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Aspects of the Federal Relationships to Education

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ASPECTS OF THE FEDERAL RELATIONSHIPS TO EDUCATION

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This thesis, presented by Paul Milton Crum in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Education, is hereby approved by the Committee under whom the work has been done.

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ASPECTS OF THE FEDERAL RELATIONSHIPS TO EDUCATION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

A study of federal relationships to education cannot fail to convince anyone who approaches the subject with an impartial attitude that there are many acute problems surrounding the attempt to bring into successful cooperation the states and the federal government on educational issues. This study must include such considerations as the question of constitutionality, the issue of support and control, elements of the tax problem, the significance of direct participation by the government through its emergency projects, and other aspects. The subject is one of vital and timely importance to the future of education; it is probably of more importance now than at any previous time in our national history. The exigencies of wide-spread economic breakdown and the appearance of what was believed to be a crisis in the national life made it necessary in 1933 for the federal government to come to the financial support of many governmental services. That is a matter of common knowledge; but the extent to which it has been necessary for the national government to enter into new and unaccustomed relationships to public education, in order to meet public needs and demands, has not been commonly realized. Issues have not been resolved; implications for the future of education have not always been recognized.

The general public does not very well understand the relation of the federal government to education. Many are indifferent to educational interests and others have only vague notions, or are victims of hearsay and unwarranted assumptions. It is also evident that with respect to the members of the education profession, and others, the matter of federal aid and participation is in a state of flux, with no very definite conclusions or crystallizations of opinion available as to the permanent policy to be pursued. The issue of federal participation in public education is not a new one, however, nor is there any reason to believe that the question will ever be permanently solved.

Nevertheless the country needs a policy. With the passing of the depression period emergency measures must be replaced by policies. The most powerful influence and leadership in framing national policies in education should come from educators; otherwise it will undoubtedly be formulated by interests subversive to educational welfare.

CHAPTER 2

ASPECTS OF FEDERAL PARTICIPATION

The Issue of Constitutionality

It seems to be not so much a question of the legality or constitutional right of the federal government to assume its many educational functions as it is the practical problem of legislation and method to be employed. The contention that the Constitution gives the states full responsibility for education is basic to the problem, however, since it involves the delicate issue of federal authority versus state rights. There is the argument that since the Constitution does not mention education, the founding fathers definitely intended that it should be a state function. Dr. Cubberley, after a critical study of the Constitution,[1] takes exception to this view and states the opinion that since education at that time was almost entirely conducted under private sponsorship, the framers of the Constitution, being themselves products of such educational training and philosophy, never thought of it as a public function which would merit consideration along with the many other serious issues which confronted them. The struggle required so many compromises that all questions regarded as minor were submerged.

However, in the absence of any direct grant of power in the Constitution the assumption is that the numerous enterprises of the national government in education are constitutional under some doctrine of implied powers. There are numerous

1 E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, p.84

clauses which have been invoked in defense of the constitutional right of the government to participate either directly or indirectly in educational affairs. The general welfare clause[1] has consistently been found broad enough to warrant the use of federal funds for educational purposes. Recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court, involving the Agricultural Adjustment Act[2] and the Social Security Act,[3] seem to have established clearly the constitutionality of federal aid systems such as those applying to education. Other parts of the Constitution seemingly freighted with educational implications, but which may require some stretch of the imagination to see the logical possibilities, include, 1) the words of the Tenth Amendment: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." 2) Again, there is the clause[4] stating, "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government...." It might be contended that republican government can hardly be carried on without an educated citizenry. 3) The clause on common defense[5] might be construed as having educational implications. This mandate to defend the country could hardly be exercised adequately, especially in modern times, without a trained and educated personnel including privates as well as

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1 United States Constitution, Article I, Section 8
2 U. S. v. Butler, 279 U. S. 1
3 Helvering v. Davis, 301 U. S.--; Supt. Ct. Rep. 57:904
4 United States Constitution, Article IV, Section 4
5 Ibid, Article I, Section 8

officers. 4) Another extreme interpretation may be mentioned: the Sixth Amendment guarantees trial by jury in criminal cases. The condition that the jury must always be the defendant's peers can hardly be fulfilled unless the jury is sufficiently educated to follow the trial intelligently.[1] Whatever may be the significance of these considerations, the fact remains that the federal government is in education, and has been since before the days of the Constitution.

Outline of Federal Participation

The contention that the federal government may properly concern itself with education is supported by the history of federal activity in this connection. In a very real sense the federal government has been the founder of public education in most of the states. From the beginning the government exercised a positive influence upon educational development through provisions relating to the government of the territories. Most of the present states of the Union went through the territorial stage, and in each territorial act passed by the Congress provision was made for a system of public schools. Between 1781 and 1802 the thirteen original states ceded to the federal government their land claims west of the Alleghanies. In 1783 the suggestion was made that surplus western lands be disposed of for the common welfare, including the establishing of schools and academies. The Ordinance of 1785 "reserved the lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools."[2] And the historic

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1 J. S. Brubacher, "The Constitutionality of a National System of Education in the United States," School and Society, 46:421
2 F. H. Swift, Federal and State Policies in Public School Finance, p.12

Ordinance of 1787 stated that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged"[1] in the states that were to be carved out of the Northwest Territory. It is these two documents from which arose the federal policy of reserving lands for institutions of learning.[2]

Thus the custom of making grants of public lands for the endowment of education in the states and territories is older than the Constitution. These laws and grants of Congress marked the beginning of a national land-grant policy for the promotion of education. With the exception of Maine, Texas, and West Virginia all states admitted to the Union after the adoption of this land policy received grants for schools. Throughout the nineteenth century there appeared legislation appropriating public lands to the support of common schools, normal schools, colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts, universities, and other institutions of learning. Much of this magnificent endowment was mismanaged and dissipated, but even today the public schools in many states receive income from funds derived from these land grants.

A Department of Education established in 1867 was later reduced to the status of a bureau in the Department of the Interior, where under various titles it has remained ever since. Functioning through the United States Office of Education it has contributed significantly in the promotion of education throughout the nation.

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1 E. P. Cubberley, State School Administration, p.19
2 F. H. Swift, op. cit., p.12

Annual grants of money for educational purposes, however, are a relatively recent development. It was not until the passage of the Hatch Act in 1887, providing $15,000 a year to each of the land-grant colleges, that federal aid to the states in the form of money grants became a substantial reality. Additional federal money was provided by the so-called "Second Morrill Act" of 1890. The Hatch Act and the Second Morrill Act together made it possible for each state to receive annually $140,000 in direct aid for higher education. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 appropriated funds for instruction in subjects relating to agriculture and home economics. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 provided federal aid for vocational education. Under this Act the states must appropriate a sum equal to the federal grant. The George-Deen Act, effective July 1, 1937, supplemented the appropriations for vocational education by an additional annual amount of $12,000,000. The states must match these funds to the amount of 50 percent. Of potential importance, also, is the Harrison-Black-Fletcher Bill which the National Education Association caused to be introduced into Congress in 1936. It would provide for an initial appropriation of $100,000,000 and an increase of $50,000,000 each year until a maximum of $300,000,000 per year is reached. The bill failed of action in the Senate however.[1]

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1 Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Federal Support for Education, No. 4, 15:158, September, 1937

The foregoing provisions, with the exception of the George-Deen Act, outline the important legislation regarding federal participation up to the time of the World War. Other less well-known examples of assistance include gifts of saline and swamp lands, so-called "surplus revenue" grants from the federal treasury which derived from the surplus revenues of 1837 that were returned to the states with the recommendation that they be devoted to education, grants for internal improvements, and various enabling acts requiring each state as it entered the Union to set aside a certain plot of land for the purposes of education. Since the World War there have been large amounts of federal money appropriated for vocational reeducation and rehabilitation of war veterans and of persons disabled in industry. Since the depression years, emergency legislation has dominated and conditioned federal participation in educational affairs. The emergency program has been a large one, including action by the federal government in new educational projects. But irrespective of the increased participation due to depression conditions, the history of federal legislation indicates an increasing sentiment for a recognition by the national government of its obligations to public education.

Hence it may be said that if precedent and tradition count for anything, the constitutional right, after one hundred and fifty years of this policy, has been established well enough not to be argued out of existence on merely legal grounds. The Constitution seems elastic enough if the facts warrant its stretching. It is probable and quite likely that in view of the

changed conditions of our modern society the policy will be continued and even enlarged upon. There is some authority for believing that in the future objections to federal participation in education will have to be fought on the point of fact rather than on that of law or constitutionality.[1]

Major Items of Emergency Aid

The present extent of this federal aid has not been commonly realized. Floyd W. Reeves, Chairman of the Advisory Committee on Education, in his report to the National Education Association in June, 1937,[2] lists five major items of federal support and participation in educational activities, all of them in addition to the older and familiar types of permanent aid, such as that for vocational education, agricultural extension work, and land-grant colleges. These are summarized as follows:

1) Funds to keep schools open in many rural areas. The expenditures amounted to $21,800,922 in the fiscal years 1934-35.

2) Aid in financing the repair and construction of thousands of school buildings. Expenditures for loans and outright grants totaled approximately $300,000,000.

3) The National Youth Administration student aid program helped 435,000 needy students at the peak of 1936. In 1935-36 $52,663,546 were expended.

4) The Works Progress Administration emergency education program employed 42,000 teachers, offering instruction to over two million people.

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1 J. S. Brubacher, op. cit., p.423

2 F. W. Reeves, "The Purpose and Functions of the Advisory Committee on Education," School and Society, 46:152

5) By the end of the first 4 years of its existence, the Civilian Conservation Corps had cared for approximately 1,500,000 young men, the majority of whom received instruction through the educational facilities of the organization.

These activities of the national government, all of which have educational implications and objectives, were occasioned largely by the economic collapse of 1933, necessitating many new and unaccustomed relationships to public education. Although these were instituted as temporary measures, there appeared for the first time, as reported by the Advisory Committee on Education, "an implied recognition of a federal obligation to maintain at least a low minimum of educational opportunity throughout the nation, relieving the strain of acute local financial distress."[1] But with the passing of the depression, public attention is shifted from existing emergency programs to proposed policies of a permanent nature.

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1 Floyd W. Reeves, op. cit., p.152

CHAPTER 3

CONFLICTING VIEWS ON FEDERAL SUPPORT AND CONTROL

The fact, if not the principle, of federal participation is accepted. Educational leaders and groups throughout the country, including such representative groups as the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence, are strongly in favor of federal participation in support of the public school system. There is no doubt as to the existence of a widespread favorable attitude toward federal support, but there is much divergence of opinion regarding the way this policy of support should be permanently established. The jinx in the case is federal control. Federal control is a corollary of federal support and the two must be considered as one and the same problem. Fred Engelhardt, viewing the problem from the standpoint of the economic self-sufficiency of the states,[1] even hazards the speculation that there may be less than forty-eight states in the Union when the ideal plan with its delicate balance between support and control is eventually established. He stresses a gradual development of a program of federal aid, but contends that any permanent policy of federal grants without accompanying federal control is impossible. If such a program were to be really effective in establishing equality of educational opportunity, some sections of the country would have to benefit at the expense of the others; and the question

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1 Fred Engelhardt, "Federal Support for Public Schools is Inevitable," The Nation's Schools, 13:47 (February, 1934)

would be raised of allowing a state to continue its status of statehood when it is not economically a self-supporting unit. In Engelhardt's opinion, "The states are now passing through a similar evolution with respect to the place of the federal government in educational matters, as are the local school districts with respect to state aid and the consequent increase in the exercise of state control."[1]

Range of Opinion

All shades of opinion have arisen over the issue of support and control. The range of these conflicting opinions may be summarized briefly as follows:

1) Some advocate federal aid in any form and under any conditions.

2) Some are against any additional grants because of the dangers of federal control involved; in other words, no additional aid is better than aid with an extension of the federal authority.

3) Certain others favor a measure of control; that based essentially on the governmental theory of checks and balances.

4) Finally, there are those who would have the aid, but believe that it is not the province of the government to dictate how it shall be used.

The views of former Commissioner Tigert fall in the second category.[2] He opposes federal money on the grounds that it will be followed by federal interference. He asserts that

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1 Fred Engelhardt, op. cit.
2 Nelson B. Henry, "Conflicting Views on Federal Aid," Elementary School Journal, 37:510 (March, 1937)

public education is, and should remain, a state and local responsibility; that federal support would eventually result in decreased local support. The net amount would become no greater, as local support would be withdrawn about as fast as federal money became available; the net result would be the undesirable one of diminished interest in local responsibility and the attendant evils of paternalism. Tigert contends further that every state has resources adequate to provide a satisfactory and uniform system of schools. This last contention may be motivated by a sense of idealism, as being possible under the best conditions of government and business organization, but it is hardly illustrative of the present situation. The Advisory Committee on Education, in its report, were agreed that "the educational services now provided for a considerable percentage of the children are below any level that should be tolerated in a civilized country."[1]

The late William John Cooper held to the conditional approval view.[2] He has pointed out that the depression years have shown some states badly hurt. Only federal aid can help the situation, but the grant should be paid over as a flat sum to be administered and distributed by the states in much the same manner that state school money is distributed. He proposes a permanent assistance plan providing for a permanent federal

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, p.47 (February, 1938)
2 Nelson B. Henry, op. cit.

fund of about twenty-five dollars per pupil, available to states on condition that they will, 1) reorganize and reduce their local districts to one tenth the present number, and 2) reorganize and reform the state educational department.

Citing the superior taxing ability of the federal government over that of the states, former Commissioner Zook argues[1] in favor of federal aid on the grounds that the more modern forms of taxation, being most effectively levied by the federal government, demand that some proportion be returned to the states for local and state functions, including education.

