FUNCTIONS, PURPOSES, AND RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF ADULT EDUCATION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to review the history of the adult education movement both in the United States and in various European countries, in regard to early beginnings, special problems, leaders, comparative progress, things to be done and anticipated in the future, aims and functioning of special programs, and other problems pertaining to the development of the adult education movement up to the year 1940. Due attention was given to both domestic and foreign programs, with regard to their influence upon each other in stimulating and promoting new philosophies of education, methods of teaching, expansion of programs, and similar problems.

II. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The writer reviewed the history of adult education, from the earliest American and European movements to the developments in the year 1940 both at home and abroad. Special consideration was given to movements in the United States which focused public attention on the program and its accomplishments. The principal American movements

considered were the Lyceum, the Chautaqua, Mechanics' Institutes, correspondence schools, university extension and correspondence services, agricultural programs, growth of library facilities, the American Association for Adult Education, Federal education programs, special state programs, and movements in foreign countries--Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and others.

III. REASONS FOR THE STUDY

The study of the development of adult education from a comparatively few and scattered (and usually privately or locally sponsored) programs to a great nation-wide movement in which both the Federal and state governments shared responsibilities was justified from a number of considerations. In the first place, it is of special interest to note throughout this study the awakening of the public mind to the fact that adults can and do learn those things essential to their mental and physical welfare as members of adult communities after reaching maturity. This public awakening has, in turn, been stimulated by the research of many eminent psychologists and educators in the field of adult learning. The essence of the current philosophy concerning adult learning is aptly expressed by Dr. E. L. Thorndike in the following words:

> It would now be unfortunate if learning were restricted chiefly to childhood and youth, first, because the world is changing so fast that what one learns from 5 to 20 is often not useful from 35 to 60; second, because men and women have now

> so much leisure time that they could, if they had the ability, keep up with the changing world; third, because the diffusion of power from the few to the many makes it desirable that the many learn more than they do or can learn in childhood . . . .
>
> . . . . We showed that the ability to learn increased from early childhood to about age 25 and decreased gradually and slowly thereafter, about one per cent per year. Childhood was found to be emphatically not the best age for learning in the sense of the age when the greatest returns per unit of time spent are received. The age for learning that is best in that sense is in the twenties, and any age below 45 is better than ages 10 to 14.
>
> Later investigations by Miles, Jones, and others make it probable that the decline in ability to learn from age 45 to 70 is not much more rapid than this, so that a man of 65 may expect to learn at least half as much per hour as he could at 25 and more than he could at 8 to 10.
>
> These results perform the useful service of assuring any adult . . . . that he can learn most of what he needs to learn, and with little or no greater time cost than at age 15 . . . . They remove certain impediments to progress, and strongly suggest the desirability of providing facilities for learning by adults.[1]

In the second place, it was the desire of the writer of this study to visualize future expectations of the adult education movement. This subject was treated in detail in the last chapter of this thesis, therefore, there were at least two elements worthy of special consideration; (1) the materials and resources that were available for the work,

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[1] E. L. Thorndike, "Introduction," Adult Interests (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1935), Chapter I, pp. 1-2.

and (2) the problem of who should constitute the student body. To these two problems might be added a third; that of changing teaching methods as might be deemed desirable after prolonged experience.

A principal factor in evaluating the past, present, and future accomplishments of adult education is the realization of the magnitude of the task involved in helping at least a fair majority of the adult populace to become more efficient and better adjusted vocationally, socially, and economically.

In the first field, one of the most widely known functions of adult education is the reduction of the country's illiteracy rate; a function which, to many not familiar with the entire program, constitutes the bulk of the work of adult education.

The following figures in Tables I, II, III, and IV, from the 1930 United States Census, indicate the extent of the illiteracy problem at that time.

