

*The New Jersey
High School: A History*

THE NEW JERSEY HISTORICAL SERIES

Edited by

RICHARD M. HUBER

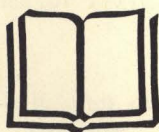
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Volume 8
The New Jersey Historical Series

*The New Jersey
High School: A History*



ROBERT D. BOLE
LAURENCE B. JOHNSON

1964

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FOREWORD

Many tracks will be left by the New Jersey Tercenary celebration, but few will be larger than those made by the New Jersey Historical Series. The Series is a monumental publishing project—the product of a remarkable collaborative effort between public and private enterprise.

New Jersey has needed a series of books about itself. The 300th anniversary of the State is a fitting time to publish such a series. It is to the credit of the State's Tercenary Commission that this series has been created.

In an enterprise of such scope, there must be many contributors. Each of these must give considerably of himself if the enterprise is to succeed. The New Jersey Historical Series, the most ambitious publishing venture ever undertaken about a state, was conceived by a committee of Jerseymen—Julian P. Boyd, Wesley Frank Craven, John T. Cunningham, David S. Davies, and Richard P. McCormick. Not only did these men outline the need for such an historic venture; they also aided in the selection of the editors of the series.

Both jobs were well done. The volumes speak for themselves. The devoted and scholarly services of Richard M. Huber and Wheaton J. Lane, the editors, are a part of every book in the series. The editors have been aided in their work by two fine assistants, Elizabeth Jackson Holland and Bertha DeGraw Miller.

To D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. my special thanks for recognizing New Jersey's need and for bringing their skills and publishing wisdom to bear upon the printing and distributing of the New Jersey Historical Series.

My final and most heartfelt thanks must go to Robert D. Bole and Laurence B. Johnson, who accepted my invitation to write *The New Jersey High School: A History*, doing so at great personal sacrifice and without thought of material gain. We are richer by their scholarship. We welcome this important contribution to an understanding of our State.

January, 1964

RICHARD J. HUGHES
*Governor of the
State of New Jersey*

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INTRODUCTION

Dr. James B. Conant says that "a high school accommodating all the youth of a community is typical of American public education." He expects such a high school to "provide a good general education for all the pupils as future citizens of a democracy, provide elective programs for the majority to develop useful skills, and educate adequately those with a talent for handling advanced academic subjects—particularly foreign languages and advanced mathematics."

Before he drew that conclusion Dr. Conant had looked carefully at six New Jersey high schools. Let us see what happens to a New Jersey boy who, in the 1960's, by chance of family residence and economic status, attends one of those six.

His name is Richard W. Olson, and he lives at 133 Essex Avenue, in Bloomfield. Richard's mother was graduated from Bloomfield Senior High School, which Richard now attends; his father, a designer at Walter Kidde & Company, reached that position by way of evening classes after a public school education in nearby Arlington.

Bloomfield schools have observed Richard carefully since the day he entered them. In first grade he took a reading-readiness test, and at appropriate intervals since, he has taken tests of his mental abilities, skills, and interests and aptitudes. These tests supplemented and substantiated what his classroom teachers were able to learn of him. As a result of such judgments he was enrolled in a French class in his first year in junior high school, and

many of his classes have been made up of students of roughly his ability so that they can progress at a faster-than-average rate.

Before Richard came to junior high school, he was told of the many opportunities, as well as the increased responsibilities and freedom there. Of particular importance to Richard and his classmates was the daily schedule of eight periods, in contrast to their previous experience with one teacher in one classroom.

Richard's seventh grade program, in addition to French, included English, mathematics, social studies, science, art, music, physical education, health, and library science. In eighth grade he studied the same subjects, except for library science; in that grade he became reasonably proficient in typing, which his school regards as an essential communication skill.

On a school questionnaire to be completed for Richard, his parents were told, "working together we must help him choose and prepare for a vocation." Their answers showed that Richard's early interest in animal life had been encouraged; he had even corresponded with the director of the Lincoln Park Zoo in Chicago on the training and preparation needed for work in this area. With a liberal arts college as a general goal, Richard's ninth grade program included algebra, Latin, general science, mechanical drawing, music, along with the English, physical education and health all pupils must take. Out of some thirty "club" programs in junior high school, Richard took part in intramural football, basketball, softball, leathercraft, the model club, laboratory assistants club, a mixed chorus, and the Choraleers.

On his first day at Bloomfield Senior High School Richard was told that "the function of the high school is to provide a program varied enough to offer an opportunity for all-around development to every youth who chooses to submit himself to its influences." Richard and his classmates found the transition to senior high school was easier because of many similarities between its program and that of the junior high. In both they take part in democratic elections and active student councils. In

both student-oriented "rules," such as the Code for Appropriate Dress, help develop self-discipline. At both, all students must eat lunch in the school cafeteria, which not only provides balanced meals and supplementary foods for lunch-carriers, but provides students with an opportunity to select foods wisely. Both schools provide good health services, and parents are notified of anything unusual appearing on the periodic physical check-ups.

An individual curriculum card was started for Richard as he moved into the senior high school. His occupational goal of veterinarian was listed, and with the help of his counselor and the approval of his parents, he selected Latin II, geometry, technical biology, and drafting, in addition to the required English, physical education and health. Except for subjects required by law, Richard was free to follow the pattern of studies best suited to his needs, interests, and abilities. Drafting was his choice as an additional area of interest along with his academic subjects for college entrance.

Richard's five major-subject teachers for that year hold degrees from Hunter College, Columbia University, Jersey City State College, Arkadelphia College in Arkansas, Peabody Teachers College in Tennessee, Pennsylvania State College, Boston College, and Montclair State College. Their instructional techniques were as varied as their backgrounds suggest.

Bloomfield's science laboratories have recently been refurbished, and a language laboratory and a driver-trainer classroom are recent additions to the instructional equipment. The school makes extensive use of audio-visual aids.

Since Richard wants a strong academic record for college, his program of studies for his junior and senior years will be somewhat less flexible than that of some of his classmates. He plans to continue with language, science, and mathematics courses beyond the minimums set by many colleges. When class rankings are made, however, he knows that, in these difficult areas, grades will be weighted to compensate for their difficulty.

The preponderant amount of Richard's time is spent

in preparing for his classwork. Thoughtful study, earnest inquiry, the writing of themes and research papers, together with stimulating and demanding classroom sessions are the heart of Richard's secondary school experience.

His college-bound friends with less ability and drive are likely to elect more courses in the arts and social studies, and many classmates who intend to find jobs after graduation have programs which emphasize business education or shop courses. His high school offers two cooperative training programs, one in secretarial training and the other in distributive education. Since each student's program is "individualized," the combinations of subjects are as varied as the students themselves.

At the end of his sophomore year, Richard's permanent record shows that he has been president of the Biology Club, and a member of the Latin Club, the Junior Classical League, and the soccer team.

As he starts his junior year, Richard will continue to investigate vocational information to be sure he still wishes to be a veterinary, and he will take some tests to help him gauge his chance of being admitted to the college of his choice. He will have an opportunity to meet with college representatives who visit the school, and will be encouraged to visit nearby colleges to enlarge his ideas of what they have to offer him. In the senior year Richard will be helped to apply to several colleges, with good assurance that he will be accepted.

In terms of tuition rates established by Bloomfield, Richard's education will cost \$575 for 1962-1963. Out of a school budget of nearly four and a half million dollars, only about one-seventh will be covered by federal and state aid. The remainder must come from local taxes. Eighty-three cents of each dollar spent on Richard's education goes for personal services, salaries and wages; the next largest item, books and supplies, gets four cents out of the dollar.

This, then, is what happens to one New Jersey boy in one New Jersey high school in the 1960's. This book has

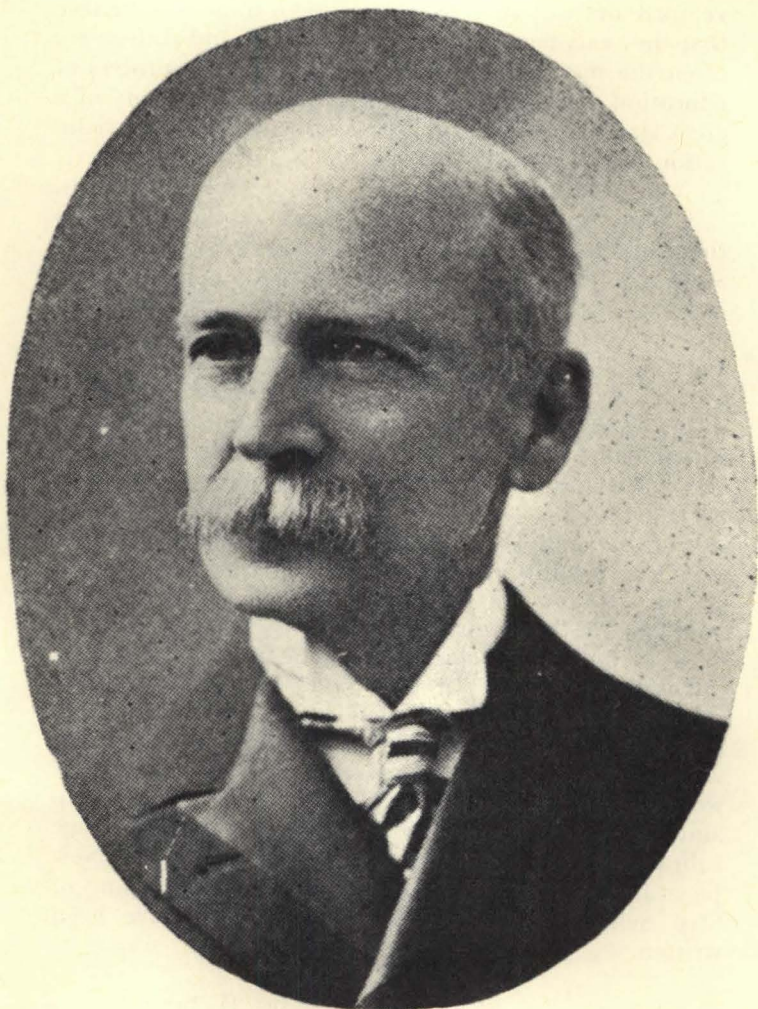
been written to show how this kind of education has developed and why it is the way it is. To those who believe that the years between elementary school and college are often the most important years of all in the process of education, it is a fascinating and illuminating story of a great state's persistent and growing concern for the education of all its youth.

The writers owe a tremendous debt of gratitude to their fellow schoolmen in New Jersey, who have patiently answered questions, provided information, and, in the cases of Dr. John H. Bosshart and Dr. Charles J. Strahan, read critically those sections dealing with the years in which they were most active. The entire manuscript has also been read, in the hope of avoiding gross error, by Dr. Nelson R. Burr; Dr. Frank B. Stover, Bloomfield Superintendent; Marvin R. Reed, Editor of the *NJEA Review*; Dr. William H. Warner, Director of Secondary Education, New Jersey State Department of Education; and Dr. Frederick M. Raubinger, Commissioner of Education. The material in this Introduction on the experience of a typical New Jersey high school youth in the 1960's was prepared largely by Richard C. Stout of the Bloomfield High School faculty.

Finally, the authors would like to express their appreciation to Dr. Thomas E. Robinson, President, and to their colleagues on the faculty of Glassboro State College, whose forbearance and consideration have made their work on this book possible. They received much help and many courtesies from the Glassboro State College Library and its invaluable Stewart Collection of New Jerseyana. Without the tolerant typing and retyping of Mrs. Sylvia Brown, this book would not have been written.

ROBERT D. BOLE
LAURENCE B. JOHNSON

Glassboro, New Jersey
November, 1963



Charles J. Baxter, State Superintendent of Schools, 1896-1910. Father of the New Jersey High School.

I

PREACHERS AND TEACHERS

(1658 - 1816)

PEOPLE INVADING A WILDERNESS think first of survival. New Jersey's early settlers, despite sound educational traditions, sought only scant minimums of education, the ability to read, to write, to cipher. Youth destined for more than this—there were not many such—would be sent “back home” to Holland, to Sweden, to England, or even to New England, where facilities for further education were already developing. It would take a couple of generations before the need for preachers and teachers became so acute that the land between the Hudson and the Delaware would develop its own ways of educating them.

The early Dutch settlements—Bergen, Hoboken, Communipaw—presumably had access to the Latin school established in New Amsterdam when the West India Company, soon after 1658, sent Dr. Alexander Carolus Curtius from Holland. Dr. Curtius was succeeded by the Reverend Aegidius Luyck of Peter Stuyvesant's staff, under whom the higher school flourished. There is little evidence, however, that the Dutch schools in New Jersey, such as the one in Bergen, offered anything beyond reading, writing, and instruction in the catechism. Yet the English, when they came with Philip Carteret as governor of Nova Caesaria, authorized the freeholders of Dutch Bergen to maintain a church and a school, and land was

granted "for the minister and the keeping of a free school for the education of youth as they shall think fit." The Dutch Reformed religion survived Holland's temporal power to be a major influence over New Jersey's education at all levels.

The men from Connecticut who settled Newark in 1664-1665 promptly began to manage their school affairs in the traditional New England way. The "town's men" were authorized to make agreements with a schoolmaster, and in 1676 John Catlin was appointed to do "his faithful honest and true endeavor to teach the children of those as have subscribed, the reading and writing of English, and also arithmetick, if they desire it; as much as they are capable to learn and he capable to teach them, within the compass of this year." In Woodbridge, in 1680, the town meeting voted to "entertain" a schoolmaster who should be "encouraged" by those who employed him; in 1691 John Boacker was offered £13 to teach for six months; "he shall be Ingaged to attend the school this winter-time until nine o'clock at night." But again there is little evidence that the instruction in these early schools went much beyond the primitive needs of a primitive society.

After the division of New Jersey into two provinces in 1676, the East Jersey government was slow in making any general provisions for schools. While its charters to individual communities authorized the reservation of school lands, it was not until 1693 that the East Jersey Assembly authorized towns to appoint three men to "make a rate" for the salary and maintenance of the schoolmaster. This must, however, have confirmed existing custom to some extent. The Bergen school was already being supported by a direct tax, which citizens remote from the schoolhouse protested unsuccessfully. In 1695 the East Jersey Assembly tried to meet protests like these by permitting the town's men to select the most convenient place where school should be kept "from time to time," so that it might benefit all the inhabitants.

In West Jersey, before 1700, the Quakers supported

education more in word than in deed. In 1667 George Fox in England advised boarding schools "that young men of genius, in low circumstances, may be furnished with means to procure requisite education," while William Penn urged schools for rich and poor, and believed in their support. In 1685 Thomas Budd drafted a proposal that Pennsylvania and New Jersey institute compulsory education for seven years, with industrial schools for boys and for girls in all towns and cities. The Friends in general, however, stressed moral and religious instruction, avoidance of worldly schools or books, and training for a trade. Philadelphia, to be sure, had several good schools, both elementary and beyond, but there is little evidence of permanent schools in such Quaker communities as Salem, Burlington, Chesterfield, and Haddonfield. Nevertheless, in 1682, the West Jersey Assembly gave Burlington the three hundred-acre Mantinicum Island in the Delaware River for the maintenance of a school.

There is nothing in this period of New Jersey's history, however, comparable to the 1647 "old deluder" law of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, which required communities of one hundred families to set up grammar schools for university preparation. It is significant that up to 1700 New Jersey was sparsely populated—a figure of fifteen thousand is usually given. William Morris claimed eight thousand people for East Jersey, citing only ten towns.

Well into the eighteenth century, then, it would appear that there were no schools that offered much beyond the rudiments of learning. The young man who desired more education had limited choices. If he came from a well-to-do family, he might, as did the Frelinghuysens in mid-century, return to Europe for his education. If he wished to attend Harvard, William and Mary, or Yale, which had already been established in other colonies, he could go to one of the few schools which had already come into being in New York, Philadelphia, and New England to prepare students for those institutions. He was more

likely, however, to study privately with a preacher-scholar, boarding at the parsonage if necessary, while he mastered the Latin and Greek which were the prerequisites of college entrance.

PRESBYTERIANS AND DUTCHMEN

Shortly before 1700 a number of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians emigrated to New Jersey. The persecutions of the Restoration period drove them to a colony where religious freedom was promised and practiced. They brought with them strong educational interests: they had long prided themselves upon the scholarly attainments of their ministers. These Calvinists were sufficiently akin to the New Jersey Puritans and Congregationalists to draw many into their fold. Their presence in New Jersey seems to have raised the educational level of the colony, and they were a focal group in the Great Awakening which did so much for education beyond the level of the common schools.

The Great Awakening itself, so far as it spurred education, belongs to the story of New Jersey's colleges: The College of New Jersey (now Princeton), and Queen's, (Rutgers). It is enough here to note that, in the first half of the eighteenth century, New Jersey was a center of a general religious revival, not limited to a single sect, but manifest among many of the religions represented in the province.

Among the Presbyterians it took the form of a struggle between ardent evangelists, led by William Tennent, and a more conservative group. Students at Tennent's famous Log College at Neshaminy, Pennsylvania, became vigorous proselyters, often scorned by the conservatives as ill-educated ranters.

On Tennent's side were the Reverend Jonathan Dickinson and the Reverend Aaron Burr, father of the vice-president. As preachers in Elizabeth and Newark respectively, they held schools in their parsonages for the education of young men. Dickinson's seems to have

been specifically for the preparation of ministers; Burr's offered, perhaps, a more rounded classical training. Burr, the son-in-law of Jonathan Edwards, is described as "a man of commanding intellect, profound piety, wide sympathies, and indefatigable energy." Shortly after coming to Newark in 1736, Burr opened the Newark Latin School, for which he seems to have written a Latin grammar, published and sold as *The Newark Grammar*. Both men were active in securing the charter for the College of New Jersey in 1746, and they became its first and second presidents. When the college moved from Newark to Princeton in 1756, Burr went with it.

The purely religious differences went hand in hand with the efforts of the American churches to break away from European domination and control. Among the Presbyterians the revivalist group sought a native-born-and-educated clergy; the conservatives, to a far greater extent, looked back to Scotland for their preachers and leaders. This same struggle for the emancipation of the American church from the homeland was also an issue among the Dutch, whose political power vanished when the English took over in 1664, and whose language over the next hundred years was slowly superseded.

From their early settlements along the Hudson, the Dutch had moved in force into the Raritan Valley. By the turn of the century churches had been established there, and in 1720 the Reverend Theodorus Jacobus Frelinghuysen came as their pastor, bringing Jacobus Schureman with him as reader, chorister, and schoolmaster. Frelinghuysen was a vigorous leader, devoted to his new country, and acutely aware of the problems of his church, so far removed from Amsterdam and so sadly lacking in pastoral leadership. His own pastorate covered three churches and an area of some three hundred square miles. In 1696 there were only nine ministers of the Dutch Reformed Church in America, and by 1740 only twenty.

The original Frelinghuysen was active in the first stirrings of independence for the American Church; his sons

carried on his work. One of them, Theodorus, as pastor in Albany, agitated for an American college or academy, and died on his way back to America from Amsterdam, where he had sought a charter for it. Another son, John, who had been ordained in Holland, succeeded to his father's pastorate. In his parsonage, as in others in New England, New York, and New Jersey, young men of talent could continue their education, mastering their classics and their theology. One of John's pupils, Jacob Hardenbergh, succeeded to his pastorate and carried his educational aims through to the founding of Queen's College. It was John's son, Frederick, who became the first tutor of the college.

As the time for choosing a site for the new college drew near, both New Brunswick and Hackensack evidently felt that some kind of school in operation would be a powerful attraction. The *New York Mercury* (February 22, 1760) reports:

At New Brunswick is taught reading, writing and arithmetic, vulgar and decimal; and in a separate room, Geometry, Navigation, Surveying and Bookkeeping, after the true Italian method; Algebra and several branches of the Mathematics; and young Gentlemen may be boarded reasonably by Edward Cooper.

In 1768 the *New York Mercury* again notes:

That a School is erected at New Brunswick, in New Jersey, under the inspection of the subscribers, in which the learned languages and mathematics are carefully and accurately taught, by Caleb Cooper, recommended from Nassau-Hall, an able and well accomplished tutor in these other branches of literature. The conditions are 20 s. entrance, and 4 per annum, for tuition, proclamation money. Boarding may be had in this town as good and cheap as can be expected, and to satisfaction, sufficient to accommodate a large school; which including tuition, will not exceed £20 a year.

Hardenbergh was one of the signers of this notice. The

school became known as The Grammar School, and after the college had been established, seems to have been associated with it—often in the same building. In years when the college ran into financial and other difficulties, its preparatory school was at times its only activity.

In Hackensack was the Reverend John H. Goetschius, a vigorous supporter of the college. In his parsonage, apparently, Frederick Frelinghuysen, whose widowed mother had married the Reverend Hardenbergh, prepared for Princeton. While the competition to attract the new college was still going on, an opponent of Goetschius wrote:

Domine Goetschius, *cum suis*, wants it in Hackensack, and has already begun the erection of a house for it there, but which he is unable to finish. . . . Domine Goetschius has already started a Latin School, and appointed his wife's brother as a Latin Teacher. He has also located a second Latin teacher, two or three English miles distant, in order to have the school sufficiently near for the benefit of the children's board.

In 1766, the year of the Rutgers charter, the Goetschius academy was advertising:

This will inform the Public, that it is the Design of the subscriber to open a Grammar School on the 20th Day of April, at Hackensack, under the Inspection and Direction of the Reverend Mr. Goetschius. All Gentlemen who are disposed to have their Sons instructed in the learned Languages, as being very necessary and useful to a further Progress in the Liberal Arts and Sciences may depend upon a constant Attendance and strict and accurate Instruction, by their humble Servant Stephanus Voorhees, A.M.

Even though the Goetschius school did not draw the new college to Hackensack, it did have a long and honorable history. Reinen Van Giesse gave land, and other citizens gave money to build a large and substantial building, which eventually became known as Washington

Academy. Under Peter Wilson, later professor of Greek at Columbia, it flourished, and only surrendered its charter in 1871 to become part of the public school system.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

But if the Dickinson, the Burr, the New Brunswick, and the Hackensack schools achieved some fame for their connection with the founding of two great universities, they were not the only schools above the elementary grade that were operating before the Revolution. One other religious group deserves major mention. The Baptists were, in the early eighteenth century, a rapidly growing sect, responsive to the Great Awakening and concerned for the education of their ministers. The first Baptist seminary in America was opened at Hopewell in 1756 by the Reverend Isaac Eaton. It survived only 11 years in a poor frame house, but it was a step toward the founding of Brown University, whose first president had been a student there.

As early as 1750, too, there was some kind of classical school at Basking Ridge, and there were early schools at Freehold. In Morristown there appear to have been two schools of academic grade before the Revolution.

The departure of Reverend Burr for the Princeton campus may have left a vacuum in Newark, but steps were taken to fill it. On March 8, 1774, the town meeting voted to permit a group of citizens to build an "Academy to be carried on for English and Classical education" on the town commons at the north end of town (Washington Park). A year later the grant was specified as an acre and a half. When the building was burned by British troops on January 25, 1780, it was described as "a sightly and commodious stone edifice, two stories high, with dwelling rooms for the teacher and his family, besides accommodations for boarding pupils." It was "an elegant building with fences," valued at £1400. In Elizabethtown a grammar school taught by Tappan Reeve and Ebenezer Pem-

berton prepared young men from many colonies for college. That building was also destroyed by the British.

In the mid-18th century, however, higher learning was primarily for those destined to be ministers; even those who taught in these schools were often ministers or preparing for the ministry. The gap between the common school and the college was narrow. Young men entered college at a very early age. Then, and for many years thereafter, boys were in college at fourteen or fifteen. Frederick Frelinghuysen had graduated from the College of New Jersey and was tutor at Queen's at eighteen. Entrance to college depended almost solely on the mastery of Latin and Greek. Princeton in its early years, would admit a student who:

shall be found able to render Vergil and Tully's orations into English and turn English into true and Grammatical Latin, and be so well acquainted with the Greek as to render any part of the four Evangelists in that language into Latin or English and to give the Grammatical construction of the words.

A reminiscent neighbor in New York wrote:

When I went to the Albany Academy in 1818, then 10 years old, I had studied in a private school Latin grammar, Viri Romae, and a little of Cornelius Nepos. I was put in a class which was studying Caesar, and we studied Successively, Vergil, Cicero, Justin, Terence, Sallust, and Tacitus; and in Greek the new Testament, Collectanea Graeca Minora and Majora, and Adams' Antiquities. I studied the above exclusively for two years; and after that spent half the day in English until 1824, when I entered the Junior Class in Union College.

But because education above the common school level had begun in New Jersey appreciably later than in New England and some of the other states, it appears to have had a more general and less specialized growth. It is difficult and profitless to attempt to make, in New Jersey, the sharper distinctions which existed elsewhere between the Latin Grammar School, the English Grammar School,

and the Academy. "Academy" soon became the favored name in New Jersey for any institution which took the pupil from the common school and prepared him as well as possible for college or for the few areas of living which demanded more than an elementary ability to read, to write, and to figure. What the academies taught varied widely; some placed their emphasis on the classics which were essential for college entrance; others offered book-keeping and highly practical subjects; some few, such as the Newark Academy, seem to have done both fairly well. In general, they were marked by some degree of lay control; few seem to have been the personal projects of their proprietors. But whether built, like Newark Academy, on common land contributed by the community, or merely supported by a group of leading citizens, they "belonged" to their communities, which took considerable pride in them.

Not even the marching of the Revolutionary armies back and forth across New Jersey, the burning of the Elizabeth and Newark schools by the British soldiers, and the grave difficulties which faced both New Jersey colleges in wartime halted the development of these schools. In 1778 Burgis Allison opened a preparatory school for Brown College at Bordentown; it attracted students from other states and even from overseas for the thirty years of its existence. Also in 1778, the Freehold Latin School was started on Presbyterian land under the leadership of a Princeton graduate. And on February 10, 1781, citizens of Trenton and its vicinity formed an association "for the purpose of erecting a School House in the said Town, and keeping up a Regular School for the Education of Youth." The capital stock was \$270, and each of the 36 shareholders was entitled to send a child to the school without charge for use of the building. Other students were to pay a half dollar for rent. A two-story building was erected within the year, and 40 students enrolled. Grammar school courses were added to the elementary, and before the Revolution was over, the Trustees were seeking "a writing master and accountant . . . well qual-

ified to teach writing, arithmetic and bookkeeping . . . well recommended for sobriety, industry and capacity." From this Trenton Academy Charles Ewing went on to Princeton. For a few years it also housed a girls school, and in 1794 it raised additional funds by a lottery.

AFTER THE REVOLUTION

The growth of schools continued after the war. Newark Academy made plans to rebuild. The Association sought to revive it as "a large and convenient Academy for teaching English, the learned languages and Arts and Sciences." To finance the rebuilding a lottery was held to which one citizen contributed a Negro slave, James, who sold for £40. The St. John's Lodge of Masons apparently helped with the building and retained the use of the third floor.

The old school lands in Bergen were turned over to trustees for the Bergen Columbia Academy, of which a 1796 advertisement said, "the grammar school was opened the first of May and so continues." It appeals for scholars from New York, assuring parents "that the best care and attention will be given to the education and morals of the children by the Teacher, Elijah Rosenfrant. . . . The distance of the Academy from Powles hook Ferry is one mile and a half only." The school seems to have flourished until the township sought to recapture the lands, and finally acquired the academy's building and assets for its free schools.

In the southern part of the state Woodbury Academy was erected in 1791 with lottery money. Land for it was donated by Joseph Bloomfield of Burlington, who later became governor. It boasted an old bell, made in Bordeaux and brought from a convent in Santo Domingo in 1789. Among alumni were Dr. James Rush of Philadelphia, Commodore Benjamin Cooper, Commodore Stephen Decatur, and Captain James ("Don't give up the ship!") Lawrence.

At Somerville in 1801 speakers at the Fourth of July

celebration were so eloquent that its good citizens were spurred to establish a classical school, the Academy; a two-story brick school was erected and remained in use until 1855. At Irvington, in 1827, a new brick academy, known as the Brick Schoolhouse, was built by the Franklin Lodge of Masons and several village mechanics. The top floor was used by the Masons, the "main" floor for public meetings, and the ground floor for a school.

Near the end of the 18th century, the Reverend W. Winterbotham, in his "View of the United States of America," wrote:

There are a number of good academies in this State; one at Freehold, in the county of Monmouth; another at Trenton, in which are about eighty students in the different branches; it has a fund of about one hundred and fifty pounds per annum, arising from the interest on public securities; another in Hackensack, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of an hundred scholars; instruction and board are said to be cheaper here than in any other part of the State. There is another flourishing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Essex, consisting of nearly as many scholars as any of the others, furnished with able instructors and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabethtown, and consists of upwards of twenty students in the languages, and is increasing. An academy, by the name of Burlington Academy, has lately been established at Burlington, under the direction of seven trustees, and the instruction of two preceptors. The system of education adopted in this academy is designed to prepare the scholars for the study of the more difficult classics, and the higher branches of science in a college or university. At Newark an academy was founded in June 1792, and promises to be a useful institution. Besides there are grammar schools at Springfield, Morristown, Bordentown, Amboy, etc.

A few years later, in 1806, Noah Webster summarized the educational situation in New Jersey: "In the more populous towns and villages are academies and schools of high reputation."

Nathan Hedges, who was to teach in Newark for 45 years and help found the New Jersey State Teachers' As-

sociation, wrote a lengthy account of his education in Morris County for Barnard's *American Journal of Education*. It gives a detailed picture of the studies and teaching in the academies at the beginning of the nineteenth century. He writes:

In 1807 [when he was fifteen] I became a pupil in the "New Warren Academy" in Morristown, then under the direction of James Stevenson, a Scotchman. He was a scholar and a kind Christian gentleman. The school was both English and classical and may well be regarded as a favorable type of the best schools of that day.