The late Lotus D. Coffman fully believed in the granting of federal funds for public education but expressed considerable concern with the manner in which they were to be used.[2] The present trend toward greater governmental control of nearly every phase of life has serious implications for education. Coffman viewed with no little alarm what he considered to be an increasing pressure of the federal government to regulate the educational program of the country; he maintained that federal funds could be used to improve the schools without dominating instruction, or without interfering with the rights of states and communities to experiment with education. In describing the thoroughly American type of government which must be maintained, he says in part,

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1 George F. Zook, "Federal Aid to Education," School and Society, 40:43 (July 14, 1934)
2 Lotus D. Coffman, "Federal Support and Local Responsibility for Education," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1936 , pp.92-93

> Such a government will distribute school funds according to educational needs for the purpose of insuring, so far as possible, a knowledge and mastery of the things men should know and understand in discharging their duties as citizens. Such a government will provide liberally for the study and dissemination of information about education in this country and abroad. Its leadership will be intellectual, not partisan; and the children of the nation will be regarded as future citizens, not as wards of the state.[1]

It is apparent that before any satisfactory permanent policy of federal aid to education can be arrived at there must be state tax reform and a decided strengthening of state departments of education. Overburden on the general property tax has handicapped local initiative in practically all states. In 1936 about 73 percent of all tax revenue for schools derived from this tax.[2] Hence aid is demanded. But the federal government is not willing to make large grants of money or land without proper safeguards as to their use by the state departments. Opinion then declaims against the tyranny of federal control, and the situation is at a stalemate.

To bring the states and the federal government into successful cooperation involves serious problems and hazards. Judd points out a few of these, as follows.[3] The Constitution gives the states full responsibility for education. The federal government

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1 Lotus D. Coffman, op. cit., p.97
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, Federal Aid and the Tax Problem, No. 4, 1939, p.39
3 Charles H. Judd, "Federal Support of Public Education," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1936, pp.97-109

is limited, therefore, to grants of land or money which must be administered by state and local agencies. But the federal grant may be unwise, and the state administration faulty. Although coordination of community needs and federally formulated plans is extraordinarily difficult of achievement, Judd believes that the solution is not to patch up defective state organization by intervention on the part of the federal government. The real corrective must be improvement in state administration, or insistence that the states live up to certain general federal requirements. Citing the scandalous waste and dissipation of some of the early land grants, Judd contends that the states today could not be depended upon not to waste large federal grants if there were no restrictions attached to such aid.

Federal Aid as a Tax Reform Measure

The local governments, because of legal and other restrictions, are confined to the general property tax for their only important source of revenue. Where the property tax is carrying more than its proper share of the burden of all governmental services, the result substantially affects the schools; for, as previously pointed out, school revenues derive chiefly from the general property tax. The argument for federal aid as a tax reform measure rests largely on the superior competence of the federal government to administer ability taxes.[1] The federal income tax has proved the most productive and equitable

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Federal Aid and the Tax Problem, 1939, No.4, p.19

of any tax devised so far to cope with large scale business practises. The states are drained of wealth by the great industrial and banking centers where capital is concentrated. Most of these large corporations are interstate in their activities and location; so far as the states are concerned, no system of assessment has yet been devised to secure equitable returns from them. The argument for education is that these industrial and banking centers may properly be required to pay back to all parts of the country the wealth that was obtained through large scale enterprises. This wealth, necessarily, would have to come through the channels of federal appropriations.

Evidence bearing on the problem of the comparative wealth of states has been supplied by the Mabel Newcomer study.[1] When the Mabel Newcomer Model Tax Plan was developed and applied to the tax resources of the various states, it was found that eight of these states would require over 100 percent of the taxes thus raised to provide an amount for the education of each child equivalent to the national average expenditure in 1930 of $58. On the basis of this study South Carolina, for example, would have needed 191 percent of its total tax resources; Mississippi would have required 178 percent, and Alabama 163 percent. The Model Tax Plan has been criticized, however, as impractical and thus unable to accomplish its

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1 Reported in Elementary School Journal, 37:87 (October, 1936)

purpose of providing equality of educational opportunity. Undoubtedly some states do not have economic resources comparable to those of other states, nor the ability to support comparable school systems. However, since many of these states are already taxing themselves heavily in the interests of education, it is questionable whether they should be stimulated to spend larger amounts in this direction. The alternative is federal aid.

Findings from a study conducted by the National Tax Association may be mentioned by way of comparison with those obtained in the Mabel Newcomer study. The results indicate unsatisfactory but less extreme conditions prevailing: It was found that under the most defensible plan for raising revenue for support of education, the richest state in the Union would have to expend for schools 16.5 percent of its tax resources; to meet the same educational standards, the poorest state must spend 96.5 percent of its tax resources.[1]

Burden of Young Dependents

Paul Mort's research in school finance revealed some of the causes of the poverty of education so apparent in certain sections of the country.[2] One factor is the unequal distribution of the burden of child care. It was found that, due to differentials in production, the supporting adult population

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1 Reported in Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1936, 74:53-56

2 Reported in Elementary School Journal, 37:81-88 (October, 1936)

in some states was carrying twice as great a burden of young dependents as in other states, and at the same time receiving a proportionately smaller share of the national income. The ratio of children to adults was found to be the highest in those areas where the level of living was the lowest and the economic resources most limited. Two states have been compared as follows.

Situation	State	
	South Carolina	California
Children of school age per 1000 adults	739	319
Total percent of the nation's children	1.86	3.61
Percent of national income received	0.50	6.56
Income received per child of school age	$767	$5,264

Paul Mort proposes a plan of federal support to help equalize educational opportunity. It is based on the principles of, 1) equalization and 2) efficiency.[1] He has worked out a formula for federal aid by which equitable shares to the various states are mathematically determined on the basis of their requirements and resources.[2] The plan leaves no discretionary power to any administrative official, and by its very

1 Reported in Elementary School Journal, 37:81-88 (October, 1936)
2 Ibid

inflexibility avoids the disadvantages of excessive or wavering forms of control. His argument in defense of the plan is as follows:

> If undesirable controls are to be avoided, the exact methods of determining the amount of aid and the conditions under which it is to be granted must be defined in the law, and the measures of need and ability must be defined so specifically that any two competent persons applying them will get the same results. Furthermore, the measured employed must have a high degree of equity and take into consideration all important factors to guard against the need for granting to a central agency the power to make adjustments.
>
> Even if objective measures were to become less effective than the best use of discretionary power, there is strong argument in favor of their use. Something in equity may, if necessary, be sacrificed to safeguard local rights.[1]

To this argument Judd replies that intelligent discrimination is better than a blind mathematical distribution of the spoils. Again, it has been argued that there will be more federal control of education through regulations inserted in the law than from a federal authority which has discretionary power in the distribution of federal funds. On the basis of its effectiveness in equalizing the burden of support, Paul Mort's plan has been judged impractical of operation.[2]

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1 Quoted in Elementary School Journal, 37:82 (October, 1936)
2 Charles H. Judd, "Federal Support of Public Education," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1936, pp.97-109

Judd's Plan and Summarization of Problems

In a speech before the National Education Association on the subject of federal relationships to education,[1] Judd, having at hand the results of the study made by the National Advisory Committee on Education, gives a very comprehensive summary of the whole problem of federal participation. He points out dangers and undesirable features of the present practises, and proposes a plan for the eventual solution of the problem. Judd opposes the fundamental principles of Paul Mort's plan. He wants an experimental program; one which in time may reveal the procedures and conditions of administering federal funds so as to provide aid for the most needy communities, and which will insure that the money will be used to improve schools and not perpetuate their deficiencies. He stresses the point, overlooked by many, that federal support must elevate public opinion regarding the conduct of educational agencies. As a case in point, he cites the prevalent practises of unjust discrimination by state departments against negroe schools. Also, the waste caused by the federal policy of matching dollar-for-dollar is pointed out. The necessity of matching federal funds has often led to neglect of state supported institutions. Cases are cited where political animosities and lack of internal coordination have resulted when states attempt to carry the burden of their own state institutions along with those receiving substantial federal grants. Then

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1 Charles H. Judd, op. cit.

there are the more common criticisms that too few schools are aided, that only certain types of education are aided; that too narrow an interpretation has been placed on the Smith-Hughes Act; that there has been a neglect of research and too much dependence upon lay groups. It is asserted that educational control in the hands of the government may prove a dangerous and undesirable instrument of power. Education suffers under all these circumstances.

Judd's view is the long-sighted one that government officials and American educators, working in close harmony with each other, must devote themselves to the careful study of the effects of federal participation in the support of schools. Equality of federal appropriations to the several states will not equalize educational opportunity. It is only by joint planning of federal and state authorities, over an experimental period of several years, that satisfactory types of federal aid and participation will eventually evolve.

Divergences of opinion from many sources tend to substantiate the proposals of Judd and of the Advisory Committee on Education. They point definitely to the need for a period of adjustment and experimental activity out of which may grow a sound policy for education. There is immediate need of a flexible program under competent agencies.

CHAPTER 4

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE WORKS PROGRESS ADMINISTRATION

Background and Philosophy

One significant and major aspect of federal participation in education is that of the educational activities of the Works Progress Administration. In view of its broad scope and its far-reaching educational implications for the public schools it needs further consideration. This movement, along with others, had its inception in the depression years just preceding 1933. Although the Works Progress Administration was not created until May 1935, much of the groundwork for its future policy and activity had been laid before that date. The magnitude of the economic disaster which reached its peak in 1933 was only gradually appreciated, and the initial approach to the relief of persons affected by the depression was both timid and urgent. Local relief funds were soon exhausted, however. Supplemental loans made by the federal government also proved inadequate. Two outstanding facts which at once became obvious were:

1) The successful accomplishment of the relief problem could be expected only through a concerted effort under federal leadership and using the resources of the entire nation.

2) Relief in and of itself was not enough.

In many cases direct relief was found to be wasteful of human resources. Under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration,

which began operation in May 1933, immediate and physical needs were met by direct relief and public works employment. But even work relief could not sustain the ebbing morale and self-respect of persons subjected to these unfortunate circumstances. If relief was to be effective it had to be made rehabilitative. And this is an educative function.

So extensive was the cross-section of American life found upon the relief rolls that public works employment could not provide an adequate solution to the problem of the rehabilitation and maintenance of the special skills peculiarly characteristic of such as the professional and semiprofessional groups. The professional and white-collar classes, including teachers, were affected and often in distress. One of the first acts of the relief administration was the authorization of relief funds for use in the employment of unemployed teachers in rural elementary schools closed for lack of money.[1] Thereafter, and at relatively short intervals, the educational program of the relief administration was extended and developed. The Works Progress Administration, subsequently organized, assumed the educational activities. Beginning, thus, under emergency conditions, it soon assumed the proportions of a significant social movement. Its many implications and ramifications have pointed out modern social and educational trends.

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1 Letter from the national administrator to state governors and state FERA administrators, August 19, 1933

Basic to the development of the educational activities of the Works Progress Administration is the belief that although the organization is essentially constructed as a work relief program, its purpose of salvaging human lives and resources cannot be accomplished except through the means of both work relief and education. It proceeds on the theory that the unemployed worker cannot be allowed through desuetude to lose his former skills, interests, and objectives.[1]

The following quotation under the caption, "General Principles," is illustrative of the reasoning which has led to the development of this phase of governmental participation in the field of education:

> Relief alone is not enough if the recipient feels that unless he gives work in return for assistance he loses his self-respect. But work relief alone is also not enough if the recipient feels that the payment made is not an acknowledged wage but charity still. Even work relief at an acknowledged wage is not enough, however, if, while in receipt of that relief, the recipient is engaged in work which does nothing to maintain the skill he has, or even helps to destroy it. To be most effective, relief should be rehabilitative; it should restore self-confidence, maintain occupational skills, and develop such added skills as may be necessary in keeping up to date, or in transferring from one occupation to another. And in very essence rehabilitative relief is an educative function.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No. 14, p.6

> The Works Progress Administration operates a work relief program, established on an acknowledged standard wage basis, and fundamentally rehabilitative in function. It represents, however, only a step in the evolution of a relief program which, from a policy of outright relief financed and administered by local agencies, has passed through a phase of indiscriminate work relief under first local and then national auspices to its present form of selective work relief under basically national auspices with state and local collaboration.[1]

General Principles[2]

Briefly, the general principles upon which the educational contributions of the Works Progress Administration would appear to be based are:

1) Restoration of normal educational facilities
2) Supplementation of existing educational agencies
3) Rehabilitation of white-collar workers
4) Rehabilitation of the large mass of unemployed
5) Redefinition of education in the adult field
6) Revision of teacher qualifications in the education of adults
7) State supervision of the educational program

1) Restoration of normal educational facilities:

The principles underlying the educational policy of the Works Progress Administration, although permitting a very extensive program, were formulated primarily with the intention of restricting its activities to pre-school and post-school groups. This puts the program mainly in the realm of nursery school and adult education. Concerning these groups there was a recognized need, as well as evidence of inadequate provision for them in the existing school system.

1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.1
2 Ibid, pp.1-5

2) Supplementation of existing educational agencies:

The program was intended to supplement rather than to compete with or take over the educational functions of the states. At the outset, however, it was found necessary to supply funds to certain rural communities for the restoration of normal school facilities. Teachers unemployed because of the closing of their schools were given relief status. Thus they found opportunity to return to teaching. By using teachers on relief rolls the schools concerned were enabled to maintain themselves. This aid was gradually withdrawn as financial resources again became available from local sources.

3) and 4) Rehabilitation of workers:

Rehabilitation through education, not only of the white-collar class but of the large mass of unemployed, has been promoted. Through various types of projects for these unemployed or relief groups provision is made for keeping them in their own occupations. Also there are facilities permitting them to extend their learning and skills to other related fields, thus materially increasing their possibilities of gaining employment.

Avocational and recreational activities have been promoted and encouraged with a view to helping sustain a constructive social morale among those who are economically unoccupied. It is hoped that thus they may enlarge their interests and develop their resourcefulness into productive channels.