TABLE I*

ILLITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES (1930)
10 YEARS AND OVER

Classification by Race	Total Number	Number of Illiterates	Per Cent of Illiterates of Total Population
All races	98,723,000	4,284,000	4.3
White race	87,980,000	2,407,000	2.7
Native	74,764,000	1,103,000	1.5
Native parentage	53,876,000	986,000	1.8
Foreign and mixed parentage	20,887,000	117,000	.6
Foreign born	13,217,000	1,304,000	9.9
Negroes	9,292,000	1,514,000	16.3
Other races	1,450,000	363,000	25

*Abstract of the Fifteenth Census of the United States (Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), Table 138, p. 275.

TABLE II*

ILLITERACY IN INDIANA (1930)
21 YEARS AND OVER

	Total Number	Per Cent of Illiterates
Total number over 21 years	2,003,000	
Number of illiterates	42,000	2.1

*Ibid., Table 143, p. 283.

TABLE III*

ILLITERACY IN VIGO COUNTY (1930)
10 YEARS AND OVER

	Total Number	Per Cent of Illiterates
Total number of illiterates	1,432	1.8
Native white illiterates	825	1.1
Foreign-born whites	349	8.6
Negroes	252	7.3

* Fifteenth United States Census (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), Vol. III, Part I, p. 708.

TABLE IV*

ILLITERACY IN TERRE HAUTE (1930)
10 YEARS AND OVER

	Total Numb er	Per Cent of Illiterates
Total number of persons over 10 years	53,000	
Illiterates	900	1.7

* Abstract of the Fifteenth Census of the United States (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), Table 146, p. 287.

Census standards define an illiterate as one unable to read and write simple English. Ability to merely write one's name does not constitute literacy.[2]

In the second field of adult education considerable attention was devoted in this thesis to the education of the worker. Special emphasis was focused on this adult activity because of current economic conditions requiring frequent changes in trades and skills from those in which a person receives his original training. Here, again, statistics were of interest in showing some of the possibilities of adult education along this line. In Table V are some data, from the 1930 Census, showing the number of persons between ten and twenty years of age, both in Indiana and throughout the country, who were neither in school nor gainfully employed.[3]

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2 Fifteenth United States Census (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), Volume II, p. 1219.

3 Abstract of the Fifteenth United States Census Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), Table 136, p. 273.

TABLE V

PERSONS 10-20-YEARS OF AGE, NEITHER IN SCHOOL NOR GAINFULLY EMPLOYED

Age	United States	Indiana
10-15	M - 245,000*	M - 2,700
	F - 302,000[a]	F - 3,500
16	M - 122,000	M - 3,280
	F - 198,000	F - 5,000
17	M - 127,000	M - 3,300
	F - 218,000	F - 5,600
18	M - 114,000	M - 6,370
	F - 232,000	F -11,740
19	M - 91,000	M - 5,270
	F - 193,000	F - 9,570
20	M - 72,000	M - 4,000
	F - 171,000	F - 8,000

*M = Male [a]F = Female

Inasmuch as causes for non-attendance at school and lack of gainful employment were not stated, it was assumed that, in a fair number of cases, such circumstances as economic conditions, physical and mental disabilities, et cetera, would account for deficiencies in schooling and employment. Nevertheless, after all deductions had been made for these reasons, there still remained a great army of young people, an economic and social liability to the nation, many of whom might have been rehabilitated through some sort of adult education program.

Consideration of the various Federal and State adult education programs, which are taken up in following chapters.

will likely leave upon the reader the distinct impression that adult education is destined to become one of the country's "major industries". This idea is expressed quite well in a brief article, "Can We Afford Adult Education," included in the book Adult Education In Action. Some of the outstanding points made are:

> Three facts that largely determine the importance of adult education for our present society, and for any conceivable future civilization, now seem fairly clear. First, the processes of civic, social, and economic life have become so complicated that the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to handle them cannot be adequately mastered in the brief period of childhood and youth. Second, even if man could complete in his first twenty years his preparation for effective living in modern society, he would find by the time he was thirty or forty that his education would be hopelessly out of date . . . . Third, man has many very important interests, aptitudes, and powers that do not come to functional maturity in his early years; some of them do not fully mature until well past his middle life . . . .
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> . . . . It seems inevitable that from now on adult education must be regarded not as a luxury nor as a charity but as a prime necessity for every man and every woman . . . .
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> . . . . Adult education is a necessity. Its cost will be hundreds of millions of dollars, but we can afford it. In fact, we cannot afford to be without it . . . .[4]

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[4] A. Caswell Ellis, "Can We Afford Adult Education?" Adult Education in Action (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 64-66.