In the English department, the simplest elementary branches received but little attention.

Writing was well taught by an accomplished teacher.

Arithmetic was taught from Dilworth, a book making no allusion to a decimal currency, and having little or no adaptation to the ordinary requirements of business. If we reached the "Rule of Three," we were quite gratified with our attainments. Most of us came short of it. Arithmetic was taught here about as ineffectually as in other schools. When a boy left school and was required to make almost any simple business calculation, he failed, giving the stereotyped reason, "There ain't no such sums in my book."

Reading was taught mechanically. I do not remember an effort, in those days, to assist the pupil to understand, to feel, nor to express the sentiment he was uttering. . . .

English Grammar could hardly be said to be taught in this school. I doubt whether the teacher in the English Department knew anything about it. . . . I well remember inquiring of a cousin who attended a ladies' school, "how far she was in grammar," and she replied that "she had committed the grammar seven or eight times through, but had not commenced parsing yet."

Geography was not taught. I think there was neither book, map, nor globe in the school.

Bookkeeping—This was a branch taught at the Academy by a master who was a good book-keeper, but who had no proper ideas of teaching. As one of the advanced pupils I was set to copying "Jackson's Italian Method of Book-keeping," and I think employed a very considerable part of six months at this

work without any instruction which gave me the slightest idea of opening, journalizing, balancing or closing. . . .

Such I believe is a just view of the best English school existing at that time in that part of New Jersey. History, geometry, higher mathematics and numerous other branches now generally taught had no place in our scanty curriculum.

In 1809 I was promoted to the classical department and commenced the study of Latin. In this department English studies also received some attention. Reading was taught in Scott's Lessons, without an effort at naturalness or propriety. Mathematics, so far as I can recollect, did not go beyond Dilworth. English grammar was considered to be of no use. Latin Grammar was all-sufficient. In Geography a few young men used "Guthrie's New System of Modern Geography" an octavo of perhaps 800 pages, without an atlas.

On the wall hung an old map of Europe, the first wall-map I had ever seen. At that time I had never seen an atlas, and think none intended for schools had been published. We had a Terrestrial Globe, kept for ornament, not for use.

With the scant preparation above indicated, boys were put to studying Latin, and in that the want of proper method and of suitable books was about as great as in the English department. To illustrate my meaning, it is enough for me to say, that I was set to committing the grammar, committed it through, and then commenced again and perhaps went a second time through, without the slightest exercise or instruction in the use of the declensions, or of the conjugations; without any explanation of the agreement of adjectives with their nouns and pronouns; without any explanation of the application of a single rule, or of anything else belonging to the language. . . . This beginning of Latin was under the supervision of a gentleman of talents, who graduated with distinction at Princeton a few years before. After reading a little of Corderius and some other small book, I was advanced to Caesar's Commentaries, and by the help of hard work and poor instruction got through the first four books with very little knowledge of the language.

Hedges later attended the Morris Academy, which had been established in 1791 and was "older and of more extended reputation. . . ."

I entered the Academy early in 1810. The Academy had three departments . . . Juvenile, English and Classical. When I entered it, the Classical Department had more than sixty pupils, almost all boarders from New York and the Southern states. There Latin and Greek were taught with critical accuracy and great thoroughness. Although we lacked many useful books which have since been prepared, yet I think our method of instruction had, in several particulars, a decided advantage over the more modern practice. . . . We were compelled to become perfectly familiar with the formation and radical meaning of Latin derivatives. To this day I am conscious of the influence of this early and thorough drill. . . . In our recitations of Vergil, Horace, Homer and other classic poets, we were never allowed to translate a sentence, until we had scanned it. To us, poetry was poetry indeed.

With regard to studies other than classical, (in the classical department) I can not say much to the credit of this loved and useful Institution.

In *Reading*, forty or more would stand up in our class and read a few sentences in Murray's Sequel. The exercise was merely formal and nearly useless.

In *English Grammar* we did nothing. We had no such class. Latin grammar was all in all.

In *Mathematics* we did almost nothing. Euclid, I think, occasionally received a little attention, but so little that I am in doubt about it.

Composition and declamation were well taught.

To *Geography* we paid no attention. We had no maps or globes . . .

The blackboard, now indispensable to the teacher, in so many branches of study, then had no existence.

MORE AND MORE ACADEMIES

The State itself was growing; by 1800 its population had passed two hundred thousand, and its economy was expanding. Under this stimulus academies multiplied rapidly in many forms and phases: as the church-sponsored and church-oriented institution, as the creation of a group of well-to-do, education-minded laymen, and, oc-

Edwards also reports the educational growth around Princeton, noting the Edgehill Seminary, another boarding school for boys, and the Lawrenceville High School. In the northern area he calls attention to Newark Young Ladies' Institute, Hill Top School, (Mendham), Bloomfield Academy, and a classical school at Orange. An 1834 report mentions 40 academies; an 1840 report, 66 with over three thousand pupils.

While in other Atlantic states the academy was beginning to decline, in New Jersey it continued to multiply, perhaps because the public high school was slow to develop. It is also possible, of course, that the popularity of the academy was a delaying factor in the growth of the public high school. By 1850 the number of academies was reported at 225, and in his report for 1860, the State Superintendent noted 351 academies in New Jersey with thirty-four thousand pupils. This probably marked their high point.

The typical academy was not large; many had only fifty students and two teachers. It was supported almost entirely by tuition. To its pupils it tended to offer whatever education the parents sought for their children—classical education for the college bound, the so-called English course for those whose ambitions were not so high, and highly practical bookkeeping and commercial studies for children clearly destined to business careers. But the academy did not and could not meet the needs of a state with rising population in which the tradition of public education had been growing slowly but steadily.

II

THE FIRST PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS (1817 - 1870)

IN 1817, New Jersey was "far behind many of her sister states in the march of popular education. Nothing whatever had been done by her, as a State, for the promotion of education. She had no system of common schools—no fund for their support." This was the picture drawn half a century later by Richard S. Field, who had done much to change it.

From that beginning, in just a little over a half century, New Jersey created a statewide system of free public schools. The system was forged by hard-working, deeply earnest believers in the concept of public education. They organized on a township, county, and state level, they surveyed educational conditions throughout the state, they held statewide conventions, they importuned the legislature, and they presented their case for a strong system of free public education by means of the press.

Perth Amboy's Assemblyman James Parker had labored from 1809 to 1817 before he persuaded New Jersey lawmakers to create the State School Fund "for the support of free schools." Robert Baird—clergyman, missionary, and common-school zealot—acted as agent for the Common School Committee, and toured the state preaching the gospel of a common school system. John Maclean, Princeton mathematics professor and college president, in 1828 presented proposals for a system of public schools

which took fifty years to become law. Governors in the 1830's and 1840's lent the prestige of their office to the common school cause. Toward the end of the period, State Superintendents of Schools gave direction to the battle for free public education.

The tangible achievements of these friends of education were impressive: enactment of the State School Fund Law; legislative permission to local communities to levy taxes for the education of poor children; in 1829, a comprehensive school law, creating, on a partial basis at least, a system of common schools. At local levels township school committees were set up, with power to create school districts and to supervise teaching. Monies from the State School Fund were ordered distributed to the townships as state school aid. And after 1831, when the lawmakers stripped the township school committees of many of their powers, the friends of education persuaded the legislature to restore them and to abolish pauper schools.

The legislators established the office of State Superintendent of Schools in 1845, and the next year they replaced township school committees with one local school official—the township superintendent—and required townships to levy taxes for schools. In 1851 the legislature gave permission for school districts to incorporate; by doing so a district might raise a district tax of any amount approved of by two-thirds of the voters.

In the 1860's and early 1870's even greater progress was made in establishing a state *system* of free public schools. The State Board of Education was created in 1866 to control and supervise the public schools, and the lawmakers called a halt to the practice of channeling state aid to sectarian schools. County superintendents were created to aid in supervising rural schools.

Largely through the wisdom and efforts of State Superintendent Ellis A. Apgar, the year 1871 saw the realization of the fondest dreams of the friends of education, for in that year the Free School Law was passed. To guar-

antee a school year of at least nine months in every district, a two-mill state tax was levied and distributed to local school units. New Jersey schools were at long last free; and New Jersey became the last state in the union to abolish rate bills and tuition payments.

NEWARK'S HIGH SCHOOL

Against this background of statewide concern for schools, the Newark Charter, issued in 1836, was broad enough to empower the Newark Board of Education to establish public schools of different grades adapted to the age and progress of the pupils, including evening schools. Such a broad charter certainly covered, and probably envisioned, high schools. Under its authority, Newark moved swiftly toward a real public school system. It established four ward schools, the one for the west ward on the first floor of Nathan Hedges' school in Bank Street, near Washington. On the top floor of that building in 1838, a high school for boys was set up for pupils sent to it from the four ward schools upon certificates issued by the school committee.

It is hard to tell at this distant time what was taught there or how any gap between the ward schools, which were almost certainly primary, and the higher school was filled. The Annual Report of the Trustees of the School Fund for 1839, however, lists (Newark) Public High School for Boys in Bank Street, with an enrollment of 91 in average, "including 11 orphans." One teacher was employed. Many years later a Newark superintendent would write:

That discipline was difficult and flogging frequently indulged in is not surprising. Corporal punishment was the ordinary method of securing obedience. Boys who failed to get their lessons, I am told by those who attended this early high school, were not infrequently called out before the class and severely punished. The threat of a flogging was one of the chief incentives to study as well as to good order.

The school must have filled a need, however, since by 1852 "there is in process of erection a free academy for the reception of those who have finished their course at the Common Schools. . . . We hope that it may lead our citizens to feel and manifest such an interest in the cause they are so nobly sustaining, as never before was known." The school in Washington Street, apparently modeled on the New York Free Academy established in 1848, "is intended for an Institution which might, perhaps with more propriety, be denominated a Grammar School. It will be a higher grade than the present Public Schools, but will hardly constitute what is generally understood as a Free Academy."

Isaiah Peckham, another founder of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association, became its principal. Peckham, educated in Binghamton, New York, had been principal of Lock Street School and the head of three industrial schools "designed to reach and elevate the very lowest class of children." Their moral and industrial training was under "benevolent ladies" and the scholastic work was directed by the board of education. Appointed in 1854 to head the new high school, Peckham visited the schools of other cities, notably Boston, before the Newark school was opened.

By January, 1855, however, the three-story brick building with a slate roof had been completed at a cost of twenty thousand dollars including the furniture, plus five thousand dollars for land. The second floor, used for the female department, had a "principal school room" with 98 double desks, four large recitation rooms, a clothes room, and a closet. The third floor, for males, was similar except for the addition of a library room over the staircase. Two of the recitation rooms seated 50, the others 35 to 40 pupils. Dedication of the school featured music under the direction of the teacher of vocal music in the high school and grammar schools.

The purpose of this high school was not to prepare for college. Superintendent Congar described it as "designed to complete the moral and intellectual training of

the rising generation." He said, "In this active and enterprising community there is abundant scope for ability and talent. Many of the pupils of the high school have already obtained employment in our moneyed institutions and in the counting houses of our merchants and manufacturers." On the other hand, Congar looked toward the progress of higher education hopefully:

. . . some means will be devised by the liberality and public spirit of our citizens, and of our literary institutions, by which the pupils in the public High School of the city of Newark, most distinguished for integrity, industry and ability, may receive the advantages of a college or university education. . . . To foster genius and encourage talent wherever they may appear, is alike the duty and the privilege of every free popular government.

The new high school, which admitted 197 pupils of each sex, had a principal, vice-principal, usher, and two female assistants for its male department, and a female principal and four assistant teachers (all female) for the second floor. There was a four-step salary scale under which the male assistant could earn \$500-\$650 per year, the high school female assistants \$275-\$350, at a time when primary teachers were paid less than half that much.

The concept of grading was gaining acceptance, and the Newark schools were clearly classed as primary, grammar, and high schools, and had classes, variously designated, within those divisions.

Pupils went from the grammar schools to the high school by examination. Here are some questions posed in 1862 to those who wished to attend:

Spelling: specimen, vengeance, islands, poisonous, valleys, deceivers, proceeding, business, piercing, seizing, sufficient, occurrence, Connecticut, Mississippi, participle, orthography, judgment, antecedent, declamation, pursuing, persuasion.

Geography: What are meridians? What is a Republic? What three rivers of Siberia flow into the Arctic Ocean? What

celebrated promontory is in the south of Spain, and for what is it noted? Name the thirteen original states. Where is Waterloo and for what is it noted?

Arithmetic: Divide 322 acres 2 rods and 10 poles equally among 13 men. Divide $7\frac{1}{2}$ times $1\frac{4}{15}$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ of $3\frac{1}{3}$. Divide 43.2 by .24. What cost 9 bushels, 3 pecks, 7 quarts and 1 pint of grass seed at \$5.75 per bushel? Bought 240 gallons of molasses at 28 cents per gallon, and sold the whole for \$84. What was the gain per cent?

Grammar: Parse the italicized words in the following sentences:

Let us consider well how much depends upon this examination. Old age, oppressed by cares that belonged to a former period, labors under a burden not its own.

Silently wondering, for a little space stood the great preacher.

In 1858 the board of education carefully spelled out the curriculum of the high school. It was the same for the male and female departments.

The lower classes studied grammar, arithmetic, mental arithmetic, descriptive geography, physical geography, physiology and hygiene, history of the United States, analysis of words, reading, writing, vocal music, and had one period a week for general exercise.

The "B" (junior) class had the following program, (figures in parentheses indicate the number of recitations per week): grammar (4), algebra (3), arithmetic (4), natural philosophy (3), general history and political science (3), Latin (5), reading—in McGuffey's *Fifth Reader*—(2), writing (3), vocal music (2), and general exercise (1).

The top "A" Class had rhetoric and analysis (5), geometry (4), algebra (4), review of arithmetic (1), general history and political science (3), Latin (5), and a similar program of reading, writing, vocal music, and general exercise. In its summer session this group studied astronomy in place of rhetoric.

Before they graduated, these pupils were subjected to a rigorous four-day examination by the superintendent and several board members, who themselves read the papers. Here are some typical questions:

Grammar: Analyze the following sentence: *If thou wouldst know what thou art, ascertain what thou canst do.* In the preceding sentence, parse *what* in each of the clauses.

Arithmetic: If 12 men can mow 135 acres of grass in 15 days, working 12 hours each day, how many men will be required to mow 110 acres in 10 days, working 10 hours per day? What is the cube root of 620, 650, 477?

Geometry: In similar polygons, which are homologous sides and which are homologous angles? Find the contents of a pyramid whose base is a regular pentagon, and whose altitude is 30 ft.

Botany: Define Terminal, Axillary, Supernumerary, Adventitious, and Latent buds. Give the morphology of the simple and compound Pistils.

Rhetoric: Define Taste and show how it may be cultivated and corrected. State the different ways in which the unity of a sentence may be violated.

Caesar (with translations both from and into Latin): Under what circumstances may a relative pronoun supply the place of "ut" with the subjunctive? Give the rule.

Vergil: Define Arsis and Thesis in prosody. Define Rhythm and Ictus.

While a minimum age of ten was fixed for admission, the average age was considerably higher. In 1864, out of the 104 girls and 67 boys who sought admission to Newark's high school, the girls were, on the average, over fourteen years old, nearly half a year older than the boys. It is significant, too, that the girls admitted outnumbered the boys by more than two to one. This probably reflects pressures on the older boys to leave school and go to work. One reason for this was the very industrialization which had spurred high school development in the first place. Superintendent Sears of Newark writes:

Such is the perfection of machinery for manufacturing purpose, that with the aid of comparatively young boys and girls, with a few overseers, can be constructed almost every article that is

demand. Children who 10 years ago would have been considered totally incapable of anything but study, now half support the family by manual labor.

Newark's high school quickly became the source of Newark's teachers. By 1864, less than ten years after its establishment, it had furnished the city with 42, 3 in high school, 18 in the grammar school, and 21 in the primary department. Six of them were already acting as principals. This movement was aided, of course, by the normal school classes which were held in the building on Saturdays; Newark's teachers were required to attend them and they were open to those who aspired to teaching. Principal Peckham also headed the normal school.

OTHER EARLY HIGH SCHOOLS

Newark's high school, of course, was by no means early compared with other early high schools in America. Boston had established the first American high school in 1821 and was calling it by that name three years later. In 1827 Massachusetts enacted a state law which required establishment of schools at the high school level, and by 1840 about two dozen such schools were in operation across the nation. New Jersey was relatively late to develop them for two reasons: educational efforts, prior to 1870, had to go into making the common schools free and public and providing an educational basis for high schools; the academies, which seemed especially suited to the New Jersey "climate," were still receiving popular support.

But Newark did not long stand alone in New Jersey. By 1842 the Trenton schools had announced the "commencing" in the upper room of the State Bank, of a "Public High School" under William M. Hough, "late principal of Morristown Academy." Tuition was charged: for reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, \$1.50 a quarter; \$2.00 a quarter for English grammar, composition, rhetoric, mathematics, natural philosophy, and chemistry. The trustees did not feel authorized to apply

public monies to the support of a classical school, however, and while Mr. Hough also taught Latin, Greek, and French, tuition for these subjects was set at \$7.00 a quarter. "In natural philosophy and chemistry, frequent lectures will be given, illustrated with experiments, for which an apparatus is provided."

Local reports show the gradual addition, in place after place, of the "higher subjects." In 1855 Hoboken reports the use of Stoddard's *Latin Grammar* in its grammar school. Hackensack was teaching algebra and geometry by 1856. By 1868 New Brunswick had a three-year high school department, consisting of two 16-week terms and one 10-week term. The first year was largely devoted to fundamentals (reading, grammar, mental arithmetic, and penmanship), but in the second year students faced algebra, geometry, trigonometry, physiology, and rhetoric, and in the third, chemistry, natural philosophy, Latin, American literature, astronomy, botany, and "universal" history. At the annual school meeting in 1866, the Montclair trustees were ordered to ascertain the cost of hiring a teacher of classics, and at a special meeting it was decided that a high school must be established and the whole school carefully graded.

There was little agreement, however, on the best way to achieve the desired end of providing further education for the common school graduate who could use it. There was sentiment for including advanced subjects in the common school curriculum, for what would now be called a single comprehensive school; for establishing separate high schools; and for giving aid to private academies to insure places for all qualified youth. There was even a suggestion for state-and-county-supported "county academies"—a proposal remarkably like the county junior college movement a hundred years later. By the end of the 1860's, however, the concept of the separate local high school appears to have won out, and it was possible to marshal both public and educational support behind it as the form which education beyond the common school would take for most New Jersey children.

III

THE HIGH SCHOOL MOVEMENT (1871 - 1895)

PASSAGE OF THE 1871 Free School Law committed New Jersey to a free system of education, but it was a system of elementary or common school education. On March 1, 1871, however, even before the fate of the Free School Law had been determined, three educational leaders addressed a joint meeting of the Senate and the Assembly on the need to establish high schools in New Jersey. Present was a galaxy of state officials including Governor Parker, former Governor Randolph, the justices of the supreme court, and the attorney-general.

James McCosh, President of Princeton College, called upon New Jersey to keep up its fine work in its elementary school system and suggested that the same concern might be turned to high schools. The Princeton leader noted that relatively few localities in New Jersey supported educational programs beyond the common school, in marked contrast to the support given these schools in New England and in New York State. McCosh suggested the establishment of a central high school in each county, or, alternatively, in each congressional district. By taking this step, he claimed, New Jersey would improve its elementary schools, meet the educational needs of bright boys and girls living in rural areas with no high school opportunities, prepare better citizens, and bridge the gap between the elementary or common school and the

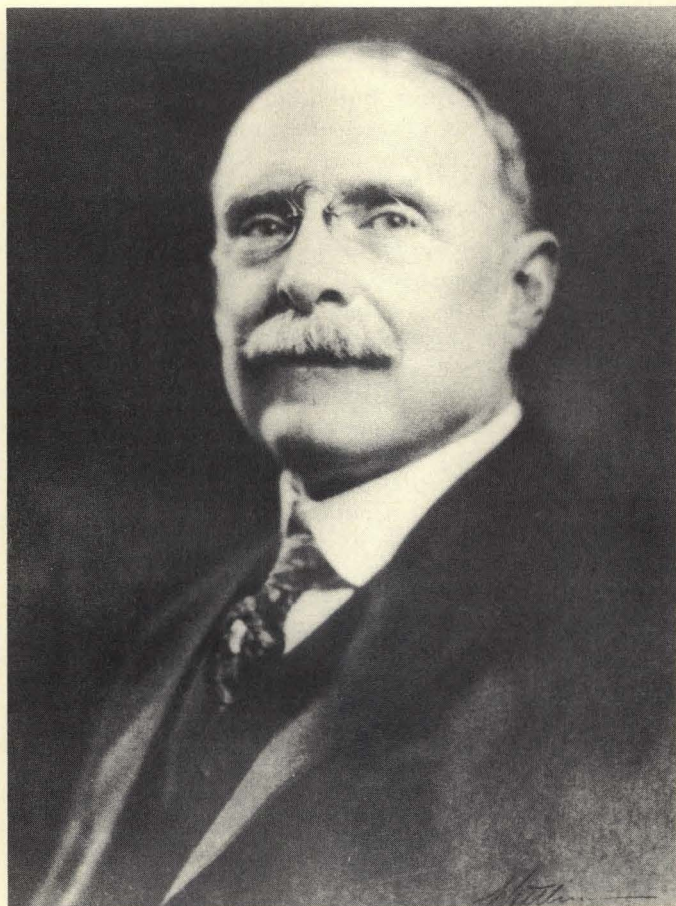
college. He said, "Our educational system is in this respect like a house built at great expense by a friend of mine; it was two stories high, and commodious and elegant in every respect, but he forgot to put a stair to lead them from the lower to the upper floor."

William Campbell, President of Rutgers, pointed out that New Brunswick, Newark, Plainfield, and Jersey City had started higher schools. He urged the lawmakers to stimulate other localities to do likewise. Professor Gillman, a visiting professor at Princeton, called for high schools especially in the small towns and villages.

The evening's oratory was productive. The Assembly and Senate requested the governor to appoint a commission of seven persons, charged with making a study of New Jersey's system of common schools and those of other states and countries. The commission was also to report "on the propriety of establishing in the State a number of Free High Schools, for the benefit of those who desire a higher order of education, but are too poor to provide it for themselves."

That commission suggested bills to codify and make changes in the school legal code, to establish a system of state scholarships, and to establish high schools. Unfortunately all its recommendations were included in one omnibus measure, which had many controversial sections. It would have raised the state superintendent's salary to \$2500, lowered the requirements for raising local tax money, created "school inspectors" in each congressional district, and required every school to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, English grammar, geography, and United States history. In the secondary area alone it sought:

1. To require every city or town with a population of at least 10,000 to maintain a school for children over fifteen years of age. In this type of school singing and drawing were to be required courses.
2. To insist that all children under twelve working in industrial establishments attend school at least three months a year.



Addison B. Poland, State Superintendent of Schools, 1892-1895

3. To make it illegal for any industrial concern to require children under twelve to work more than forty-eight hours a week, or eight hours a day.
4. To set up state scholarships of \$200 per student to graduates of public graded high schools. Such students were required to attend a New Jersey college.

5. To grant permission to a single school district or a combination of districts to establish high schools in which must be taught algebra, geometry, bookkeeping, surveying, natural philosophy, general history, the New Jersey and United States constitutions, astronomy, rhetoric, composition, logic, intellectual and moral science, political economy, Latin, Greek, French, and German.

It was inevitable that such far-reaching proposals should draw opposition. Taxpayers from Gloucester County petitioned the legislature against the bill because it threatened home rule. They felt that the high school proposal would result in taxing the working man who could not afford to send his children to school one fourth of the time, while other children could go all the time. After many delays the Assembly finally voted to postpone action. The legislature thus closed the door on establishing high schools by legislative fiat, as New York and Massachusetts had done.

The issue of the state's responsibility for education beyond the common school would not die, however. In 1874, when basic amendments to the State Constitution were under study, the Constitutional Commission submitted an amendment which would make the legislature responsible for free schools for children between the ages of five and eighteen. But the proposal defined free schools as those providing a rudimentary education, and not as institutions preparing pupils to enter college. Senators Taylor of Essex and Hopper of Passaic vigorously opposed restricting state responsibility to elementary grades. They wanted the state to provide boys and girls with educational opportunities in higher graded institutions. Senator Taylor pointed out that the limitation would cut off from state support all schools which went beyond the three R's. The Senate amended the Commission's proposal to read:

The Legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a thorough and efficient system of free public schools for

the instruction of all children in the State between the ages of five and eighteen.

That was the amendment finally included in the New Jersey Constitution. Its importance to public schools and to secondary schools in particular cannot be overemphasized. It was by reference to this legislative responsibility that State School Superintendent Charles J. Baxter more than a quarter century later brought high school education to the sparsely settled, rural areas. This was the amendment that friends of education in the 1940's and 1950's pointed to when the schools were in sore need of additional state school aid. The amendment is a major landmark in New Jersey secondary school history.

ARGUMENTS PRO AND CON

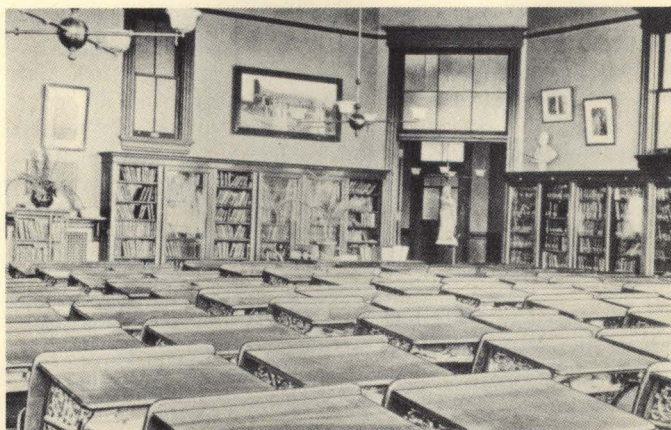
The high school movement met opposition. Some citizens fought the development of the "poor man's academy" because they rebelled against the additional tax burden. In Montclair, for example, in 1879, a taxpayer-drive to abolish the local high school by drastic reduction of revenues was beaten decisively at a spirited special election. The Essex County superintendent describes another taxpayer effort to cripple the high school in Bloomfield:

In 1879 trustees were elected, under whom expenses of the school were reduced about one-fourth, the number of teachers lessened, and the classes abolished from the High School. One year's experience of that kind was enough for the citizens of the district; and at last election, trustees of different views were chosen, and the High School is now restored.

Some citizens felt that the public schools should be limited to the elementary grades. A segment of the New Brunswick citizenry claimed "that those parents who desire their children to pursue the higher English

branches should, if able, pay for such privileges in private schools; if unable to do so, then their children should go without the education." The issue was decided when board of education candidates favoring the construction of a new central high school building won by three-to-one in heavy voting.

Many citizens felt that public school developments had been much too rapid; they wanted to use the 1867 and 1871 laws to make the common schools more efficient. These had to be graded, qualified teachers employed, schoolhouses constructed, and children compelled to attend school more regularly. Until the elementary school system was functioning more effectively, it seemed to them unwise to erect a high school system on such a weak base. There were those, too, who felt that the development of the new high schools was a threat to the kind of education that "fit children for the business of life," that the new institution placed too much emphasis on classical learning and concerned itself too much with "ologies." What was needed, they felt, was a holding-fast to the fundamentals of education: reading, writing, and arithmetic. There was also "a growing jealousy with regard to



East Orange High School classroom of the 1880's

the concentration of so much power under our public school system in the Trustees of the Normal school and the State Superintendent," a "tendency to remove the management and control of our schools too far from the people."

The high school movement had friends as well as foes, however; high among its supporters were the school superintendents in the cities and larger towns. Under their leadership as the nineteenth century entered its final decade, the teachers of the state began to take more active interest in the cause. In 1890 the State Teachers Association's important Committee on Educational Progress listed as unfinished business the need to provide high school advantages to children in rural districts and the necessity of having a high school established in every township. Two years later it declared that there were relatively few genuine high schools in New Jersey, and that too many communities were laboring under the delusion they were maintaining high schools. Nicholas Murray Butler, its chairman, reporting to the teachers' convention, deplored the inertia displayed toward the problem of high school scarcity:

A school system without high schools is like a man with a healthy set of nerves and muscles, but no cerebrum. He becomes a mere automaton, and so does the school system. His directive intelligence, his intellect, his spirituality are gone. As teachers and citizens we must agitate this matter until a high school education is put in New Jersey, as in Massachusetts and the great states of the west, within the reach of every boy and girl who wishes it, regardless of whether their fathers work on the farm or in the factory, or whether they are employers and directors of labor. . . .

In contrast was the lack of leadership by the state education department. The words "high school" do not appear in any state school superintendent's annual report to the legislature until 1894, when the newly-appointed State School Superintendent Addison B. Poland began his campaign for high schools.

However, it was largely through the exertions of the local school superintendents that the high school movement did advance appreciably. Before 1870 only four localities reported some kind of a high school program to the state superintendent. During the 1870's an additional 16 high schools were established; during the 1880's 18. From 1890 to 1895 24 high schools began operating. Of 64 high schools counted in 1895, close to half had opened after 1890.

Virtually all of these high schools were in the largest cities or in the larger suburban towns. State School Superintendent Poland, on his appointment, resolved to increase the high school opportunities for country boys and girls—to give them something at least approaching the opportunities the city and town children had for a secondary school education. His weapon for achieving his objective was the Township System Law.

New Jersey's first comprehensive school laws of 1829 had given township committees the power to create school districts. The school units set up by these committees were on a neighborhood basis, in some townships as many as 14 thinly-populated, poverty-stricken districts. This kind of district organization stood as an unyielding barrier to high schools. Only rarely would a rural township consolidate into one administrative school unit large enough in children and in wealth for a central high school. Long Branch effected this type of educational miracle in 1883 and was happy with the result.

