and Equipment	725,968.93
New Buildings and Equipment—PWA	1,548,191.08
SUNDRY ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE	
Accounts Receivable—General	10,546.27
Accounts Receivable—Construction—PWA	92,604.94
Tuitions Receivable	67,533.16
CURRENT ASSETS	
Cash in Bank	5,352.19
Cash in Bank—Construction Funds—PWA	2,712.27
Board of Education—Advances to be Refunded	30.20
Board of Education—Petty Cash Fund	25.00
INVENTORIES	
Stock Room	6,614.44
Fuel	1,953.41
TRUST FUNDS	
Samuel Shaw Prize Fund	924.38
C. R. Stein Scholarship Fund	2,444.88
William McPyncheon Trust Fund	10,290.55
TOTAL	\$7,667,655.97

LIABILITIES

Particulars	
FIXED LIABILITIES	
Bonded Indebtedness	\$2,314,750.00
State Trust Fund Loans	11,740.00
OTHER LIABILITIES	
Award of Industrial Commission to Lloyd Benson	2,410.35
RESERVES—PETTY CASH	
Music Department—Reserve	522.29
Recreational Department—Reserve	1,193.15
TRUST FUND RESERVES	
Samuel Shaw Prize Fund	924.38
C. R. Stein Scholarship Fund	2,444.88
William McPyncheon Trust Fund	10,290.55
Theodore Herfurth Scholarships Account	150.00
CRIPPLED CHILDREN FUND	
Longfellow School	1,000.00
TUITIONS PAYABLE	
Tuitions Payable to Lakewood School District	3,702.15
ACCOUNTS PAYABLE	
Accounts Payable—Construction—PWA	92,604.94
KEYLESS LOCK FUND	
Keyless Lock Fund—Elementary Schools	179.00
PROPRIETARY INTEREST	
Fixed Surplus	5,047,831.26
Current Surplus	177,913.02
TOTAL	\$7,667,655.97

Revenues—July 1, 1939 Through June 30, 1940

REVENUE RECEIPTS AND ACCRUALS

Particulars

STATE FUND APPORTIONMENT

In City of Madison	\$ 73,587.00
In Joint School District No. 8	108.90

TAXES LEVIED BY COUNTY SUPERVISORS

In City of Madison	67,250.00
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CITY SCHOOL TAXES

In City of Madison	966,492.22
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STATE AIDS

For Deaf School	8,496.84
For Special Schools	3,293.57
For Speech Correction	994.99
For Crippled Children—Washington School	20,031.04
For Crippled Children—Orthopedic Hospital	7,221.32
For Crippled Children—Other Schools	171.34
For High Schools	27,043.94
For Sight-Saving	2,022.47

TUITIONS

Central Senior High School	887.29
Central Junior High School	379.49
East Senior High School	12,137.10
East Junior High School	4,934.56
West Senior High School	7,612.41
West Junior High School	5,975.74
Elementary Schools	10,948.84
Deaf School—Lapham	391.60
Crippled Children	645.00
Sight-Saving	102.00
Exceptional Children	77.60

RENTALS

C. H. S. Auditorium and Gymnasium	106.53
E. H. S. Auditorium and Gymnasium	9.04
W. H. S. Auditorium and Gymnasium	76.39
Elementary Gymnasiums	52.74

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS RECEIPTS

Board of Education	* 724.39
Vocational School	1,920.15

Total Revenue Receipts and Accruals \$1,222,245.72

NON-REVENUE RECEIPTS AND ACCRUALS

SALE OF MATERIAL

Home Economics Department—E. H. S.	1.41
Home Economics Department—Elementary Schools	5.25
Manual Arts Department—C. H. S.	393.78
Manual Arts Department—E. H. S.	759.67
Manual Arts Department—W. H. S.	482.22
Manual Arts Department—Elementary Schools	156.19
Special Schools	36.39
Open Air and Nutrition Department—Emerson	81.79
Open Air and Nutrition Department—Lowell	140.89
Open Air and Nutrition Department—Washington	180.34

FEES

Driver Training Course—Dual Control Car	45.74
Total Non-Revenue Receipts and Accruals	2,283.67
Grand Total	\$1,224,529.39

*Indicates amount in arrear.

Total Operation, Maintenance, and Capital—

July 1, 1939 Through June 30, 1940.

SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES

	Operation	Maintenance	Capital	Total
Office of Superintendent -----	10,482.00	-----	-----	10,482.00
Administration Building -----	33,588.74	191.68	437.63	34,218.05
Administration Bldg. Annex -----	503.35	-----	-----	503.35
Central Senior High School -----	103,350.89	3,143.37	1,659.10	108,153.36
Central Junior High School -----	56,777.12	509.70	5.33	57,292.15
East Senior High School -----	162,929.40	3,684.27	2,761.72	169,375.39
East Junior High School -----	84,787.54	48.23	82.13	84,917.90
West Senior High School -----	121,823.08	2,769.23	1,315.71	125,908.02
West Junior High School -----	71,176.10	327.02	17.34	71,520.46
Brayton School -----	3,007.05	13.82	22.23	3,043.10
Doty School -----	9,458.75	130.47	22.25	9,611.47
Draper School -----	8,768.87	40.76	18.77	8,828.40
Dudgeon School -----	22,895.31	712.50	595.11	24,202.92
Emerson School -----	61,585.12	1,018.83	578.05	63,182.00
Franklin School -----	40,807.16	657.95	41.06	41,506.17
Harvey School -----	11,802.94	34.82	-----	11,837.76
Hawthorne School -----	12,075.34	138.06	37.50	12,250.90
*Lapham School (Old) -----	9,699.66	27.89	25.15	9,752.70
**Lapham School (New) -----	18,241.01	182.77	171.21	18,594.99
Lincoln School -----	31,317.38	362.90	9.75	31,690.03
Longfellow School -----	53,600.43	953.24	415.17	54,968.84
Lowell School -----	54,309.79	937.06	76.40	55,323.25
*Marquette School (Old) -----	15,061.17	19.50	-----	15,080.67
**Marquette School (New) -----	29,356.72	226.76	489.91	30,073.39
Nakoma School -----	32,341.85	361.49	588.50	33,291.84
Randall School -----	62,804.72	944.67	82.61	63,832.00
*Washington School (Old) -----	11,981.50	112.81	32.73	12,127.04
**Washington School (New) -----	23,301.30	250.72	226.61	23,778.63
Recreational Department -----	26,811.38	-----	-----	26,811.38
Undistributed -----	120,702.08	75.74	257.64	121,035.46
TOTALS -----	\$1,305,347.75	\$17,876.26	\$9,969.61	\$1,333,193.62

*Expense from July 1, 1939 to Feb. 3, 1940

**Expense from Feb. 4, 1940 to July 1, 1940.