CHAPTER II

FUNCTIONS AND PURPOSES OF THE ADULT EDUCATION MOVEMENT, AS CONCEIVED BY ITS FOUNDERS

Because the term "adult education" is rather hard to define in abstract terms, it is usually explained in terms of its functions and purposes (aims). Most of the attributes generally given to the movement for the education of adults are included in the following four definitions:

> 1. Definition by Bryson. We can define adult education as including all the activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life.[1]
>
> 2. Definition by Kotinsky. Adult education becomes the conscious and organized effort to help the people study their problems and meet their needs.[2]
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> 3. Definition by Hewitt. Broadly conceived and in the best sense, adult education includes all existing opportunities for adults to gain

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1 Lyman Bryson, Adult Education (New York: American Book Company, 1936), p. 3.

2 Ruth Kotinsky, Adult Education and the Social Scene (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1933), p. vii, Foreword.

information, develop ideas, or create works of art.[3]

4. Definition by Reeves, Fansler, and and Houle. As a process, adult education may be thought of as that activity which enables a person more efficiently to meet his personal needs, problems, or desires; more effectively to participate as an intelligent functioning member of society; and more understandingly to approach the appreciation and realization of ultimate values.[4]

I. SOME FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION AS CONTRASTED WITH FORMAL "SCHOOLING"[5]

1. Learning affects the conduct and behavior of adults. First of all, a fundamental difference between adult education and formal elementary and secondary education for children lies in the fact that the knowledge gained in the latter types of schools does not necessarily constitute education as needed by adults, in the broadest sense of the term. For adults, the emphasis should be

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3 Dorothy Hewitt, Adult Education, a Dynamic for Democracy (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937), p.11.

4 Reeves, Fansler, and Houle, Adult Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938), p. 5.

5 A. D. Mueller, Principles and Methods in Adult Education (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937), pp. 19-20.

placed not so much on the amount of knowledge or number of years of school attendance as upon how one's store of learning affects his conduct and behavior.

2. Learning ability continuous. Learning ability does not cease with maturity, but continues almost intact throughout adult life and is a continuous growth on the part of the individual. This growth is fostered and stimulated through daily contacts and experiences.

3. Controlled environment. Adults, as well as children need a "consciously controlled environment" to foster educative growth, which state is attained through group activities directed by those capable of leading and stimulating others along cultural lines.

II. GENERAL AIMS OF ADULT EDUCATION[6]

The general aims of adult education are:

1. Furtherance of the democratic ideal, through teaching the advantages of democracies over other forms of group leadership

2. Imparting of information, and increasing of individual stores of knowledge

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6 A. D. Mueller, Principles and Methods in Adult Education (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937), pp. 26-32.

3. Development both of individual and group thinking ability

4. Stimulation of desire for further study, and giving of suggestions as to how such activities may be most efficiently carried on

5. Development of worthy appreciations and leisure-time activities

6. Provision of knowledge and training contributing to vocational success

7. Reduction of illiteracy and raising of living standards

8. Citizenship training and Americanization work

III. BRYSON'S ANALYSIS OF THE FUNCTIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION[7]

Bryson's analysis of the functions of adult education were grouped into the following headings:

1. Remedial. Reading, writing, arithmetic, citizenship, home management, child care, et cetera. In short, fundamental training necessary for life in an American community

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[7] Lyman Bryson, Adult Education (New York: The American Book Company, 1936), Chapter III, pp. 29-47.

2. Occupational. Vocational training to increase the worker's efficiency in his job

3. Relational. Training in better social outlooks and relationships

4. Liberal. Self-advancement along cultural lines, beyond the bare fundamentals

5. Political. Development of greater interest in government affairs, with the view to developing a more intelligent electorate

IV. BRIEF ARTICLES ON THE FUNCTIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION BY OUTSTANDING EDUCATORS

The functions of adult education were summed up quite well in a number of brief articles written by outstanding educators and grouped together by Mary L. Ely in the book Adult Education in Action[8] under the general division heading, "We Need Adult Education". Following are excerpts from these articles which indicate each writer's views of the purposes and functions of adult education.