Poland saw clearly that the small neighborhood school district was a major obstacle to rural high schools. He won the support of the state's organized teachers, of school officials, and of the state's political leaders. With surprising ease a bill changing the school administrative unit from the small neighborhood district to the township passed both houses of the legislature in 1894. At one stroke the number of school units was reduced from 1408 to 374—consolidation with a vengeance. Poland had removed a major barrier to the growth of New Jersey high schools. He said:

By the consolidation of the old school districts that formerly existed conditions have been created for the economical establishment and support of township high schools. During the past year numerous townships took early advantage of these favoring conditions and set out to establish such schools. I hope to see a still larger number established in the immediate future.

On the basis of this law and of the constitutional guarantee for schooling for children from five to eighteen years of age, Poland's successor would build a statewide system of high schools.

WHAT THE HIGH SCHOOLS WERE LIKE

It is difficult, however, to say precisely what a high school was at this time. F. F. Leavens, Passaic Superintendent of Schools, expressed this confusion in 1879:

In truth we have a "High School" only in name. Doubtless many grammar departments in other towns and cities teach as much as our so-called "High School." Would it not be a useful thing if the Department of Public Instruction would define the degree of advancement that should be meant by the terms "Grammar School" and "High School." Surely a school is not "high" simply because it is so styled.

In the absence of centralized state leadership, New Jersey high schools had developed locally, with attendant variations from locality to locality in organization, programs, and philosophy. At Hoboken, in 1874, a "high class" of 24 boys was formed for the purpose of teaching them more advanced studies than those in the grammar schools. What passed as the Atlantic City high school in 1879 was described unenthusiastically by its superintendent:

There was an average attendance of fourteen scholars in the principal's room the last quarter of the term, and the last week of the quarter only nine scholars—eight girls and one boy; nor is there in the attainments of the pupils, or the

studies pursued, a single feature which entitles it to the dignity of the name of "high school."

While there was marked non-uniformity among the high schools, there was much similarity in the manner in which the small New Jersey "high class" of the 1870's evolved into the larger high school organization of the 1890's. The pattern unfolded generally in the following way: (1) a class of older boys and girls was offered a one-year or two-year "higher" program in an elementary school building; (2) the program expanded into two or more classes, occupying at times the entire second floor of an elementary school, embarrassing the latter at a time when school accommodations were in short supply; (3) by the time the "higher program" had been increased to three years, school authorities were forced to house the high school students in a building of their own—rented or built for that purpose. At this stage of development the high school would require four years for graduation, and the familiar eight-four organization had been achieved.

Bayonne's growing pains were typical. In 1882 the city told pupils in the highest grades of its five elementary schools that it would offer one-year "academic" classes wherever enough students were interested. The new classes were for college preparation and for teacher-training. Five years later these classes were combined in a single school, with the course extended to two years and including such subjects as astronomy and mental philosophy. In 1889 there were ten graduates. After crowding repeatedly forced these classes to move from one elementary school to another, the Board finally took over an old church building which, in 1892, became the Bayonne High School. Overcrowding and a fire forced another move, this time to a hall, which was later purchased and a new wing added. The new quarters gave space for a third year, and a special teacher-training course. By 1900 the high school had 160 pupils, to whom it offered Latin-scientific, modern language, and commercial courses, a one-year "post-graduate" course for college

preparation, and a two-year teacher training course leading to a city elementary teaching certificate. The fourth high school year was added in 1903.

High school classes were often held in private dwellings or rented structures not suited for secondary school students. Paterson and Hoboken high schools went through harrowing housing difficulties. But sometimes help came from unexpected sources. Elizabeth, in 1887, had been forced to eject over one hundred high school students from four elementary schools: the places were needed for younger children, many of whom had been on a waiting list for school entrance. Temporarily the Elizabeth Board of Education placed the high school students in a private dwelling. Then Joseph Battin, a prominent Elizabeth citizen, decided to deed his \$250,000 mansion to the board, stipulating that the building be used for high school education only, not for primary or elementary school, and that under no condition was the building to be used for sectarian school practices. The grateful board accepted Battin's offer and named the high school after him.

Some New Jersey municipalities faced up to the challenge. Montclair, in 1892, constructed a large and handsome high school of buff brick and cream-white terra cotta at a cost of \$125,000. It contained, in addition to 15 classrooms, an assembly hall to seat five hundred persons, a stage 27 by 13 feet, a library with an adjoining reference room, a chemistry laboratory, a photographic dark room, an art classroom, a gymnasium 84 by 30 feet. Not to be outdone by its neighbor, East Orange in the same year opened its building with twelve classrooms, an art room, a chemistry laboratory, a gymnasium, a mechanical drawing room, and facilities for manual training. In the early 1890's, new high school buildings were erected at Newark, Passaic, Millville, Long Branch, and Hammononton. This was a decade of breakthrough in high school building.

Communities made these financial efforts because people were proud to have high schools. Certainly the good citizens of Vineland felt pleased with themselves at

the laying of the cornerstone for their new high school in 1874. Present were President Grant, Secretary of the Navy Robeson, United States Senator Cattell, and Governor Parker. The dedication of a high school building was a gala event. Notables attended and too many always spoke too long. Parades were led by marching bands, and an all-day open house permitted great and small to examine the school constructed to serve the highest educational needs of all classes of students—poor as well as rich.

To obtain public support the friends of education repeated the argument which had been employed by President McCosh of Princeton, adding touches as needed. Thus the citizens of Montclair established a high school adequate to provide "the best education preparatory to the college or the university." It was to "educate here at home the youth who had been previously sent away to school and to enable parents to retain under home influence their children during the period of the formation of character."

School officials in the cities and larger towns, plagued by soaring enrollments, could look upon the high school as a rich source of teacher supply. Hoboken, in 1885, reported that the purpose of its high school was to prepare young lady graduates for teaching posts in the school system and young men for entrance into college. Phillipsburg pointed out that "our High School is doing a good work in furnishing teachers, not only for our own town, but also for the county of Warren." Jersey City obtained nearly all its teachers from the local high school; secondary school graduates entered the city's teaching ranks after a post-graduate year studying subject matter and teaching methods. In 1893-1894 over a third of New Jersey teachers were products of these city training programs.

High school advocates insisted that the public school system should be a complete one and that the best way to improve elementary schools was to establish high schools which would challenge their pupils intellectually. In 1894 B. C. Gregory, Trenton Superintendent of Schools, expressed this:

The character and tone of the lower grades of the public school system are directly proportional to the character and tone of the High School. The High School is the goal toward which much effort in the grammar and primary school tends. Pupils remain longer in the lower grades because they desire to reach the High School. . . . There is no purpose that is answered by a lower school that is not better answered by a higher one, and the right policy, in regard to a common school system, is to lay a strong foundation, and then build upon it as high as is practically possible.

The friends of the high schools argued that the high school brought out the best in American society because it was a classless school—one in which poor and rich studied together—and that it promoted the social and economic welfare of American democracy. They argued, too, that the high school was the social agency which could best meet the educational needs of older boys and girls looking for terminal education.

A persuasive influence was a new high school in a neighboring city or town. William L. Dickenson used this argument in 1879 to preserve Jersey City's high school:

New York, Brooklyn, Newark, and Hoboken, our neighbors, all have high schools. Will Jersey City act wisely if it closes its High School, thereby reducing the efficiency of its Grammar and Primary Departments, and thus virtually say to strangers seeking a place for permanent residence, go to New York or Brooklyn or Hoboken if you seek the best advantages for your children?

But not enough of the state's youth were taking advantage of these new educational opportunities. State Superintendent Poland reported to the legislature in 1894 that high school students accounted for only 4 per cent of the total public school enrollments. The percentage was lower in the larger cities. In Camden high school enrollees were a mere 1 per cent of the school enrollment; in Hoboken, 1½ per cent; in Elizabeth, 2 per cent. High school enrollments in Newark, Paterson and Jersey City

made up 3 per cent of their total enrollments. Poland thought that the high school should be trying to meet the educational needs of at least 10 per cent of the total school enrollments. By 1960, high schools were actually enrolling 27 per cent.

Poland blamed the low enrollments on the elementary schools, saying that these acted too frequently as bottlenecks, requiring children to go over the same subjects year after year. He felt pupils should be pushed ahead into the maturer studies of the high school. In the urban areas, foreign-born parents, economically handicapped, often felt compelled to forego high school education for their offspring. Newark's Superintendent Sears noted the lure of the factory bench over the high school desk. Pointing out that of 200 students entering Newark high school, only 40 would eventually graduate—an 80 per cent rate of attrition—he commented:

Some of our children are removed from the school this early from necessity, though I believe most of it imaginary. There are, however, instances where one or two dollars a week earned by a ten-year-old boy tides over some severe crises in the history of a widowed mother, but the magnetism of the almighty dollar drags more away than poverty.

School officials began to question whether the high school curriculums were meeting the needs of youth. Trenton's school head in 1891 bluntly informed his board that Trenton high school academic and commercial curricula did not begin to meet the interests and needs of boys who neither wished to go to college nor into business offices. And there were a few die-hards. As late as 1895 the Bergen County superintendent could say: "The number studying high school subjects is decreasing, and if the grammar course was made nine years, not over one per cent would be left. The day is at hand when public sentiment will abolish high schools." He was wrong of course; by the middle of the 1890's the high school movement was in the initial stages of a tremendous expansion; its roots had taken firm hold.

WHAT THE SCHOOLS TAUGHT

To see what was offered New Jersey youth who did attend the high schools of the period—and to see why more were not interested—consider the developing curriculums of three New Jersey high schools in the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

Phillipsburg's high school program, in the 1870's, was in a firmly classical mold. It called for a few brave and verbally-minded students to study the following courses:

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Syntax
Etymology
Orthography

LATIN

Beginning Latin
Caesar
Virgil
Cicero
Latin Reader
Latin Prose

GREEK

Greek Reader
Greek Prose

MATHEMATICS

Arithmetic
Algebra
Geometry

SCIENCE

Astronomy
Natural Philosophy
Geology
Physiology
Botany

SOCIAL SCIENCE

Greek History
Roman History
Ancient Geography
United States History

RELIGION

Greek Testament
(Mark, Luke, John)
Greek Testament
(Matthew)
Biblical Geography

The curriculum operated on a single track. A young man, once embarked upon it, had no alternative but to follow the outlined program. Some concessions were made to young ladies, for whom there was a course preparing them to teach in the local schools. The program for boys would prepare them for entrance to any college in the country. Unfortunately it had little appeal to Phillipsburg grammar pupils, who left school in large numbers after graduation from grammar school. The 1876 high school graduates numbered only eight—four boys and four girls. Their scholastic prowess, however,

was the admiration of the overflow crowd that attended commencement in the local Presbyterian Church and was told that three of the male graduates had been accepted at Lafayette College.

Over the next twenty years Phillipsburg dropped the classical curriculum and replaced it with an English curriculum, a program of studies devoid of classical or foreign languages. The classics were re-established, however, and by 1892 Phillipsburg maintained two curriculums, English and classical. Fifteen courses were to be taken by students of both curriculums. These were in the broad fields of mathematics, science, English and American literature, English grammar and composition, speech, and universal history. Those who then chose the classical curriculum were given a program even more classically oriented than that of 1876; it included seven Latin courses, five Greek, and courses in Greek and Roman history and geography. Those to whom the intellectual rigor of this program had little appeal could choose the English program: Shakespeare, Bryant, Irving, Bunyan, study of words, English history, physics, civil government, commercial law, modern geography, physical geography, and bookkeeping.

In contrast to the Phillipsburg curriculums, Plainfield youth in 1872 studied the following:

MATHEMATICS

Arithmetic

Algebra

Geometry

Trigonometry

SCIENCE

Natural Philosophy

Botany

Zoology

Astronomy

Chemistry

Geology

Physiology

SOCIAL SCIENCE

Physical Geography

Modern history

Science of Government

ENGLISH

Grammar

Rhetoric

Spelling

Parsing

Study of Words

Reading

OTHER COURSES

Bookkeeping

Logic

Mental Philosophy

Moral Philosophy

During the sophomore year students were allowed to substitute French, German, or Latin for a regular course, and in the junior year Greek was available. Greek and Latin courses were planned for college preparation. In effect this was a dual curriculum—a non-foreign language and a classical program. The Plainfield student was required to write a theme each week and give a speech in every three-week period.

By 1894 the Plainfield program operated at three distinct levels. The classical curriculum, emphasizing Greek and Latin, prepared students for entrance into any college or university. A “general curriculum” was “designed



A secondary school domestic science class in the 19th century

to give a good general education to pupils who are not going to college, and also to prepare for a college course where Greek is not required." Finally, an English curriculum attracted students who were not fond of foreign languages. The Plainfield superintendent wrote, "considerable latitude is given in the choice of studies, the aim being to meet the special needs of each pupil, in accordance with the wishes of his parents."

The Passaic Superintendent of Schools, in the 1870's, had expressed doubt as to whether the Passaic high school curriculum was any better than grammar school courses in neighboring cities. Here are its principal characteristics:

A single three year curriculum.

A freshman program of studies similar to that offered in a higher grammar school grade—heavy on English grammar, spelling, arithmetic, and geography.

No foreign language required, although Latin might be elected.

In the last two years, considerable emphasis on mathematics and science courses.

Continued stress on formal grammar throughout the high school program.

A choice of a course in writing skills or bookkeeping.

Written compositions and declamations required in all three years.

A requirement that students write for the school paper once a month.

By 1895 Passaic, like Plainfield, offered three curriculums. One, ultra-classical, was for college entrance. Facing the student in his bid for its diploma was success-

ful completion of four years of Latin, three years of Greek, four years of English, and two and one-half years of social science courses. In a second program, the academic Passaic student agreed to study three years of French or German (five periods each week), three and one-half years of science courses, and three years in the social sciences, which included courses in economics, Greek and Roman history, and English history. Finally there was an English-Latin program of studies which gave students an opportunity to major in Latin, but offered a core of general education courses in science, mathematics, English, and social sciences. Yet, despite this emphasis on the academic, the Passaic curriculums of the 1890's included courses in manual training, music, cooking, and physical education. Along with his Greek or Latin the Passaic student had a chance to learn with his hands as well as his head.

In these three ways did the high school curriculum evolve in three New Jersey communities. On the other hand Hackensack looked askance at such programs: "The entire program is English exclusively, no instruction in the classics or foreign tongues being attempted." The superintendent questioned "the propriety of allotting the classics a place in the common public school system." The Mount Holly superintendent forcefully and un-diplomatically echoed the anti-classical feelings:

The schools of Mount Holly are American schools. In them the American-English language is taught. We hold that a public school life of a pupil is too short to be frittered away in acquiring German, French, Russian, Jew, and what not, to the resulting exclusion of acquiring the best knowledge and practice possible of our national tongue. To make our public school subserve the wishes of foreigners is a folly and a wrong. If foreigners prefer America let them become Americans—one country, one language, one flag.

But not all opponents of the classical program wrapped themselves in the flag. Large city school systems faced

the vexing problems of devising a curriculum meeting the needs and interests of boys for whom a classical or even a commercial program had little appeal. The Pater-son superintendent, in 1891, said:

A practical education. . . . is that kind of education which the great majority of the people of this city require and demand for their children, and which alone they have time for, being compelled to assist in earning a livelihood. On the other hand, a comparative few claim that our High School should have a curriculum which will prepare students for entrance to college, and therefore they urge that our High School course should embrace the classics—Latin, Greek, etc.,—and they point to the fact that many city High Schools include these courses of study, and hence we are “behind the times” in not presenting all the advantages for a prospective liberal or college course to be pursued, if desired by any, on graduation from High School. Such are the demands of the great majority and the small minority.

Some high schools compromised by offering freshmen courses with a practical bent. Then at the beginning of the sophomore year, students could choose a specialized curriculum: Latin-scientific or English. Flemington’s program in 1894 was of this type. All freshmen took courses such as business arithmetic, commercial geography, and law, government, bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, and advanced grammar. Then they elected either a program very heavily loaded with Latin, or a curriculum requiring German, more science courses, and English and American literature.

Union High School, in 1882, had a unique one-year program of English literature, American literature, book-keeping, algebra, plane geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, natural philosophy, botany, physiology, ancient history, modern history, civics, and penmanship. Joseph Headley was the sole enrollee. He studied all fourteen courses, reciting in the evenings at the home of the high school principal. He received his diploma, and went on to study at Montclair Academy and at Rutgers.

program. On the basis of it Moorestown enriched its grammar school program with secondary courses, and Newark decided to move algebra down into the eighth grade.

By the 1890's, however, New Jersey had changed from an agricultural rural state to an urbanized, industrial one. Its gains in population after the Civil War were very rapid, and to the native American majority were added, in the cities, the immigrants recently arrived from southern Europe. To meet these fundamental changes in population and economy, the "literary" high school programs outlined by the Committee of Ten would not do. There was a demand for more practical programs for pupils with varying abilities and interests. Courses in manual training, cooking, music, physical training, and drawing appeared, and some school systems introduced "commercial curriculums."

THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER

The most important teacher on the high school staff in the early days was the principal. From the beginning most principals were men, usually scholars, graduates of respected colleges and universities. Montclair's first principal, John W. Taylor, was a Harvard graduate; his successor, John P. Gross was from Bowdoin; Randall Spaulding, the third, from Yale. Some principals held advanced degrees. Dr. William H. Brace, Trenton's principal from 1874 to 1901, was a classical scholar and a Latin teacher. He was succeeded by Dr. William A. Wetzel, who served until 1934. (Over its first sixty years Trenton High School was headed by these two teacher-scholars, who built the foundations of one of the nation's finest high schools.) These early principals were teachers as well as administrators. Edmund Harvey, Newark principal in 1880, administered the high school and taught Latin, chemistry, and geology. Spaulding in Montclair built a reputation as both administrator and teacher; he took his botany and geology classes on field trips, and

when he taught German by the conversational method, his pupils later boasted that they "had no difficulty in speaking that language when visiting Germany."

For a close-up of a rural school principal's working day, here is the 1894 schedule of the versatile Gilhuly of Flemington:

Work is specialized by the principal in reading, drawing, writing and music. I make it a point to teach one of these subjects once a week in every room. I have a calendar by which I work. For instance, Monday is divided as follows: Two periods are given in the office for tardy pupils and reported cases. Then in my own recitation room I have Cicero, physics, and German. This leaves me two periods for visiting, in which I teach reading in Room No. 2 and penmanship in Room No. 1. After dinner I have stenography. English literature and Virgil in my own room, with two periods for visiting for specialized studies; music and drawing in Rooms 6 and 7. On Tuesday the visiting lessons are the same subjects for the same time, but in different rooms. Thus I am able to get all the rooms in special subjects. I still have left two periods a day in which the rooms are visited without regard to special work.

The teachers did not possess the same high academic qualifications as the principals. Montclair, in the early 1870's, had on its three-member faculty graduates of Yale and Bowdoin, but this was unusual. The Newark staff of twelve, in 1880, had three college graduates. This was probably above the state average; on the basis of very inadequate figures, it seems that high school teachers with college degrees constituted from 15 to 20 per cent of the secondary school teaching staff.

The teaching was departmentalized early—by 1876 in Gloucester City. The Paterson superintendent described and justified the process:

The department system of instruction was introduced in the high school in 1885. Previous to that time one instructor taught all the subjects pursued by the pupils in any particular grade. Since that time the work of instruction has been divided up into departments, each teacher in general given one sub-

ject, or one main subject and one allied subordinate one, as his part of the teaching work. The results have been on the part of the high school increasingly satisfactory. The high school instructors have responded to the need of, and have manifested the desire for, a broader scholarship and more exact method. . . . The teaching of a special subject, for example, literature or the writing of English, or a pair of allied subjects such as reading and literature, or history and geography, has seen the opening up of a broader scholarship and more exact knowledge of the subject that could possibly be the case where the time for preparation and teaching was divided between a half-dozen subjects. In more than one of our schools the teacher of literature and reading has given evidence of developing into a specialist in English literature. The same thing will gradually become true of all department teachers.

A graduate of Montclair describes life in a Latin class taught by a Mr. Adams,

who made the boys memorize twenty chapters of Caesar's Gallic Wars. When he asked them to recite, he would not always start at the beginning, which they were more apt to know; he would skip around. However, there would be one boy in the class who knew all the twenty chapters and seldom made a mistake.

A later graduate tells of the discipline:

For whispering, we had to stand a long time facing the class with a piece of parchment, punctured at each end, tied across the mouth. For writing notes or communicating with each other in any way, we had to stay after school and write "communicate" fifty times.

Union high school regulations, in the early 1890's, specified:

1. Boys and girls play together.
2. No communication during school hours without permission.
3. Pupils allowed to consult dictionary or reference books without special permission.

4. One finger raised signifies a desire to leave the building.
5. Two fingers raised signifies a desire to get a drink.
6. Hand raised signifies a desire to speak to the teacher.
7. Closed hand signifies a desire to speak to someone in the room.

East Orange High School encountered a parking problem—with bicycles. This was solved by the erection of a special building 16 by 60 feet with 80 stalls, which was locked during school hours.

An Elizabeth English teacher varied her pace and procedures from day to day. During one classroom period her class would study one of Shakespeare's plays with different students taking different roles. The next day students would search for "choice specimens of English literature" in Scott's *Lady of the Lake*. Later in the week she worked on enlarging vocabulary by the use of Seven-ton's *Analysis*, such work sharing class time with a study of grammatical principles applied to both original and textbook questions. She required a written theme every two weeks, and the class produced a magazine under the direction of a student editor and student reporters.

Teaching itself was always subject to review and direction. Here is a Paterson superintendent's advice to his history staff:

The study of history should result in something more beneficial than a mere memorization and recollection of facts and dates. Every fact embodies a *cause and effect* which should be sought out and recognized by the pupils with only such suggestive aid from the teachers as shall be necessary to lead the way and direct thought—the pupils making all the discoveries possible for them to make for themselves. History presents grand opportunities for a *study of motives*, and this *why* of human actions, together with the resultant effects of that action upon individuals, sects, notions, and the world, may be distinctly and interestingly traced.

Activities calculated to supplement and enrich the regular program began to appear outside the formal

classroom. Student participation was voluntary. At Newark High School, in 1876, we find the Montagu and the Hisperion Societies, the former raising the general cultural level, the latter developing student skills in debating, parliamentary law, and student self-government. In 1884 New Brunswick High School sponsored a student debating society and a "Band of Mercy" society to promote love for animals and gentler treatment of them. Montclair and Orange, in the 1890's, had camera and photography clubs. From Millville, School Superintendent E. C. Stokes, destined to become one of the state's great governors, reported an alumni group, a literary society, an athletic association, and a dramatic club.

There were high school publications, too. What must have been one of the first was the *Annual*, issued by Newark in 1857. By 1876 this had developed into an interesting and informative publication carrying news of students, faculty, and graduates, an editorial page, and a number of student-written essays. The latter were formal and formidable, with titles such as "Bismarck's Ecclesiastical Policy," "Blank Verse," "Gravitation," "Progress in America," and "Last of the Gladiators." Westfield High School, in 1894, reported a monthly paper called the *High School News*, and a Rahway school exhibit boasted a *Junior Herald*.

EXAMINATIONS

Examinations, grading systems and standards for promotion received attention. High school admission was not automatic: Atlantic City, Newark, Rahway, Hoboken, Elizabeth, and Paterson administered examinations for entrance to high school from the grammar schools. In Newark in 1879, 246 grammar school graduates took the high school entrance tests, and slightly over three-quarters—98 girls and 91 boys—achieved the passing grade of 70 per cent. Phillipsburg, with an 80 per cent entrance grade, admitted 36 out of 48 children who took its test. In Paterson, after nearly all the applicants in 1889 had

passed the examination, the superintendent himself constructed the examination and administered it so that "all pupils should be required to undergo the examination in the same way, both as to manner, method, and the marking of examination papers."

Promotion examinations must have given high school students some bad moments. Here are selected questions asked in Elizabeth in 1884:

Physiology: Describe the vocal chords. Their use. How are the higher tones of the voice produced? The lower?

Universal History: What were the Crusades and what led to them? Name four important influences of the Crusades.

Natural Philosophy: Explain the difference between noise and music. Name the three elements of a musical sound, and state the physical cause of each.

Algebra: A man sculls down a stream which runs at the rate of 4 miles an hour, for a certain distance in 1 hour and 40 minutes. In returning it takes him 1 hour and 40 minutes to arrive at a point 3 miles short of his starting point. Find the distance he pulled down the stream and the rate of his pulling.

Geometry: What are the magnitudes in proportion by composition? Prove that if four magnitudes are in proportion, they will be in proportion by composition.

English Literature: From what sources did Shakespeare draw the materials for his dramas? Classify the plays according to the sources from which drawn, and name two or more plays of each class.

Astronomy: What is the galaxy or milky way? What is meant by the proper motion of the stars? Is the solar system fixed in space or is it in motion?

Rhetoric: What is essential to sublimity in a literary composition? What is excluded? What will result if it be attempted to write on a trivial subject?

Moral Philosophy: Analyze gratitude, justice, mercy.

Schools felt, however, that far too much importance was being placed upon the written examination in determining promotion. At Long Branch teachers were told to keep a record of day-by-day student achievement to be used along with the final examination mark, "but under no circumstances is a pupil to be kept back if in the judgment of his teacher he is ready for advancement." The Paterson superintendent wrote that "the review preparatory to these examinations and the examination itself, consumed about the whole of the last month of each term. . . . There can be no question as to the evils of the former written term examination." At Trenton, in 1891, the term mark was to be given a weight of four, while the examination grade was assigned a weight of one. With obvious satisfaction the Trenton superintendent said, "This practically eliminates the examination as a deciding element, and the number of teachers who teach for the examination exclusively, ought to be proportionately diminished." Trenton advanced the use of letter grades: F—Failure; VP—Very Poor; P—Poor; T—Tolerable; G—Good; G—Very Good; E—Excellent; Pr—Perfect:

We lose, of course, the advantages (?) of that mysterious plan whereby there is involved from a jugglery of figures a final figure which is supposed to accurately gauge a pupil's knowledge and development so that a boy who gets 94.5 is supposed to know just eight-tenths of a per cent more than one who received only 93.7.

THE POOR MAN'S ACADEMY

The pride of the people in their high schools continued to grow and the schools became important parts of their communities. Union High School, early in the twentieth century, offered a detailed follow-up of its graduates, their high school activities, their educational attainments, and their current status. They had become



School transportation at the turn of the century

teachers, school administrators, clergymen, lawyers, business men, and cashiers. Professional and business positions accounted for most of them.

Community interest reached a high point at graduation, and the exercises drew capacity crowds. In New Brunswick, in 1876, more than one thousand townspeople crowded into the hall to watch a relatively few boys and girls graduate, and many citizens were turned away. These early commencements were festive affairs. On June 29, 1888, Millville's graduation was held in the Opera House. On the handsomely decorated stage sat members of the board of education, city council, members of the clergy, representatives of the press, the high school principal and the school superintendent. Members of the junior class occupied a private box. The seven graduates delivered carefully prepared and rehearsed essays on the following topics: Rift in the Clouds (Salutatory), There is Work for All, The Unexplored, Think

Right, Think Wrong, but Think for Yourself, Only a Quarter, Women's Past, Present, and Future, and Men of Destiny (Valedictory).

In 1892, however, the Trenton superintendent objected to the artificiality and expense of the graduation exercises, contending that the pupil performances were highly doctored, with their preparation depriving the students of a month's classroom work. He was concerned too at the financial outlays of parents for dresses, flowers, presents, and class rings. In 1893 all essays except the valedictory address were eliminated, and a speaker from Philadelphia delivered a major talk. The Trenton changes were gradually adopted by other schools.

But high school graduation had come to be the symbol of wider opportunities and opened doors. In 1866 the Millville superintendent reports:

In the graduating class was a young colored lad, Charles H. Borican, who graduated with an excellent average, and I think is worthy of special mention. He worked in a brick yard, and got up and went to his task at 2 A.M., so as to complete his task and get the afternoon to complete his studies with the class. Pluck and energy always tell, and this young colored lad, whose graduation essay was an able and eloquent plea for his race, has passed with honor the examinations, and entered Oberlin College, Ohio. The class numbered six, this young colored lad and the five young ladies, and it speaks well for them that they did not feel lowered by the association, but proud of his achievements and cheerfully gave him the place of honor.

IV

A HIGH SCHOOL SYSTEM

(1896 - 1911)

IN his 1895 valedictory as State School Superintendent, Addison B. Poland boasted that the foundations of a high school system had been securely laid. High schools, he claimed, were functioning in the majority of the larger towns and in all the big cities of the state. Charles J. Baxter, beginning a long and fruitful term as Poland's successor, sought to extend the benefits of a high school education to rural New Jersey children. By 1910 New Jersey teachers would hear him triumphantly assert that every New Jersey child, whether a city or a country dweller, was able to obtain a free public school education from the first to the twelfth grade. And by 1910, too, largely through the efforts of State High School Inspector Louis Bevier, the state would be making a real effort to strengthen and improve the quality of the high school education available to its youth.

Superintendent Baxter wrote a shining page in New Jersey educational history. In one of his reports he stated, "The correct administration of school affairs implies leadership, the gift of initiative and the ability to arouse others to intelligent action in the support of measures that will improve educational conditions and thus promote the public welfare."

These beliefs guided him through fifteen crowded years of leadership at a high level of achievement. This was the philosophy which brought a high school educa-

tion within the reach of every New Jersey boy and girl. He was a leader with the initiative and courage to inspire and lead others in great causes.