5) Redefinition of education in the adult field:

A redefinition of education in the adult field has been an important development. Today there is a need for the recognition that much of the schooling and information obtained at the turn of the century has become obsolete or inadequate to fit one for adjustment to modern conditions. Illustrative of the thinking along this line by those who are charged with the promotion of adult education is the following quotation under the caption, "Formulation of General Objectives of Adult Education;"[1]

> The objectives of adolescent and adult education differ widely. Adolescent education to a large extent tends to develop conformists, or to develop in the children the habit of making certain responses to given situations. A great variety of matriculants in our colleges and universities must be turned out at the termination of prescribed courses rated as Grades A, B, and C; enough alike to be placed easily in economic and social life. The adult student is already placed economically and socially. What he needs is a stimulus to personal development. He should be given an opportunity and encouraged to do those things, to develop those interests, which had to be curbed in the struggle for an economic position in the world. He finds himself as a part of a dynamic, democratic society. He must have help in adjusting to these changes, as no man lives today in the society described in the most recent of our history books; since changes are taking place over night and John Citizen must be able to think and must be trained to function in his present social group.

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1 WPA Adult Education Bulletin W-3646, p.1

The idea of education as a continuous life-process is now seen to be necessary for intelligent citizenship in a rapidly changing world.[1] Increased recognition of this doctrine has led to the greater growth of the adult education movement. Likewise, the present seriousness of the youth problem is an added factor contributing to the need of adult education for parents and others responsible for the welfare of young people. Very important relationships exist between the effectiveness of public education for children and the provision for adult education. The retardation of great numbers of school children at all grade levels is due in part to the fact that the parents of many of them have never become interested in the school. Enlisting the interest of parents through a program of adult education would go far toward reducing their apathy and indifference in educational matters. It would also result in benefits to the adults themselves and to the communities.

It goes without saying that adult interests are as broad as life itself. Indeed, it has been recognized that the needs for adult education are so varied in character that no single type of educational agency can provide for all of them. Moreover, participation by adults in educational programs is purely voluntary. Adequate provision for a wide variety of vital adult interests has required the development of new

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, pp.133-136

techniques and leadership such as are not commonly required in regularly constituted programs of instruction.

6) Revision of teacher qualifications in the education of adults:

To meet the conditions in the field of adult education a revision of teacher qualifications was held necessary. It was found that teachers with state teaching certificates or with other professional preparation necessary for employment in the public school system were not necessarily trained or adapted to the teaching of adults. Many persons lacking professional requirements or experience as teachers might with a certain amount of in-service training be made competent in the field of adult education. Experiment with this policy led to the adoption of pragmatic tests for the determination of a teacher's fitness. It worked as a substitute for the standardized and formal qualifications required of public school teachers. Emergency teachers are taken from the relief rolls and are not required to hold certificates, nor to have had previous teaching experience. Other types of training or enterprise may be such as to qualify them for employment as teachers in the emergency program. It is a common practise, however, to give preference to those persons who have met, or who propose to meet, the state requirements for teachers.

7) State supervision of the educational program:

Of much significance is the theory of state supervision held to by the Works Progress Administration. It is an important general principle of operation that all emergency educational activities shall be sponsored and, if possible, supervised by state educators and authorities. It assumes that the determination of the nature and content of the program is essentially a state and local responsibility. It necessarily implies a system of decentralized control and authority. Accordingly, no project can be effected without the endorsement of a state sponsor, which in every state but one is the chief state school officer. At the local level the cooperation of the superintendent of schools of the city, county, township, or other administrative unit is solicited.

Extent of Cooperation Between Federal and State Authorities[1]

In actual practise, however, there is considerable variation in the amount of cooperation exhibited between the state and federal authorities concerned. This may range from an almost complete harmony of interests and responsibilities to an almost complete independence of action between the federal and state agencies. Close relationships are found to result when there is mutual agreement and allocation of responsibilities.

Possible explanations have been advanced for the lack of more complete cooperation between the two agencies:

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No. 14, pp.141-144

1) Disagreement on policy may be anticipated because of the fact that the emergency education program operates on a relief basis. The selection of local candidates for educational employment is limited to persons whose names appear on the relief rolls; local professional needs or demands may thus be subordinated to the necessities of relief regulations. A worker after being selected is subject to removal when in the opinion of the relief authorities he no longer needs relief.

2) Another possible factor is the contention by some educators that the relief administration has initiated a federally controlled educational program within the states, in competition with and independent of the public school system. There is the criticism that the officials of the Works Progress Administration themselves promote a feeling of discord in that they tend to overlook or ignore the traditionally accepted principle that education in the United States is essentially a state and local function. It is feared that they support the detestable principle of coercion.

3) Of further significance is the possibility that state departments of education are not sufficiently staffed or competent to assume a substantial share of responsibility in the supervision and direction of this federal program. Regular duties may require the full time of the department. There may be no regularly employed specialists in such fields as adult and nursery school education.

Recommendations for Improving Cooperation[1]

Recommendations for improving relationships on the state and local levels with the educational program of the Works Progress Administration:

1) The Works Progress Administration should recognize the peculiar characteristics of educational projects. In contrast with the strictly work or construction type of project, chief concern of the sponsor is in the daily development accomplished by the project rather than in some end product.

2) Hence the Works Progress Administration should augment the authority of the state directors of its educational program, thereby insuring them more freedom of cooperation with the state sponsor without undue reference to other officials or aspects of the organization.

3) It is recommended that state departments of education make more adequate provision for assuming supervisory responsibility of the federal program, especially in the fields of adult and nursery school education.

Outline of Organization of the Works Progress Administration[2]

The Works Progress Administration is an organization of the federal government. Its administrative control rests in a federal administrator and his deputy administrator. There are also four assistant administrators, each one in charge of a

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No.14, p.144

2 Ibid, pp.11-26

particular division of the organization, and five regional representatives. The four divisions headed by the assistant administrators are:

Division of Women's and Professional Projects
Division of Finance and Statistics
Division of Employment
Division of Operations (or Engineering)

These four divisions are outside the scope of the present study, although they do conduct some projects having educational implications. The remaining division of the organization, headed by the deputy administrator, must receive some consideration. It is composed of the following activities:

National Youth Administration
Division of Education Projects
Division of Procedures
Division of Recreation Projects
Correspondence
Personnel
Administrative Operations
Investigations

The directors of these last-named divisions occupy an official status lower than that of the assistant administrators and are immediately subordinate to the deputy administrator in Washington, through whose office their relations with the field representatives are maintained.

At the state level the administration of the educational program is subject to considerable variation in detail, depending upon specific conditions obtaining in the states. Administrative arrangements may vary according to the following factors:

1) The relative degree of cooperation between the Works Progress Administration and the state government.
2) The degree of compliance by the Works Progress Administration officials in the various states with the general policies of the organization.
3) Relative burden of duties and personality factors of the Works Progress Administration officials working in the states.
4) The relative strength, adequacy, and administrative integrity of the state department of education.
5) The extent of provisions for adult and nursery school programs in the state department of education.[1]

In accordance with the administrative policy of conducting the emergency education program on a state basis, a state sponsor may initiate a project. A project application concerning the nature of the proposed project is presented to the office of the state Works Progress director. This application is eventually submitted for approval to the national administrator. Once approved, the project is under supervision of the state director of the Works Progress Administration. Supervision of the project extends also to representatives of the local or state sponsor. The number of persons to be employed and the amount of funds to be expended are determined by the state director of the Works Progress Administration. A project may be terminated for various reasons and by various persons including either state or federal officials.

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1 The National Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.15

Division of Education Projects

For present purposes, the Division of Education Projects must be especially considered. It may be noted first that the national Director of the Division of Education Projects is a member of the staff of the United States Office of Education, on full-time loan to the Works Progress Administration to administer the Emergency Education Program. He is assisted by specialists in several of the major educational fields. These specialists are selected and recommended by him for appointment by the Federal Works Administrator. Although he is not required to consult any person or group in making his selections, he usually first obtains the opinion of competent educational leaders in the various fields.[1]

Table 1 outlines the full scope of employment activities of the Division of Education Projects. Breaking down this array, accomplishments may be classified under the following major activities in which the division is engaged. These are arranged in the order of their demand or importance:[2]

1) General adult education
2) Literacy and naturalization classes
3) Avocational and leisure-time activities
4) Vocational education
5) Nursery schools
6) Homemaking education
7) Parent education
8) Public affairs education
9) Workers' education
10) Correspondence instruction
11) Other educational activities

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.14
2 Ibid, pp.32-44

Table 1.--Activities of the Division of Education Projects[1]

- Literacy and naturalization classes
- Workers' education
- Public affairs education
- Education for home and family living
  - Homemaking education
  - Parent education
  - Home nursing, home hygiene, health education
- Vocational education
  - Courses for WPA foremen and supervisors
  - Training for trade and industrial occupations
  - Agricultural education
  - Vocational guidance and adjustment service
  - Other vocational training
    - Domestic and personal service
    - Nusery school helpers and governesses
    - Recreational leadership
    - Arts and crafts production
- Education in avocational and leisure-time activities
- College level instruction
- Correspondence instruction
- Other general adult education
  - Academic and cultural education
  - Safety, first aid, and general health instruction
  - Instruction for the deaf and the blind
  - Educational tours
  - Educational information service
- Nursery schools
- Public schools for children of employees on certain federal projects
- Other eligible assignments
  - Library and curriculum materials service to education
  - Collection and reporting of statistical information
  - Planning and evaluating the education program
  - Special groups
    - Youth on NYA work projects
    - Work camps conducted by various federal agencies
    - Education of adult prison inmates

1 Operating Procedure W-9, March 11, 1937, Appendix A

Taking November 1937 as a cross-section of prevailing conditions, these ten major activities employed a staff of nearly 30,300 persons. Nearly 23,500 of these were engaged as teachers. Since the life of the Works Progress Administration began in 1935, the median number of persons employed monthly on education projects has been approximately forty-three thousand. Throughout the three-year period of 1935-36-37, the number of persons employed on such projects constituted about 2 percent of all Works Progress Administration employees. Their median monthly earnings amounted to approximately 3¼ million dollars.

Demand for the Programs

Of the ten activities indicated above, general adult education is the most in demand, with the others ranking in the order of their appearance in the list.

The four groups

1) General adult education
2) Literacy and naturalization classes
3) Avocational and leisure-time activities
4) Vocational education

engage the services of 48.7 percent of all persons employed on education projects. They provide instruction to 71.3 percent of the regular enrollees.

The next three groups

5) Nursery schools
6) Homemaking education
7) Parent education

are classified together as education for family living. They engage 25.3 percent of the total personnel and provide instruc-

tion to 16.3 percent of the enrollees. These seven activities, then, account for 74 percent of the total personnel of the Division of Education Projects and for 87.6 percent of the enrollees for whom instruction is maintained. Nearly all of the states are engaged in one or more of these seven activities.

Fewer than half of the states are engaged in the remaining activities,

8) Public affairs education
9) Workers' education
10) Correspondence instruction

Public Affairs Education[1]

The need for public affairs education, as distinct from the demand, is great. Through this activity the attempt is made to overcome civic apathy by a study of current problems, both local and national. Public forums, informal discussion groups, panels, lectures, and classes constitute the principal forms of procedure. Its method is informal. It is based essentially upon the interchange of ideas, upon the give and take of divergent opinions. In the face of the many challenges to which the democratic form of government is now being subjected, it is necessary that citizens be informed. They should be able to approach critically the essential problems of living together, which are also the problems of government. There is an urgent need for more understanding participation by the individual in

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit,, p.74-79

the affairs of government. With the ease of communication and the prevalence of propaganda, it is important that even well informed citizens keep in touch with current affairs. In democratic government it is highly essential that citizens be able to interpret trends and act intelligently. Public affairs education, although a relatively small program in its present form, is soundly based on the practises of democratic government and needs to be considerably extended. For it may be said that democracy is "government by talk."

Workers' Education

Workers' education, likewise a small program at present, may well be expanded. Its purpose has been defined as follows:

> As a program it is distinct from general adult education, partly because it is intended for persons of very little formal schooling but primarily by virtue of its association with the organized labor movement. It is not a program of instruction to improve vocational efficiency nor a program of creative activity removed from the hard realities of economic survival; nor is it fundamentally a process of improvement of general academic and cultural background. Specifically, it is an attempt to satisfy the individual's expressed desire to understand the problems of the working wage class or group to which he feels that he belongs; to comprehend the relationship and responsibilities of that group to the rest of society; and, so far as possible, to apply the intellectual comprehension and emotional attitudes thus engendered to the process of living.[1]

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.91

The material used in the workers' education program is neither formal nor prescribed; the content and method of instruction are determined by the demand. The subjects most in demand and found to be most successful are:

1) Current federal and state legislation of interest to workers
2) Current events
3) Labor problems
4) Labor history
5) Public speaking
6) Parliamentary procedure
7) English
8) Labor journalism
9) Labor drama
10) Music
11) Physical sciences
12) Recreation

The method of instruction usually consists of informal group discussions, supplemented by visual aids. In every case the approach is related to the immediate problems of the members of the class or group. It is to be noted, however, that integration of the workers' interests are emphasized. There is more than merely the giving of instruction in separate subjects. In general, labor unions appear to be appreciative of workers' education.

One important issue has arisen in connection with the program. Should worker' education remain basically as merely a part of and subordinate to the broader field of adult education? The affirmative answer would presuppose that the educational needs of the worker are broader than those which relate him to a particular labor group. Or should the program be directed

specifically to the needs of members of labor groups, retaining some measure of an agressive doctrinism in which the aspects of class consciousness dominate the educational motive? Although the present workers' program is distinct from adult education, it is conceivable and probable that ultimately some compromise must be effected between the two.