1. To Educate the Whole Man, by L. P. Jacks. What I am pleading for may all be summed up as a great lengthening of the educational line.

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[8] Mary L. Ely, Adult Education in Action (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), Chapter I, pp. 3-53.

lengthening of it backward, behind the stage of reading and writing, a lengthening of it forward far beyond the stage of booksay and hearsay. Backward to physical culture, understanding by that the positive training of the body as an instrument of self-expression. Forward toward art, understanding by that the most excellent way of doing whatever needs to be done, the skillful performance of whatever is known to be worth while. What we have to aim at is not the education of the mind alone nor of the body alone. It is the education of the whole man, as an inseparable unity of body and soul.

2. To Keep Our Minds Open, by Nicholas Murray Butler. The larger aspect of adult education . . . has two objectives. First, it must try to reach the individual at a time when his curve of possible growth and accomplishment is still rising and give him new power and ambition . . . .

The second objective of adult education should be the preservation of open-mindedness, of plastic sympathies, of elastic temper to a much later period than is now customary with the great mass of mankind.

3. To Base Our Judgements on Facts, by Newton D. Baker. I foresee that our most difficult task in adult education will be the eradication of prejudice and the formation of that detachment of mind that enables us, even in the presence of an inherited bent, to withhold judgement until all the available facts are before us.

4. To Meet the Challenge of Free Choice, by Dorothy Canfield Fisher. What I mean is this: the movement for the continuance of intellectual life and growth in mature years is not a mere development of education, as we thought in the beginning. It is an inherent and necessary part of the problem that humanity must solve in order to adapt itself to what is perhaps the greatest change in the conditions of life since the emergence of our remote ancestors from water into air--our own emergence from the sustaining density of continuous effort enforced by material necessity

into the thin air of this new life-element, dangerous and difficult, of free choice as to what we shall do. What else do the free hours brought to mankind by mechanical invention mean but that in many of our waking hours we must stand up to the horrifying responsibility of deciding what we shall do with ourselves?

5. To Keep Abreast of New Knowledge, by W. F. Ogburn. The second process by which mankind can adjust to the growing body of knowledge is through prolongation of the period of education. How far may education be prolonged? It is altogether possible that at no far distant time in the future it will take a man forty years to acquire the same proportion of general knowledge that a century ago a young man could acquire in sixteen years.

But there is a limit to the length of the period of formal instruction for which society can afford to pay . . . . Society could hardly afford to support a student until he is forty years of age.

The growth of knowledge is thus becoming one of the major problems of society. How shall it be met?

The answer seems to be adult education.

6. To Be Wisely Destructive, by A. E. Heath. Learning can easily be harnessed to prejudice; and moralizing is too often a mere support for dangerour survivals. It is intelligence alone upon which we can rely for plastic adjustment to change. It is the furnace, the refuse-destructor, which adult education must utilize to preserve our national mental health.

7. To Return to Creative Endeavor, by John Erskine. . . . . The ancients were wiser than we in insisting, almost in the terms of our own psychology, that man as an individual, man in society, must give most of his attention to creative work. And I hope and believe that adult education will frankly turn some day, as it did in the days of Hesiod long ago, to the two most important fields of creative endeavor--art and agriculture.

I define both art and agriculture broadly. I understand by art all the arts, all the creative crafts. By agriculture I understand all of the labors of man on the soil by which he originally produces the wealth with which we deal.

8. To Prepare for New Occupations, by Charles A Beard. That function (of adult education) is to make continuously available to all inquisitive adults a realistic knowledge of what is going on in the world--the kind of knowledge that furnishes a shield and a sword in the struggle for existence.