He himself kept the high school problem before the public as he prodded others into promoting the development of secondary schools. Soon after he took office, he read to the New Jersey Council of Education a carefully prepared paper on the need for township high schools, insisting that this was a propitious time. The legislature had recently replaced the small neighborhood school district with the larger township as a local administrative unit, thus broadening the pupil- and wealth-bases for the support of secondary schools. Courses of study, grading practices, standards of promotion, and teaching procedures had been greatly improved in the rural elementary schools, and offered sound academic foundations. Supervising principals in ever-increasing numbers were now available for the full-time supervision the new secondary programs would require. His specific proposal was simple: he called for the establishment of a high school in each township, with an increase in the state school tax to yield two hundred thousand dollars, a portion of which would be earmarked for the support of township high schools. He insisted that sparsity of population was a weak argument against a high school in each township. He called attention to New Jersey's excellent railroads, extensive trolley systems, and relatively flat country roads over which young people might, if need be, bicycle to a central high school:

Many of our young people think nothing of taking an eight or ten mile constitutional before breakfast. If this be both a benefit and a pleasure, it would certainly be a delight and blessing to ride as far, or even further, for a purpose, after fortifying their systems with a good substantial meal.

Baxter's main purpose may well have been to get legislators, school people, and the public at large thinking in general terms of high school expansion. For even in his

official family there were those who would not go all the way with him. That cantankerous old county superintendent of schools, John Terhune of Bergen, while no longer opposing the whole idea of high school expansion, looked askance at the idea of a high school in every township. Instead Terhune urged county high schools:

What we need now is a minimum number of high schools under county administration, free to all who wish to advance. Every child in Bergen County should have equal educational rights, and not a *free* system to those only who live in a progressive section, and a *fee* system to all others.

The Monmouth county superintendent also favored county administered high schools, contending that, "a high school in each township, as some theorists advocate, is an impractical thing. . . . In most townships there is not sufficient population."

Neither the township high school nor the county high school was finally adopted. Terhune soon reported that "one township already pays the tuition of its grammar graduates to the Hackensack High School, and other districts are seriously meditating the same plan." The county superintendent of Essex boasted of the provision made in three small districts to send high school pupils to neighboring schools at public expense. Rutherford reported it provided high school opportunity to many boys and girls from less populous school districts.

These were tentative steps, apparently under local initiative, toward a sending-receiving school district system of secondary education. The 1900 Legislature encouraged them with a law making it permissible for a school district without a high school to send secondary-age school children to a neighboring high school, to pay the tuition for these students, and to furnish them transportation.

A State Teachers Association committee applauded the paying of tuition:

This has been a popular move and is solving the question of

providing for every boy and girl between the ages of five and eighteen, in New Jersey, a thorough and efficient education as required by the Constitution of the State. For a long time boys and girls seeking the advantages offered by high school outside their own districts have attended these schools and paid their own tuition. This seems wrong . . .

The State Board of Education in 1903 attributed the significant increase in secondary school enrollment to the willingness of districts without high schools to meet the expenses of educating their young people in neighboring high school districts. To many friends of education, however, permissive legislation was not enough. A joint committee of the Council of Education and the State High School Teachers Association demanded that a school district without high schools be required to send its secondary students to a neighboring district, and that the sending district be responsible for paying the tuition. For not all rural boards faced up to their responsibilities: transportation and tuition payments raised tax bills; parents were concerned with transportation by wagon:

The vehicles are rarely well adapted to the objects to be attained, and parents dislike to have their children gathered together in vehicles with careless and irresponsible drivers who have no control over children. A team running away with a wagon load of school children has, in one instance, been known to break up the transportation system altogether.

In 1902, in a thinly-veiled warning of action to come, Baxter restated the constitutional obligation and noted: "It can hardly be claimed that a district is obeying the mandate of the organic law when its course of study covers a period of but eight years." By January, 1905, the State School Superintendent felt that public sentiment would support strong state leadership in making a high school education available to all of the state's children.

The chief state school officer issued a circular to local school officials and taxpayers. He reminded them that



New Brunswick High School—a high school of the 1890's

the state was responsible for providing free, public education for all children between the ages of five and eighteen. Any school district, he said, which confined its educational program to eight grades was not, as an agent of the state, carrying out the constitutional mandate, since eighteen-year-old youths were of high school age and were in no position to benefit educationally from an elementary school program.

Therefore Baxter ordered all elementary school districts to make high school education available to their youth. A district could operate its own high school or could send its pupils to an adjoining district while paying for the transportation and tuition of the students it sent. Districts refusing to provide a secondary school education would have their state school aid apportionments withheld.

The state superintendent justified his circular on the principle of equality of opportunity for rural youth:

For the purpose of establishing uniformity of efficiency in our free public schools and of assuring the future prosperity of our many important interests, also as a duty to society and a measure of self-preservation, the State has assumed control of public education. All children are its educational proteges, all are equally dear to it, and as judged by its standard or by any correct standard of merit, all are of equal importance. Therefore the state is merited in demanding, and as a manner of justice and equity does demand, that its liberal appropriations for the support of public education shall be so supplemented by district funds and so administered as to confer, in so far as varying conditions will permit, equal benefit upon all children residing in the State.

Never had any other state school official issued an order with such force of law: Baxter was boldly interpreting and applying the State Constitution. However, before his circular appeared, its legality had been approved by the state's attorney-general. So Baxter sent it throughout the state and awaited developments.

Most reactions, especially from school people, were favorable. The Hunterdon County superintendent said it "had accomplished all that your most sanguine expectations could have hoped for," while the Morris County school head hailed it as the "greatest step forward in educational matters that we have taken in many years." Some, however, felt that Baxter had gone too far in asserting state authority and had violated the principle of home rule. The Frelinghuysen Township board of education challenged Baxter's order by refusing to pay the cost of transporting one of its students to a high school in a neighboring district. When the county superintendent cut off Frelinghuysen's state school aid, the local board took its case to court. The local board had the satisfaction of being upheld by the State Supreme Court on the grounds that the 1900 state law was permissive.

The Frelinghuysen board had won a battle but lost a

war. The undaunted State School Superintendent persuaded the 1907 Legislature to make it mandatory for each school district to provide school facilities for all children between the ages of five and twenty. Boards were ordered to meet the mandate by providing high school facilities themselves or by paying transportation and tuition for their students to neighboring high schools. Forced to the test, the legislature supported Baxter's position.

It made a real effort, however, to soften the blow to both local pride and pocketbook. The legislature also ordered that county superintendents allocate to local districts \$400 for each teacher of a four-year high school, \$300 for every teacher in a three-year high school, and \$25 for every student sent to a high school outside the district. The state would pay 75 per cent of the cost of transporting students to adjoining districts. These far-reaching 1907 statutes were a long step toward making high school expansion a joint enterprise of the state and of local communities. They provided a tremendous impetus to high school growth.

With this achievement Baxter capped a brilliant professional career—he deserved the title “Father of the New Jersey High School.” When he died, in 1916, the teachers of the state adopted the following tribute:

He was esteemed by the teachers and regarded by them as a just and generous friend. He was influential in extending the scope of public education in New Jersey until it put within the reach of every child in the State an education that comprehended all the grades up to and including the high schools. This will ever remain a monument to his foresight and discernment in carrying out the provisions of the State Constitution, which provides a thorough and efficient education for every boy and girl between the ages of five and eighteen years.

PROBLEMS OF EXPANSION

Baxter could boast that the increases in high school enrollment in this period were “by far the greatest ever

recorded in the history of our schools." They jumped from 12,980 in 1902 to 27,090 in 1911—a gain of 109 per cent. There were 603 teachers in 1902, 1159 in 1911—a gain of 92 per cent. In 1902 there were 69 four-year high schools; by 1911 there were 115.

As a result of the rapid growth of small rural schools, however, the typical (median) high school in 1912 enrolled only 53 students, taught by three teachers. The state high school inspector became concerned over the "unnecessary multiplication of small high schools in the sparsely settled counties," and his concern had merit.

At Lambertville, around the turn of the century, the high school, on the second floor of the elementary school, gave special emphasis to mental arithmetic and spelling. Its four classes were called Junior, Middle, Sub-senior and Senior:

There was no organized physical education classes, but exercises with wooden dumbbells were held in the assembly room and boys and girls formed their own teams for recreation. Assembly exercises were held every morning and consisted of the reading of the Bible and the singing of songs with the organ being played by the teacher. Lunch was eaten in the assembly room. Drinking water was furnished from a well outside from which a pail of water was drawn and brought inside the front door. A dipper was put in the pail and everybody drank from it. . . . The outdoor toilets were on the hill back of the school. One roller hand towel was provided each week to be used by everyone.

At the same time, cities and larger towns were facing major high school growth. Elizabeth's high school enrollment in 1897 was 300 above that of 1894, while high school graduates in 1897 totaled 87, compared to the 19 students who completed its program in 1894. Trenton High School's 1899 enrollment exceeded its 1894 student body by 83 per cent. Between 1896 and 1900 Somerville High School grew 80 per cent. Perth Amboy's 1904 high school roll was 441 per cent above that of 1894.

The surge of students in the high schools of the larger



Passaic High School physical education class, 1912

towns found many school officials unprepared. At Orange High School, in 1898, large classes taxed the patience and strength of teachers. Surging enrollments at Bridgeton High School in 1897 meant that many students were not admitted, even though Bridgeton rented rooms in private buildings to house some excess students. Trenton High School, at the turn of the century, while agreeing to take as many students from neighboring townships as it was able to handle in its overtaxed facilities, was holding classes for 120 in rented rooms.

In 1899 Camden High School left its rented floors downtown to move "out in the country away from the odor of Scull's coffee in the front of the building and Campbell's soups at the back, to say nothing of all sorts of noises from trolleys and shops." But as often happened, the expanding city followed the school:

Trolley tracks were laid in front of the school, and trolley tracks were laid at the side of the school, and the car barns were moved out to Newton Avenue. . . . When the cars rounded the corner on the way to or from the barn, it sounded

as if they were going right through the building. The Pennsylvania Railroad concluded that they wished to elevate their tracks and thus have a part in all our auditorium exercises. And the school . . . grew and grew and the Board of Education talked and talked about a new building. Five hundred was the limit for comfortable living. Between eight and nine hundred came, and the school finally closed at 5:30.

City officials tried to meet the building needs of the hard-pressed secondary schools. New high school buildings were erected in Atlantic City, West Orange, Newark, Perth Amboy, Long Branch, Plainfield, Trenton, Paterson, Camden, Jersey City, Orange, and Bayonne. Many of them were imposing. Trenton's had a durable exterior construction of Cleveland sandstone. It had classrooms to accommodate 800 students, including a science lecture room and three laboratories, and a large, beautiful auditorium for 645. It was dedicated with much fanfare in April, 1901. When Paterson built a new high school in 1911, its auditorium seated 1500, and it had thoroughly equipped chemical, physical and biological science laboratories, library, art and mechanical drawing rooms, wood and iron working shops, and cooking and sewing rooms.

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM

High school curriculums were in ferment as school officials considered what should be taught to the rapidly growing student body. The range of student ability, needs, and interests had widened considerably. Curricular programs suitable to secondary school youth in the 1870's and 1880's were not necessarily appropriate for students knocking at high school doors in 1900. Curriculum reappraisal was essential.

We have already examined the programs of three high schools in the 1870's and 1890's. Let us see how these same schools changed their programs of study during the 1895-1911 period.

By 1905 Phillipsburg's young people might select one of four curriculums: academic, college preparatory (arts), college preparatory (science), and normal school. The academic program was designed for students who had not, early in their high school careers, determined whether they wanted to attend college. They were required to study mathematics (two years), history (one and one-half years), drawing (one year), English (four years). They chose between three years of Latin, and one year of Latin and two of German. If these students decided not to attend college, they could take electives in commercial subjects. If they decided late to go to college, they were offered electives in college preparatory mathematics, science, and modern languages.

The science-and-engineering-minded students, in the college preparatory science curriculum, were compelled to take courses heavily-weighted in mathematics and science. Four years of English were required, as were two years of German and one of Latin. They were offered free electives in science, literature, and modern languages. In the college preparatory arts program four years of Latin were required, as were four years of English. Mathematics and science requirements were relatively light, and the greatest number of free electives was available so that these students might choose specific courses required by the colleges of their choice.

Finally there was the normal school preparatory program, open to students expecting to attend the normal school at Trenton. Their goal was teaching in the public schools. This was a rigorous curriculum, calling for the study of college preparatory mathematics (three years), science (three years), history (two and one-half years), English (four years) and Latin (four years), or German (three years) and Latin (one year). This curriculum required more college preparatory subjects than any of the others, and offered no free electives at all.

By the turn of the twentieth century Plainfield had altered its high school curriculum "to meet the needs of all classes of people." It offered a choice of five curricu-

lums: classical, Latin-scientific, modern language, English, and commercial.

It proudly declared that successful graduates of its classical curriculum would qualify academically for any university or college in the country. Upon recommendation of its principal, they would be admitted without examination to such famed institutions as Amherst, Williams, Wesleyan, Oberlin, Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, Princeton, Harvard, Yale, and Columbia. The classical program at Plainfield was as academic as that of a private preparatory school. It required Latin (four years), Greek (three years), English (four years), and college preparatory mathematics (three years). No science courses were required, but if the college which the Plainfield classicist wished to attend called for science courses, the student would elect them. Otherwise he might elect modern languages or more mathematics. The sole difference between this program and the Latin-scientific was the absence of Greek in the latter.

The modern language curriculum, requiring neither Greek nor Latin, demanded English (four years), French (three years), German (one year), mathematics (two years), and social science (two years). Among the electives were mathematics, science, literature, and history. In the English curriculum the student was able to avoid all foreign languages. He faced instead English (four years), college preparatory mathematics (four years), college preparatory science (four years), history courses (three years), and English literature (one year). Courses such as algebra, plane geometry, solid geometry, trigonometry, chemistry, physics, geology, physical geography, ancient history, and modern history called for academic effort.

Plainfield's commercial curriculum sought to give technical instruction "but it also has an important disciplinary value in training to correctness and accuracy, and it offers a large fund of general information." It was no short-order affair; rather it was a four-year program which required English (four years), algebra (one year), ancient history (one year), and seven full-year courses in

the commercial field. The free electives were limited to modern languages, college preparatory mathematics and science, ancient and modern history, and literature. The required commercial courses had a modern ring: book-keeping, stenography, typewriting, and office practices.

Our third community, Passaic, underwent a major and radical change in its secondary school program. Multiple curriculums were abandoned for what might be called a single curriculum. All students, regardless of their post-high-school goals, had the following courses in each of their four high school years: English (4 recitations per week), reading and elocution (1), current events (1), vocal music (1), and physical education (1).

With the above subjects as a base, students were permitted to elect courses year by year from among broad categories of ancient languages, modern languages, mathematics, science, history, and commercial studies. The student bound for Harvard would take Latin, Greek, and mathematics. After meeting the minimum requirements for Harvard, however, he had freedom to choose among a relatively wide range of courses. In the same manner, the business-minded girl, in her choice of electives, could build a major program of commercial subjects and select other courses which appealed to her. The non-college-bound and non-business youth saw, on his elective-choice sheet, only such courses as ancient history, modern history, physics, chemistry, zoology, algebra, geometry, medieval history, stenography, typewriting, and bookkeeping; nevertheless, it was possible by a careful selection of courses, to end up with a satisfying program of general education. Ground rules for this extreme elective type curriculum required that the student receive guidance in his choices from parents, principal, and faculty.

In the programs of these three high schools and others the major trends were the concern for the student who was not going to college, wide use of electives, and the rise of the commercial curriculum.

The surge of enrollments in the high schools of the

early 1900's brought students there who had different interests, needs, and abilities from those of their 1870 counterparts. Speaking at the cornerstone-laying of Pater-son's fine new high school in 1909, Poland, then Newark superintendent, voiced the responsibility of the state's high schools for meeting the needs of their changing student bodies:

Equality of opportunity means the right of each individual to enjoy the kind of education best suited to his particular needs. To the lad who is soon to become a mechanic equality of opportunity means that he shall receive in school the training that will fit him to become a mechanic. He may rightfully complain of neglect when he sees a fellow pupil whose inten-tion is to go to college receiving instruction in classics, litera-ture, and mathematics and no provision made for himself along the lines of his vocational desire.

Years had to elapse before the needs of the non-college, non-commercial student would really be met. But the high schools of the early 1900's were moving in that direction. By developing multiple curriculums, high schools had begun to adapt their programs to the in-terests and needs of changing student bodies.

Spurred on by President Charles Eliot of Harvard Uni-versity and by the Committee on College Entrance Re-quirements of the National Education Association, many larger high schools gave their pupils opportunities to meet their interests and desires through elective courses. Some school officials, however, felt that this was merely the latest educational fad; others feared that too many students elected courses by whim and fancy. The New Jersey Council of Education in 1903 insisted that a genuine elective system needed a large, well-equipped school and an elaborate system of pupil-study in the grammar grades. "The so-called elective system in most of the high schools is unscientific, irrational, and un-worthy of the name."

A few years later State High School Inspector Louis Bevier reported that the indiscriminate employment of the free elective system had been virtually abandoned.

And while New Jersey high schools of the 1960's employ free electives, they also have elaborate guidance systems.

Still another curriculum development of the 1895-1911 years was the meteoric rise of the commercial curriculum. While a few New Jersey high schools had maintained such programs prior to 1895, it was not until the turn of the century that schools adopted this curriculum in large numbers. Plainfield, Atlantic City, Hackensack, Orange, Perth Amboy, Bayonne, Rahway, Union, Millville, Somerville, Englewood, Morristown, and Montclair—these were a few of the high schools which introduced the commercial program during this period.

Again the rush to adopt an innovation caused the state's educational leaders much concern. Obviously fearing that school districts might organize commercial curriculums too technical and too thin in general education, the New Jersey Council of Education, through a 1902 committee, devised and recommended a curriculum and model courses of study for the subjects it contained. In addition to a core of required commercial subjects, the proposed four-year curriculum contained four years of English and four years of German, with free electives only in mathematics, science, and history.

The Council's concern was justified. Many high schools constructed commercial programs of two years, made up almost entirely of technical subjects. Other schools inserted a few commercial courses into other curriculums. On this practice the New Brunswick superintendent commented:

I believe in a commercial course, one of high grade; but I am opposed to the plan of intermingling such a department with our regular high school classes. Whenever advanced pupils in sufficient number indicate a desire for a year's work in commercial branches, I recommend that they be assigned a classroom by themselves and placed under the sole charge of an instructor who has had special training for that kind of work.

State Inspector Bevier battled for a four-year commercial curriculum consisting of a major in commercial subjects together with four years "of the best High school

instruction in English, to say nothing of other languages, mathematics, and History." He inveighed against the narrow, technical nature of the two-year commercial program, insisting that a high school diploma lost its value if given to the two-year commercial program students. The State Board of Education finally called upon high schools to establish four-year commercial curriculums.

These years also saw the virtual demise of the ultra-classical high school curriculum. Universities and colleges would now admit students without Greek as an entrance unit. By 1911 Greek had almost disappeared as a New Jersey high school course; in that year, only 139 students were taking Greek. Latin did not share Greek's fall from grace, however. The five most popular subjects in the 1911 high schools were English, algebra, Latin, German, and drawing. But while the older college preparatory subjects still dominated the list, the newer subjects, such as drawing, music, bookkeeping, type-writing, and commercial arithmetic, were making appreciable gains.

Many schools grappled in bewilderment with this problem, like one northern New Jersey high school, making, in the early 1900's, a sincere effort to establish a manual training course:

A few saws, hammers, chisels etc., were provided and among the teachers, all females, one was found who could drive a nail straight, so she was given charge of the new class. It was popular and grew, but it was soon evident that proper quarters would have to be provided and more equipment needed. All this was discussed for some time and resulted in the appointment of a committee to help solve the problem. Both a minority report and a majority report were made, and the problem was still unsolved.

Given time, however, this high school and many others started to meet the demands of the changing student enrollment until learning activities in art, music, commercial courses, and manual training found their way into the regular secondary school programs of studies.

The small high schools, which were springing up all over New Jersey, did not, of course, have multiple curriculums, free electives, or commercial programs. On the contrary, these small institutions had only one curriculum, and that, in many cases, for two or three years only. They had neither students, equipment, nor facilities to make differentiated curriculums possible. Working together Middlesex County's small high schools produced a common, county-wide high school curriculum. It was a single program, geared chiefly to the formal, college preparatory courses. All high school age youth attending the smaller Middlesex secondary schools in 1906 had to study English, mathematics, science, Latin, and history in all four years. No electives were offered.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

During the 1895-1911 years, however, more secondary schools displayed willingness to go beyond the regular curriculum in an attempt to meet student interests outside the classroom. This brought into being athletic programs, student councils, musical organizations, and forensic activities. Earlier activities were expanded and newer ones were adopted. School officials began to feel that the high school education of an expanding and changing student population called for something more than the administration of formal academic courses of study with their continued emphasis upon mastery of subject matter in the textbooks.

In South Orange, early in the 1900's, a group of boys, many of them high school students, formed the Prospect Athletic Club. Although in dire need of materials, playing fields, and equipment, this group went on to organize football and basketball teams. Impressed by their enthusiasm and fine civic attitude, the South Orange High School embarked on an athletic program of its own. An athletic association was formed, with football, basketball, and baseball teams. In a short time South Orange became a member of the new Northern

New Jersey Interscholastic League, competing with the secondary schools of Paterson, Orange, and Bloomfield. Because of uncertain eligibility standards, unsportsmanlike conduct, and the difficulty of keeping the playing fields free from partisan fans, this league had only a three-year life.

The South Orange athletic teams then took part in independent competition. A seventh-grade teacher and a local clergyman donated their services as coaches and a prominent citizen managed the teams. Another interested citizen provided a playing field and facilities, which included a locker room with shower bath.

Soaring high school enrollments threatened the athletic program in 1904. Space formerly used as a basketball court was needed for classrooms. Adult sponsors were no longer able to devote time to athletic teams. A slump in athletics took place, and with it a general lowering of school spirit. Boys dropped out of high school in alarming numbers. The school board claimed that "the lack of athletics probably accounted for the most of the falling off in the number of boys, as the great success of the teams previously accounted for the unusually large proportion of boys." When plans were made to remodel the high school, a provision for a new gymnasium was included in the blueprints.

At the turn of the century a sports program was developing at Trenton High School. An elaborate constitution was drawn up for the high school athletic association. *The Spectator*, the high school newspaper, argued that "athletics develops the boys and brings out qualities which no books will ever draw out. A successful athletic team . . . serves to bring the name of the school before the public in a way which no amount of paid advertising would produce."

The New Jersey Council of Education in 1908 was warned that, while interscholastic athletics had much educational value, they had unleashed many practices which reached the stage of scandal and disgrace. A committee noted the use of "ringers" by high school

teams, the tolerance with which academically-weak students were permitted to use their time playing baseball, and the outbreaks of poor sportsmanship. High school principals were reminded that sports programs, particularly football, had grown to Gargantuan proportions.

Another innovation was the student self-government group. Adopted by many secondary schools, this type of school activity aimed to provide students with opportunities to control their own school life in a democratic manner. By participating in self-rule students were expected to develop initiative, a feeling of responsibility, and skill in parliamentary procedures.

Although the objectives of the self-government plans were similar, high schools organized their councils in different ways. At Orange High School, in 1901, each class selected two tribunes to serve on the student board. This agency had authority over the government and conduct of the pupils, subject to the ultimate control of the school superintendent and to the advice and counsel of the high school vice-principal, who acted as its president. At the close of the school day the council met as a judicial body to conduct hearings and pass judgment on offenders. As a mark of authority the tribunes wore badges, and they were inducted into office at an impressive ceremony.

In Elizabeth's Battin High School, the student council consisted of 13 councilmen chosen by the student body. This group made its own rules which, according to the school superintendent, were "more searching than any principal would make." When a group of high school students sought to hold a dance outside the high school building, the student government turned down the petition, declaring that it would not be in the school's best interest. The proud school superintendent declared that few superintendents or principals would have the courage to make this kind of decision.

It is difficult to determine how much responsibility the high schools granted their student government organizations. In South Orange the student council was limited

to dealing with school matters over which it might exercise reasonable final authority. In vitally important concerns involving basic policies, the school officials had no intention of shifting responsibility to relatively immature students.

For crowd appeal and enthusiasm, public speaking activities at times challenged high school athletic contests. At Hoboken High School, for example, oratorical contests attracted large audiences. The winners received ten- and twenty-dollar gold pieces as prizes. In Middlesex county, in 1904, high school debating teams challenged each other to an interscholastic contest. When New Brunswick High School defeated Perth Amboy High School on the debating platform, the topic was "Resolved that our national government should own and control all railroads operated in the United States." At Rahway High School in 1903 the number of students interested in oratory and debating was so great that four societies were organized.

Many high schools organized orchestras, choral groups, glee clubs, and even banjo clubs. School officials hoped that talented students in music would become still more proficient and that these activities would instill a love for great music. High school orchestras and choral groups were excellent for celebrating holidays, and helped create school spirit. There was also a public relations value in musical organizations. The Plainfield High School choral group sang cantatas in the town's churches. Vineland expected its orchestra to "keep more pupils in school through the grammar grades and increase the enrollment of the high school."

High school publications multiplied: *Camden Quill*, *Camden Purple and Gold*, *Glen Ridge Comet*, *Hoboken Chat*, *Plainfield Oracle*, *Dover Emblem*, *Trenton Spectator* and the *Montclair Bulletin*. The *Trenton Spectator* proclaimed its goals in its 1902 inaugural editorial:

The interests of the *Spectator* are these of the students and the alumni; its aim is to bring before the school worthy literature, to create a school spirit; to kindle the feeling that the High

School in all of its departments is ours; to spread the idea that the individual student holds in his power to make the reputation of the school good or bad; to encourage whatever is good and to use its influence against that which is bad; in short, it will strive to be a mirror of school life, and to instill an esprit de corps into the student body.

Included in this maiden edition was the usual bill-of-fare—the conventional essays, poems, aphorisms, and a short story. But there was also a hard-hitting editorial protesting trolley car service and another on the value of athletics. Noteworthy also was a round table discussion on serious problems facing the school.

South Orange High School was determined to win public support and understanding for the schools and make them the pride of the people. Such understanding was needed in the early 1900's with rising enrollments and increased school taxes. School Superintendent Henry W. Foster, endorsing "publicity, continuous, frank, and accurate, and of a sort people would read," conceived the idea of making the high school journalism program an instrument for such publicity. High school students wrote a school column in the local newspaper. Called the "School News" this column mirrored the school's concerns—athletics, school elections, curriculum development, and board of education problems. Foster insisted that "that work was of extraordinary value to the students themselves. It had an element of reality and responsibility which is lacking in school compositions or subjects only for practice in writing without a vital appeal, fore-doomed to the waste-basket."

THE TEACHING STAFF

High school growth pointed up the need for staffing the new educational institutions with competent teachers. Teacher quality, along with quantity, became a prime topic at school board meetings, administrative gatherings, and teacher conventions.

There were 603 teachers in New Jersey high schools in 1902; by 1909 the number had grown to 1005, an increase

of 65 per cent, though the gain did not keep pace with the 72 per cent rise in high school enrollments. Try as they might, school officials were never quite able to keep the supply of secondary school teachers up with the vaulting enrollments. The State High School Inspector writes:

Perhaps the most pressing of the present high school problems is the difficulty of securing properly equipped teachers. For the present day high school with its highly developed curriculum the teachers should be trained specialists, but the salaries paid are not sufficient to secure such, and even were the salaries larger than they are, where are the trained specialists to come from? A normal school, however excellent and thorough its work may be as far as it goes, cannot possibly, in the two year professional course, give to its students the normal training with the practice teaching attached to it, and also give an adequate amount of specialized work to fit for departmental teaching in a good high school.

No educational institution in New Jersey was preparing high school teachers. Trenton State Normal School, in 1899, had tacked a post-graduate course of one year onto its three-year, elementary-teacher training program. The difficulty was that few students enrolled in the program, since school officials preferred to employ four-year college graduates from out-of-state colleges and universities. The principal of the normal school finally besought the legislature to permit him to organize a genuine four-year curriculum leading toward certification for teaching in the secondary schools. He was supported by State High School Inspector Bevier, who also urged that Rutgers establish a series of courses in professional education. In 1907 the normal school was allowed to organize a four-year curriculum, consisting of academic courses in the freshman and sophomore years, followed by professional teaching courses in the junior and senior years. The State Board of Education however, refused to grant this course degree status, and it produced few teachers. It was discontinued in 1917.

New Jersey continued to depend upon high school

teachers trained outside its borders. This was inevitable, because, by 1911, applicants for high school positions had to have a four-year college degree. At that time no New Jersey four-year college maintained the professional teaching courses which would qualify interested students for the state's secondary school teaching certificate. The new Commissioner of Education, in 1912, observed that:

The number of students graduating from the colleges of the State who become teachers in the public schools of the State is so small as to be almost a negligible quantity—not to exceed five young men who were graduated from the colleges of the State in June 1912, became teachers in New Jersey or elsewhere.

Vigorous efforts were being made to upgrade the standards of education for high school teachers. The cities and larger towns led the way, not waiting to be officially urged from Trenton. Passaic, in 1899, felt justified in requiring candidates for high school teaching positions to have a college degree and to "have received special instruction in the subjects which they are expected to teach." This requirement was timed to coincide with a liberal improvement in teachers' salaries. A year later the Essex County superintendent reported with pride that virtually all the high school teachers in the county were college graduates. A 1906 report shows 65 per cent of the high school teachers in the state held college degrees, 25 per cent were normal school graduates, while the remaining 10 per cent had no degrees from educational institutions beyond high school. Individual schools varied widely, however, in the proportions of teachers with college, normal school, and high school preparation.

State Superintendent Baxter, in 1900, testified to the teaching potential of the degree holder: "Without mastery of the subject there can be no real skill of presentation." On the other hand High School Inspector Bevier felt that the college graduate, expecting to instruct adolescent boys and girls, should have training in teaching methods and actual practice teaching.