Correspondence Instruction[1]

Correspondence instruction, again only a minor activity of the Division of Education Projects, serves a useful function which in itself justifies further extension of its scope. It reaches the student for whom school is inconvenient or inaccessible; without expensive tuition it offers him instruction by qualified teachers and provides him with intellectual contacts. The program has been criticized from the standpoint of coordination,

1) that distributing centers of correspondence material operate independently of one another,

2) that no substantial attempt has been made to reduce overlapping of the subject-matter fields in which instruction is provided, and

3) that research is lacking as to the effectiveness of this method of presentation and as to the characteristics of the persons who receive this service. Further consideration of the program will be limited to the following quotation which outlines its general functions:

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., pp.120-127

> Courses of almost every kind are provided, but the nature of the medium of instruction and the fact that the program is usually developed in cooperation with the college as sponsor limits the possible scope to rather academic subject matter. Any subject, however, may be taught. Some vocational subjects, regular cultural and academic subjects, and, to some extent, topical subjects of general interest are taught through correspondence methods. Current public affairs, nursery school teaching, and avocational pursuits are also provided for, and instruction at the elementary level. It does not follow, however, that the courses available are limited to those recognized for credit at high school and college levels. They are constructed to meet the needs of the students and not the requirements of institutions. So far as can be determined the majority of enrollees, with the exception of those enrolled in high school courses, are interested primarily in extending their range of knowledge, rather than taking courses for credit.[1]

Education for Family Living[2]

A significant part of the emergency education program, as previously indicated, centers on the foundation fields of

> Nursery schools
> Homemaking education
> Parent education

This group of closely interrelated functions has received the broad designation, "Education for Family Living." With the entrance of the Works Progress Administration into the field of adult education the movement received tremendous impetus. To avoid duplication of existing public educational services

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., pp.103-119
2 Ibid, p.121

and to meet the most urgent needs, the Division of Education Projects has confined its activities to pre-school and post-school groups. Not merely adults, then, but children too young to be accommodated in the public schools are reached by this service.

Nursery Schools:

The emergency nursery school was by no means intended to provide merely a convenience for the relief of parents. It has assumed the status of an educational institution. Included in its program are supervised play, health service, provision for proper nutrition, and training in good habits of personal hygiene and conduct. The program is intended for "children from two to four years of age inclusive, from homes of those eligible for any form of federal or state relief or work relief, or from similar low-income families."[1]

Four types of nursery schools are maintained, operating as follows:

1) As an integral part of the public elementary school system, although conducted by the Works Progress Administration
2) As observation and training centers attached to universities, colleges, and normal schools
3) As high school laboratories in connection with courses on child care and training
4) As separate units established and conducted by local community agencies, but not housed in public school buildings[2]

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1 Operating Procedure W-9, March 11, 1937, Appendix A, Section 10
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.109

Parent Education:

One aspect of the nursery school project is the educational program provided for the parents of children attending such schools. Parent education is provided, however, both as part of the nursery school routine and as an activity in itself. As an independent activity it is intended for "parents and other interested adults who desire opportunities for study and discussion of matters related to family relationships, child development and behavior, mental hygiene, problems of adolescence, relationships between families and communities, and the like."[1]

Homemaking Education:

The homemaking education program is intended primarily for women from relief and other unemployed groups in the population. It provides instruction for "classes in homemaking subjects to all interested adults, in such fields as family foods, including buying, planning and preparing meals, nutrition; clothing for the family, including buying, designing, drawing, remodeling; art in relation to the home; and home furnishings."[2]
The work is closely coorelated with the instruction in home economy provided for adults by the public schools and other public agencies.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.114
2 Ibid, p.114

Features in Education for Family Living

Instructional methods in parent and homemaking education are based on the active participation of the whole family group, with the mother usually as the focal point. There may be individual conferences or group discussions, direct observation of children in nursery schools, demonstrations of child care and the preparation of food and clothing, attendance at health clinics or hospitals. Particularly is the attempt made to help parents solve their own practical problems. Advice is given and other motivation employed to encourage the active cooperation of the parents.

Indeed, this group of related activities designated as "Education for Family Living" has several outstanding features. The combined parent and homemaking education projects are said to be perhaps the most social and democratic of all the emergency educational activities. They constitute about 13 percent of all regular enrollments of the Division of Education Projects. They have important ramifications into other of the educational programs. No doubt the greatest strength of this combined program lies in the fact that it provides its services almost exclusively to the underprivileged groups. It has tried to ease the burden of this group by offering assistance in the immediate solution of their baffling and seemingly hopeless problems.

Insecurity and a common poverty are strong stimuli in bringing about willingness to cooperate in social groups for the solution of common problems. As a result of the interest shown in this underprivileged group, it has been observed that individuals increasingly contribute to the success of the program.

1) They become more self-confident and socially minded.

2) They become more tolerant of others and more understanding of human problems.

3) They make greater use of the recreational, educational, and health facilities available to them in their own communities.

4) Meals are better planned, living quarters made more sanitary, and family funds more skilfully budgeted.

5) Participants project themselves unselfishly into the problems of other persons intimately related. Often they study not for their own personal advantage so much as for the children and other members of the family whom they seek to aid.

6) Educators, health officials, and home economists are challenged to give their best efforts toward the solution of the practical problems of people who cannot afford to buy their services, yet cannot live happily without them.[1]

It may be seen that not only the attitude and interest of individuals within the program but also that of professional groups outside are important factors in its successful operation.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No.14, pp.113-119

General Adult Education

The bulk of the emergency education program in the Division of Education Projects concerns the four offerings,

General adult education
Literacy and naturalization classes
Avocational and leisure-time activities
Vocational education

The designation, "General Adult Education," is an indefinite one. This program because of the heterogeneous nature of its contents is not a clearly defined category, but rather a miscellany for all such functions as have not been allocated to other parts of the emergency program. It includes:

Academic and cultural education
Safety, first aid, and general health instruction
Instruction for the deaf and the blind
Educational tours
Educational information service

Apparently, the aspects of academic and cultural education predominate in the program. It has been estimated that two-thirds of the adults in the population today have had no high school education, and that an even greater number have not completed high school.[1] The basic objective for continuation schooling for adults is self-development of the individual. The offerings must be such as will be of immediate and practical interest and use to the adults concerned, for only through such motivation will they be convinced that further schooling can be worthwhile.

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1 Biennial Survey of Education, 1932-34, chap.1, p.14

The Advisory Committee on Education[1] has recommended that the possibilities of this major field of service be more fully explored. Very little information is available concerning the characteristics of teachers and enrollees. Apparently the main purpose of the program is the employment and rehabilitation of unemployed teachers. Traditional and formal methods of instruction in academic and cultural subjects have tended to persist. Above the elementary school level, instruction includes such typical subjects as:

English literature
Foreign languages and literature
Psychology and philosophy
History and economics
Parliamentary procedure and public speaking
Chemistry, biology, and mathematics

Literacy and Naturalization Classes[2]

The literacy and naturalization programs constitute the outstanding contribution of the emergency program. Together they are almost nation-wide in application. In that they form the nucleus of development into other fields of the emergency program, they serve as the key to the education of the masses. Objectives are to provide "classes for adults unable to read and write English with sufficient facility to be able to read a newspaper with understanding and to write an intelligent letter."[3]

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No.14, p.81
2 Ibid, pp.65-73
3 Operating Procedure W-9, March 11, 1937, Appendix A, Section 1

Evidence collected by the Biennial Survey of Education[1] indicates that nearly 3¾ million adults in the United States are unable to read or write in any language. Approximately 15 million are illiterate in the sense that "they cannot use written or printed speech as an instrument for business or learning."[2]

The problem of naturalization is closely bound up with the elimination of illiteracy, particularly in the foreign-born group. Because of the geographical distribution of aliens, naturalization education is confined primarily to urban areas. The incidence of illiteracy, however, is higher in rural areas, particularly in the South. Hence, instruction has been extended beyond the original objectives so as to include the reading and writing of English and other branches of elementary education which may be needed by the members of this group. In line with the stated objectives and the existing need, instruction embraces such fields as,

Naturalization
Health
Homemaking
Parent education
Workers' education
Public affairs

Indeed, literacy education has been interpreted as an all-inclusive activity serving as a foundation of all other phases

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1 Biennial Survey of Education, op. cit.
2 Lyman Bryson, Adult Education, pp.32-33

of the education program. Under the impetus given by this broad program several states have conducted special drives to eliminate illiteracy, those of North Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana being most noteworthy. With the development of literacy education on a wide scale it has been possible to experiment with the more progressive methods of instruction recommended by leading educators.

Avocational and Leisure-time Activities[1]

So far as can be determined, the services of the avocational and leisure-time programs are much in demand. Under present social and business conditions leisure time is no longer a privilege of the few. A steady decline in the hours of labor in industry and business prior to 1930 has been accelerated by the depression years and the adoption of recent industrial codes and legislation. The difficulty young people have in obtaining work and the consequent postponement for them of gainful employment has likewise increased the needs for avocational and leisure-time pursuits. The applications of science on the farm and in the home have given more hours of freedom. The rapid tempo of American life, however, has not been particularly conducive to the development of constructive leisure-time activities.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., 81-86

Under the circumstances, effective guidance along the lines of avocational, creative, and recreational activities is an urgent need. Not a great deal of data is available as to the avocational and leisure-time program. But apparently it is providing services that are lacking through regular educational channels, and for which there is a genuine demand. Whether such demand will continue under improved economic conditions is open to question. From the standpoint of economic values, the present program is operating successfully as a relief function for the rehabilitation of teachers. It has been recommended that the work constituting the avocational and leisure-time activities be more closely administered and co-ordinated with the work of the Division of Education Projects of the Works Progress Administration. Between these two programs there is a natural affinity.

Significance of Leisure-time Activities

In the analysis of social conditions resulting from the increased spread of leisure time, two outstanding trends in recreation are discerned:

1) The growing interest in <u>active</u> participation
2) The increase in the number and types of commercial devices for <u>passive</u> participation

Commercial interests have not been slow to utilize this free time of the people. The increased amount of radio broadcasting and the number of receiving sets in the homes, a 200 percent increase in attendance at moving picture theaters, a widespread

interest in commercialized football, baseball, and other sports, all these are instances of devices which satisfy the desire for passive participation.

A growing demand for active participation is shown by the increase in the number of communities which are providing facilities for public recreation, such as parks, swimming pools, playgrounds, and golf courses; by more reading of periodical literature, books, and use of library facilities; also by the increasing number of visitors at the National Parks, and the larger amount of automobile tourist travel.

No doubt there are important educational implications to be drawn from an analysis of leisure time activities. Nearly the whole population is involved one way or another. Much of the significance of the avocational and leisure-time program presumably will depend on the extent to which recreational activities come to be regarded as necessary to the more strenuous task of making a living; that is, upon the extent to which they are regarded by the participants themselves as essential to mental and social adjustment.

Emergency Vocational Education[1]

Cultural, academic, and vocational activities constitute the body of the emergency education program. The cultural and academic aspects have already been considered. The program of

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., pp.87-91

vocational education which is conducted by the Division of Education Projects was formulated primarily to meet the needs of unemployed adult workers who are interested in equipping themselves for better occupational adjustment. Vocational guidance service is also provided. The emphasis and instruction, as distinguished from that shown in the allied field of workers' education, is restricted to definitely vocational pursuits rather than to a consideration of the relationships of the worker to the rest of economic society.

One of the chief aims of vocational classes is to develop in unemployed workers such occupational knowledge and skills and attitudes as will enable them to secure private employment. Opportunity is given them to enlarge their knowledge in their own fields and to acquire information and skills in related fields, so as to increase the scope of their employment possibilities; that is, to make them occupationally more flexible. Classes have been established for unemployed, or relief, persons over 16 years of age who cannot afford the expense of vocational training.1 Offerings include courses in,

Trade and industrial work
Commercial and business occupations
Agriculture
Household and domestic service
Nursery assistance
Recreational leadership
Arts and crafts

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1 This emergency vocational education program, it should be noted, is not to be confused with the permanent vocational education as provided for under the Smith-Hughes Act, the George-Deen Act, and other legislation.

Summary and Analysis

The study of the activities engaged in by the Division of Education Projects of the Works Progress Administration shows clearly what a vast enterprise has been established. Almost every aspect of educational undertaking has been attempted. The various services have met a well-defined need and have been of stimulative value. The impetus given to education by the emergency program constitutes one of the most significant developments in the educational history of the country. It is probably unnecessary for anyone to defend the experimental measures undertaken by the federal government in this respect. Something had to be done and done quickly. What was done could hardly be called more than a belated effort to meet by purely temporary measures a situation which had been developing throughout the country for years and which in the depression years threatened to crystallize into a nation-wide catastrophe. Further delay, while people in general grew intelligent about their needs, was no longer possible.

Adverse Results

An analysis regarding the educational activities of the Works Progress Administration must recognize first of all that they have functioned as a part of the general relief program, that relief requirements have necessarily conditioned the quality of the educational offerings. Subordination to the exigencies of relief administration has in many respects adversely affected

the emergency educational program. Adverse results of primary importance are:[1]

1) Uncertainty as a result of the temporary nature of the program. In the belief that the educational program would be abandoned as soon as the emergency period ended, many persons have participated without conviction, basing their policies only upon short-time trends. Others, though fully recognizing the temporary nature of the program, have pursued policies definitely planned for the permanent continuance of the services being rendered.

2) Insecurity of tenure. Effective and competent work is seriously handicapped by the lack of any guarantee that employment will continue for more than a very short time; by low salaries and small opportunity for promotion. Under such circumstances the creative effort so necessary to teaching and other work is difficult to achieve.

3) Substandard teaching qualifications. It is doubtful that the majority of teachers can meet academic and professional qualifications required for ordinary public school employment. The field of adult education, however, has made use of techniques and training relatively new and untried in the conventional system of public education. It admits a departure from the more usual standards of teacher-measurement, so that a strict comparison on the basis of accepted standards may not be entirely justified.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No.14, p.151

4) Inadequate funds for supervision. Criticism has developed in view of the requirement that administrative overhead must not exceed five percent of total expenditures. It is thought that this restriction has resulted in inadequate provision for proper supervision of teacher-training, guidance, and the quality of instruction.

Contributions

The principal contributions to relief employment have been in the success achieved in providing employment and help in the vocational rehabilitation of employed teachers and other persons competent to teach. Pending regular employment such teachers still receive a security wage, and are given opportunities to maintain their original competency and to develop further in their particular educational field. An effective program of pre-service and in-service training at short-term institutes or summer schools is provided. Some states are allowing such training and experience as is provided under the emergency program to be accepted toward state certification as teachers; some cooperating institutions of higher learning grant college credit for work done at summer school conferences.