9. To Restore Unity to Life, by Ernst Jonson. . . . . Here is one of the most important problems of adult education, the problem of restoring to the Western World the normal beauties of life. Music, poetry, and the dance, too, must be released from confinement within the walls of their respective sanctuaries and allowed to enter into the life of the people. The meaning of art is identical with the meaning of life. And since the proper function of art is to reveal the being of the universe, nothing could contribute more to artistic recovery than a living faith in the undivided wholesomeness of that being.

10. To Insure Social Stability, by James E. Russell. To create in the worker a love for his vocation and to give him the ability and the desire to spend his leisure in a way befitting his manhood: that is adult education. Perhaps the most significant opportunity of adult education is the chance of exalting in the public mind the dignity of labor . . . .

11. To Direct Social Change, by Harry E. Barnes. An integral part of any comprehensive scheme of education must be the organization of a definite, though measured and sound, propaganda for the progressive or liberal outlook.

12. To Better Our Social Order, by Glenn Frank. From dealing with adults, you will learn that mere literacy is not the vital education upon which a

valid democracy depends. There is an illiteracy of the literate--political illiteracy, economic illiteracy, religious illiteracy, and social illiteracy--that stands like a wall between us and an increasingly rational and realistic social order.

13. To Open a New Frontier, by William A. Russell. The open frontier with good land free or at low cost was the safety valve of the days that are gone never to return. Can we supply the lack of that frontier by education? What are the specifications? A new job, a new start in life, a different task, a step into the unknown, obstacles to overcome, a re-opened door of hope for fame and fortune, a career in prospect, and an equal opportunity for all. Is there anything that corresponds with this precription?

It seems to me that American education itself is indicated, particularly formal adult education.

14. To Liberalize the College Curriculum, by R. D. Leigh. Presumably our colleges must continue giving degrees, but by every means possible they should be represented as indications of a certain stage of alertness, not of the mere completion of courses or of a term of residence.

Just as adult education courses, in order to survive, must have meaning and interest to those for whom they are designed, so the college program must have a similar significance if the aim is that of education for life and a lifelong education.

15. To Improve Teachers and Teaching, by H. A. Overstreet. A great deal has been said of the value of adult education to the adults that are taught. I should like rather to emphasize its value to those who do the teaching. In fact, I venture to believe that no teacher of young people can be fully and finely a teacher unless he also teaches adults. The point is that he needs to grow into such full maturity of mind that he can see his teaching problems

in their widest perspective.

16. To Attain True Security, by Alvin Johnson. Because we have failed to mobilize our minds we are oppressed by fears. Because we are oppressed by fears no leader can risk energetic measures for breaking the economic deadlock in which we find ourselves. We are set to fall into a panic upon the looming of any real action against the background of our ignorance. What security can there be for us then until we awaken to the necessity of an intellectual life, competent and therefore fearless?

17. To Enlarge Our Horizons, by Lucy Wilcox Adams. If we believe in adult education we should do so in the faith that it is good for human beings, and for no lesser end; and in the humility that expects no milleniums. I would have it as formless and inchoate as is consonant with the provision of abundant opportunities. I would have it free from any degree of compulsion, economic or social. It is not a pill to be forced down the public throat by salesmanship. I would seek in it no other object than freedom and opportunity for men and women to satisfy their intellectual and artistic wants and to enlarge their horizons . . . .

18. To See the View, by William Bolithe. Nothing seems too abstract or highly specialized for the Americans to want to have it explained . . . .

I hope they will never be snubbed or scared out of it. There was one other epoch of such a sacred, hydroptic thirst for knowledge, the indulgence of intellectual curiosity--which is the only pleasure in life that lasts and increases to the end--and that was the Renaissance. If you tell me that the Renaissance differed and was more noble because it was primarily eager for the grammar crumbs and not the summary, bread, I would answer: Sir, you have read Browning and yet you know nothing about the Renaissance. One of the epicenters of that great convulsion was notably the desire of men like Bacon to shear away learning from the hands of a sect,

to bring knowledge into the open, out of the temples and speakeasies of learning, where no one since the Greeks died could penetrate without an initiate's ticket. This is the only part of the democratic hypothesis I unreservedly admire or understand.