Much time is wasted when inexperienced college graduates are put in charge without any previous instruction in the theory and practice of teaching. The first year, generally speaking, is a year of comparative failure. Very often the pupil's power is over-estimated, and discouragement, overwork, and mystification result, all of which could be saved, if the teacher had had a brief, and wisely planned course of normal training, in the last college year, or after graduation.

Increasing numbers of college graduates in high school teaching positions brought changes in New Jersey's licensing of its secondary-school instructors. Prior to 1890 the holder of the four-year college degree was required, along with all other applicants, to take a battery of examinations in academic and professional educational subjects to be certified for teaching in state high schools. In 1890 the State Board of Education ruled that the degree holder need not take the tests in the academic subjects; he was, however, examined in the field of professional education. In the 1890's many of the colleges and universities, particularly those in neighboring New York and Pennsylvania, were administering four-year programs including pedagogical courses. In 1900 the State Board of Education ruled that college graduates might be excused from examinations in subjects for which they had received credit in college. By 1911 new state board rules required that applicants for the secondary certificate be college graduates or holders of diplomas obtained from a normal school with a four-year, high school teacher preparation program or holders of the state permanent elementary certificate. Examinations in psychology with special reference to teaching, history of education, physiology, and hygiene, and principles of secondary education were required if these had not already been studied.

Another significant change provided for certification by subject. Prior to 1911 the holder of the secondary school certificate was eligible to teach any high school subject. A mathematics major in college was legally permitted to teach history in the high schools, even if he

had not studied a single history course in his four years of college work. Inspector Bevier asked the state board for a revision:

Our present sytsem of certification does not sufficiently guard the interests of the High Schools. In the High School the teacher must be in some measure trained as a specialist in those departments which she is to teach. The problem is quite different from that of the grades, and therefore the system of certification should be appropriately differentiated. . . .

The teacher employed for a specific task should be certified specifically for that task. The certificate issued, valid for teaching in the High Schools, should bear upon its face the subjects in which its holder is qualified to give instruction.

After 1911 secondary school certificates listed the subjects the holder was legally qualified to teach.

In 1902 the average annual salary paid New Jersey teachers was \$861; by 1909 it had climbed to \$1005. By comparison the average salary paid high school principals in 1902 was \$1166, and the 1909 figure was \$2289. Even by 1900 teacher-salary schedules had made their appearance in the larger towns. Here is the Jersey City teacher-salary schedule of that year:

HIGH SCHOOL	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
Principal	\$2500	\$3000
Vice-Principal	2000	2500
Men teachers	1500	2400
Women teachers	700	1200
GRAMMAR AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS		
Principal of Grammar Schools	1800	2500
Principal of Primary Departments	1120	1500
Vice-Principal	760	1176
Teachers	408	936

It is noteworthy that the male high school teacher was paid a salary double that paid a female, who may well have taught the same subject. Jersey City also paid its



Lewis L. Bevier, State Inspector of High Schools, 1905-1909

high school teachers, male or female, much more than its elementary teachers.

In 1908 the New Jersey Council of Education conducted what was probably the first statewide salary survey ever made in state schools. It showed the Newark High School male teacher paid \$2165; his Bridgeton counterpart received a third as much, or \$700. The female high school teacher earned \$1457 a year in Newark; in Bordentown she received \$530. While the Newark male high school teacher was earning \$2165, the seventh grade teacher in the same system received \$982. This was \$155 more than a fifth grade teacher's salary; the lowest Newark salary was that of the kindergarten teacher, \$710. It was financially advantageous in the early 1900's to be a male teacher in the secondary schools of the larger cities of north Jersey.

The Perth Amboy superintendent, however, urged a salary policy based entirely upon teaching excellence.

A great need—I think the greatest—in this district is a regulation by which teachers may be paid for their worth. We still make the mistake of measuring salaries according to the grade taught, and will doubtless continue the method for some time to come. Salaries graded according to worth are not only a powerful stimulus to energy and enterprise, but so measured, they bear the impress of right and justice.

Superintendents began to realize that there was a direct relationship between salaries and the holding power of a school system. A 1908 report to the New Jersey State Teachers Association declared that New Jersey's average monthly salary of \$66 enabled it to attract Pennsylvania teachers to New Jersey schools in large numbers, since Pennsylvania teachers were paid only \$45 monthly on an average. On the other hand, New York's average salary of \$89 a month meant that the big city was "continually draining New Jersey of her most ambitious, strongest and best equipped teachers."

INFLUENCES FOR CHANGE

The significant changes in the high schools in this period did not occur by chance. There were specific men who directed them and specific organizations which had tremendous influence upon them.

The colleges, in these years, were making a concerted drive to obtain some measure of standardization in college preparation. The influential Committee on College Entrance Examinations, for example, spelled out the courses which the high schools should offer and went so far as to suggest detailed courses of study, complete with bibliographies. Schools protested the increases in college demands and the time required to meet them; the Madison school head suggested that "the colleges had deliberately entered into a conspiracy to force a young man to secure a liberal education before entering college so that he may have the full four years to devote to football and baseball."

Inspector of High Schools Bevier echoed this complaint:

The teachers of the physical and biological sciences in the colleges and universities have demanded a more generous place for their chosen subjects in the curriculum of the secondary schools and the demand has been based on cogent reasons, and corresponds so entirely to the recent development of thought, that it has compelled a favorable answer. History too has claimed and attained for itself a place of prominence undreamed of until the last few years. These are but illustrations of the great multiplication of subjects which the High School of today is obliged to teach as compared with the demands of yesterday.

College pressures on the high school were organized. Early in the 1890's, under the leadership of the colleges, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was formed, and one of its chief aims was to examine the academic programs of the secondary schools preparing students for college. High schools began to

look upon membership in this group as a mark of academic excellence and distinction. In 1901 the Middle States Association gave birth to the College Entrance Examination Board, which began, early in its life, to play an increasingly important role in the development of high school curriculums.

But curriculums were not the only aspects of the high school to feel the impact of higher institutions. School officials felt that too many high school teachers imitated their college professors' methods of classroom teaching and that high school instructors, like college teachers, were far more interested in obtaining "objective, academic results rather than vital, subjective results." High school dances, commencement exercises, and athletic programs, too, were pale carbon copies of more elaborate collegiate activities.

The New Jersey Council of Education played a major role in advancing the cause of the high schools. Organized in 1887 with the principal purpose of "the consideration and recommendation of the best means of advancing the educational interests of the state," its first members included Barringer, Green, Gregory, and Meleney. By 1907 its membership reads like an educational *Who's Who* of the period: Charles Baxter, Wetzel, Foster, Enright, Farrand, Davey, Inspector Bevier, Spaulding, Preston Smith, Meredith, and Savitz. It operated on the principle that "Legislatures recognize an organized body of educators; a great deal can be effected by organized effort."

Its assertive leadership paid handsome dividends, helping State Superintendent Baxter attain his dream of high schools in rural areas and aiding movements for inspection and full-time supervision of the high schools. It helped improve the standards of high school curriculums and of secondary school teaching, and it guaranteed a measure of sanity in the development of high school extracurricular activities, particularly athletics. The Council made careful studies in problem areas, at the

secondary level, of township high schools, the training and the licensing of teachers, examinations, state supervision, commercial studies, and school sports.

HIGH SCHOOL INSPECTION

Responsible schoolmen, such as those in the Council of Education, began to worry about the lack of uniformity in the emerging high school curriculums. They were further concerned with the lack of any way of gauging efficiency of the secondary schools. In 1901 The Council studied ways and means of bringing a measure of standardization and evaluation to the New Jersey high schools. It turned to New York State, where it could see special school aid for high schools, the use of eleven high school inspectors, and the uniform, state-administered program of Regents Examinations for high schools. But the Council was in no hurry to imitate New York. It finally proposed that a state high school inspector be employed to visit the secondary schools and to report his findings on equipment and curriculums to the State Superintendent. The strongly centralized features of the Regents' system had scant appeal to New Jersey schoolmen.

In 1905 the State Board of Education accepted the Council's proposal and chose Louis Bevier as high school inspector. At the time of his appointment he was Professor of Greek Language and Literature at Rutgers College. In his first year in office Inspector Bevier visited all the high schools on the approved list and others besides, gathering data concerning each school's curriculum, arrangement of courses, equipment, enrollment in relation to population, caliber of teaching, conditions of libraries and science laboratories, and condition of each building. He met with the high school principal or the school superintendent, and then conferred with school board members. His objective was always to improve high school programs.

In an effort to raise standards, and still avoid rigid

standardization, Bevier persuaded the State Board to adopt new standards for approving high schools:

1. Eight years of elementary schooling required for admission to high school.
2. Each high school must have at least one course of study, approved by the State Board of Education, covering four years of school work.
3. The teaching and equipment of the high schools must be approved by the State Board of Education.
4. The teaching force must be adequate in number, and shall, in every case, consist of at least three teachers, each of whom must be engaged exclusively in high school work.
5. To obtain a diploma each student has to complete four full years of study totaling at least 72 academic counts.
6. The high school year has to total at least 38 weeks and each recitation period at least 40 minutes.

Armed with these guidelines Bevier recommended new schools for the approved list, while those denied approval were told of their shortcomings and were urged to seek approval after they had corrected their defects.

It also fell to Bevier's lot to be the first statewide curriculum-coordinator. Distressed with the meagerness of high school courses of study, he organized, in conjunction with the State High School Association, a central curriculum committee made up of many of the state's foremost schoolmen. Sub-groups were assigned specific high school areas: English, the classics, modern languages, history, biological sciences, physical sciences, commercial subjects, mathematics, drawing, and manual training. They wrote course syllabuses, which were submitted to the general committee, to the State High School Association, and finally to the State Board of Education for approval, before being made available to those high schools that wished to use them. Meanwhile his reports to the State Board covered the wide range of high school problems of his time: rural high schools, the need for state aid, technical schools, upgrading of teacher qualifications, the needs of the non-college-bound

students, curriculums, articulation between elementary and high schools, electives, the need for high school agricultural education, and transportation.

His work schedule was arduous; the State Superintendent referred to it as "mountains of labor." In 1907 he made 127 visits to high schools. In between visits he spoke before numerous local school boards, county school board associations, the State Board of Agriculture, the county superintendents, and the State Teachers Association. He performed these tasks on a part-time basis, allotting two-thirds of his working week to high school inspection duties, the other third, presumably, to his teaching at Rutgers.

Bevier studied many other problems which have persisted to the present day, such as homework, examinations, articulation between high and elementary schools, and the improvement of student tastes.

In 1900 the Trenton superintendent of schools sent home to over-ambitious parents a set of rules limiting the amount of home study.

The parent himself is often the sinner. Every teacher is familiar with the demand of parents that their children should bring home books and study at home. The teacher sometimes yields to this demand rather than submit to the opprobrium that some parents see fit to heap upon him, not only in personal conversation but in the community. A long and vigorous campaign of instruction is necessary before the public itself will see that such demands are opposed to the best interests of the child.

Examinations caused high school officials a great deal of concern. Examination problems were intensified when seniors did poorly on their finals so that hours of anguished conferences were spent on their graduation status. Somerville High School sought to solve its examination problem with its attendant "evils of over-study, worriment, and the establishment of an artificial standard of acquirement which are the inevitable concomitants of the regular, announced examinations." It abolished

formal mid-year and final examinations, and in their stead, the high school teachers gave frequent review and unexpected tests.

High schools complained that elementary schools were not preparing their pupils as thoroughly as in bygone years. A high school principal claimed "that the pupils who come to me now are not so well fitted to do high school work as those who came to me ten years ago. They are less self-reliant, less able to think and work independently." A high school teacher defined an elementary graduate in his first high school year as "a creature who knows no mathematics, less language, and likes to play tag in the corridors."

Careful articulation between elementary school and high school became a necessity to the rapidly expanding schools of the early 1900's. Placing little hope in such devices as departmentalized elementary schools, lowering the high school years to absorb the seventh and eighth grades, or beginning Greek and Latin earlier, Arthur Taylor, Principal of the Newark High School, told a teachers' convention:

Not only should the subjects be continuous as far as it is possible, but the methods in the eighth and ninth grades should be similar. With this end in view, there should be frequent visits of teachers between the two schools; there should be frequent conferences for the discussion of subjects and methods.

Secondary school principals sought to cure their teachers of dull, listless, and routine instruction from textbooks. To minimize textbook teaching, Montclair used geometry and algebra texts containing only examples and problems, no discussion or explanation. The hope was that the teacher would be compelled to organize and prepare the missing material.

The old records turn up warmly human moments in these early high schools. When a beloved German teacher died after thirty years of service, West Hoboken High

School dismissed classes and held the funeral services in its assembly room. Newark High School, in 1900, broke with tradition by placing boys and girls in the same classes. Plainfield, that same year, abandoned its policy of having students march in military order from class to class.

Anna Miller recalls her 1896 physics class in Somerville High School's "small, so-called laboratory:"

We had exceedingly little equipment. Most of our apparatus was homemade. I used as guide a book giving directions for making it; for instance, constructing pumps out of tall lamp chimneys and thin rubber cloth. We hitched up homemade electric batteries to telegraphic instruments and sent messages from room to room. All mere child's play, you may think. At any rate we made good use of the blackboard. Apparatus, I found, may be represented by diagrams. It was, at least interesting to find out what can be done with little external help where there is hearty cooperation between teacher and class.

Miss Miller praised the students from smaller districts who attended Somerville High School. They arose very early in the morning, walked several miles to board a train, arrived at Somerville at seven in the morning, and endured a long wait until classes began. Their return trip was equally exhausting. They repeated this routine for four years, paying for their transportation and tuition. By 1911, however, State Superintendent Baxter's efforts had assured such students of both their tuition and transportation at public expense, and Inspector Bevier's efforts had measurably improved the high schools they might attend.

V

HIGH SCHOOLS FOR ALL YOUTH (1912 - 1928)

IN 1911 Governor Woodrow Wilson, needing a new state school head, canvassed the nation and finally proposed Calvin Kendall, who had been superintendent of the Indianapolis schools. For the next decade Kendall, and the able men he chose to work under him, oversaw a period of phenomenal educational growth and development, especially in the high schools. This was achieved mainly through leadership, rather than by direction. Relatively few laws affecting the schools were passed, and the State Board issued few directives. The growth was still essentially local.

The State Department of Education, which had already been expanding to meet the rising school needs, was reorganized. Even while Kendall was being employed, the State Legislature was changing the title of the chief school officer to "Commissioner of Education" and providing for four assistant commissioners, in charge of elementary, of secondary, of industrial education, and controversies and disputes. To the secondary-school post was named A. B. Meredith, the Essex County Superintendent, another strong leader, who subsequently headed the schools of Connecticut. Meredith was succeeded by Lambert L. Jackson. These men did much to shape New Jersey high schools in the first quarter of the twentieth century.

Even more significant was what was happening to New

Jersey itself. Its population nearly doubled in those years; it continued to take on, in large areas, an urban-suburban rather than a rural character, and its industrialization moved forward at an ever-increasing pace. From 1911 to 1930 the population soared from 2,694,377 to 4,044,300.

A RISING ENROLLMENT

These changes were reflected in a tremendous increase in high school enrollments—beyond the proportion implicit in the rapid population increase. They were reflected in a rising concern for vocational education; and in a general “democratization” of the high schools, a shift from the high school as the institution for the few and primarily for the college-bound, to the place where most of New Jersey’s young people would receive an important part of their education.

While the state’s population was almost doubling, high school enrollments nearly quadrupled, from 33,000 in 1912-1913 to 127,000 in 1930-1931. The increase included many girls: there were 1914 girl graduates in 1912; 3480 in 1916. These larger numbers of students were housed in enlarged schools, rather than in new ones. The number of high schools actually decreased between 1911 and 1921, and even in 1930 there were only 164 high schools, as compared with 116 in 1912. The typical high school in 1930, however, had 500 pupils instead of 97. In comparison with other states, New Jersey became known for its relatively large high schools.

During these years, there grew up a vast concern with vocational education as a separate aim of a separate school. At this time the comprehensive multi-purpose high school was being weighed against specialized high schools. These years also saw the rise—and the beginning of the decline—of the Continuation School, which tried to educate children who before the age of sixteen left to work.

Democratization—the presence in the high school of so

many of the children of so many of the people—in-
evitably changed profoundly what the high school of-
fered, the ways it taught, and its attitudes toward its
students. In 1911 Addison B. Poland would note that
in 22 years the number of high schools on the state-
approved list had risen from 20 to 100:

This remarkable change has been brought about . . . by natural
causes almost entirely, and in response to a distinct popular
demand. . . . This advance has been made despite the fact that
no other kind or grade of school has more uniformly been
criticized as not satisfying public needs. . . . Despite charges
made that their product is crude and unsatisfactory, there is
a firm conviction that it somehow pays to give a boy or girl
a high school education.

By 1926 the State Department of Education would say,

No matter how much fault the businessman may find with
the ability of school children to figure and spell, he invariably
prefers the high school graduate to the grammar school
graduate when the choice turns on preparation. . . . The
people have come to know this and they have translated it to
mean, "Every day in school adds to the future earning power
of our children."

AN EXPANDING PROGRAM

We have already seen that the typical New Jersey
high school, before World War I, was small, with fewer
than one hundred pupils. A new high school building in
Woodbine, Cape May County, in 1914, was a fireproof,
concrete and brick building, boasting four 24-by-32 feet
classrooms, a laboratory, and two dressing rooms. High
schools like this, however, were on their way out.

One high school pupil in every eight was a tuition
pupil from some other school district; by 1922 it would
be one in five. The state had already taken the major
step of providing generous transportation aid which
would ultimately encourage the development in New

Jersey of the larger high schools and discourage the multiplication of smaller ones. Assistant Commissioner A. B. Meredith could say in 1915, "smaller districts see more clearly the wisdom of providing, through sending their pupils to established schools, better high school opportunities than they could furnish at home."

In 1914 Sussex County reported that it had "10 wagon routes . . . operated over long distances." It used twelve wagons at a cost of \$454.30 per wagon. Four Sussex districts boarded their pupils at high school centers and six districts transported students by train. By 1923 a county superintendent would find that "transportation by automobile is cheaper per mile than wagon transportation. . . . There would be very little transportation by wagon if the roads were all in the proper condition for the use of motor power."

In the larger communities, schools were being built for higher enrollments and a broadening curriculum. Westfield's new high school in 1916 provided domestic science facilities, a lunchroom, a woodworking room, lathes, a "finishing room" for mechanical drawing, a gymnasium with locker and athletic rooms, music and typewriting rooms, and a bookkeeping room next to the district clerk's office so the students could get practical experience.

In the first decade of the century Newark was facing the problem of increasing demands on its high schools. In 1898 Barringer High School had three curriculums: English, classical and commercial. There was a demand for a technical curriculum, however, and rapidly rising enrollments forced Newark to use three annexes. In 1904 sites were bought for two other high schools. The Newark board, however, had some difficulty in deciding between sharply specialized high schools and schools which served specific areas of the city. At first it favored differentiation by courses, holding that it was "unwise to separate high schools by any hard and fast district lines" and that it would be better "to let each high school secure its own constituency by natural causes." Thus East Side (1911) and Central (1912) were specifically planned for commer-



Union High School basketball team, 1923-24

cial and technical high school instruction. Central boasted shops for sheet metal work, wood turning, pattern making, and joinery; mechanical drawing, machine drawing and freehand drawing; a machine shop, a forge shop, a foundry, a kitchen, and sewing rooms. East Side also had a laundry, home sanitation, and millinery rooms. It was hard to force pupils to cross the city, however, and the East Side school did not attract sufficient pupils for its special fields. Eventually both high schools had to add college preparatory and general courses.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

There was a growing interest in vocational education. The Smith-Hughes Act for federal support of such education would not become law until 1917, but New Jersey schools were already concerned both with the demands of children and industry for more practical education and with the problem of what to offer the increasing numbers of children who wanted an education beyond grammar school, but not the college preparatory studies on which so many high schools were centered.

In 1910 the Newark Vocational School opened with forty pupils and two teachers. Three years later a state law authorized state aid for such schools to give special training for industry, agriculture, and homemaking, and six districts applied for state help.

Before the federal law was passed there were day vocational schools in Atlantic City, Bayonne, Franklin, Jersey City, Newark, Orange, and Passaic. (Mechanical drawing and cooking were being taught in several evening schools.) Courses included machine shop work, carpentry, mechanical drawing, plumbing, electrical work, and agriculture, and for the girls, cooking, sewing and dressmaking, millinery, and nursing. There were county vocational schools in Essex and Middlesex counties; the State Department of Education was taking the position "that only through organization of county vocational schools can opportunity be given to young men and women who wish to prepare for a particular vocation." Students in these schools were those totally unadapted to the more academic curriculum; a decade later a vocational school official would admit, "When these schools were first established, they were too often used as a dumping ground for feeble-minded or delinquent pupils in the elementary schools." He noted that "they were often regarded with contempt by the teachers and pupils in the regular schools." They were not regarded as "high" schools, but were often housed in a wing of an elementary school or in a disused elementary building.

One county agricultural program consisted of a director in charge of four men, "all practical farmers with agricultural college training." They worked at various centers in the county, training boys and young men who had left the regular public schools and were working on farms. Schools were organized in November and continued into March. Then the teachers helped the boys with their individual work on their farms. Among their proud achievements was the stamping out of a hog cholera epidemic.

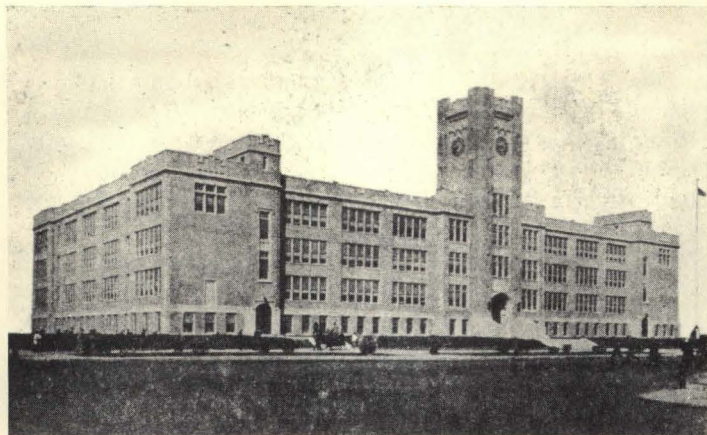
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The junior high school was inaugurated as a separate school in the larger cities. As early as 1907 a national committee had expressed dissatisfaction with the traditional break between elementary and high school and had urged a break at the end of sixth grade with a six-year high school. Three years later there were junior high schools in Ohio and California.

In 1916 Trenton opened a junior high school, boasting of it as one of the first buildings specifically planned for such use. It was designed for 960 pupils and was on—for the times—a sizable lot, $8\frac{3}{4}$ acres, with provision for outdoor basketball, baseball, and tennis. It had two gymnasiums, a large auditorium, and an eight hundred-volume library, shops for both girls and boys, and two typewriting rooms. It had a six-hour day, two-thirds academic, one-third shop; each pupil took five subjects, four hours per week. In the seventh and eighth grades the school offered a specially planned "Latin course to teach English;" as an alternative, the "non-book-minded" were offered "Extra English," which included extra typing. In the ninth grade the pupils were divided among academic, commercial and industrial courses. The school frankly announced its intention of using "much less detail than in average grammar school textbooks," and within subjects, "greater differentiation in content of subject matter than in subjects." The school planned considerable individualization, so that a pupil might be "in one of the stronger sections in one subject, and in one of the weaker ones in another subject." Dr. William H. Wetzel, the principal wrote, "The shop life will inculcate the spirit of work. What society needs today is fewer boys with the 'creased trouser' spirit, and more boys with the 'overall' spirit."

IN TIME OF WAR

As World War I drew closer, pressures on the schools became especially heavy in three areas: military training,



Atlantic City High School—a high school of the 1920's

physical education, and the building of patriotic attitudes. Against military training the schools fought and won. In 1916 the New Jersey Council of Education voted "to oppose with every force military instruction in the public schools as being neither democratic nor suitable to high school instruction." The Legislature set up a special commission under A. Dayton Oliphant to study the matter, and it reported, courageously and well, the case against military training. It argued that such training was a national and not a state problem and "isolated [state] action will be insufficient and comparatively useless." It could not justify the selection of high school pupils alone for such training: "It is difficult to contemplate with satisfaction or even complacency the social cleavage which is bound to result from a system of military instruction which is applied to high school pupils and not to other boys."

Instead, the legislative committee vigorously recommended legislation to require more physical education: "All the statistics . . . testify unanimously and strongly to the wide prevalence of serious physical defects, which

greatly interfere with the efficient and satisfactory performance of the duties of civil life."

Legislation was passed requiring at least 150 minutes per week for a course of physical training to include:

exercises, calisthenics, formation drills, instruction in personal health and safety and in correcting and preventing bodily deficiency . . . together with instruction as to the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship as they relate to community and national welfare with special reference to developing bodily strength and vigor, and producing the highest type of patriotic citizenship; and in addition, for female pupils, instruction in domestic hygiene, first aid and nursing.

The law authorized, but did not require military training by the state or a local board and even provided for local referendums. Many schools lengthened their school day to meet the time requirement for physical training. The state issued a course of study based on the new law, but going beyond it to emphasize the more positive aspects of health.

The number of physical training teachers in the schools virtually doubled within five years (1920-1925) and the state sponsored a series of "athletic efficiency tests" for high schools on a statewide basis. In such events as the 100-yard dash, broad jump, high jump, and bar vault (for boys), and the 60-yard dash, basketball throw, and high jump (for girls), records were forwarded to the State Department of Education to determine state winners. Eventually physiology and hygiene, domestic sanitation, etc., merged into "health education."

Even before America entered the war a high school course in social studies had been prepared which shifted the traditional emphasis from European history and institutions to American. In 1917 Commissioner Kendall urged that "the prevalent interest in the war be capitalized for instruction in high school political and social science, with emphasis on the display of the flag, the flag salute and the singing of national songs." He called for memorizing the "Gettysburg Address," Lowell's "Com-

memoration Ode," "Sail On, Sail On, "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," and Kipling's "Recessional."

The Legislature of 1919 specified that there be a high school course in community civics by the end of the second year of high school, and one in the problems of American democracy in the last two years. Each was to run sixty full hours in periods of at least forty minutes. New Jersey boasted that it was the leader in requiring such courses for "the great mass of high school pupils who become voters three years after their graduation." Again the state prepared a course for the guidance of the schools based on "actual problems, or issues, as they occur in life in their several aspects—political, economic or sociological," and designed to develop "some sense of personal obligation and responsibility for high endeavor and active participation in the political and social life." In 1923 the legislature required the study of the Constitution of the United States to start in the seventh grade and continue into high school. Students were required to memorize its Preamble and to study its history, its Articles, the Bill of Rights, the New Jersey representatives present at its drafting, and "the fine choice of words throughout."

RISEING PAY, RISEING COSTS

The peace which came in 1918 closely paralleled, in several respects, the years after World War II. Inflation and rising costs brought a teacher shortage, severe salary difficulties, and a sharp increase in school costs. A jump in the birth rate assured a continued rise in high school enrollments well into the depression decade. The fear of Bolshevism was widespread and so was concern with the lack of discipline for youth.

Even during the war the requirements for high school teachers had been raised. Certification now required either college graduation or the possession of a permanent elementary certificate, and candidates had to pass examinations in their subject or subjects, physiology and

hygiene, school management and methods of teaching, psychology, and the history of education. Within a few years the use of examinations for teaching certificates would be gradually eliminated, and requirements would be raised further until, by 1930, there was even discussion of requiring masters' degrees of high school teachers. In the immediate postwar years, however, it was necessary to issue emergency certificates to obtain vocational and manual training teachers.

Kendall mourned the loss of men from teaching, commenting that the average salary paid men high school teachers was \$1724, while industry welcomed college and university graduates at \$2000. Careers other than teaching were opening up to women. "So many of them," he said, "are inclined to do social or clerical work which pays better salaries and which they regard as more attractive than teaching." He contributed an article to *The Outlook* in 1921 noting that enrollments in normal schools were down one-third.

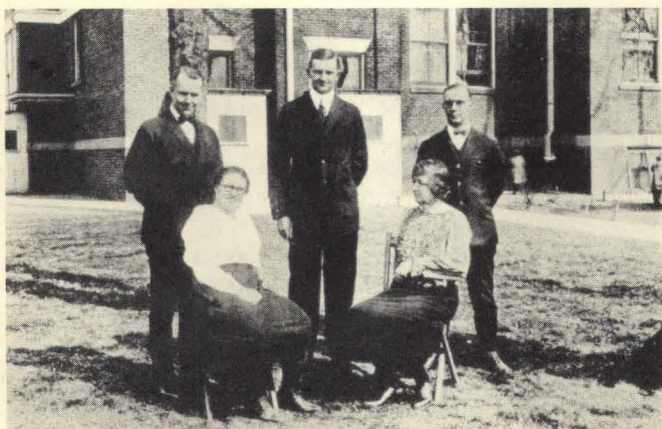
The increase in teachers' salaries has been by no means equal to the increase in the compensation of most workers, including common laborers, scrub women and street-cleaners. . . . The wages of coal-wagon drivers, clerks, motormen on street cars, carpenters, boiler-makers and farm hands have increased [in six years] from fifty to more than one hundred percent.

Teacher salaries, he said, were up only 27.3 per cent and among teacher problems, he listed politics, living conditions, school conditions, district consolidation, enforcing attendance, class size, and prestige. Kendall favored the employment of married women, even while he sought more men teachers for the high schools.