Irrespective of the affinity of the Division of Education Projects with the general relief program, it has made definite contributions as an educational agency. These need evaluation more with regard to the significance of their latent possibilities than to their size or cost. Because of the dual nature of

the objectives of the organization, cost factors applying specifically to the educational aspect, or to the relief aspect, are too closely associated to be considered separately.

In terms of its organizational units, the Division of Education Projects has been evaluated as follows:[1]

1) The literacy and naturalization programs constitute the outstanding contribution. They are almost nation-wide in scope; they present the possibility of serving as an entering wedge to all other phases of the program, thus providing for the eventual education of the masses.

2) Education for family living, being considered of almost equal significance, is recommended for development and a permanent status. Operating through the medium of the home, it provides assistance in the solution of intimate and immediate problems. "By educating the women it educates the race."

3) Public affairs education, based fundamentally on practises of democratic government, needs to be considerably extended. Workers' education, as a special form of public affairs education, likewise merits expansion.

4) Education in avocational and leisure-time pursuits has received a somewhat indeterminate evaluation. Demands for it likely will fluctuate according to the prevailing economic conditions. What role it will play in the solution of economic and social problems is not known.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.155

5) Cultural, academic, and vocational activities constitute the main part of the education program. Inadequate information is available for them, particularly as to the procedure being applied to them, and its effectiveness, in the adult field.
6) Of instructional techniques and subject-matter materials, the range appears to be from an almost complete absence to a generous abundance. The primary need appears to be a better coordination in distribution and adoption of materials so as to avoid duplication and unnecessary waste of time, money, and effort. There is justification, perhaps, for issuing material on a nation wide scope, but with adequate allowances provided for local conditions.

Results of the Program

Irrespective of units or courses, and again regardless of cost, the immediate results of the emergency education program of the Works Progress Administration have been recognized as follows:

1) It has tremendously expanded the fields of adult and nursery school education. Geographically and in terms of enrollments and employment, these fields are now more extensive than ever before.

2) It has made possible a marked diversity of experimentation in techniques and programs. No attempt has been made to impose a single educational formula; teachers and communities have been encouraged to work out their own plans and procedures; and, so long as no attempt was made to duplicate the work of existing educational agencies, few restrictions have been placed in

the way of exploration into new fields of service.

3) It has sought and found its principal application in the ranks of the underprivileged. Indeed, here perhaps lies its greatest contribution and its strength. An educational offering of major significance has been made available to the poor and the needy; the well-to-do have participated only incidentially. That there was and is a demand for the services rendered is manifest in the persistence and growth of enrollments. The people can learn; the people want to learn; the people intend to learn. What the regular educational agencies have failed to provide, the people have found ---in a relief program. The emergency education program has exposed and explored a vast field of undeveloped potentialities in adult and nursery school education. By introducing educational advantages to underprivileged groups, it has made more obvious to the privileged the value of the contribution which the education program offers. Although not deliberately so intended, this is the reverse of the usual procedure of providing educational facilities to the wealthier groups first. It is not improbable that by thus beginning with underprivileged groups the need for and advantages of this program will become more obvious and take deeper and stronger root.[1]

The Advisory Committee on Education has made the following statement regarding the educational services for adults:

The adult educational program of the Works Progress Administration has suffered from a lack of long-term planning, from frequent changes in policy, from a lack of adequately

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration, 1939, No.14, p.157

trained teachers, and from inadequate coordination with educational activities under State and local direction. These deficiencies were perhaps inevitable under the emergency which brought the program into being. Notwithstanding the deficiencies, the program has contributed a very substantial volume of educational service. It has called attention in a dramatic way to many of the inadequacies in the regularly constituted programs of education....

If the general work relief program of the Federal Government is continued, the continuation of the existing emergency adult education is recommended. If the emergency adult education program is continued, there should be greatly increased emphasis upon cooperation with departments of education in the various States in the planning and administration of the program.[1]

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, pp.136-137

CHAPTER 5

FEDERAL PROGRAMS FOR YOUTH

Part I

The Civilian Conservation Corps

The Problem of Youth

The youth problem furnished the background for the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration. The conservation of youth is a matter of primary concern to the American people. The increasing seriousness of the youth problem has become more and more evident. During recent years the status of youth has emerged in the United States as a major social problem. At the present time there are about four million American youth between the ages of 16 and 24 who are out of school and totally unemployed. It has been estimated that in addition to these unemployed there are probably another million young people who are only partially employed.[1]

The employment status of youth has a definite relationship to the prevalence of crime in the nation. Data concerning the arrests by age groups show that today about 50 percent of the arrests reported to the federal government are of persons under 30 years of age. Twenty percent of the arrests are of persons

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1 Howard M. Bell, "The Conservation of American Youth Through Community Youth Programs," The Phi Delta Kappan, 21:383-384 (April 1939)

under 21 years of age. Again, data released by the Federal Bureau of Investigation indicate that one-half of all persons arrested for crimes against property are less than 25 years of age. This is the situation, although youth within the age limits of 16 to 24 comprise only one-sixth of the total population.[1]

The need for conservation of American youth can hardly be interpreted to mean that they should be "conserved" in jails and prisons throughout the land. With employment opportunities for youth becoming less abundant, society must choose between allowing its young people merely to drift or directing their energies into activities which are individually and socially worthwhile. Because youth constitutes the immediate group to assume active participation in political, social, and economic life, their preparation is vitally important to society as a whole. From this point of view they warrant the most concentrated attention.

The "Lost Generation"

If it is true that the youth of today constitute a "forgotten generation," it is sheer folly for parents and the adult population to assume that young people will continue to respect the principles and ideals of democracy simply because their elders tell them that such principles and ideals are worthy of respect. The problems of chief concern to young people relate primarily to education and employment. Can adequate

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1 National Resources Committee, Population Statistics, 1937, table 3, p.19

provision be made for each of these? It may easily be assumed that when the voice of youth is eventually heard it will be in support of whatever social system is able to care for its needs. The loyalties and sympathies of youth, particularly those of the millions of unemployed, will undoubtedly go to the social order that most convincingly and effectively provides them with the active social and economic participation they feel they deserve.

Today, unfortunately, no such immediate prospects of active participation exist. Many youth have already left school, but only a few have been accommodated in private employment. Industry has not been able to absorb the large numbers of unemployed young people. The declining birth rate is partly responsible for this situation. In 1930 the ratio of persons over 25 years of age to every youth between the ages of 15 and 25 in the population was 3 to 1. By way of comparison and to show the trend, population statistics[1] indicate that in 1870 the ratio was 2 to 1. It is estimated that by 1960 it will reach 4 to 1.

The decrease in the proportion of young dependents carries two important implications.[2] One is to the advantage of young people. It will be possible to devote more and more attention

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1 National Resources Committee, op. cit.
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, The National Youth Administration, 1938, No.13, pp.1-7

to the needs of the youth group and to make available to them more adequate educational facilities. On the other hand, although increased educational opportunities become available, vocational and employment opportunities may be expected to diminish. The tendency is toward a narrower and more specific type of skill and preparation on the part of the worker. Increasing competition for available jobs is an inevitable concomitant of technical advance and a rapidly aging population.[1] In other words, experience and job specialization are becoming more in demand. But specialization in the way of vocational and technical training are expensive. They are often beyond the financial resources of youth or rather the parents of young people. Work experience, moreover, cannot be obtained unless one can get employment. It has been found that many youth are out of school anywhere from 2 to 5 years before obtaining their first full-time job. Few have received adequate vocational orientation. Being largely without guidance they have no plan, and consequently no formal occupational preparation. Without training or experience they are of little practical value to an employer.

There may perhaps be a proneness to exaggerate the plight of this younger generation. But it can hardly be doubted that the frustration and bewilderment of youth has grown to alarming proportions. Young people desperately need the consciousness

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit.

of belonging, of being wanted, and of being useful.

Enough has been said about the youth problem to indicate something of the conditions which led the federal government to initiate its youth programs. It has intervened to help remedy the distress of unemployed youth by the establishment successively of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration. The adoption and promulgation of this governmental policy give new impetus to the concept that intelligent planning for the preservation of our country and its youth is imperative if the economic, social, and cultural life of the nation are to be maintained.

CCC and NYA Established

The youth program as a federal emergency function began with the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps in April 1933. In June 1935, the National Youth Administration was set up as an agency within the Works Progress Administration. Established on a temporary basis, both of these major governmental programs are attempting to meet the needs of underprivileged out-of-school youth. The government is trying to meet their needs for relief, for work relief, for guidance, and for stimulation of educational interests. Although relief was necessarily one of the original purposes in their establishment, it soon became evident that educational and social needs of the enrollees were great. The stimulation of educational interests

and the economic and social rehabilitation of youth almost immediately came to be regarded as an essential part of the plan. The problem was to put to productive use the tremendous reserve of youthful energy which remained untapped. Turning the latents and energies of youth to constructive ends, the government has sought to employ young people on projects of economic value as well as of educational significance.[1]

Philosophy of the Civilian Conservation Corps

The Civilian Conservation Corps was originally established to further purposes of relief and conservation. It was created as a work-camp movement for the conservation of both natural and human resources without military implications. Its creation, although inspired mainly by the emergency conditions which reached their climax in 1933, had the immediate effect of accelerating the movement for the conservation of the nation's rapidly diminishing natural resources which had been initiated many years previously. Experts in the field of conservation believe that the Corps has advanced the conservation program by twenty-five years.

The initial emphasis in the camp program was that of providing work opportunities, chiefly in conservation projects, to the unemployed and out-of-school young men between the ages of 18 and 25 that were enrolled in the organization. With the discovery of educational and other needs beyond those of employment,

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit.

however, the value of the camps as an additional educational medium took root. With the inception of the educational program in 1934, its dominant aims were stated as follows:[1]

1) Develop in each man his powers of self-expression, self-entertainment, and self-culture

2) Develop pride and satisfaction in cooperative endeavor

3) Develop as far as practicable an understanding of the prevailing social and economic conditions, to the end that each man may cooperate intelligently in improving these conditions

4) Preserve and strengthen good habits of health and of mental development

5) Assist each man better to meet his employment problems when he leaves camp, by such vocational training as is feasible, but particularly by vocational counseling and adjustment activities

6) Develop an appreciation of nature and of country life

Indeed, the Civilian Conservation Corps has been designated by Congress as an educational agency.[2] It can hardly be called a school in the traditional sense, yet the Corps has possibilities of influencing to a profound extent the development of its members.

This combined program of work and education is rapidly becoming a way of life for thousands of young men throughout the country who have been subjected to its influence. The nature of this

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1 U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, No.19, CCC Camp Education: Guidance and Recreational Phases, 1938, pp.2-3
2 Howard W. Oxley, "American Youth Learn By Doing," Journal of the National Education Association, 28:111 (April 1939)

new type of education offered by the CCC camps is gradually clarifying itself. The whole camp philosophy now centers in the idea that working, playing, learning, and living are all one process; that learning must be natural and realistic; that the CCC camp in itself is a well-rounded type of education. J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education, expressing himself in favor of this program, has stated the implications for education as follows:

> The camps have furnished another demonstration of the educational value of a 'wholesome way of life;' of study associated with genuine productive labor; of courses built upon the needs and interests of the individuals; and above all, of individual counseling through which boys are led to analyze their own aptitudes and abilities and to plan their own lives in the light of this self-examination. These educational values are not for emergency days alone. They must find their way more largely than at present into the regular educational policies and procedures of the nation. [1]

Organization[2]

The Civilian Conservation Corps was organized in 1933 as an independent agency. It is headed by a national director. It operates under an effective organization comprising four of the major departments of the federal government, namely, War, Labor, Agriculture, and Interior. Its various activities are

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1 Quoted from School Life, 24:187 (March 1939)
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, pp.115-118

conducted under the immediate supervision of a number of cooperating federal agencies, as follows:

1) Selection of enrollees is carried on by the United States Employment Service and affiliated State services.

2) The War Department has the major responsibility in the operation of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Its functions include provisions for,

1) Clothing, feeding, housing, transportation, and demobilization of enrollees
2) Health, welfare, and educational services
3) Maintenance and discipline in the camps
4) General administration of the camps

3) The Forest Service, the National and State Park Services, and the Soil Conservation Service are the principal agencies which direct and supervise the work projects of the various camps. Administrative functions, under control of the War Department, are carried on through the nine corps areas into which the United States is divided. Each area is headed by a corps area commander, a military man. Each camp is directed by a military officer known as the camp commander. He is usually a reserve officer of the rank of captain, or equivalent.

Educational Organization

Educational policies for the camps are subject to advisement by a Director of CCC Camp Education. This official is stationed in the United States Office of Education, but he is under employ

of the War Department. In educational matters the corps area commander is advised by a corps area educational adviser; the camp commander by the camp educational adviser. At the camp level the organized educational program is planned and conducted by an advisory committee composed of the camp commander, the project superintendent, the educational adviser, and occasionally an outstanding enrollee. This group attempts to coordinate all of the learning activities of the camp. The study program is prepared to correspond closely with the daily life or work experience of the enrollees.

The Enrollee

The typical enrollee is a young man hardly twenty years of age. The chances are that he never finished the eighth grade, nor even reached it before leaving school. He has had little or no work experience. His family was either on relief or eligible for it. A survey made in June 1938, indicated that 56 percent of the enrollees were from rural areas and 44 percent from urban areas. It has been found that enrollees come largely from labor-class parents. In numbers of enrollees employed, the occupations of parents occur in the following order of frequency:

Day laborers
Factory workers
WPA workers
Farmers
Railroad workers
Miners
Truck drivers
Janitors, and others[1]

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1 U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, op. cit., p.5

From the standpoint of economic status enrollees are drawn from the lower one-third of the population. They show common-school deficiencies to a somewhat greater extent than the average for the whole population.[1] About 40 percent of them have not completed the eighth grade. Three percent are totally unable to read or write when they enroll. More than two-thirds of the enrollees have never received any vocational training. One-fourth of them have never held any kind of a job. Enrollees who have had some previous employment were jobless, nevertheless, for eight months prior to enrolling in the Corps.