And this was not the end of the matter. It was this appetite, and its very partial satisfaction, that was the alternating hyname of that glory, that civilization, on whose mere savings we have been living until now. I know that Shakespeare has never been forgiven for not having been to a university, that his encyclopedism of erudition, gained no one knows how, is still felt to be vaguely illicit. He was of an age and a people--like ours--who rioted to hear about things they had no right to be interested in.

CHAPTER III

SOME EARLY FORMS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

I. LYCEUMS[1]

While there existed in the United States prior to 1924 no formal program denoted as "adult education", such activities had long been carried on informally under various names. Adult education may be said to have begun in the New England town meetings of the seventeenth century, and later in the first meetings held for truly educational and informative purposes, the lyceums.

In 1824 was organized the Boston Lyceum with Daniel Webster as its first president. The avowed purpose of this lyceum was to foster "associations of adults for the purpose of mutual education."

The man responsible for the development of the lyceum program was Josiah Holbrook, a farmer and traveling lecturer-teacher. A graduate of Yale, he in 1819 opened on his farm one of the first American schools teaching a popularized form of natural science. In the early 1820's

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[1] Mary L. Ely (editor), Adult Education in Action, "The American Lyceum," by Louis J. Alber (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 71-74.

he gave up this school in favor of becoming a traveling lecturer on geology. As he passed through the various villages, he was ever increasingly impressed with two outstanding facts: first, the enthusiastic reception accorded him; and secondly, the obvious hunger of the people for information on any interesting subject.

Holbrook organized his first lyceum at Millbury, Massachusetts, in 1824, from forty farmers and mechanics who had attended one of his lectures.. After this initial experiment, the lyceum movement spread rapidly, and, within twenty years, more than three thousand of these town organizations were formed.

The next step after the formation of town lyceums was the development of larger organizations for counties and other large territories. The first county lyceum was started at Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1827. New York was the first to organize a state lyceum. The first National Lyceum Convention was assembled in New York City in 1831, and met annually for eight years, the number of delegates varying from around sixty to one hundred.

As a matter of fact, Mr. Holbrook even visualized an international lyceum, with Chancellor Brougham of England as president, and with fifty-two vice presidents, each representing a nation. This scheme, however, never materialized.

The programs of these early lyceums included debates, discussions of town problems, reading of essays on the natural sciences and other interesting subjects, lectures, et cetera. At first local talent was utilized without reimbursement, but as interest in the movement widened, speakers of more than local reputation were brought in. From this grew a system of travelling lecturers, among them many of national fame--Webster, Emerson, Henry Ward Beecher, to mention only a few of the most outstanding of the speakers. Fees for these men ranged from five dollars asked by Emerson to one thousand dollars received in 1880 by Beecher.

In the two decades before the Civil War, lyceums provided an excellent medium for discussion of the various national and sectional problems then current. Many of the early abolitionists, denied the use of the press and the pulpit, found the lecture platform a good place from which to expound their views. Other movements making good use of lyceums were the temperance and womans' suffrage groups.

After the Civil War the lecture system took on new life and widened interests. In 1868 was organized the first lecture bureau, in Boston, for the systematic booking of speakers. This venture proving a success, many other bureaus developed both throughout the United States and Canada.

In 1940 lyceum movement was still thriving to a

certain extent, although it had been generally supplanted by more modern forms of entertainment and public instruction. The entertainment feature of lyceums has become generally better known to the younger generations than the educational side of the movement, since so many developments--high-speed printing of books and other matter to be sold cheaply, the radio, motion pictures, et cetera--have largely removed the necessity for travelling lecturers going from town to town to personally address public gatherings.

II. CHAUTAUQUAS[2]

The Chautauqua was a development of post-Civil War days, when new problems were arising to confront the people. These days were times which witnessed the growth of multitudes of social, economic, and political problems never dreamed of in past years, when the country was still primarily agricultural instead of industrial, as was the case after the war. The growth of these new conditions created a demand for greater public enlightenment concerning them, and the Chautauqua was one of the movements developed to meet

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[2] Mary L. Ely (editor), Adult Education in Action, "The Chautauqua Movement," by Arthur E. Bestor, Jr. (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 74-75.

the demand.