Salaries were increased, sharply in many cases. A state minimum salary law was passed in 1919, bonuses were permitted, and local salary schedules were revised sharply upward. In Newark, before the decade ended, high school teachers reached \$4400 per annum; in Paterson, \$3800. By 1928 the average salary for a male high school teacher was \$2791, a thousand dollars above that quoted by

Kendall. Substantial grade and sex differentials remained; high school women teachers averaged \$2336 a year, while women teachers in grades 5 to 8 were paid \$500 less. The state's equal-pay law, however, was interpreted to require that new schedules provide equal pay for equal work, and the gap between elementary and high school teachers was narrowing. Reports were reaching New Jersey from places like Denver and Cincinnati of a "single" salary schedule, based solely on training and experience.

Before the war it had cost less than twenty million dollars to operate New Jersey schools. By 1920 the figure had almost doubled. With rising salaries, more pupils and teachers, it doubled again before 1930. Because of higher salaries, variety of subjects taught, and smaller classes, high schools were especially costly—back in the 1860's the Newark Superintendent had complained that every time a pupil was promoted from primary to grammar or from grammar to high school the cost of his education doubled. By 1929 it cost \$169.93 a year to keep a typical high school pupil in school. This was \$45 more than in 1923, and twice the cost for an elementary pupil.



The Union High School Faculty in the early 1920's

Rising enrollments brought a building boom. This major expansion of school facilities was not to be repeated until the 1950's. During the 1920's the value of New Jersey school building just about tripled, with the need for new and larger high schools and the elimination of one- and two-room elementary schools as the two major causes. Between 1921 and 1928 districts spent over forty-five million dollars on 228 new schools, nearly half of this on 53 high schools, mostly fire-proof, and averaging \$508 per pupil in cost, or \$11.39 per square foot. Only five of these new high schools had fewer than ten rooms; ten had 20 or more.

These sharply rising costs, coupled with the tremendous increase in sheer numbers of pupils, were responsible for more public interest in the high school, and what it was for, what it taught, how well it taught, and what the public was getting for its money. This led in the 1920's to some sharp criticism and to close examination by legislative groups.

FOR ALL YOUTH

Before we look at these, however, we should examine the changes being made in the high school itself by what we have chosen to call "democratization."

By 1916 Assistant Commissioner Meredith reported that "the high school is no longer a retreat for the few, and for those only who are bookish in their inclinations. It serves a wider clientele, and is becoming truly democratic in its personnel and in the variety of subjects and activities it offers." Noting that the high school's product "is conditioned by the raw material with which it works," Meredith's successor described that material as "a cross-section of the American people 14.2 years old in New Jersey, less a few of the less verbally minded." The high schools contain, Lambert L. Jackson said, "representatives of both the colored and the white races, of the native-born and the foreign-born, of the rich and poor, of the clean and vicious, and of the biologically fit and the bio-

logically unfit. The high school classifies rather than selects. We have tentatively defined a professional group, a technical group, an industrial group, and other groups." He listed 15 curriculums in New Jersey high schools.

The traditional leader among curriculums was of course the college preparatory course: "The curriculum containing the languages and mathematics with some science and history has long been the standard and commands the respect and even adoration of many people." Among the curricular problems the Newark Superintendent saw the prevalence of physics in the third year, chemistry in the fourth, with biology forced down into the second year. He urged a simplified biology and an enriched general science course. Algebra and geometry, he noted, fall in the first two years, trigonometry and solid geometry in the fourth, while the college preparatory group got more algebra and geometry in the third year. He felt that the study of foreign languages began too late, and urged its start in the freshman year. In history there was a struggle between the conservatives who clung to ancient and English history, and the progressives who were urging world history and modern European history. Curiously enough Newark was requiring only three and a half years of English from the college preparatory students, for which they received three years of credit. "Even with this amount of time," the superintendent says, "there is criticism that high school students do not spell correctly and do not know the techniques of written composition."

Over the state as a whole, as enrollments grew, the percentage of students in the college curriculum declined. By 1930, roughly one-third of the graduates pursued it, one-third the general, and one-quarter the commercial. The rest were scattered among a group of miscellaneous curriculums such as normal preparatory, industrial, and home economics.

Reflecting the changes in those who attended, the schools were being urged to hold less expensive, less ostentatious graduations more truly representative of

the high school work, and to eschew the trappings of college commencements; the use of caps and gowns, formal evening dress for the boys, and the hiring of carriages.

Early in the century school leaders had been concerned about high school fraternities. A Council of Education study had denounced them as a menace to discipline and academic work, and as creating social differences among students. Now legislation forbade fraternities and secret societies in the high school as "inimical to democratic principles."

A SHIFTING PURPOSE

Even for the college-bound, however, there was rebellion against traditional college entrance requirements. Jackson was to say, "the pupils who elect college entrance courses really elect examinations." The Middle Atlantic States Association, with barely three-fifths of New Jersey high schools on its accredited list, would concede that "schools may be efficient and still not prepare for college . . . their own tasks may well exceed that of college preparation both in magnitude and social significance." The President of Rutgers would tell high school teachers:

With the enormous expansion of the public high school, the original primary task of the secondary, college preparation, is found to be decidedly secondary. . . . That the traditional academic or college preparatory course, with something like a third of the time given to foreign language, another third to mathematics, and scant attention to the sciences and to history and civics, does not provide the studies which are to be the greatest benefit to the large majority is equally clear. . . . The curriculum should be made to fit the boy, not to fit the studies which one boy out of twenty will pursue three or four years later.

Dean Henry W. Holmes of Harvard confessed to New Jersey superintendents that "college admission requirements obstruct education in secondary schools" and that

"preparatory education neither prepares nor educates."

Since 1895 various national commissions and committees of educators had been concerned with the function of the schools and the purpose of education. This study culminated in the publication of the "Cardinal Principles" in 1918. This list of educational objectives (health, command of the fundamental processes, occupational training, worthy home membership, training for leisure, citizenship, and ethical character) placed obvious emphasis on the social and personal aims of the schools, rather than on the uncritical transmission of knowledge. Against this background New Jersey schools looked at their pupil needs and at the needs society wanted served.

Opening an important conference of school executives in 1926, Commissioner John H. Logan said: "Preparation for life is the dominant aim of all education. . . . Education has now departed from the purpose of preparing leaders in society to that of educating the masses." He noted that even higher education was tending more and more toward vocations. Following Logan, Jackson placed preparation to participate intelligently in a democratic government at the head of his list of secondary-school objectives, and the socializing of the individual second. A Paterson principal explained that all of the city's eight high school curriculums (general, classical, scientific, commercial, mechanic arts, household arts, agricultural, and cooperative apprenticeship) were built around four "cores": health, language (mainly English), science and mathematics, and the social sciences. In its manual for high schools the State Department of Education was proposing four curricular patterns, one without foreign languages and one with no required mathematics.

Within specific areas too, there were changes. Before the war German had been studied by more students than Latin. Under wartime pressures it all but disappeared (164 students in 1921), but it staged a come-back by the end of the decade. Latin, in which enrollments dropped about 5 per cent a year in the 1910-1920 period, reached the hard core of college preparatory enrollments and began

to hold its own for a while. Spanish gained students and French lost enrollments, especially among boys. And people were already suggesting teaching of the Russian and Japanese languages.

Despite the concern of the leaders, enrollments were not rising in the social or the natural sciences as rapidly as high school enrollments rose. There was more interest in economics; biology gained, and "physiography" almost disappeared. Commercial courses in 1928 included book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, commercial law, economics, industrial history, penmanship, stenography, typewriting, business practice, junior business training, and office practice. The number of students taking commercial geography, commercial law, and stenography had doubled, and in some cases tripled, over a twelve-year period, and higher mathematics virtually disappeared from the commercial curriculum. This whole area reflected the opening of office work to women; there were more women teachers and a heavy increase in girl students. The "steady drifting away of boys from the commercial curriculum" was partly blamed on the lack of courses in salesmanship, advertising, and business organization and management. It was also noted that this curriculum contained "more pupils with lower I.Q.'s than any other."

TEACHING METHODS

Teaching methods were a cause of concern. Before the war the Newark superintendent complained:

High school teachers have been trained in college and they seek to perpetuate its methods. The college uses the lecture method, her teachers talk, talk, talk. . . the college magnifies the subject and makes it primary. There is a feeling still surviving that a high school teacher who has a standard so high that few of his pupils can reach it is the most worthy instructor.

President John Grier Hibben of Princeton was denouncing the recitation as not giving "exercise in thinking. . . . The tendency of the school is to dogmatism, unvarying decision, and absolute truth." A social studies bulletin reminded teachers that "talking in recitations is not teaching." Englewood had its teachers working on the "socialized recitation—the feeling on the part of the child that the recitation is a period in which all are working together and not a place where he is to be quizzed to find out what he does not know."

Apparently there were few positive ideas on how to improve high school teaching, though visual aids were coming into use. By 1920 Newark had a projectionist who "showed motion pictures by use of a small machine and slow-burning films, thus requiring no booth." Teachers complained, however, that "films that were labeled educational did not always prove to be educational when tried out."

TESTING AND GUIDANCE

There was a growing concern with the individual pupil and his needs. This took the form of interest in testing, in pupil failures, and in guidance. Before the war teachers were being introduced to objective, standardized tests.

Perhaps the best value of such testing is that the teacher sees her pupils falling into certain groups; she can expect an upper group of twelve to thirty per cent. . . . a middle group of fifty to sixty per cent, and a lower group of twenty to twenty-eight per cent . . . she can measure her work by the degree to which she keeps this upper group doing its capacity work, the middle group doing work for which it is fitted, and the lower group doing work equal to its abilities.

A Rutgers meeting in 1918 brought Edward L. Thorndike, pioneer educational psychologist, to New Jersey. The first session of the new statewide high school con-

ference was on measurements, and schools were being urged to add intelligence tests, silent reading tests, and English composition tests to subject-matter tests in the classifying of pupils. By 1921 Montclair was giving regular I.Q. tests to six hundred of its pupils.

The state scheduled a series of conferences on testing, and administered tests to all fifth graders. It was pointed out that one major result would be the detection and segregation of superior and gifted children. In a pre-automation world, however, the state test committee complained that the 96,000 papers had to be counted 750 times in the process of compiling 350 tables and computing 159 correlations. Teachers still held, however, a touching faith in the significance of marks and grades.

FADS AND FRILLS

There was rising dissatisfaction, in both public and school circles, with the schools' inability to do for all what it had formerly done for the selected few. In 1923 only 40 per cent of those who took the Rutgers scholarship exams qualified, and the results of the normal school entrance tests were disillusioning. Only 80 per cent passed in arithmetic, and overall, nearly one-third failed to meet the standards for normal school admission. State officials said that "in some way the high school must be relieved of the charge that its graduates cannot perform simple arithmetical calculations, that they cannot write a page of lucid, correct English with all the common words correctly spelled."

Citizens and the press began attacking "fads and frills" such as music, typewriting, business training, domestic science, intelligence tests, and physical education. The Commissioner directed a canvass of public sentiment to find "whether the school curriculum is over-crowded and if so what remedy should be used." Reports, brought together at a statewide meeting, showed some criticism of physical training, music, and manual training, and of sewing and cooking for girls. The meeting concluded

that "nearly every subject taught in the schools has some opponent" but that "the proposition that the public generally holds a definite group of school activities to be 'fads and frills' is a myth." The *Newark Evening News* supported the broadened high school curriculum, arguing that the newer subjects met the needs of a changed pupil population, especially of the "less academically-minded."

The Newark board in 1924 ordered a study to see whether music, shopwork, domestic science, domestic art, and art should be eliminated from the high school program of studies. The superintendent clarified the board's thinking about high schools and pointed toward the comprehensive high school which has become the norm of the 1960's:

High schools are classified as academic, general, or cosmopolitan, mechanic arts, practical arts, English, Latin, and commercial. Newark has but two types: academic and the general or cosmopolitan. The cosmopolitan high school offers academic, technical, practical arts, English, Latin and commercial courses. . . . It is a neighborhood or district high school designed to give full opportunity to pupils to study curricula suited to their needs within reasonable distance from their homes and with the least expenditure of money for necessary expenses.

The criticisms, coupled with or stimulated by concern over rising costs, were strong enough, however, to generate pressure for legislative investigations of ways to cut costs and improve the high schools.

But if the public was concerned with this aspect of high school education, the educators themselves were concerned with the pupils whose needs were not being met, with those who never reached high school at all, or entering it, failed and disappeared. Barely one-third of the 1914 high school freshmen graduated four years later. In that year a Newark schoolman would say, "It may be facetiously explained that the phenomenal growth of high schools has been due to the desire of a large body of elementary students to be introduced to

secondary work and then to follow other interests more immediately productive." He quoted a teacher-complaint that "The high school is merely a way station until the train comes."

After the war, Lambert L. Jackson, assistant commissioner in charge of secondary education, found that many high school freshmen were dropping such subjects as Latin and algebra. Over half the freshmen failed at least one subject, with mortality especially high among tuition pupils from the rural elementary schools. "The loss of attendance between the ninth grade in September and the tenth grade," he wrote, "is so great as to cause an alarming situation and is evidence that something in the organization or administration of the schools needs correcting." Among the problems he pinpointed were arbitrary standards, curriculum selection, and lack of pedagogical skills. There was a wave of concern over the amount of homework required; assignments requiring nearly three hours were common and prompted recommendations for a 25 per cent cut. A Newark report commented:

There is no doubt of the fact that the high school course at present is as difficult as it should be. Pupils of normal ability carry a load which often taxes their time out of school beyond reasonable limits. To accomplish the task satisfactorily, they are often obliged to give up all family, church and social life and devote themselves exclusively to their school work.

Two specific attacks on the problem of failure were the expansion of the junior high schools and the start of organized guidance activities. The junior high school movement was most popular in urban areas. A 1925 study showed 20 junior high schools, 14 state approved, but found roughly one-quarter of the seventh- to ninth pupils in some form of departmental intermediate or junior high school. The state-approved schools included Moorestown, Pennsauken, Montclair, Princeton, Trenton (6 schools), Ocean City, South Orange—Maplewood, New

Brunswick, South Amboy, Red Bank, Pompton Lakes, North Plainfield, Franklin, and Elizabeth. The legislature had already given them legal status and provided for additional state aid for their teachers.

More guidance was being urged as early as 1922, and by the end of the 1920's, it was a subject of major concern, though the schools were still trying to provide it with regular teachers, not special guidance personnel. Many schools studied the program in South Orange—Maplewood, where, in the junior high school, one teacher in each grade was specifically designated as "class guide," and in the high school, selected teachers served as advisers for each class through its entire four years. This concern led, naturally, to increased need for adequate pupil records, and a cumulative individual personal record for each student was being introduced in some schools.

FOR WORKING YOUTH

These were the years of the growth and expansion of the vocational school as a separate institution. County vocational school systems had already been set up in Essex, Middlesex, and Camden, and there were, as we have seen, several city vocational schools. The number of occupations taught in the day schools increased from 6 in 1914 to 16 in 1924, with 29 occupations taught in the evening schools; close contacts were established with both industry and labor; apprenticeship courses were introduced. Enrollments continued to grow, from just under twenty-five hundred in the 1924 vocational day schools to nearly seven thousand in 1929.

By the end of the 1920's some disillusionment was beginning to set in. The assembly line was beginning to break down former trade distinctions. The State Department of Education said:

In many cases we can no longer identify a skilled trade. With the development of machinery and the discovery of new industrial processes, many trades have been so broken up into

specialized occupations that little remains of their original character. Others require less manipulative skill than formerly, but more technical knowledge . . . many new occupations entirely technical in character have emerged.

The stage was being set for the continued development of the really comprehensive high school, with greater emphasis on vocational preparation and guidance, and less on "teaching a trade." At the same time educators and society at large were becoming more sensitive to the problems of child labor and the needs of young people who went to work and not to high school or vocational school. A 1924 ruling barred even "light employment" off the farms for children of ten to fourteen years of age. A 1919 law required that children from seven to sixteen attend school unless, at fourteen, they had completed sixth grade and were issued "age and schooling" certificates. Even then they were forbidden to work in factories more than 8 hours a day or more than 48 hours a week, or to work at night or on Sundays. They were required to attend "Continuation Schools" for 20 hours a week; and while doing so, their work-week was limited to 42 hours. Forty-five districts set up such schools. After a brief period in which many employers discharged children whose working hours were thus limited, the program was generally accepted, and attendance at these schools gradually rose during the 1920's from twelve thousand to more than nineteen thousand. However, lack of employment opportunities during the depression and changing attitudes toward child labor were to make them obsolete within a few years.

LEGISLATIVE INVESTIGATIONS

By virtue of its size, its increasing contact with all the people, and its steadily rising costs, the high school was bound to attract the attention of legislators. World War I was not even over before there were demands for a legislative commission. The high school was growing and changing so fast, however, that a special committee

to study the educational laws of the State observed that "the war had completely changed many educational viewpoints," and found it unwise and premature to suggest changes.

By 1924 Governor Silzer felt it necessary to send a special message to the Legislature, reporting that citizens were critical of fads and frills in the curriculum, of the neglect of the fundamental studies, and of the poor performance of high school graduates on normal school examinations. Combined with the large increase in school costs, these complaints justified, he felt, a complete investigation and survey of the school system. His recommendation was not adopted at that time, but in 1928 the Legislature did authorize a survey by a commission of 15 members, made up of legislators, school officials, and public representatives. It was headed by Senator Arthur N. Pierson, a well-known friend of the schools since his work on teacher retirement a decade before. Well-financed and able to employ nationally recognized educators for its staff, the Pierson Commission over the next two years made an extensive investigation of the total school program. It was its misfortune—and that of the schools—that its report coincided with the start of the depression when constructive measures had to give way to economies. The report does give, however, a comprehensive picture of what New Jersey high schools were like as the 1920's came to a close.

The Commission found much to praise and some places for blame. The latter were, not, however, the aspects which had provoked public criticism. Rather the Commission found the schools moving too slowly in the directions they had taken, and pointed out the inevitability of those directions. It said:

The founding of the high schools has been called a great American experiment since it proposed what no other civilization offered its youth—a free secondary education. Today, after a strong and remarkable development, high school education is regarded by the American youth as a right and not a privilege. . . . The high school has become an educational

institution for all the children and is no longer selective. This factor has added a problem to the organization and administration of a secondary school program broad enough to meet the needs or the abilities of all.

In spite of the favored conditions New Jersey ranks low among the states in the proportion of youth of secondary school age who attend high school. Lack of interest, eagerness to enter business, the presence of a large pupil population of foreign parentage and the accompanying retardation account, in part, for the low rating of New Jersey in the percentage of boys and girls attending high school. It is also true that the lack of enforcement of the Continuation School Law in non-urban centers permits many to leave school.

The Commission, however, found little to support "the critics who complain of costs, who assert that the graduates lack intelligence and appreciation of the fine arts, that they are ill-mannered and sloven in speech and gait . . . and who condemn the curriculum . . . for a lack of thoroughness." It found such indictments "too sweeping and with no foundation in fact and based upon a lack of understanding of the problems of the high school." It noted the high proportion of New Jersey high schools on the approved lists, scores in test results, general conformity to the best practices elsewhere in the nation. The report concluded,

In judging secondary education few stop to consider the change that came when the high school ceased to be an aristocratic institution and became a democratic one. Under the influence of an industrial society the high school has expanded its program and broadened its curricula to care for the intellectually bright and mentally inferior.

The Commission found:

1. Median enrollments of about 400, with 40 schools under 200. Per capita costs ranged from \$84 to \$337.28, with a median of \$161.51.
2. Heavy elimination of pupils in the first and second years of high schools; approximately half of those entering the

ninth years do not remain longer than two years. The percentage of failure is particularly high in foreign languages and mathematics.

3. The practice of importing a high percentage of its high school and junior high school teachers, with meagre preparation and small professional training, and with teaching loads too great to permit of carefully planned and most effective instruction.

The Commission found that "courses needed in the high schools for the youth of an industrial state are poorly represented. Outside of commercial courses, little effort is made to furnish vocational training." It noted needs for new material and methods of instruction, organization of guidance and activity programs, and adaptation of courses to wide differences in the capacities of high school pupils. It found an undue domination of the schools by the function of college preparation, without so-called college domination of the high schools will contain an educational philosophy to meet the situation demanded by an industrial and machine civilization. "The time so long as the public regard preparation for colleges as the primary function of the school and judge the efficiency of the principal and teachers by the ratings of graduates at college entrance."

The Commission complained:

The teachers are for the most part teachers of subjects, and fail to realize how their subject is to function in the education of the child. The teaching is not motivated . . . the traditional recitation plan largely prevails. The teacher assigns a lesson either at the beginning or the close of the period; the pupils study the same and answer questions the next day. However, there are schools with a carefully worked out system of supervised study and schools using the contract type of lesson assignment to adjust the work to different levels of ability. There are schools using the socialized form of recitation, problem and project methods, differentiated assignments and other types of technique calculated to develop initiative, purposeful attitude, efficient methods and habits of study.

VI

DEPRESSION AND WAR (1929 - 1949)

IN NEW JERSEY as elsewhere a whole era ended—though not as abruptly—when the stock market collapsed in the fall of 1929. But when it had finally ended, the New Jersey high school was a far different place from what it had been two decades earlier. There was a better than even chance that the boy or girl who finished elementary school would continue on to high school for a year or two at least. The high school he attended might appear somewhat formal and rigid in its subjects and methods, but the germ of change was at work. He could expect—in all but the smallest schools—some choice of course and subject, and he could escape, if he wished, the rigors of foreign languages and higher mathematics. There would be some effort to consider him as an individual, with individual needs, and some effort to guide him into courses he could succeed in. On the other hand his chance of completing his high school course was only fair. The teaching he would get was likely to be formal and to measure his accomplishments against the absolute standards of previous generations. And some critics, when and if he did graduate, would complain bitterly if his diploma did not mean exactly what a high school diploma had meant some twenty years before.

His high school was now about to face some fifteen years of depression and war. The gains which had been made in the 1920's, however, would be retained, and despite depression and war, more New Jersey high schools would grow to resemble the best of those in 1929-1930.

PROPOSALS FOR IMPROVEMENT

The school leaders were by no means content with their achievements. In 1932 the Council of Education heard a report from John R. Patterson on "our smug, selective, secondary schools." He offered these theses:

1. The children comprising "the other fifty per cent" are educable.
2. The traditional offering with its attendant mood is not congenial to the nature and needs of this other fifty per cent.
3. Secondary education must be freed from the earlier tyranny of the classical tradition.
4. Secondary education must be freed from the later tyranny of the white-collar tradition.
5. Secondary education must change its instructional mood to that of the current good elementary school.

Patterson suggested, more specifically, "Since the business of secondary education is that of *general education*, all students must undertake reconstructed courses in: 1) social studies; 2) the physical and biological sciences; 3) the vernacular; 4) courses pointed toward the achievement of financial competence; and 5) the fine and practical arts."

Out of the Council, in that same year, emerged a "Philosophy of Secondary Education," based on these postulates:

The program of the school must be abreast of current life and differentiated to meet the needs and capacities of varying groups of students.

The school must be administered in a democratic manner so that teachers may participate in an enterprise of which they are a vital part.

The school must be so organized that students may have experiences in cooperative living.

Guidance is a primary function. This involves a careful study of the pupil. Of all the recent changes in the secondary school population, the spread in the range of intellectual capacity has the strongest educational significance.

The Council urged consideration of "common needs" of all pupils to include health, the power of reflective thinking and disciplined capacity for work, certain basic skills and knowledge, and training for family life, social solidarity, leisure, and civic righteousness. Its basic requirements were a far cry from the Phillipsburg curriculum of the 1870's. They included knowledge of our standards of weights, measures, and value; ability to make simple calculations; ability to express clearly, correctly, and concisely in both oral and written English such thoughts as the individual can originate; sufficient reading ability to read the daily papers and considerable training to evaluate what is read. The Council pointed out that the secondary school was comparatively free to map out a program for those students who would not continue their studies beyond the secondary level, and urged that school standards be based on the capacities of the pupils. It recognized, however, that standards in some college preparatory courses and in some vocational skills, such as stenography, would be determined by forces and conditions beyond high school control.

RETRENCHMENTS

The depression struck the schools a little later than the rest of society, but recovery from it was correspondingly slower. School budgets for 1939-1940 were still \$6.8 million below those for 1931-1932. By October, 1929, the school budgets for 1930-1931 were already being prepared, and they were voted the following February while people still thought that recovery was just around a corner. It proved difficult, of course, to collect the taxes which had been levied, but school expenditures and teacher salaries remained at pre-depression levels, though

many high schools could not collect tuition from sending districts and some salaries had to be paid in script. The legislature finally had to forbid the exclusion of pupils whose home districts had not paid their tuition.

Economies were sought everywhere. Transportation was strictly limited to pupils living two miles from elementary schools and two and one-half miles from high schools. A few people proposed the motion picture and other visual aids as helps in handling large classes "although the appeal of the commercial sound picture may not be duplicated in the schools at present."

While the recommendations of the Pierson Commission had been designed for an expanding economy, legislators and the public hoped that some commission somehow could produce a magic formula to answer the problems of changed conditions. Under the chairmanship of J. H. Thayer Martin, and with Professor Harley L. Lutz of Princeton as its director, the state established a Commission to Investigate County and Municipal Taxation and Expenditures. In 1932—almost at the depth of the depression—this commission issued "A Report on Educational Services and Costs." It side-stepped, however, the big issue even as it raised it. It commented on the "failure to develop standards by which to measure or to justify costs," asking:

Whether the State should continue to offer an opportunity for free high school education to every child who wishes it, regardless of the capacity of the child to assimilate it, or whether the child is continuing study solely to escape the responsibility of working; also whether the free High School opportunities should be limited to those students who display both the capacity and the desire to take full advantage of the instruction.

The Report questioned teaching methods and aims as well:

There is much waste in high school instruction. Many students are not taking courses adapted to their abilities and needs,

as shown by the large percentage of failures. This grows out of the fact that the high schools are not guided primarily in their instruction procedure by the learning situations existing in the minds of their pupils, but instead seek to meet the requirements that the colleges have set up for entrance of students. The result is "memoriter" learning of facts, a large proportion of which have been forgotten except in the case of a few pupils who have both the ability and the interest to integrate the knowledge gained from textbooks with the facts of life. Consequently so long as parents demand that their boys and girls go to college and so long as the principal colleges maintain the present types of entrance requirements, a considerable share of these wastes will continue. Nevertheless, if high school teachers would, as a group, be guided in their teaching by learning situations in the minds of pupils rather than by textbook contents, a considerable gain in teaching efficiency could be secured in spite of the difficulties furnished by college entrance requirements.

This Commission favored a broad reorganization of the school districts into "high school attendance districts," and proposed a significant change in the system of state school aid, including the "weighting" of high school pupils in the light of higher high school costs. Its proposals were, however, largely ignored.

Two years later another commission, appointed by the governor at the request of the New Jersey State Teachers Association, produced the so-called Mort Report, which proposed a broad state school aid program and also discussed potential economies. Despite small classes in the foreign language area, this report noted an average class size of 28.8 pupils in high school academic subjects, and 18.2 in the special subjects of art, home economics, industrial art, and music. It suggested that these special classes be enlarged. It also criticized, more or less in vain, the liberal state assistance for the transportation of pupils, and reiterated the necessity of eliminating small districts.

FEWER BUILDINGS

The Thayer Martin Report of 1932 examined in some detail the problems of building schools, especially of high schools. Its conclusions were, in the light of its bent toward economy, surprisingly liberal. Noting that "half the school buildings of the state are over 24 years old" and "nearly one-fifth are so poor that they should be replaced," it stood four-square for buildings suited to the newer educational needs:

Great waste occurs in putting up a building ill-fitted to carry out the program desired. The belief is too general that classrooms are the only rooms that are essential—that all others are "frills." It is true that heretofore the typical school of the state has been traditional or in the early stages of transition toward a more active program. But a noticeable change is taking place in the direction of a more "progressive" program . . . new buildings should be planned to house the kind of educational program that is ahead, not the kind that is being left behind.

The Commission praised newer high school buildings in Trenton, South Orange, Nutley, and Princeton:

Some of the most expensive buildings have been economically built when the capacity and service are considered. In many of the cheaper buildings there may be relatively more waste than in some of the more expensive ones. When this occurs it is due to poor educational or architectural planning, or to poor building materials.

On the other hand the Report also praised Hopewell Township High School, which combined three classrooms into a study-hall-cafeteria, and provided no auditorium.

Despite rising enrollments, however, these building questions became somewhat academic. By the time the Report appeared, the modest school building boom of the 1920's had ended. Bonding procedures reached a low

of three in 1932-1933, and while they rose slightly thereafter, as the Public Works Administration offered grants of 30 to 45 per cent of needed funds, and loans for the rest, school building rates remained low through the war years, and no major expansion of school facilities took place until schools were faced with the pupil-pressures of the 1950's.

THE REGIONAL IDEA

One of the Pierson Commission's recommendations was to have significant effects on New Jersey high schools. The Commission urged "some provision for consolidation of school districts on purely secondary lines" and recommended that legislation be enacted permitting the establishment of regional high schools. In 1931 such a law was passed which permitted two or more districts to set up a "regional" district to provide high school facilities. Faced with still rising high school enrollments and difficulties in collecting tuition payments under depression conditions, the Commissioner of Education turned to this act. The tuition system, he argued, does not give the sending districts any voice in the building of schools, what is taught, or the selection of teachers.

Large consolidated districts would be able with a relatively low tax rate to maintain excellent high school facilities and work out transportation routes within their areas which would make the organization of secondary schools more efficient. . . . The regional high school district when economically organized insures a sufficient body of students so that courses to fit the varying abilities of an unselected population of boys and girls may be organized. Sufficient ratables are included in such a district to insure economical expenditure for current maintenance and for amortization of the school debt. Moreover the State pays an allotment of \$60 per pupil to the board of education maintaining such a district. It should be pointed out also that such a district eliminates the development of small, weak high schools which carry a duplication of work for a given area and encourage waste and inefficiency.