The majority of the enrollees have had no vocational guidance, nor do they have any idea as to how they shall earn a living. Chances are that the enrollee may be undernourished and underweight. Because of his futile attempts to secure gainful employment he may have become embittered or antisocial in his attitudes; or he may be listless and indifferent toward the future. Coupled with his general low state of morale may be the nostalgia occasioned by his first trip away from home, and a certain skepticism as to what awaits him in the camp.[2] The homesickness of enrollees has been found to be a major cause of desertions from the camps.

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1 Howard W. Oxley, "Current Trends in CCC Education," The Phi Delta Kappan, 21:393 (April 1939)
2 Howard W. Oxley, "Guidance in the CCC Camps," School Life, 24:213 (April 1939)

Extension of the CCC

By the end of the first four years of its existence there was evidence that the Civilian Conservation Corps had received wide popular acceptance by the American people as a major enterprise for the education and adjustment of youth. In June 1937, Congress extended the Corps for an additional period of three years. To the objectives of employment and conservation was added that of general and vocational education and guidance for enrollees. According to law governing the Civilian Conservation Corps, ten hours each week may be devoted to education. Furthermore, at the discretion of the Director, enrollees may be granted leave of absence from the Corps to attend an educational institution.[1] In commenting upon this extension of the educational facilities of the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Advisory Committee on Education has expressed itself as follows:

> The new legislation in 1937, extending the life of the Corps to July 1, 1940, gave prominence to education among the functions of the Corps. The desire upon the part of the Congress for a more complete realization of educational objectives was made clear both in debate and in the legislation itself.
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> The new legislation, however, has not so far resulted in marked change or improvement in the organization of the Corps for educational purposes. More attention is perhaps being given to educational activities, but in some respects there appears to have been a loss even of previous gains. Many able educational advisers in the camps have become thoroughly

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1 Howard W. Oxley, "American Youth Learn By Doing," Journal of the National Education Association, 28:111 (April 1939)

> dissatisfied with the conditions under which they work, and have left the camps for other more attractive opportunities. An even more serious hindrance to educational progress has resulted from the policy, because of military reasons, of terminating the tours of duty of many of the most successful camp commanders who have been in the camps for two or more years.[1]

Nature of CCC Education

The basic purpose of CCC education has been to make each enrollee more employable and a better citizen. To achieve this purpose, the following major activities have been developed for the enrollees:[2]

1) Removal of illiteracy
2) Correction of common-school deficiencies
3) Training on work projects
4) Vocational instruction
5) Cultural and general education
6) Avocational and leisure-time training
7) Character and citizenship development
8) Job placement

During the past 6 years, 1500 camps have been established throughout the country. They are to be found in almost every sizable community. The Civilian Conservation Corps has enrolled more than 2½ million men, a majority of them between the ages of 17 and 21. The current enrollment is about 300,000. Up to June 1937, facilities for educational activities were very inadequate. They have been improved and extended since that date. Since the organization of its educational program five years ago, the Corps can point to the following as some

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, p.118
2 U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, op. cit., p.3

of its accomplishments:[1]

1) Approximately 700,000 illiterate enrollees have been taught to read and write

2) Over ¾ million men have been enrolled in elementary, high school, and college courses

3) 8838 have obtained eighth grade certificates

4) 2307 have graduated from high school

5) 52 have completed college

At the present time 91 percent of the enrollees participate in the organized educational activities of the camp. The participating enrollee spends on an average of 4 hours each week in these activities. In connection with the recognition given by regular school authorities to educational courses performed in the camps, the following information may be noted from the Director's annual report for 1938:[2]

> More than half the states have made arrangements to award elementary-school or high school certificates to qualified enrollees. One state, Montana, has designated each CCC camp as a technical high school for the accrediting of vocational training and related work.

Educational Facilities

In the educational department of the Civilian Conservation Corps there has been a gradual and significant increase in physical and plant facilities in all important respects. These

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1 Journal of the National Education Association, op. cit., p.111
2 Quoted from The Congressional Record, 84:1001 (February 1, 1939)

include improvements in such items as buildings, shops, equipment, lighting, heating, and floor-space. Library and general reading facilities have been expanded. Visual aids are in frequent use. The offerings now include both the academic and vocational fields, as well as general training.

It has been estimated that over 1 million enrollees have received vocational or occupational training closely allied to their work experience in the camps. Approximately an equal number have received vocational training in courses not related to their camp duties. The 60 major types of projects engaged in by the Corps provide possibilities for educational training in over 300 specific jobs.[1] The camps offer 249 vocational and pre-vocational training courses. About 90 different courses in avocational subjects have been provided. Informal activities are engaged in, such as music, dramatics, arts and crafts, athletics, social functions, and games.[2]

An idea of the increased facilities for vocational training may be gained from a study of Table 2.

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1 Journal of the National Education Association, op. cit.
2 Howard W. Oxley, "Educational Equipment and Facilities in CCC Camps," School Life, 24:250 (May 1939)

Table 2.--Increased Facilities for Vocational Training in CCC Camps[1]

For courses of training in--	Percent of 1500 camps
Wood working: hand tools,	89.8
Photography,	68.0
Typewriting and commercial training: machines,	63.0
Metal working: hand tools,	62.7
Surveying instruction: instruments,	52.0
Auto mechanics: repair shops, tools,	50.0
Mechanical drawing, drafting, mapping: sets, boards, instruments,	50.0
Blacksmith training: equipment,	48.0
Leathercraft,	43.0
Agricultural training: gardening, poultry raising, hog raising, bee keeping,	30.0
Welding training: equipment,	25.0
Weaving, spinning, textile work,	12.0
Electrical training: equipment, shops,	8.0
Printing training: large and small presses,	6.0
Taxidermy,	4.0
Training in pottery making,	1.5
Aviation mechanic training: equipment,	1.2

Trends

Officials of the Civilian Conservation Corps at the present time are attempting to coordinate and integrate the best practises which have developed in the various phases of the education program. Development is being aimed at along the following broad lines:

1) Establishment of guidance procedures in each camp
2) Development of instructional material suitable to the camp situation
3) Provision for training CCC instructors
4) Extension of adequate educational facilities
5) Provision for a thorough pupil accounting system

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1 School Life, op. cit.

Guidance

One of the most important trends has been toward the development of a guidance procedure, the function of which is to seek out, interpret, and validate the interests and problems of the enrollees. The problems of enrollees have been found to center around two general aspects, as follows:[1]

1) Present problems and interests
   a. Problems in the camp
   b. Problems of individual and personal character
   c. Individual educational interests and needs

2) Plans for adjusting themselves in society after separation from the Corps
   a. Reestablishment of family and community relationships
   b. Vocational interests
   c. Connections with employers and opportunities for employment

The program of counseling and guidance attempts to give assistance in each of these aspects. Studies have been made of various guidance practises that have developed in the camps.[2] Steps are being taken to establish the best practises as a minimum procedure in all camps. Although there is some flexibility, the guidance plan includes the following steps and provisions:

1) Strictly speaking, guidance procedure actually begins with the selection of the men. Selecting agencies take only those

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1 Howard W. Oxley, "Guidance in the CCC Camps," School Life, 24:213 (April 1939)
2 A study of counseling and guidance techniques in CCC camp education was conducted by Boston, Columbia, and Ohio State universities

who are considered to be most in need and best able, physically and mentally, to profit by the work and educational opportunities of the Corps.

2) An individual interview is given each new member by camp advisers and others. Educational reports of the Army show that during the past fiscal year, 1,462,509 guidance interviews were given in the camps by officers, members of the using services, and educational advisers.[1] Tests may be administered to determine the enrollee's educational level and his aptitudes.

3) There is group counseling of new men by advisers, military and technical staff, and others.

4) An orientation course to camp life for new men is given. In some camps there is a conditioning period of a week or so in which the new men are introduced to all the phases of the camp life.

5) Try-out experiences on work projects and jobs within the camp are granted. Insofar as possible, new men are assigned to the job and the project which they prefer.

6) Classes on occupational information are given. Guidance studies conducted in various camps by Boston, Columbia, and Ohio State Universities revealed that the majority of the enrollees do not desire to choose as their vocations the type of work which they may have pursued previous to their enrollment in the Corps.

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1 Reported in School Life, 24:213 (April 1939)

7) Vocational classes are provided.

8) Cumulative record cards are kept for all enrollees. These give data regarding the background of the enrollee, as well as his present interests and progress.

9) Periodical interviews of all enrollees are given by the camp adviser or other member of the camp staff in order to check on enrollee's progress and to offer him further guidance. Periodically the members are rated as to participation, conduct, attitude, and progress.

10) Assistance is given to the member in locating private employment. Contacts are maintained with various employers and employing agencies both public and private. Enrollees are assisted also in making job applications by correspondence.

11) Follow-up of former CCC members has been attempted in some cases, largely to determine to what extent the member's CCC training and experience were of benefit to him in securing and holding employment.

It is seen, then, that guidance practise centers primarily around the individual, recognizing such conditioning factors as,

1) Previous schooling
2) Previous work experience
3) Family conditions
4) Possibilities of personal development and adjustment

In view of the fact that most CCC enrollees were living with their parents before they entered the camps, it is important that guidance efforts recognize the significance of the family as a factor in the lives of the great majority of them. The camp program should take this factor into account. The occupation of the parent may often have a bearing upon the vocational development of the enrollee. Again, inasmuch as many of the boys on leaving the Corps will be entirely "on their own," they need guidance in making the transition from dependency to an independent life of their own.[1]

Educational Staff

The Civilian Conservation Corps has recognized that an educational program can be no stronger than the instructional staff through which it is conducted. Exclusive of professional qualifications, the type of men wanted is indicated in the following oft-quoted sentence from the CCC Handbook for Educational Advisers, "Only persons interested in the men and their problems should be used as teachers."[2] In line with the trend toward improvement and integration of CCC education, more attention is paid to the selection and training of teachers and development of a staff of effective instructors. In January 1939, 26,006 instructors were offering leisure-time instruction in the 1500 camps. These instructors are classified as follows:[3]

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1 U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1937, No.19, CCC Camp Education: Guidance and Recreational Phases, 1938, pp.5-12
2 War Department, Handbook for Educational Advisers, 1934
3 Howard W. Oxley, "Twenty-Six Thousand Teachers Go to School," School Life, 24:275 (June 1939)

Camp educational advisers	1,461
Assistant leaders for education	1,296
Army officers	3,140
Technical service personnel	10,380
Enrollers	5,355
Emergency education program and NYA teachers	1,966
Regular and other teachers	2,408

Regularly organized teacher-training courses have been instituted in a majority of the camps. Some state vocational departments have contributed aid in training camp instructors. In a few cases cooperating colleges and universities are offering short courses modeled for camp instructors and advisers.

Camp Educational Advisers[1]

In view of the singular importance of the camp educational adviser, attempts have been made to increase his professional status in the program. Acting in an advisory, supervisory, and administrative capacity, his position and influence in the promotion of camp education are especially significant. Some of the facts concerning advisers are as follows:

Average age	34 years
Holding bachelor's degree	74 percent
Holding master's degree	22 "
Holding doctor's degree	1 "

Among the college trained:

Education major	30 percent
Physical education major	10 "
Business administration major	7 "
Professions	5 "
Agriculture	4 "

1 Reported in School Life, 24:137 (February 1939)

Camp educational advisers.--Continued

Previous experience in educational work..	72 percent
In industry or agriculture.....	48 "
In Civilian Conservation Corps.....	10 "

War Department regulations define the job of educational adviser as follows:[1]

a. The camp educational adviser will serve in an advisory capacity to the camp commander and under his direction will have general supervision of camp educational activities;

b. Under the direction of the camp commander, the camp educational adviser will:

1) Study the interests, needs, and abilities of the individual enrollees as revealed through counseling with them and to advise them on their educational program as well as their future personal adjustment;

2) Provide a program of educational activities based on the interests and needs of the men. The program should seek to provide academic instruction on all levels; vocational training, including instruction on the job and related subjects; avocational and leisure-time activities; and various other types of instruction such as foreman and teacher training, health, first-aid, safety, and citizenship;

3) Have general supervision of the educational activities in the camp;

4) Assist in securing supplementary educational facilities from educational institutions and public or private organizations;

5) Direct the work of the assistant camp educational adviser;

6) Study the camp and work projects for the purpose of better coordinating the educational and work activities of the enrollees;

1 War Department Regulations, Civilian Conservation Corps, 1937

Camp educational advisers.--Continued

7) Help plan the leisure-time program of the camp in order to develop the educational opportunities to the fullest possible extent;

8) Recommend the purchase of educational supplies and equipment;

9) Keep accurate records of all educational activities and submit reports as required;

10) Participate with the selecting agencies, public employment offices, apprentice training committees, and other agencies in efforts to place enrollees in employment and adjust them to civic life.

To prepare the adviser for this variety of duties and to increase his professional growth, a special in-service training program is provided. Methods of training include,[1]

1) Initial instruction programs for newly appointed advisers
2) Correspondence
3) Direct supervision
4) Publications
5) Personal study
6) Group training schools and conferences

It may be noted further that the training of camp educational advisers is being carried on through appropriate courses in colleges and universities.

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1 Howard W. Oxley, "Training of Camp Educational Advisers," School Life, 24:137 (February 1939)

Evaluation and Recommendations

Enough has been said to reveal in rather broad outline the general purposes, scope, and accomplishments of the Civilian Conservation Corps. The educational accomplishments have undoubtedly been creditable. The program of work and education has received some favorable recognition by influential educational groups and by the people of the country. Considering its high cost, however, there is a question whether the CCC can be justified except under extreme conditions of emergency and in complete realization of the values to youth which it seeks to promote. Since the organization of the Civilian Conservation Corps its expenditures have averaged about $1,200 per enrollee per year. Of this amount about $500 can be charged to conservation, and most of the remainder to relief.