Thus stimulated, several county superintendents encouraged regionalization. First to be organized was the Penns Grove regional district; its new high school building opened in February, 1936 with the aid of federal funds. The Rancocas regional district was set up in Mount Holly in 1935 to serve five districts; it had its own school by 1937. "One of the best conceived and carefully organized" regionals was in Union County, serving six districts, none of which had previously had a high school. Two others in Passaic and Camden counties were established during the thirties, but there was no further resort to this law until school enrollments again began to rise in the fifties.

STILL MORE STUDENTS

Unquestionably, however, the most obvious and most significant result of the depression was a major increase in high and vocational school enrollments. These new students, naturally, were the very one who would have been at work, had jobs been available. Their multiplied presence forced further attention to the problems of content and teaching of which the schools were already aware. Lack of "skilled" jobs for young people resulted in more attention to technical knowledge and less to manipulative skills for the more able students, and in less specific trade training for the less able. To meet the surge of pupils who would not have been in high school save for the depression, the schools intensified their efforts to find teaching methods and materials which would be both valuable and appealing. Real efforts were made to provide general education in the general "courses," rather than use them as dumping grounds for those incapable of college preparatory work. The schools were forced, also, to give greater attention to individual needs, and to expand the guidance activities which had been started in the more progressive schools some time before. The changed problem of vocational education, lack of money for building new facilities of any kind, and the presence

of more "general" students in the regular high schools may well have been the significant turning point in choosing the "comprehensive" high school over separate high schools for separate functions or curriculums.

But pressures toward more education and later entrance into industry came from other directions. The Commissioner of Education said in 1936:

Most enlightened industrialists hold that youth should not be admitted to industrial pursuits before sixteen. Many of the most competent industrialists and most students of the question regard eighteen as the desirable age at which youth shall enter industry. The depression has taught us that it would be highly desirable not to admit children to industrial pursuits before the age of sixteen. That child development should not be hampered and that opportunities for education should not be denied youth are sufficient reasons for making the requirement that children attain the age of sixteen before entering industry. I am of the opinion that the compulsory age for children should be raised to sixteen and that eighth grade graduation or its equivalent should be required for all boys and girls who obtain age and school certificates.

The federal "codes" discouraged employment before the age of sixteen. At the very beginning of the depression Professor Rex B. Cunliffe of Rutgers told New Jersey teachers:

We have now learned the meaning of technological unemployment, the displacement of men by machines. Trades are disappearing. Sometimes it seems that labor itself is to be abolished. Practical vocational guidance means more than vocational education; it means the self-reliant individual who can adjust himself to the changing vocational world.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN DEPRESSION

The 1920's had seen the growth and development of a number of vocational schools dedicated in the main to the specific preparation, for very specific and needed

trades, of boys and girls ill-suited to the existing high schools. Even at the end of the decade, however, such schools enrolled, in their day classes, barely 6 per cent of the number of pupils in high schools. Under depression conditions it was the very young people for whom these schools were designed that could no longer get jobs of any kind and were under pressure to stay in school, or if they had already left, to return. Vocational school enrollments did jump—19 per cent in one year alone. These schools tried to meet the demand by cutting supplies and teacher salaries, enlarging classes, and in many cases by abandoning evening classes.

But other factors entered the picture. School building had come to an abrupt halt, and no more vocational schools were being built. At the same time employment needs were changing. With the assembly line and the increasing mechanization of industrial processes, educational leaders were aware of the rising need for technical knowledge and the declining demand for manipulative skills. They came to think of vocational education on three distinct levels, the technical, the skilled trade, and the general industrial. They paid more attention to the development of technical knowledge and understanding of industrial organization and management. And for those pupils incapable of this type of education they recognized "that girls as well as boys who do not qualify as skilled workers need a special type of occupational training . . . pre-employment or multi-occupational courses . . . [which] aim to develop dexterity in a wide variety of simple industrial processes." If the pre-employment education was to be less specific, less oriented to a particular trade, there were social pressures on youth to attend high school rather than vocational school, and to seek, for their years in school, whatever prestige a high school diploma would give. On the vocational schools which offered the technical knowledge beyond the "skill" level, there were pressures to become high schools and give their graduates high school diplomas.

The result was that, after the first surge of rising enrollments, vocational school enrollments increased less swiftly than those of high schools. By the end of the 1930's the vocational schools enrolled only 8648 pupils, less than 5 per cent of the high school enrollment, and the best vocational schools had become vocational high schools. Essex County's vocational schools underwent the usual transformation:

Until 1938 the County Vocational Schools were conducted as special vocational schools, with no high school status, offering skilled trade courses two years in length. Until 1937 students who had completed the sixth grade were admitted. A study of the situation showed clearly that the schools were not fulfilling their purpose of preparing students for skilled jobs chiefly because so many of those coming to the schools did not have the necessary native intelligence or the necessary basic general education. A survey of industry showed that employment departments were not interested in hiring vocational school graduates as they considered them to be "dumbbells" forced out of the regular academic schools. Furthermore, many of them were too young, as they entered the vocational schools when they were fourteen and graduated when they were sixteen.

These studies convinced the County Board of Education that a change was necessary. The admission requirements were immediately raised to completion of the eighth grade and a campaign was instituted to convince industry, the local school people and the public at large that vocational schools were for normal intelligent people. Furthermore, plans were formulated to have the schools approved by the State Board of Education as High Schools.

For the Essex County vocational schools, the State Board in 1940 approved, *for high school credit*, courses in aeronautics, technical beauty culture, cooperative retail training, technical automotive service, printing techniques, refrigeration and air conditioning, dressmaking and design, radio and principles of television, photographic techniques, applied art in industry; and for the

Elizabeth schools, industrial chemistry, machine design, machine shop practices, printing, cosmetology, industrial electricity, automobile maintenance, painting and decorating, woodworking, and commercial foods.

But it was to the regular high schools that the majority of the youth came. From 146,328 pupils in the senior high school grades in 1931-1932, enrollments rose by more than thirty thousand pupils in one year, a gain of more than 20 per cent. And these were the very pupils the high schools of 1930 were least prepared for. The assistant commissioner for high schools said:

It may be assumed that the lack of opportunity for junior employment under present business conditions has resulted in the return to school of large numbers of pupils who have been employed and in the retention in school of large numbers who would ordinarily be seeking employment. It is to be expected that the recent change in the compulsory education law will result in the return to school and the continuing in school of more pupils next year. . . . In addition to the problem of providing physical equipment to care for the rapidly increasing enrollment, there is the equally serious problem of meeting the individual educational needs of the pupils . . . this increased enrollment of ninth and tenth grade pupils consists largely of over-age pupils who have failed to make regular progress and whose return to school is probably not caused by keen interest in academic studies. There is a particular need at this time for actual adaptation of teaching materials and methods to the interest and needs of these pupils.

The educational leaders were becoming clear on their obligation. A decade before, the Essex County Superintendent had said: "Pupils incapable of doing the work in a public high school must be eliminated . . . a public high school education is not, and never should be, regarded as an unalienable right of every boy and girl. It is rather an unusual opportunity." By 1932, however, the state's high school manual would take a different position: "The secondary school should be prepared to

receive and to care properly for all pupils who are in any respect so mature that they would derive more benefit from the secondary school than from the elementary school."

When the depression began, it seems reasonable to estimate that about half of the youth of high school age were in the high schools; by the mid-thirties educators would be talking about "the other forty per cent" who were not in high school, and by the end of the decade, the high schools enrolled over 75 per cent but probably less than 80 per cent of all youth of high school age.

MEETING DEPRESSION DEMANDS

The high schools did their best to meet the problems of these rising enrollments, even as communities sought every possible economy to relieve their taxpayers. "Larger classes, overcrowded schools, lengthened schedules and in many conditions poor working conditions have introduced problems in the teaching, supervision and administration of the high school that are unusually difficult," said the Commissioner.

"They cannot be solved until provision is made for more adequate school facilities . . . and for the employment of a sufficient number of teachers." But there were to be few new facilities. The problems became what to teach and how to teach it.

Most of the new students neither wanted nor were capable of the college preparatory work which much of the public still regarded as "the only real high school courses." The percentage of enrollments in the college preparatory courses dropped steadily during the 1930's, although there was still a strong tendency for boys to enroll in these curriculums, even if they saw no prospect of going to college. The commercial curriculum gained, since shorthand, typing, etc., appealed to many of the new students as salable skills. School officials would eventually be concerned that enrollments in this curricu-

lum were too great: that more office workers were being prepared than New Jersey businesses could absorb.

But it was all the other curriculums, often called general or lumped together under that description, which received most of the influx. And while some schools persisted in regarding the general curriculum as a dumping ground for those incapable of "regular" high school work but compelled to remain in school for lack of job opportunities, others sought to develop a meaningful program for these pupils. In 1940 the State Department of Education was promoting a new "Social Scientific Curriculum," already established in ten schools. It included skills and appreciations in the home economics field, in food and clothing, and in a group of composite courses which dealt with living in the home. "There is included in this course also carefully organized training in citizenship, in which citizenship is emphasized as an individual responsibility and is viewed as a development of those activities which make for good home membership." The course was regarded as "vocational in character," and was paid for in part by federal and state funds.

But the more important changes were within the general curriculum itself. It had been, it seems safe to say, a diluted version of the college preparatory curriculum, with Latin, and sometimes the other foreign languages, removed, and the math and science somewhat simplified. Now came a real effort to develop for it courses which met the needs of the pupils.

There was some reluctance, growing out of a desire to salve the pride of the pupils, to make changes in names of courses. But courses in physics and chemistry did give way to "General Science," which gained 40 per cent in enrollment between 1932 and 1940; in those same eight years enrollments in General Mathematics increased fivefold. The state laws requiring the teaching of American history and problems of American democracy showed their effects; ancient and early European history enrollments decreased, while the number of pupils studying

United States history soared. Rising sharply, also, were enrollments in economics.

Home economics courses were added in high school after high school, under laws which offered federal funds for the construction of facilities while the state paid half the cost of equipment. By 1937 home economics was offered in 148 of the 173 high schools: instruction included child care, consumer education, and planning, decoration, and management of the home, in addition to food and clothing. The New Jersey College for Women, which trained teachers of home economics, introduced lectures on sex hygiene and instruction in the problems of family living.

VOCATIONAL WORK IN HIGH SCHOOLS

For the boys who could not get past the waiting lists of the vocational schools, high schools began to offer more specifically vocational courses. The State Department of Education noted "some interest toward revising the curricula to include courses of an industrial technical character." By 1936 the Commissioner found that "county vocational school organization has not proceeded as rapidly as was expected during the period of the depression. Accordingly we have encouraged the organization of vocational departments in high schools that were organized to offer general courses." Efforts and surveys aimed at county vocational schools resulted, in Somerset, Union and Morris counties, in more vocational work in the local high schools.

Gradually there emerged two patterns of vocational education, known as Type A and Type B. The former, administered under the state's division of vocational education, emphasized specific trade and related courses. The common pattern, Type A, was for pupils to spend a half-day in academic instruction and the balance in mastering a specific trade under conditions which sought to reproduce those of the trade itself with reasonable fidelity. In high schools offering Type B, instruction was

much more integrated, and the courses in trade skills were considered part of the regular high school curriculum. The federal George-Deen Act which took effect in 1937 encouraged distributive education in a number of high schools, with students preparing for sales and other positions in stores.

A few other new subjects gained places in the curriculum. Among them was driver education, which was introduced into the Bergen County schools in 1932. Within five years behind-the-wheel instruction was being offered in 56 high schools.

In many cases, however, it was the course content and the way of teaching it that had to be modified. Teachers were reminded that "the superior student is always more adept at self-instruction," but were told by the Commissioner:

If we sort the children into groups using the best classification means at hand and continue to teach them in the same way that we have been accustomed to teaching highly selected groups of students, and place others in vocational or manual arts courses, we have not solved the problem. Large numbers of those not enrolled in vocational groups do not succeed in the types of courses that we have hitherto offered. The problem involves a very intricate appraisal of pupils' abilities, interests, and personal characteristics, organizing new courses of study and the development of methods which really adapt the course of study to these young learners. Over and over again I have found teachers doing a very expert work in developing materials, frequently writing them with skill. I noted that they were guided by their knowledge of the abilities and interests of the persons enrolled in their classes. . . . The most successful teachers in handling what we have called "adapted courses" are utilizing activities of various kinds and encouraging pupils to do creative work even though it may be crude. Pupils were encouraged to assemble illustrative materials . . . pupils presented their interpretations through forums, debates, the preparation of original cartoons, the writing of original stories, and plays.

The teachers were reminded that "standards even in commercial courses are such that many boys and girls cannot succeed in them," and "are not able to comprehend some of the textbooks." Educational leaders urged supervised study, project and problem methods, socialization, individualization, and audio-visual activities. There was a wave of enthusiasm for "contracts" on three levels, the lowest level of minimal course essentials and the highest with much collateral work; pupils mastered these contracts at their own rates and according to their own abilities. A state survey showed "widespread and definite attempts to make adaptations of subject matter and teaching procedures to meet the needs of various groups of pupils."

INDIVIDUALIZATION

All of this, however, raised more acutely the problem of the individual pupil, his abilities and his needs. Good schools, as we have seen, were concerned with guidance much earlier, but these were the exceptions, and it took the influx of new pupils to make more schools aware of the need. Between 1934 and 1939, the 33 teachers assigned to guidance in 22 schools grew to 86 in 55 schools, with seven directors of guidance. Schools were expected to follow up their graduates, analyze causes for drop-outs, and learn more about their pupils. The concept of guidance grew into a broad effort to help the pupil develop in a wholesome way, with vocational guidance as one part of this program. The Commissioner wrote in 1937,

It is my judgment that if an adequate system of guidance becomes part of our secondary education, many of the misfits in our schools will disappear, that because of better adjustment of boys and girls in their school work, there will be fewer failures and that, generally speaking, they will select careers in which they can succeed after leaving school. It is obvious

that such a program will eliminate much waste in our present instruction, will improve the organization of our schools, and should contribute largely to better vocational adjustment with a high probability of success after leaving school.

In another connection, the Commissioner said:

Experts in guidance recommend that there be an accumulation of detailed information concerning every pupil which will include his school record, the results of various tests, comments of his teachers, his record in extra curricular activities, his contemplated career, and information concerning his personality traits. If these data are studied carefully and utilized in frequent conferences with the student, much may be accomplished in guiding him properly in the selection of his subjects in high school and such procedure can be of great help in assisting the boy or/and girl to select his life career.

THE WAR YEARS

New Jersey—like the rest of America—had barely emerged from the depression when war clouds lowered. The National Defense Program asked the schools to develop programs for training machinists and other industrial workers. There was new concern over the physical condition of youth, and new pressures on the schools to educate their pupils for the "air age," which preceded the "space age" by a scant twenty years. The menace of Hitler focused attention on the real meaning of democracy and of racial tolerance.

As the nation moved into war itself familiar patterns re-emerged. There were the usual hysterical pronouncements: "The secondary school should be primarily a school for war. . . . What a student prepares himself to be during crisis education will be determined by how many engineers, physicists, welders, soldiers, nurses and teachers the country is likely to need. These decisions cannot safely be left entirely to individual student preferences." There were calls, mostly unheeded, for the high schools to teach Russian, Chinese, and Japanese, but

many high schools did institute "pre-induction" training for the boys approaching military service, with such subjects as radio and ground training for aviation. Newark schools taught navigation, photography, and the use of the slide rule—and for girls, canteen work and junior child care, along with a junior air-raid warden course. Elizabeth set up "commando courses" adjacent to its high schools.

In general, however, more sober councils prevailed. A conference of educators urged that child labor laws be maintained, and "stay-in-school" campaigns were launched. Physical education courses were urged to stress play, games, and sports, rather than formal calisthenics, and the usual high school subjects were adapted to war requirements rather than replaced. A state conference on "Education and the War" did result in greater emphasis on mathematics and physics, and the addition of "pre-flight aeronautics," refresher mathematics, and the fundamentals of electricity and radio. Social studies teachers increased their efforts to teach citizenship and the principles of democracy. With many men teachers entering the military service, there were shortages of teachers of physical education and industrial arts. The legislature now required two years of United States history in the high schools, replacing the old Problems of American Democracy course.

In a brief review of this period, the State Board of Education reported in 1943:

In all schools pupils worked to salvage metal, rubber, paper, and other critical materials. Full opportunity was given to all to purchase war stamps and bonds. Pupils found satisfaction in participating in Red Cross programs and in projects promoted by local defense councils. Administrators perfected the plans for air raid drills and made alterations in buildings for the protection of all persons housed therein during the air raids. Teachers and parents joined in issuing ration books and, when requested, assisted rationing and selective service boards. . . . These and other activities, carried on with a minimum of disturbance of the basic program of education,

satisfied in reasonable degree the great desire of all to make some contribution to the war effort.

In the secondary schools administrative work was begun during the first semester to provide the pre-induction training requested by the Army and the Navy through the United States Office of Education. This change involved the adaptation of many subjects to the war effort, the addition of some subjects, and in many instances the complete reorganization of the school schedule. It was necessary to offer individual guidance to every pupil. At the same time, administrators planned to improve further education in patriotism and citizenship responsibility and to strengthen the health program. Schools generally gave to pupils the opportunity to join the Victory Corps which included in its program not only preparation for service in the armed forces but participation in wartime community service.

In the trade and industrial schools classes were operated twenty-four hours a day to train regular students and men and women for war service and for defense industries. The schools for instruction in agriculture and home economics provided courses related to the war effort, and, in many instances, placed their personnel and equipment at the service of governmental agencies related to the war.

POSTWAR

Except for a flurry of problems in the education of veterans, the end of the war brought few significant changes to the high schools. Their enrollments had more or less stabilized, and it would be a decade before they were flooded with "war babies." The acute school problems in these years were in the lower grades where the flood of pupils and the shortage of buildings and teachers already demanded immediate attention.

The elaborate provisions for college education for veterans as part of the G.I. Bill of Rights, did, however, emphasize the fact that a high school diploma was a minimum expectation for the young American who stepped out of military service. The State of New Jersey took the attitude that it was its obligation to make high school education available to those who needed it with-

out asking them to use up their federal benefits. A state division of education for veterans was created and local districts were promised special aid for meeting veterans' school needs. In 1946 the State lauded "the ingenuity displayed by our public secondary school administrators in readjusting and modifying their programs and curricula to meet the varied needs of the ex-service men seeking to complete high school training."

The presence of the veterans, perhaps, and the general tone of the times focused attention on the practical and social aspects of high school education. From Washington were coming programs under such catchy—if later regretted—titles as Life Adjustment Education and Zeal for Democracy. The State Department of Education made a special study of how to serve better the needs of the one-third of secondary students for whom the usual high school courses do not serve. The study stressed the importance of vocational education and industrial arts, and sought to use these as centers for other subjects.

There was growing dissatisfaction with the whole concept of fixed curriculums. In mid-depression the Commissioner of Education had looked forward to the day when "every high school pupil will have his program of studies worked out in terms of his interests and abilities." A few years later he noted that "enrollment by curriculums is not as significant as it was a decade ago because there is now a large amount of individual program making in our best high schools."

Newark gradually shifted from "the older rigid combination of type curricula" to "the more flexible pupil-centered, constants-with-variables type in which there are core requirements for all students, some related choices, and a group of electives from which each pupil could choose." It was argued that this removed the stigma on certain courses and gave the high schools greater holding power. Up to that point Newark had proliferated curriculums until it had three commercial curriculums—business (with accounting), secretarial (for those unable to do accounting mathematics), and general clerical (for

those unable to learn shorthand, etc.) It already had what it called a "civic" course for pupils "who possess neither the specialized skills required in the business and technical courses, nor the ability to deal successfully with abstract ideas and symbols." The core of this course was English and social studies.

Newark started its own school radio station and its high school offered credit for a workshop course which included microphone technique and studio manners, voice control and diction, and use and production of sound effects. An assistant commissioner of education characterized the high school curriculums as "antiques" and called for the introduction of problems which actually faced the American public. "Instruction in married life," he said, "mostly comes from Hollywood." Woodbridge introduced a course with "modern living" as its core. It covered such topics as health, leisure time, budgeting, investing, home buying, family life, mental hygiene, and manners. It was a required course for all freshmen, and elective thereafter except for students in the social scientific curriculum.

This desire to make high school work more appealing and practical rose out of a real problem, still partially unsolved. A Camden study showed that few of the high school drop-outs were leaving school to go to work—nearly three-quarters of the students who left school attributed their leaving to lack of interest in high school courses and to discouragement. They felt they had needed more business courses, home economics, shop, and typing. As in Newark, there was greater demand for more work at the clerical level for those unable to succeed in the more difficult courses in stenography and bookkeeping.

The schools were heeding complaints about the lack of elementary skills of their pupils. In 1952, Assistant Commissioner Ablett H. Flury noted that the basic skills, such as arithmetic, tended to deteriorate in high school:

The high schools are giving increased attention to the need for developing in each pupil the advanced skill in reading

and writing which is commensurate with his ability, his maturity and his needs in his probable future occupation and as a citizen. . . . Courses or units in personal development, home and family living, consumer education, labor and management relations are appearing in appreciable numbers among the high school offerings. The emphasis on the teaching of health continues to grow. . . . New classroom techniques involve greater participation and more learning by pupils . . . forums, research, projects, class excursions, radio presentations, dramatics and numerous other instructional procedures."

The introduction of so many practical courses, and the emphasis upon asking each pupil to achieve his best, increased bewilderment over the significance of marks. It was State Department of Education policy that "promotion and grade placement should be governed by each child's rate of growth rather than by a fixed set of grade standards. With very few exceptions pupils should progress steadily from kindergarten through high school." The Commissioner said, in 1945: "The wide range of ability among pupils of the modern secondary school is confusing to teachers and administrators alike. With the gradual disappearance of the uniform standard for achievement has come the question of knowing what to expect of pupils of different abilities." The Department attempted to offer guidance, and recommended statistical methods for promotion and placement.

Concern with the pupils who were not going on to college was great. Elizabeth identified a "slow group" of high school students with an average I.Q. of 82 in need of "the most elementary learnings," and prescribed for them an "integration" of social studies, English, and mathematics. Toms River High School attracted much attention with its courses in "family relationships," held in a living-room setting and given full credit for high school graduation. Jonathan Dayton Regional High School set up, in 1958 a complete high school program carefully geared to the pupil with an I.Q. between 75 and 90. The first two years offered special courses in English, social studies, mathematics, health, reading, and science or biology; these students took their other classes

with the rest of the school. The third year called for a great deal of pre-vocational preparation and exploration, and in the final year the students were encouraged to find jobs which could be combined with their school programs. Among such jobs the school listed window-cleaner, stockman, food service worker, service station attendant, and packager. The course led to a regular diploma.

PATRIOTISM

It seems inevitable that a major war be followed by an epidemic of super-patriotism and fear of betrayal. A serious criticism of American soldiers in World War II had been their "incomplete understanding of what we were fighting for." Even before the war the State Board of Education had taken formal action to urge the teaching of patriotism in the high schools, and immediately after the war the board placed increased emphasis on both the citizenship requirements for teachers and on a revision of the American history courses required in the high school. There was, however, a nationwide sniping at the patriotism of the teachers, and suspicion—more vocal than widespread—that many of their teachings were "un-American." It is quite possible that much of this originated, as the teachers charged, with people who were basically opposed to public education or who resented steadily rising education costs.

In New Jersey the criticism began in Englewood in 1946, when a veterans group protested the choice of Methodist Bishop G. Bromley Oxnam as a commencement speaker. Within a year, the Legislature faced a resolution calling for a committee of five "to investigate communistic and un-American teachings in schools and universities," and there was a spate of charges involving teachers, textbooks, and school attitudes toward the United Nations. In May, 1951, five Englewood teachers were charged with "un-American conduct of classroom instruction." Englewood was the center of a group of extremists who found communist tendencies in the

P.T.A., *Time Magazine*, the *New York Times*, and community centers. There were incidents in East Orange, Summit, Tenafly, Millburn, Montclair, Red Bank, and Nutley.

In general, local school boards defended their teachers. In East Orange, Francis Oldham was promoted to principal shortly after he had been excoriated before the school board for using pamphlets about communism in his classes. The *Newark Evening News* assigned a reporter to make a study of the problem; a series of articles traced the extremist threads which tied the series of attacks together. By 1953 a legislative committee, on which the American Legion was represented, had given the schools a clean bill of health, stating that it had been unable to find any significant evidence of communistic or un-American teaching.

The State Department of Education and the State Board of Education, too, during this period kept trying to clarify the issues. In 1949 the Board issued a statement of principles for the teaching of controversial questions in schools, defending the importance of such questions and the right and duty of teachers to handle them, and the obligation on boards to provide for this. The statement asserted, "No individual or group can claim the right to present arguments directly to students." Three years later it restated the right and responsibility of local boards for the selection of textbooks" suited to local needs and conditions. "This makes very difficult the efforts of any group motivated by totalitarian ideas to seize control of what is taught in the schools."

The State Board of Education believes that the citizens of our local communities and their boards of education will see to it that the textbooks used in the schools are free from proposals that are subversive to our country or to the principles upon which our country is founded.

In the teaching of controversial questions and in the selection of textbooks it is highly desirable that conditions be main-

tained that will preserve in our schools the opportunity, within the limits of the curriculum, to search for the truth under the guidance of wise, loyal teachers. There is no conflict between the inculcation of the principles of our American Democracy and the search for the truth. Freedom of thought and speech, with due consideration of the rights of others, encourages the search for the truth. All of us who seek to improve the schools would do well to so direct our efforts that we shall not create an atmosphere which will restrict or possibly destroy the opportunities for the search for the truth, and to plan our procedures with due regard to the principles which we support and promote.

In brief, then, the years following the end of World War II can be summed up in these few general statements: High school education had come to be expected of every boy or girl of anything like normal intellectual ability. One reflection of this attitude was the abandonment of the "weighted pupil" concept in the distribution of state school aid. Under the Dumont State School Aid law of 1954 the extra cost of high school education was no longer something to be added to the costs of elementary education, but was a wholly accepted part of the total cost of educating the children of a community.

High school largely ceased to be a collection of courses, in which a beginning pupil chose one which set the whole pattern of his education from ninth through twelfth grades. Rather the thinking tended toward continuous education, with branching patterns and choices for each individual—starting about grade seven in one of the increasing number of junior high schools which sought to provide a pattern suited to his individual needs and expectations.

The emphases in this period before high school enrollments started their sharp climb were on the practical, immediately useful subjects with social and vocational overtones. These included such areas as health, driver education, family living, and high school review of the fundamentals of arithmetic, reading, spelling, etc., which would be needed by all graduates whatever their futures.

This emphasis on the individual and his needs meant the acceptance by most public high schools of newer attitudes toward all education—emphasis upon what each pupil can learn and needs to learn at any given moment, and a sense of obligation on the part of the schools to seek new ways of making him want to learn it. The older tradition had placed greater emphasis on the subject, on the textbook, on more formal teaching methods, and on marks and grades. In these years the school's social obligations to all their pupils, including those destined for college, were assumed by many high schools which had once been mainly concerned with their students' intellectual progress.

VII

THE HIGH SCHOOL AT MID-CENTURY (1950 - 1963)

MID-CENTURY brought a whole new period of growth and change for New Jersey public secondary education. The high schools were profoundly influenced by events over which they had little or no control: population increases, intensification of the Cold War, high price levels, and the struggle for space supremacy. New Jersey secondary schools, from 1950 to 1963, reflected these conditions. Another tremendous increase in enrollments, basic changes in organization, pressures from outside groups and the vigorous resistance to such pressures, new instructional devices, and basic curriculum changes made the period one of the most significant and turbulent in high school history.

STILL MORE PUPILS

By the end of the depression, in 1939-1940, New Jersey high school enrollments had risen to 205,787. These students represented the high birth rate of the years after World War I. The relatively small number of births during the depression years had begun by 1940-1941 to reverse the upward trend, and secondary enrollments fell steadily until they reached 157,728 by 1951-1952. Then the vanguard of the children born just before World War II began to find their seats in high school classrooms. Slowly at first, but at an ever-increasing tempo, the

secondary school population climbed to 287,314 by 1961-1962—a gain of over 80 per cent in a decade.

The State Department of Education, as early as 1953, warned local school officials what was ahead: "Forecasts of the coming enrollments which will affect our New Jersey high schools during the next few years, say by 1960, are producing some surprising figures." Local officials heeded the warning. A departmental report in 1958 told the tale of school construction since 1950: 22 new regional high schools; 29 new high schools where none had been before; 22 high school buildings replaced or supplemented by new ones; 49 new junior highs; and 21 major high school additions or alterations.

Building high schools at this rate cost a great deal of money. It is estimated that sums totaling \$225,000,000 were spent on construction of secondary schools from 1950 to 1957, while the original cost of all the New Jersey school buildings, elementary and secondary, in 1950 was \$401,511,672. In the seven years after 1950, New Jersey taxpayers spent over half as much money on new high schools alone as they had spent on all the schools in use in 1950. Nevertheless they had to be cautioned against complacency; they were told that high school enrollments would increase by seventy-two thousand students between 1959 and 1965—the equivalent of 72 new thousand-pupil high schools. Thus warned, the districts erected 16 new high schools in 1960.

A casualty of this rapid growth was New Jersey's characteristic sending-receiving relationship. In the early 1950's, faced with mushrooming enrollments of their own students and with expensive building programs, receiving school districts were reluctant to educate their neighbors' children. In eight years 120 sending districts were told that they must make other arrangements for their high school pupils. The changes within Gloucester County schools were typical. Prior to 1955, only six of the twenty-three districts had their own high schools. These six educated boys and girls from the seventeen smaller districts on a tuition basis. By 1963, this pattern

had all but disappeared. Four of the sending districts had built their own high schools, while ten others had pooled their resources to set up four regional high schools. Only three districts sent pupils to high schools in other districts.