The Advisory Committee on Education[1] although admitting the achievements of the Corps believes that its educational values could be enhanced without a consequent reduction in its effectiveness as a relief and conservation agency. The Committee recommends that the CCC camps be continued for the time being, and efforts for their improvement made. It is also in favor of having the camps administered by the federal government at least until the question of their permanency is settled.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, pp.115-127

With regard to administration of the camps by the War Department, however, the Committee is emphatically unsympathetic. It says, in part,

> The Committee recommends strongly, however, that the administration of the camps be placed entirely upon a civilian basis. Notwithstanding the very commendable achievements of the Army during the organization period of the Corps, it is not in the American tradition to use the military arm during any long period for the determination of civilian educational policies and the administration of a major educational enterprise.
>
> It is particularly important that all personnel stationed in the camps be placed upon a civilian status, that educational factors be given major consideration in their selection, and that their tenure be placed upon a more regular basis. Under any form of organization, the camp directors will determine the tone and character of the camps. They should continue to have responsiblity for educational leadership in the camps, and only such personnel as are capable of providing cooperative educational leadership should be selected or retained as camp directors.
>
> Among the reserve Army officers are many who have served successfully as camp commanders. These should provide the major source from which to obtain civilian camp directors. The successful camp commanders are a group of men who have exceptional qualifications for leadership of the type desired. Since they were drawn initially from civilian life, there is no reason to suppose that most of them would not be available as camp directors on a civilian basis at an appropriate level of compensation.[1]

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.125

Bill to Make CCC Permanent

It may be noted that in February 1939, a bill was introduced in Congress by Senator Elbert D. Thomas of Utah to make the Civilian Conservation Corps a permanent institution. In the course of his speech defending such a bill, he said,

> We want to have some basis for its permanency. Shall we rest the CCC upon the basis of education? Shall we rest it upon the basis of conservation? Shall we rest it upon the basis of military training, as was suggested a moment ago by the Senator from Texas (Mr. Connally)? Shall we find what is the real need and what is the key to this need and place the CCC upon that basis?
>
> Personally, I believe that the greatest influence the CCC has is a human influence, and that in doing that it gives to hundreds of thousands of our young men an opportunity for some social experiences of which they have been deprived, because they never had the opportunity to go to a high school or a college, to go into the Army or the Navy, or to do any work in which they are taught teamwork with other men, which, of course, is the very essence of any democratic principle. Therefore, in the establishment of a permanent institution it might be well for us to think of the various bases upon which we wish to rest it and make that institution what the American public want it to become.
>
> I recommend that studies be made and careful means be developed to make education in the CCC a universal opportunity. The CCC may be in a position to struggle through on its own initiative; certainly it has made great strides. But if it needs our help in making the proper legislative pattern, it should have it. Perhaps Senators will find the War Department should be relieved from its position as head schoolmaster to the boys, and the Commissioner of Education given a more direct responsibility.[1]

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1 Quoted from The Congressional Record, 84:1001 (February 1, 1939), remarks by Senator Elbert D. Thomas on Senate Bill 1110, Permanent Status for Civilian Conservation Corps

CHAPTER 5

Part II

The National Youth Administration

The National Youth Administration was established by executive order in June 1935.[1] It was set up as a semiautonomous agency within the Works Progress Administration. Its funds derive from the general appropriations by Congress for emergency relief. Hence the National Youth Administration is primarily a relief agency. Its national director is also deputy administrator of the Works Progress Administration.[2] The order establishing the National Youth Administration provides also for a National Advisory Committee and for an Executive Committee. The National Advisory Committee is composed of representatives of labor, business, agriculture, education, and youth. The 35 members of this committee are appointed by the President.

The functions and duties of the National Youth Administration are prescribed as follows:[3]

> To initiate and administer a program of approved projects which shall provide relief, work relief, and employment for persons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five years who are no longer in regular attendance at a school requiring full time, and who are not regularly engaged in remunerative employment.

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1 Executive Order No. 7086, June 26, 1935
2 See page 34
3 Executive Order No. 7086, June 26, 1935

Organization

The National Youth Administration is nation-wide in scope. Its administrative personnel include the national director, 5 regional directors, 5 directors of administrative units, and 12 assistants. At the state level, the program is administered by a state director and his staff. This staff includes a state advisory committee appointed by the national director. For supervisory purposes the states are districted, each district being in charge of a supervisor responsible to the state director. Assisting the district supervisors are the project supervisor and the local advisory committee which provide the direct contact between the Youth Administration and the youth to be served.

Quality of Personnel

According to data assembled by the Advisory Committee on Education in 1937 from a study of personnel files of the NYA, the persons who administer the programs have been characterized as follows:

> Regarding state directors:
>
> In education the group ranges from persons with some college work without degree to those with the Ph. D. or its equivalent. The majority have bachelor's or master's degrees. Members of the group have held numerous kinds of offices, administrative positions or public office; they have been engaged in many kinds of educational

> occupation, as well as a considerable number of other types of occupation; and they claim memberships in 24 different associations. Altogether, the state directors constitute a group of practical, versatile, socially competent, and fairly well-educated persons...
>
> Regarding general personnel:
>
> Thus, in general, the persons who administer the programs of the NYA may be characterized as follows: They are fairly well educated; they have had diversified work experience, though principally in the fields of education, social work, and public service; they are definitely older than the body of youth whom they serve, but are not much older; according to government standards they are reasonably well paid; and they have a wide variety of interests.[1]

Purpose of the NYA

Both the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration were established under conditions of economic emergency. They have developed somewhat different procedures for attacking youth problems that are practically identical. Two major objectives of the National Youth Administration may be noted:

> 1) To provide funds for the part-time employment of needy school, college, and graduate students 16 to 24 years of age so as to enable them to continue their education

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, The National Youth Administration, No.13, 1938, pp.13-14

2) To provide funds for the part-time employment of youth from relief families on work projects designed not only to give the young people valuable work experience, but also to benefit the communities in which they live.[1]

These two objectives have been realized largely through the medium of two of the principal programs of the Youth Administration, namely, the student aid and the work projects programs. The National Youth Administration has undertaken to perform its function of assisting young people through the medium of part-time jobs. This is the factor which in the last analysis distinguishes its operation from other youth serving organizations. In its student aid program work is provided for young people in grade schools, high schools, and colleges in order to permit them to earn the necessary funds to continue their education. These funds, being small, do not necessarily provide for all the financial resources needed by the students. They are supplementary in many instances. This small income, however, may mean the difference between attending school and not attending school. The maximum earnings allowed under the student aid program are as follows:[2]

1) For elementary or high school students, $6 per month for the school year

2) For college students, $20 per month for the school year

3) For graduate students, $40 per month for the school year

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.7
2 Executive Order No. 7164, August 29, 1935

Again, through the work projects program, work is provided for needy young people who are out of school and unemployed in order to provide them with a small income and with work experience so essential to the securing of a job in private employment.

Programs of the NYA

The functions of the National Youth Administration have been carried on through five programs:

1) Student aid
   - Elementary and high school pupils
   - Undergraduate students in college
   - Graduate students
2) Work projects
3) Guidance and placement service
4) Apprentice-training
5) Educational camps for unemployed women
   (These were discontinued in 1937)

All divisions of the National Youth Administration require that the youth aided shall be from 16 to 24 years of age. In the work projects program the lower age limit for employment has been raised to 18 years, however. This adjustment was made so that the program would not conflict with the compulsory school attendance laws in certain states. There was also considerable opinion against the employment of youth under 18 years of age, and difficulties of placing them in employment. The inadequacy of funds provided another reason for thus narrowing the age limit in the work projects program.[1]

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.48

Costs

The student aid and the work projects programs constitute by far the bulk of the National Youth Administration enterprise. In terms of expenditures and number of youth aided, the National Youth Administration has operated inexpensively as compared with other governmental agencies. By virtue of its policy of decentralizing the cost burden, the expenditure of federal funds in the National Youth Administration is undoubtedly much less than it would be under a more centralized system. In the student aid program a substantial share of the cost burden is carried by the participating institutions. In the work projects program some of the costs are borne by local sponsors. These local contributions are generally in the form of supervision, services, or the provision of materials.

Figures for 1936-37 indicate that expenditures per youth aided in the two major programs were approximately $72 for all types of student aid and approximately $225 for work projects. The median number of youth aided on these programs has been about 406,000 a month, with the peak at about 630,000.

The work projects program is the more expensive of the two. Appropriations for the National Youth Administration are allocated in the ratio of two-fifths to student aid and three-fifths to work projects. The annual allotment to the work

projects, then, is one and one-half times as large. In terms of total cost per youth aided, it is three times as expensive. Funds for work projects, however, are expended on a 12 months basis, as contrasted with a 9 months basis for the student aid. These funds also include the cost of supervision, services, and materials. Again, it should be noted that student aid is largely in the nature of educational maintenance; whereas wages received by more than 95 percent of work projects employees are needed for strictly relief purposes.[1]

Appropriations for the National Youth Administration were considerably augmented in 1938-39, thus enabling more youth to receive benefits. According to an announcement made by the federal administrator, the college and graduate divisions of NYA student aid program is reaching 13½ percent more young persons in the academic year 1938-39 than in the year previous.[2] The student quota in these divisions for the whole country is 87,969, or 11,976 more than in 1937-38. The average monthly aid for college students is limited to $15 and to graduate students to $30. However, in view of the great excess of applications over those who can receive aid, the average payment has been reduced in most institutions in order to help as many students as possible. Preliminary figures[3] indicate that in

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.77
2 U. S. National Youth Administration, Press release No. 6-313, January 29, 1939
3 "NYA Student Aid, 1938-39," Monthly Labor Review, 48:579 (March 1939)

November 1938, the average wage allowance for undergraduates was $11.94; for the graduate students, $17.98. Appropriations for the National Youth Administration for the 1938-39 academic year amounted to $21,700,000. Of this sum, $7,836,407 was alloted to school aid (elementary and high school,) and $11,849,760 to college and graduate aid.

A supplement of $100,000 to the regular allotment for college and graduate aid has been designated for the assistance of negro students residing in those states having only limited higher educational facilities for negroes. This fund enables 539 negro students (mostly graduate students) to earn an average of $20.60 per month.

The Student Aid Program[1]

The requirements for eligibility in the student aid program are as follows:

The student must--

1) Show evidence of inability to enter or remain in school without student aid

2) Be a citizen, or have declared his intentions of becoming a citizen

3) Have a good character

4) Maintain a satisfactory or passing level of achievement in at least three-fourths of his scholastic work

5) Carry at least three-fourths of a normal load of scholastic work

Responsibility for the determination of the eligibility of pupils for aid is left to the authorities of the institutions which such pupils attend. The wage received by pupils is based on the local prevailing rate for the same type of work. Pupils receiving school aid may work a maximum of 7 hours per day on non-school days, 3 hours per day on school days, or 20 hours per week. College and graduate aid students are allowed 8 hours per day or 30 per week. During vacations within the academic year they may work 40 hours per week.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, The National Youth Administration, No.13, 1938, pp.23-47

Work Classifications

There are 12 major categories under which work must be performed in the student aid program, as follows:

1) Clerical
2) Construction
3) Departmental service
4) Library work
5) Duplication
6) Grounds and building maintenance
7) Research and surveys
8) Home economics
9) Art
10) Laboratory assistance
11) Recreation
12) Miscellaneous

Features of the Student Aid Program

There is every indication that the student aid program has considerably improved the morale of youth. It has extended educational opportunities to the underprivileged and thereby uncovered a large reserve of competent young people who want to continue their education, but for whom no provision has been made in the past. The program is characterized by the fact that its projects are planned for students on the basis of need and ability rather than on a relief basis. They are intended to be of value to the institution or the community. So far as possible they relate directly to the educational interests and needs of the students. Provision for helping young people continue their education becomes, then, not a charity so much as a social investment. Large numbers of young people who otherwise would

be thrust onto an already glutted labor market are now enabled to continue their education. The student aid program is now providing assistance to 259,697 high school students, 107,450 college students, and 3,028 graduate students.[1]

The program has been well received by educators and the public at large. The Advisory Committee on Education has expressed itself in favor of the continuance of the student aid program. The Committee does not believe, however, that it should be established on a permanent basis until after a further period for the exploration of its possibilities.[2]

A desirable feature of this program has been the policy of the National Youth Administration to place responsibility and administration with the institutions themselves. It is their responsibility to select the students and the projects, and to supervise the work of the students so as to promote in them diligence and proper work habits. This operating procedure has been advantageous both from the standpoint of reducing administrative costs and of freeing institutions from federal interference in their educational policies. It appears to be one arrangement whereby federal aid may be secured to equalize educational opportunity without having federal control of educational policy.

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1 Aubrey Williams, "Conservation of American Youth by the National Youth Administration," The Phi Delta Kappan, 21:378 (April 1939)
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, p.129

Work Projects Program[1]

The work projects program provides work relief for young people between the ages of 18 and 24 years of age.[2] Regulations require that 90 percent of all employees must have relief status. At least 75 percent of the federal funds must be expended as wages for relief youth employees. Beyond the need for relief there are no other formal requirements for eligibility on this program. Incidentally it may be noted that relief is not the only criterion of eligibility for student aid as it is for employment on work projects.