The regional high school on the other hand showed marked growth in these years. In 1950 there were four regional high schools serving 21 member districts. With the breakdown of the sending-receiving system, the number of regional school districts increased rapidly. Their growth was stimulated after 1954 by special state school aid, and was especially encouraged, perhaps, by Commissioner Frederick M. Raubinger, who, in the 1930's had directed the regional high school in Passaic County. By 1963, New Jersey had 44 regional high schools, serving 165 school districts.

These new regional high schools were large, staffed and equipped to provide the most modern of comprehensive secondary school programs. The typical regional enrollment was over one thousand students, with many schools exceeding thirteen hundred, and three enrolling over two thousand. The Morris Hills Regional High School with a student enrollment in 1962 of 2066 offered its students a choice of nine curriculums, including business, art, homemaking, beauty culture, electronics, and practical nursing. For such programs it had a library of eight thousand volumes, scientific laboratories, industrial arts and vocational shops, an auto mechanics shop, business machines, foreign language recording booths, and facilities for beauty culture.

Another popular device for meeting rising enrollments, especially in the more populous areas, was the junior high school. In the two-year period after 1955 the number of junior high schools increased from 64 to 92, and by 1962 there were 105 junior high schools in operation. A local school superintendent explained:

In most expanding communities it was cheaper to build one or two new junior high schools to relieve population pressure

than to patch up or to add to the older elementary and high school buildings. The plan was less expensive in another way also. New rooms for industrial arts, home economics, and physical education could be provided more cheaply at a central location in a junior high school than by adding facilities to every elementary school in town.

Other educators, along with the State Department of Education, hailed the junior high school's ability to help students make a happy and effective transition from late childhood into adolescence, to minimize the break between grades six and seven, to link the elementary school with the senior high school programs, and to meet the peculiar needs, interests, and capacities of young adolescents.

Soaring enrollments also made for larger high schools. Between 1950-1951 and 1958-1959, the number of students in the typical four-year high school rose from 600 to 964; in the senior high school (grades ten through twelve), from 850 to 1316; and in the junior high school, from 375 to 614. Try as they would, school districts simply could not build fast enough to keep pace with such growth. By 1956 virtually half of the state's secondary schools had enrollments exceeding their normal building capacity, and state officials warned against such expedients as shorter class periods, increasing the number of periods per day, double sessions, curtailing curricular offerings, and larger classes. The warnings did not prevent the number of secondary pupils in substandard classrooms from increasing from 10,599 in 1956 to 17,625 by 1961, or more pupils going on half sessions. The State Department of Education insisted:

Overcrowding develops a sort of creeping paralysis. The program does not break down completely; school is open. However, the deterioration sets in by stages. It is important for the high school principal, the one closest to the situation, to alert those responsible locally for the operation of the school to the dangers inherent in any overcrowded situation.

Soaring high school enrollments produced larger graduating classes—32,763 high school graduates in 1950, 53,489 in 1960, and 74,870 predicted for 1970. More and more parents wanted their children to go to college; the proportion of graduates entering college rose from 24 per cent in 1947 to 35 per cent in 1960. The result was an acute shortage of facilities for higher education. Though New Jersey voted \$15,000,000 for State College buildings in the late 1940's and followed it with \$67,000,000 for higher education facilities in the 1950's, the colleges began to turn away qualified students because there simply were not enough dormitories and classrooms. In 1962 the State Board of Education asked for a minimum of \$134,000,000 for further college expansion. This situation greatly affected the thinking of both the high schools and their students.

PRESSURES AND COUNTER-PRESSURES

In mid-October, 1957, the Soviet Union placed in orbit a 23-inch aluminum ball weighing 184 pounds. As Sputnik circled the globe at 18,000 miles per hour, its eery, beeping sound shocked a complacent America. Seeking an explanation or a scapegoat for the Soviet space victory, some looked, not at the military, the government, or at the nation's scientists, but toward the public school system. Their conclusion: Soviet education was far superior to that of America, particularly at the secondary level.

Questioning and criticism of the high school, on a national rather than a state level, had begun before Sputnik. University professors and nationally known journalists had been articulate in declaring that the secondary schools were to blame for lower academic achievement of college youth, because they had included superficial subject-matter in their curriculums and downgraded the basic humanities, social sciences, and sciences. The critics charged the schools had adopted a policy of a high school diploma for all, gearing their efforts toward

the average student rather than the intellectually gifted; and that they had tried to take over such home and church responsibilities as concern with character, social adjustment, and citizenship, instead of focusing on intellectual training. Admiral Hyman Rickover, father of the atomic submarine, urged a rigorous European-type curriculum concentrating on the gifts of the gifted; some writers looked wistfully back to the basic education of fifty years ago, which had made them what they were.

Other pressures went beyond the verbal. New Jersey schoolmen in the 1950's began to be concerned about the effects of the philanthropic foundations which supplied funds for special studies in the field of public education. They looked apprehensively at the Ford Foundation's Bay City (Michigan) Project which experimented with non-certified teacher-aides in enlarged classes, and later at the same foundation's devotion to mechanical devices for mass-teaching. They worried over the expanding activities of large testing corporations and their influence on the individual high school curriculum through the National Merit Scholarship Program, the Advanced Placement Program, the Scholarship Qualifying Test, the National Honor Society Scholarship Program, and the long-established College Board Examination Program. In March, 1960, the New Jersey Secondary School Principals Association editorialized:

The absurdity of the current "IBM" approach to education is becoming more apparent, as the giant testing agencies square off at each other with batteries of new tests all primed for the next scholarship program or foundation project to appear on the horizon. Assured of an ever increasing student population, perpetually supplied with test questions by mutual borrowing, and enthusiastically cheered by "cram" schools, the educational testing agencies reap a lucrative harvest.

They were restive at the federal government's financial promotion of such specific subject-fields as mathematics and science through such agencies as the National De-

fense Education Act and the National Science Foundation; they wanted to see similar concern for other areas, the social studies and the humanities. They were concerned at widely-publicized "hurry-up" solutions for education problems, such as the Trump Plan for meeting the teacher shortage with large classes, salary differentials for teachers, the use of teacher-aides, teaching machines, and television.

Such national pressures had considerable influence on New Jersey high schools. Some high schools sought to serve the needs of the superior student with accelerated classes, particularly in English and mathematics. Some dropped algebra down into the eighth grade for accelerated students, and the other college preparatory mathematics were in turn moved down one grade level, leaving room for a senior course in analytic geometry and calculus. A variant of acceleration was ability grouping; in one school the "gifted" group was marked on a scale of 125. State officials, however, warned high schools that classroom recognition of individual differences within each classroom was more educationally desirable than the sectioning of classes on academic ability alone.

By 1960 high schools had become greatly concerned over getting their seniors into crowded colleges. College preparatory classes multiplied, and many college-bound students spent time learning to recognize new vocabulary words out of context and to master the shades of gray inherent in verbal analogies. Some English teachers used large parts of the junior year to practice the technique of multiple choice questions and to prepare for college board examinations. One high school held free Saturday-morning classes for developing verbal and mathematics skills for the all-important college entrance tests.

Some—perhaps many—New Jersey high schools reacted to the pressures by a "make-it-tough" policy. Students took test after test until many became not only test-conscious, but test-weary. They reflected the prevailing concern for "excellence" by becoming over-anxious about

promotion and getting on honor rolls. Schools permitted students to take five major subjects a year; guidance officials were taking no chances of having their students unprepared to enter the "best" colleges. The State Division of Secondary Education commented: "One reason there is no study hall scheduled for many students is that the fifth major has replaced it and has thus imposed a double handicap on the student by leaving him with less time to do more work." Secondary school teachers imposed more homework, though the State Department of Education cautioned high schools:

Generally speaking it is not an exaggeration to say that some teachers this year have "piled it on" to the point where homework is becoming a threat to the student's health, as well as to the proper development of all aspects of his personality. Burning the midnight oil may be good for the scholar's soul on rare occasions and undoubtedly serves a conditioning function for the college-bound. But as a daily routine it does more harm than good. The effectiveness of a school's program is not measured and recorded by a time clock and there is no guarantee that a student who works four hours learns twice as much as the one who works only two hours. On the contrary, there is always the possibility that the two extra hours may do nothing but develop an intense dislike for whatever subject or teacher makes them necessary.

The State Department of Education led the strongest counter-attack on the pressure. Even before Sputnik it sought to disprove charges that the high schools were slighting foreign language, mathematics, and science. A special study showed that New Jersey high schools were teaching as much biology as those of any state, and that in chemistry and physics they enrolled a greater proportion of their students than the national average. It found a rising percentage of students in science courses, and the same proportion enrolled in mathematics courses as in 1918-1919. It noted that all New Jersey high schools were teaching the principal science and mathematics courses. The department found New Jersey second

among the states in the proportion (44 per cent) of high school students enrolled in foreign language courses. Commissioner Frederick M. Raubinger, sharply questioned facile solutions of big problems, whether by tests or television, acceleration or ability grouping, heavy pupil loads or harder homework. In speech after speech and article after article, he and his staff stressed, in essence, the following philosophy:

Each child is unique and deserves the right to have his needs met.

In the educative process the teacher who has a sympathy and understanding of children is of paramount importance.

The proper concern of a curriculum is something more than the study of the separate disciplines; rather it is all of the experiences that can be harnessed to meet the needs, interests, and ability of "the children of all the people."

It is the responsibility of the schools to provide the student with the fullest opportunity to reach his own potential—however high or low it may be.

The responsibility for educating students belongs to those closest to them.

The student is no IBM punch card nor state-controlled robot. He deserves the most humane kind of education a democratic state can provide.

For this philosophy the commissioner enlisted the state's principal educational groups, notably the New Jersey Secondary Principals' Association. That association adopted resolutions criticizing the test proliferations of the College Entrance Board, the testing policy of the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, and the Ford Foundation for its support of admitting academically-talented high school students to college before they graduated from high school. In 1959 the secondary principals deplored the curriculum-influences of the College Entrance Examination Board, the National Merit Examination, the National Defense Education Act, the

Commission on Mathematics, and the Physical Science Study Committee. They declared:

It is significant that the majority of these ideas are imposed from above and seldom come from the grass roots. Nevertheless, each one forces curriculum change which is constructive by nature. Conformity and test-originated teaching must result whenever national testing or college entrance board policies demand it. American education seems to be moving toward centralization, dominated by educational bureaucracy, and away from local autonomy. An alert educational leadership must soon begin to crystallize opposition to this continuous modification of the high school curriculum imposed from above or education for all in the secondary school will become meaningless.

There were positive moves, too. As early as 1947 Commissioner John H. Bosshart had set wheels in motion to establish a committee on articulation of colleges and secondary schools to improve the relations between these institutions. On this committee, through the 1950's, were college and university presidents, and college professors, public and private school superintendents and principals, and representatives of the State Department of Education. Out of it grew a number of projects, including intervisitation between colleges and high schools, curricular changes in English and mathematics, and a study of duplication of subject matter in high schools and colleges. Throughout the 1950's school and college personnel exchanged visits with mutual profit. In 1957-1958, forty-five secondary schools sent 190 visitors to the colleges, and 29 colleges sent 120 instructors to the secondary schools. The high schools reported improvement of articulation and instructional levels, and recognition of the need for curriculum revision; the college instructors reported an increase in their respect for what the secondary schools were doing. A study of duplication among high school and college freshman courses involved questionnaires to 4350 college freshmen in 25 colleges.

Over one-third of the freshmen reported substantial duplication of their high school studies in their college freshmen courses, with the greatest duplication in English, history, and mathematics.

CURRICULUM CHANGES

For college-bound and non-college-bound there were significant changes in what the schools were teaching and how they taught it. Many of these grew out of the much-maligned Life Adjustment Program, a national movement, encouraged in New Jersey by the State Department of Education, to have the secondary schools bring their students to grips with the real problems of life: social, political and economic.

In New Jersey high schools it took many forms. In Ridgewood the Life Adjustment program consisted of a carefully-planned course in Family Living, made up of units of work in child development, marriage and the family, and nutrition. Ocean City offered its eleventh grade students a course called "Human Relations." Irvington High School tried to use the English program in literature and composition to deal with real-life problems, and also, in a course on civic education, encouraged students to engage actively in political conventions and voting campaigns. In an elective course in mathematics at Woodstown pupils used mathematical principles to study the problems involved in planning, building, and maintaining a home. Life Adjustment at Westfield involved a course, "Science in Life," which stressed the impact of science on the student's contemporary world. A Bloomfield schoolman wrote, of a course in "Home and Family Living:"

By June, the students who have had this experience will know something of home construction, they will be conscious of grade-labeling in foods, they will be aware of the things to look for in buying toothpaste, clothes, rugs, and velocipedes. They will know how to file an income tax, and will be con-

scious of the nature and purposes of the various kinds of life and casualty insurance. They will know how to decorate a home tastefully and economically. They will be aware of the need for give-and-take in family relationships, of the responsibilities of the various members of the family group, including the responsibilities of the teen-ager.

To its supporters Life Adjustment meant opportunities for active and meaningful learning experiences—a chance to break away from the teacher-in-the-front-of-the-classroom teaching from a single textbook. It meant student-teacher planning of course objectives, course organization, and learning experiences that included panel discussions, field trips, multiple textbooks, research activities, audio-visual aids, outside speakers, committee work, and the use of community resources. Such an ambitious and adventurous program had its problems. One was the difficulty of finding “teachers with initiative, originality, imagination, a desire to experiment, and with a practical rather than an academic knowledge of the subject.” It was hard to evaluate results of such courses. And not all students were mature enough for the tasks. The course called Family Living, in particular, proved popular, however. By 1952 it was being taught in 54 schools with enrollments of 2352. The whole Life Adjustment concept, however, became in the post-Sputnik era a whipping-boy for the advocates of intellectual rigor in the high schools. Nevertheless, many New Jersey high schools continued to offer courses such as driver education, consumer mathematics, social living, and home and family living.

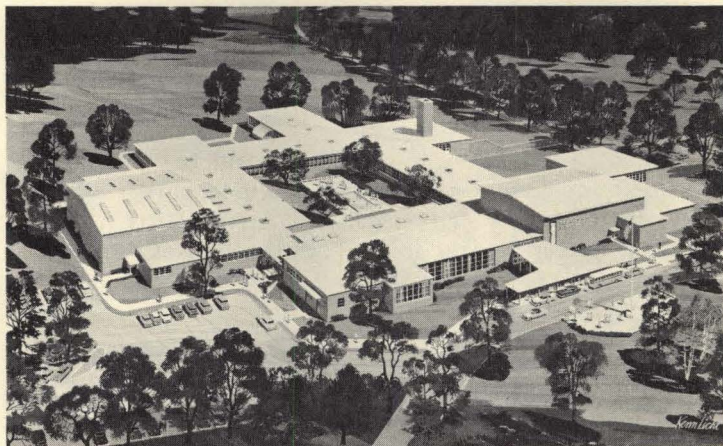
During the 1950's many junior high schools made wider use of the “block-of-time” in organizing their teaching. This idea was frequently confused with the core curriculum. Fair Lawn defined the block-of-time curricular program “as a plan for organizing the school day so that one teacher is responsible for the students for a longer portion of the day than one class period.” It called the core program “a system of teaching in which a

group of subjects or skills are centered around a common theme." At Fair Lawn the block-of-time organization made possible a core program in which the traditional subjects lost some of their identity; seventh grade students, under the core-approach, studied their own community as a theme, with subject matter areas involved in the solution of problems arising out of this theme, but not studied as entities. There the block-of-time was an administrative device providing more than one period for extended work in a variety of subjects.

More schools, however, used the extended class period (block-of-time) to correlate the work of two or more subjects, but with each subject holding fast to its identity. There were 47 such block-of-time programs in New Jersey in 1960, and only 10 core programs. It was being used in over half of the schools with junior high school grades, especially in the seventh grade, and most often to provide longer time for the study of combined language-arts and social studies. The State Department of Education outlined its advantages:

The emerging junior high school is moving away from the excessive departmentalization which characterized the early development of the school. Block-of-time schedule arrangements have drastically reduced the number of different teachers with which pupils in grades seven and eight will work. Teachers and pupils can organize subject matter and learning experiences so to achieve greater correlations and integration than is usually possible in the departmentalized set-up. Pupil guidance in the block-of-time organization becomes a definite concern and responsibility of the classroom teacher.

Just after the turn of the century we have seen Passaic High School with a radical curricular program in which the student was required to take five basic courses, including English and physical education, and then was free, under guidance, to select courses which met his needs, interests, and abilities. This must have been the first single curriculum offered to New Jersey high school



Madison High School—a high school of the 1960's

students. Most high schools, however, in the first quarter of the twentieth century frowned on the elective principle. Secondary programs became stratified into rigid patterns, labeled academic, commercial, and general. Most students, having selected one of these patterns, remained in it until graduation. But in the late 1940's Passaic's early concept of a single curriculum was revived and began to grow in popularity. In 1963 a state official estimated that two New Jersey high schools out of five had a single curriculum. The Wall Township High School outlined it this way:

Wall High School does not divide its program of studies into course patterns such as college preparatory, commercial, or general curriculums. Each student is expected, through guidance, to develop a program of studies best suited to his interests, abilities, and needs.

The Wall Township student had to take United States history (two years), health, safety and physical education (four years), mathematics (two years), English

(four years), citizenship education (one year), social or laboratory biology (one year). Aside from these requirements, however, the subject could sit down with his guidance counselor and carefully plan a program to meet his individual needs.

Many New Jersey high schools offered attractive printed program-of-study booklets which gave students and their parents suggested curricular patterns leading toward specific student goals. They emphasized, however, that these were sample patterns. Cherry Hill High School explained the advantages thus:

The advantages [of the single curriculum] are manifold: College preparatory students may easily elect business courses, related arts, etc., and the reverse is true. It is not at all unusual to find a commercial student in a high academic section of a particular subject, since it may be in accordance with the student's interests and abilities. The resultant flexibility also grants wider opportunity for dealing with the atypical student, the academically talented, and the slow learner. "Single track" scheduling is more difficult to administer, since the program of each student is planned individually. However, we feel that the benefits derived by offering every student a wide variety of courses in keeping with his own interests and abilities are well worth the effort.

Finally, the 1950's saw marked and, in some instances, spectacular changes in some subject matter fields, notably mathematics, science, English, and the foreign languages. In mathematics, new terms and concepts began to appear in the texts: sets, groups, domains, probability, number systems, mathematical logic, commutative and associative laws, and inequalities. These terms, strange and frightening to traditional teachers, were begotten by what was labeled "the new mathematics." Its disciples argued that the traditional high school mathematics courses were mixtures of isolated content with insufficient attention to unifying principles, logical organization, or even the development of student interest. They were determined to have students under-

stand the structure of mathematics, comprehend the meaning of the number system, appreciate the use of mathematical proof, develop skill in using mathematics with precision, discover basic mathematical principles for themselves, and understand the unifying concepts of mathematics.

The new approach made impressive inroads in many New Jersey high schools. These were made in proportion to the extent of the re-education of mathematics teachers and were dependent upon the writing of new textbooks. The National Science Foundation helped teacher retraining by subsidizing New Jersey college courses in the newer mathematics for teachers in service. Large universities such as Illinois and Maryland produced textbook materials and the change-over progressed steadily.

Similar, if not as spectacular, stirrings developed in science, foreign languages, and English. New Jersey high schools began to experiment with a new physics program under the leadership of the Physical Science Study Committee. Biology was modernized in some high schools under the impetus of the American Institute of Biological Sciences. In the foreign languages formal memorization of grammatical rules gave way to emphasis on teaching students to listen to and to speak languages other than their own. For this purpose more and more schools added language laboratories; in 1962 these laboratories numbered about a hundred. And last but not least, the field of English was subject to change. Adherents of the "structural" approach to English challenged the entrenched forces of traditional grammar, and the "descriptive" grammar (language-as-we-use-it) group battled the "prescriptive" grammar (language-as-it-ought-to-be) defenders.

High school guidance made major gains and the number of certificated guidance counselors increased faster than enrollments; the ratio of counselors to students in 1958-1959 was one to 450; three years later it was one to 341 students. The National Defense Education Act helped New Jersey toward the goal of one

guidance counselor for every 250 to 300 pupils. In one year alone the number of counselors with a master's degree increased more than 10 per cent, and there was a definite trend from part-time to full-time counselors. Without such provisions the schools could not meet the challenges of a changing and expanding population, new curriculums and new buildings, and the emergence of a single curriculum to be individually tailored to the interests, needs, and abilities of the individual student.

Like many other phases of the secondary school program, athletics experienced a growth spurt in the 1950's, as the number of high schools expanded. Enthusiasm gripped high school students and the general public. Football and basketball were the sports attracting the greatest interest in the newly established schools, and many a citizen was more concerned with his high school's football ranking than with its rating for accreditation. This enthusiasm caused problems. Those entrusted with the direction of high school athletic teams were disturbed by drinking and rowdiness at football games. They doubted the propriety of playing all-star, post-season games. They were concerned with the growing power of athletic coaches, and uneasy over the emphasis on competitive athletics in the junior high schools and the possibility that these might become "farm clubs" for the senior high schools.

However, New Jersey was organized to keep school-boy athletics under control. The New Jersey State Interscholastic Athletic Association, watchdog of interscholastic sports, was essentially under the control of school principals and administrators, rather than of coaches. In 1953 the chairman of the Secondary Principals' Association said, "The Athletic Association is not any longer a coach's association."

Many of the trends and tendencies noted here came into focus for both citizens and schoolmen with the publication, in 1959, of Dr. James B. Conant's *The American High School Today*. Dr. Conant reported findings and recommendations based on a first-hand

study of more than fifty-five high schools in eighteen states. He had judged high schools on their provision of a general education for all future citizens, on provision of an effective program for those who wished to use their acquired skills immediately on graduation, and on provision of a program for those preparing for college. He had also considered carefully provisions for the academically-talented students and such factors as guidance, student morale, and effective social interaction among students with different goals. Dr. Conant concluded:

I believe no radical alteration in the basic pattern of American education is necessary in order to improve our public high schools. If all the high schools were functioning as well as some I have visited, the education of all American youth would be satisfactory, except for the study of foreign languages and the guidance of the more able girls.

Dr. Conant did not feel that the high school sufficiently challenged the academically-talented students, and he recommended increased guidance; the single, individualized curriculum; ability grouping; diversified programs for the non-academic, terminal student; special remedial work for slow-learners, especially in reading; and greater emphasis on English, mathematics, foreign languages, science, and social studies for the more able, college-preparatory students.

In general public school staffs in New Jersey welcomed Dr. Conant's report. They were particularly pleased with his approval of the American comprehensive high school set up to meet the needs of all students, gifted and non-gifted. New Jersey high school principals commented:

The report supports the need for quality of instruction which can only be attained by the presence of a well qualified teaching and administrative staff, functional buildings and equipment, and reasonable class size. It is compatible with the democratic ideal of "education for all" and does not restrict its interest to only the gifted few.

The State Department of Education, however, had grave misgivings about this report. It was critical of the quantitative approach to evaluation of high schools. "The way to quality education," the Department affirmed, "is far deeper than a mere enumeration of subjects and administrative practices and a check-list based thereon." There was fear that the Conant recommendations might militate against a broad general education for high school students and that the ultimate effect be to stifle experimentation and effect a rigid curriculum: "There exists the strong possibility that the Report . . . may provide the next strait jacket for American education." The report was, nevertheless, discussed at education meetings, board meetings, and within the schools, and it appeared to have had a significant effect in setting lines of school development in New Jersey. It is noteworthy that in a follow-up report, Dr. Conant referred particularly to New Jersey high schools and showed them to be far in advance of the rest of the nation in providing the kind of comprehensive program about which he had originally written.

A SUMMATION

As this book is completed, New Jersey high schools are in a period of ferment and change. There are, in 1963, not enough schools for the thousands of additional high school pupils already enrolled in the lower grades; at least one New Jersey school district has consistently voted down building proposals needed to forestall holding triple sessions. District after district still faces the gravest difficulties in providing classrooms, teachers, books and supplies for a steadily increasing number of high school youth; and there is a growing tendency to seek additional state and federal help for meeting the rise in school costs, which the public recognizes as inevitable.

High school graduation has become essential for every youth in a society which has fewer and fewer uses for

the young person under eighteen or for the untrained and unskilled, in a world where the number of things to be known appears to double every decade. This is especially acute in New Jersey, a densely populated state with many research installations and industries which require exceptional rather than routine skills.

New Jersey high schools admittedly do not have answers for all these problems. They are concerned with the preparation of their intellectually-gifted pupils for colleges in which there is less room every day. They recognize that more and more parents of pupils with average ability feel that some education beyond high school is necessary for success and happiness in this kind of world. They are just as concerned over the thousands of pupils to whom the high school, as now constituted, is not offering what they seem to need. "Drop-outs" are being studied, and courses and teaching methods are being revised to prevent such pupils from leaving high school for a jobless, street-corner existence of futility and delinquency. The high schools do not know the answers, but they are continuing to seek them in a state where the high school has come, in a scant century and a quarter, to be one of the major social institutions charged with the welfare of all the youth who hold the bright promise of New Jersey's future.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

So far as the authors of this book are aware, this is the first extended attempt to treat the development of secondary education in New Jersey separately from the history of education as a whole. They feel, obviously, that it merits such treatment; important developments in the high school area tend to disappear in the overwhelming size and importance of the elementary schools; and memorable men such as Charles J. Baxter and Louis Bevier have never received full credit for their lasting contributions to high school education.

As a matter of fact there have not been very many attempts to trace and record the whole high school movement in the United States. Among those few are Elmer Ellsworth Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools* (New York and London, 1903) and Emit Duncan Grizzel, *Origin and Development of the High School in New England before 1865* (Philadelphia 1922); these have been especially helpful in this study.

David Murray, *History of Education in New Jersey* (Washington, 1899) has a lengthy chapter on "Academics and Secondary Schools," together with a vast amount of other material of great value and interest to the New Jersey school historian. Nor can any historian of early New Jersey education fail to acknowledge his indebtedness to Nelson R. Burr, *Education in New Jersey 1630-1871* (Princeton, 1942). The authors cheerfully admit their vast debt to these two books for much of the material in their early chapters. Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education* contains much illuminating material on New Jersey's early school days.

Also helpful in telling the story of the early years have been numerous college, county, and local histories. William H. S. Demarest's *A History of Rutgers College 1766-1924* (New

Brunswick, 1924), and John Maclean's *History of the College of New Jersey* (Philadelphia, 1877) were valuable for the early preparatory school activities of Rutgers and Princeton. There are interesting local histories of Newark, Trenton, Maplewood, South Orange, Somerville, and Montclair which devote much space to school activities, and education is generally covered in considerable detail in such county histories as those of Camden, Gloucester, Hudson, Mercer, and Burlington.

The beginnings of real "public" education in New Jersey are recorded in many places, e.g., in copies of the *New Jersey Lifeboat* preserved in the Newark Public Library's excellent New Jersey Room, and addresses by Bishop George Washington Doane, John Maclean, C. C. Hoagland, etc., in the New Jersey State Library's invaluable files. Nelson Burr has compiled a detailed bibliography of such materials. The authors of this book relied heavily for this period, especially, on their own previous work: Robert D. Bole, "The Development of Financial Support for Public Schools in New Jersey" (unpublished doctoral thesis, New York University, 1956), and Laurence B. Johnson, *NJEA, the First 100 Years* (Trenton, 1953).

Invaluable, and a major source for a complete account of the development of secondary schools from 1850 to 1911, are the reports of the New Jersey State Superintendents of Schools. In addition to the records and comments of the State Superintendents, these contain reports from county and local superintendents, some of them prepared with great care and providing a vivid picture of the schools of the day. Many of the quotations in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 came from these reports. Also useful have been the Minutes and Proceedings of the New Jersey Education Association and the Proceedings of the National Education Association. The city of Newark has a fine tradition of reports by its local superintendents.

Most helpful were numerous histories of individual high schools and school systems, handbooks, minutes, and courses of study made available to the authors by local superintendents and principals. It is impossible to acknowledge all of these, but materials from Camden, Bayonne, East Orange, Montclair, New Brunswick, Paterson, Plainfield, Somerville, and South Orange-Maplewood schools deserve special mention. The authors believe that every high school and school system should make a real effort to record and preserve its history and

development, especially of changes in its curriculum and courses of study.

Soon after the turn of the twentieth century the sheer size of the public school operation made it impossible for the Commissioner of Education to print, or even to ask for, the detailed reports of local developments which were recorded in the early years. As New Jersey schools grew, annual reports, both state and local, tended to record trends and high spots only, and hence to lose some of the intimate detail dear to historians. In the reports of the Commissioner, the issues of the *Education Bulletin*, published by the State Department of Education in the 1910's and 1920's, in the *New Jersey Journal of Education*, issued by Samuel B. Howe of Newark in the 1920's, and the *New Jersey Educational Review* (now the *NJEA Review*), the development of the public high school is recorded.

Other important facets appear in the Minutes and Records of the New Jersey Council of Education, now filed at Glassboro State College, in the Yearbooks of the New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association, the materials of the New Jersey Secondary Principals' Association and the publications of the numerous subject-matter teacher associations. These same publications, and the personal memories of the authors, both of whom have been active in New Jersey schools for more than a quarter-century, have provided much of the material for the years between 1930 and 1960. The writers are sadly aware, however, that it is almost impossible to write a satisfactory account of a period as close as those years are; the significant and the insignificant have not yet sorted themselves out.

The authors cannot, however, refrain from expressing their conviction that the task of future historians of these years will be difficult. Less, it seems to them, is being done now than was done a century ago to preserve the significant records of school growth and development. Many valuable documents of these years are not being sent to the State Library where they should become a part of the permanent Archives of the State. The authors would strongly urge that this be done.

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



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