The work projects program employs only two-fifths as many young people as does the student aid program. In seven states[3] 89 percent of the youth employed were white. As a rule the youth come from large families. In the first months of the program there was a slight preponderance of boys over girls. The period from January 1936 to October 1937 showed a decline in the number of boys to all youth employed from 61 percent to 46 percent. Better adjustment of the program to prevailing labor conditions and relief facilities, however, is expected to raise the percentage of boys to a number commensurate with their proportion in the total population.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, The National Youth Administration, No.13, 1938, pp.48-78

2 See page 92

3 California, Louisiana, Michigan, Kentucky, Minnesota, Ohio, and Nebraska

Table 3.--Work Activities of the National Youth Administration Work Projects Program[1]

I. Construction work:
- 1. Highway, road, and street projects:
  - a. Roadside improvements, trails, footpaths
  - b. Other highway, road, and street projects
- 2. Public building projects:
  - a. Construction of new buildings
  - b. Remodeling and repair of public buildings
  - c. Improvement of grounds around buildings
- 3. Recreational facilities, exclusive of buildings
- 4. Conservation work

II. Nonconstruction work:
- 1. Nursery schools
- 2. Clerical and stenographic work:
  - a. For governmental agencies
  - b. For other than governmental agencies
- 3. Resident agricultural training projects
- 4. Agricultural demonstration projects (county agent assistance, etc)
- 5. School lunches
- 6. Library service and book repairing
- 7. Homemaking
- 8. Museum work, preparation of exhibits, visual aid materials, etc
- 9. Statistical and nonstatistical survey and research projects
- 10. Recreational leadership projects
- 11. Fine arts (art, music, drama, writing)
- 12. Sewing

III. Miscellaneous work:
- 1. Educational camps for unemployed women (since discontinued)
- 2. Workshops (handicrafts, toy making and repair, furniture construction, etc)
- 3. Youth center activities (not elsewhere classified)
- 4. Other National Youth Administration work (not elsewhere classified)

1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 13, The National Youth Administration, 1938, pp.50-51

The median duration of employment is 5 months in urban areas and 4 months in rural areas. Employment is limited to 8 hours per day, 40 hours per week, and 70 per month. Maximum earnings for relief youth employees cannot exceed $25 per month. Wage rates are set by the state directors of the Youth Administration and the Works Progress Administration. The average wage has amounted to $15 per month, and $225 per year per youth employee.

Table 3 indicates the wide range of activities in which youth are engaged on the National Youth Administration work projects. The possibilities of this type of program have hardly been fully explored. Doubtless the projects have educational and social significance. Of first importance is the fact that the program has given a disciplined work experience to thousands of youth who otherwise might have remained unemployed for years, chiefly because of their inexperience. They would have had very little opportunity to discover their own aptitudes and abilities. Private employers are reluctant and can hardly afford to make their business a training ground for the development of totally inexperienced workers. Hence, the National Youth Administration has offered such youth their first job. It has provided a variety of work activity with the idea of preparing these young people for future employment. The youth are relayed from one job to another so as to help them determine what they can best do with their talents.

Educational Policy[1]

It should be noted that the National Youth Administration has no definite policy for the education of youth employed on work projects. It does not provide funds, teachers, or equipment for such purposes. It is interested, however, in improving and stimulating the education of all unemployed out-of-school youth. It may indirectly through the facilities of local agencies promote their educational experience. In case provision is made for the continued education of work project youth, it is likely to be of the following forms:

1) Special courses established at trade schools
2) Courses in opportunity schools
3) Classwork under the sponsorship of state education departments
4) Emergency education classes under WPA
5) General and vocational classes in schools, colleges, and universities

Reports of June 1937 from state directors indicated that only about one-fifth of all unemployed out-of-school youth were receiving formal continuation schooling of any kind.[2] The general impression to be gained is that education for youth on work projects is sporadic; it is hardly more than an incidental factor in the larger program of education for out-of-school youth.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., 70-78
2 Ibid

The educational implications of the work projects program have been expressed as follows:[1]

> To the extent that projects have been well planned, with due recognition of educational values, and executed under the sympathetic guidance of imformed supervisors, it is probably true that many youth have gained valuable educational and work experience. Because of their tendency to emphasize production at the expense of the youthful employee, and because of the low caliber of their supervisory and technical personnel, some projects are not altogether creditable; but such projects of poor quality are in the minority. The considerable majority of projects, have been well planned and, in general, have been decidedly beneficial in improving the social attitudes of young people. They have probably helped to reduce the amount of juvenile delinquency.

As to the future of the work projects program, the Advisory Committee on Education has recommended as follows:[2]

> The work projects program should be continued along much the same lines as at present, with additional effort to increase the educational value of the projects and to stimulate the educational interests of the youth concerned. Some form of educational activity should be provided in connection with all work projects. The program should be organized on a State basis, as at present, and should be utilized primarily to administer small-scale work projetts for unemployed young men and women remaining at home. It should also be utilized for experimentation with special types of work camps and other projects that give promise either of special values or of developments that can be included in the larger program of the Civilian Conservation Corps after they have been tested.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., p.76
2 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, p.132

Minor Programs of the NYA

Three minor programs which, at one time or another, have been conducted under the National Youth Administration are:

1) Vocational guidance and placement
2) Apprentice training (now transferred to the United States Department of Labor)
3) Educational camps for unemployed women (now discontinued)

The guidance and placement service program, most significant of these three, will receive brief mention.

Guidance and Placement Service[1]

The guidance and placement service is also designated as the Junior Placement Service. It is being conducted in cooperation with the United States Employment Service. Its purpose is to give interviews and counsel to young people, especially those under 21 years of age, who are inexperienced, and to place them if possible. In the 18-month period ending December 1937, more than 90 percent, or 93,771, of its placements were in private employment. Hence, it appears that the Junior Placement Service is not merely concerning itself with providing young people work on the emergency relief projects. A total of 65 junior placement offices in 32 states were in operation in February 1938.

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, op. cit., pp.79-82

Duties

The duties assigned to the junior placement service are as follows:[1]

1) Interviewing young people who apply for jobs

2) Referring them to available jobs in private industry

3) Placing eligible youth on work relief projects and following up their success on these projects as a basis for placement in private industry

4) Referring eligible youth to apprentice-training committees and Civilian Conservation Corps recruiting bureaus

5) Advising young people as to the desirability of returning to school, and providing them with full information about available educational institutions

6) Referring youth eligible for National Youth Administration student aid to the proper awarding authorities

7) Providing young people with information as to the available resources for training in the kind of work they are seeking

8) Giving out information about opportunities for leisure-time activities available in the community, and about available health agencies and clinics

9) Cooperating with all local agencies, educational and social, which deal with young people of the youth age group

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, The National Youth Administration, No.13, 1938, p.81

Summary

Through each of its major programs the National Youth Administration has provided youth with facilities for continued education, work experience, guidance, and when possible, with placement in private industry.

The National Youth Administration has cooperated rather successfully with public and private agencies. Its administrative policy of decentralized control and noninterference with the authority of local sponsors or institutions has been both effective and economical. In actual operation the National Youth Administration has demonstrated possibilities of great social significance.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The United States is justified much pride in its democratic school system, which is the most extensive of any in the world. It is the purpose of educators and of the people to keep it that way and to improve it. It must be admitted, however, that inequalities of educational opportunity have been allowed to develop which threaten the fabric of our democratic institutions. Inequality of education, among whatever levels or groups, if permitted to develop will lead to class and racial distinctions and to regional discriminations of serious import for the future.

Mobility of Population

Under modern conditions, education is clearly a matter of more than local concern. Political subdivisions and state boundaries no longer define nor correspond to the needs and activities of the population. The factor of transportation and the migration of people have largely altered the effectiveness of earlier ways of doing things. A study reported in the Journal of the National Education Association found pupils in three small Missouri cities who had attended schools in thirty-nine states.[1] Students and families move with increasing frequency. The cosmopolitan nature of any state university is one evidence of this.

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1 Frederick Bolton, "Relation of the Federal Government to Education," School and Society, 43:109 (Januray 25, 1936)

Although theoretically a state provides education only for its own citizens, it is found that a great many students do not receive their education in their home state; nor do they always utilize their training in the state in which it was obtained, nor in their home state. These students do not serve the state that trained them, but they do contribute to the cultural assets of the nation as a whole. There are important implications here which should be considered in the problem of federal participation in education.

Federal Control

If the schools are to be kept as a vital part of American life, educational leaders must constantly be alert to analyze current social, ecomomic, and political conditions and trends. The future of the schools will undoubtedly be determined in large part by the kind of political philosophy that is adopted with regard to their relationships with the federal government. The present trend toward greater governmental control of nearly every phase of life needs to be studied with a view to determining what implications there may be for education. Shall there be greater federal control of education; a return to free choice and local independence; or a plan of federal aid based upon a policy of checks and balances?[1]

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1 Lotus D. Coffman, "Federal Support and Local Responsibility for Education," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1936, p.97

Constitutionality

It is well recognized that the use of federal funds for public education is desirable. The question of the constitutionality of federal participation is of less significance than that of determining the fact of need. The history of federal legislation concerning education appears to indicate that in the future, opposition to federal activity in education will be fought on the point of fact rather than on that of constitutionality or law. It is commonly agreed that federal funds should be granted. Concern lies with the manner in which they shall be used.

The Advisory Committee on Education

The views of the Advisory Committee on Education regarding federal aid are of significance.[1] The Committee does not approve the federal policy that requires the matching of funds. It would restrict all federal grants for special types of education. It urges a careful study of the tax problem with a view to determining how and to what extent the federal tax system should be used to supplement state and local taxes for public education. The federal government apparently is well equipped to collect money from the entire country and to distribute it again to the various states in the aid of education. Any program of federal aid should be heavily weighted in favor of those areas which have least to contribute to the cultural and intellectual growth of

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1 The Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, 1938, pp.194-221

the nation, and where economic resources are most restricted.

Federal control should be limited to audits of the funds. It should be directed primarily at securing honesty, legality, and efficiency in the expenditure of federal moneys. Definitely it should not extend to the regulation of teaching, to control of the content of education, nor to determination of educational policy. The federal government should not assume the right to approve or reject state plans for education. Resources of the Office of Education should be augmented so as to stimulate and increase educational research and information service.

Local Initiative

Local autonomy or the right to maintain local initiative and responsibility is a policy that is typically American. In spite of its limitations it should be cherished and continued. It helps to promote experimentation, local interest, and a healthy rivalry. Federal participation in the support of education is inevitable. Without it there is scarcely a chance of maintaining a satisfactory minimum standard of educational opportunity. Yet in spite of its stringent financial needs, public education should not sell its birthright for a mess of potage. Local controls in government, and especially in education, have values that Americams should do their utmost to retain.

The New "Frontier"

With the emergence in recent years of wide-spread economic depression, the welfare and educational activities of the federal government, as everyone knows, have been extended in many ways. In view of the circumstances it was inevitable that the government should do this. The idea has become rather prevalent that public work must to a large extent take the place of the frontier; that in view of the present restricted employment opportunities, especially with regard to the younger generation, this is the particular means by which the government may fulfill its responsibility to guarantee to youth as well as adults a place in the national life, whereby they may contribute to its wealth and also receive their share of the national income. Much of the educational activity that has accompanied the public work projects has been defended on the theory that work relief itself is insufficient, that work and education must go together. It is held that such employment must be rehabilitative in nature. And rehabilitation is an educative function.

Federal Emergency Education

Properly speaking, these many new projects and educational ventures do not lie in the category of federal aid at all. They constitute direct action by the federal government. They reveal a very radical departure in the field of education.

There have been set up new educational enterprises in competition with, or if you will, supplementing the local and state programs of education. Perhaps the most striking thing about these projects is that they have been set up largely without regard to the desires and intentions of state governments. Furthermore, they have been established completely outside the existing educational system. In the selection of persons to direct the emergency education programs throughout their various levels, the present educational leadership of the country has to a great extent been ignored. The question may well be asked why it was that when all these new federal activities were initiated, the existing public school organizations of the states and the recognized educational authorities and leaders of the country were not even generally consulted.

A study of the history of educational legislation in the United States brings out the interesting fact that in every case where the federal government has undertaken to promote new types of education, it has done so to meet what appeared to be a crisis in the national life.[1] Every important step that the federal government has taken in educational affairs has been an expression of the need for education in the practical affairs of life;

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1 Roscoe Pulliam, "Influence of the Federal Government in Education," School and Society, 47:69 (January 15, 1938)

a desire for the education of citizens and voters, for the promotion of intelligent and better living; and, more recently, an increased recognition of the needs of youth.

Criticism of Schools

This repeated resort by the government to education as a remedy for the social and economic ills of the nation has important implications: it indicates the strength among lay leaders of a faith in education as a means of effecting desirable social changes. Also it implies a lack of confidence in the ability of the traditional type of public school to do the job. Traditional sluggishness of schools has been held partly responsible for such an attitude---an attitude which among the socially minded has grown rather naturally out of a long period of disappointing experience with the public schools.

There is some authority indicating doubt that the educational institutions would have been willing to make adjustments to meet the growing problems of a changing society; that had the emergency education program been intrusted to educators, it would have been largely, even if unintentionally, sabotaged.[1] It is charged that parents have never been able to grasp the

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1 Roscoe Pulliam, op. cit., p.71

situation in its larger aspects; and again, that educational institutions throughout the country have been so fully occupied in handling the increased enrollments that they have had little time or energy to devote to initiating the readjustments demanded by new conditions.

Conclusion

By its very nature a democratic government might be expected to be experimental; it might be expected to make provision for a changing society without arrogating to itself undue authority. In its recent ventures the federal government has caused some alarm concerning the extent to which its jurisdiction would go. Nevertheless the government has revealed important social and educational trends as well as inadequacies in the existing school system. It has given a tremendous impetus to adult and nursery school education and a much needed recognition to the needs of youth.

There is clearly an obligation on the part of the public schools to make readjustment to changed social conditions and to provide more completely than heretofore for the whole life needs of its young people. It must be recognized, however, that no single type of institution can do the whole job. The present philosophy of public education in the United States would have to be considerably revised and extended in order for the schools to attempt the education of individuals at all levels, from the nursery stage up to and including adult life.

Again, the emergency education programs are due for some decision regarding their permanent status. Educational policies concerning these programs, providing they are to be continued, should be formulated through the influence of the educators of the country. Educational leadership should create opportunities whereby constructive and intelligent public opinion may be formed. For it can be assumed that the public generally has an interest in the development of a sound educational program which is potentially as valuable as any interest held by educators. The following quotation gives expression to the significance of this proposal:

> The American people have never really given a fair trial to a complete education for the entire population as a preventive of social ills and as a method of solving the urgent dilemmas of social adjustment, stability, and progress. The importance of securing public understanding concerning the necessity to demand and support such an educational program can scarcely be overemphasized.[1]

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1 Educational Policies Commission, The Effect of Population Changes on American Education, 1938, p.47

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