The Chautauqua was founded in 1874 by Lewis Miller, a Sunday School worker, and Bishop John H. Vincent of the Methodist Church. The movement was launched primarily as a means of training Sunday School teachers, the training to be carried on in summer institutes lasting two or more weeks. By 1876 the training period had been lengthened to twenty-four days, and the "curriculum" had been greatly expanded to include a variety of secular subjects which were of general public interest.

While the Chautauqua program was expanding to include all subjects of public interest, it was developing a variety of methods for carrying on the work. The Chautauqua plan was first extended beyond the limits of the summer institute in 1878, when the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle--fundamentally a four-year course in directed home reading--was organized. This program enjoyed great popularity, especially in the Middle West, and did much to popularize education.

Less successful branches of the general movement were the Chautauqua School of Theology and the Chautauqua University, the latter designed to carry on correspondence study and instruction.

It will thus be noted that the Chautauqua pioneered in developing three very important phases of adult education

--summer schools, or institutes, directed home reading, and correspondence study.

The name "Chautauqua" has been appropriated by a variety of activities functioning more or less educationally (as well as along recreation lines), but which have not been connected in any way with the original Chautauqua Institute.

The Chautauqua Institute of 1940 consisted of three main branches: (1) the Institute held at Lake Chautauqua, State of New York, during July and August of each; (2) various summer schools; (3) and the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. The summer Institute featured lectures, concerts, drama, and recreational facilities of all sorts. The summer schools offered a variety of academic subjects for which New York University allowed credit toward baccalaureate and advanced degrees. Other courses, classed as general Adult Education, did not carry college credit.

III. THE FREE LECTURE SYSTEM OF NEW YORK[3]

This program of adult education was instituted in New York State by legislative enactment in 1888, and enjoyed

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[3] Mary L. Ely, Adult Education in Action, "The Free Lecture System of New York," by Benare W. Overstreet (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 76-78.

great popularity well into the next two decades, during a period in which people generally were beginning to manifest greatly increased interest in the natural sciences and in many other problems of more than local importance.

Courses enjoying the greatest popularity dealt with sciences and invention, first aid, general and American history, and travel. Extensive use was made of graphic experiments and demonstrations, especially in the field of electricity and photography. Later, motion pictures were used to illustrate travel talks.

By 1904,when the Lecture System had reached its pinnacle of success and popularity, the year's schedule included 4,665 lectures which were attended by 1,134,000 adults. As with other adult education programs of early days, the Free Lecture System enjoyed a period of great success until supplanted by other more modern forms of public enlightenment, but, in common with the other programs, it clearly demonstrated the need and desire of adults for education beyond that received during childhood.

CHAPTER IV

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS AND MOVEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES

I. INCEPTION OF A FORMAL ADULT EDUCATION MOVEMENT[1]

To Frederick P. Keppel, appointed president of the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1923, should go a large share of the credit for the American emphasis on and interest in adult education. As soon as he was appointed to the presidency, he began to evolve a foundation program which was to include not only those activities already accepted as proper avenues for the expenditure of Corporation funds, but also other activities anticipating future trends in American life.

In June of 1924, in New York City, was assembled the first conference on adult education. The calling of this conference was in part motivated by the development of adult education activities in several European countries, notably Great Britain. In the latter country, noticeable interest in formal adult education had been manifested

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[1] Morse A. Cartwright, "The Formal Inception of the Movement," Ten Years of Adult Education (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1935), Chapter III.

as early as 1919, largely as the result of recommendations made in the educational portion of the British Ministry of Reconstruction Report of 1919. In 1923 there appeared in England a series of monographs called collectively "The Way Out", in which were considered various aspects of adult education. This volume was received almost without notice in America, although a few American educators, among them Mr. Keppel, studied it with great interest. The question then arose as to whether there was evident in the United States any similar interest in and movements toward formal adult education. Since, however, there existed at that time no way of accurately estimating the problem, the first adult education conference was called to make a preliminary survey of the situation.

The Advisory Committee of this first conference was composed of a number of outstanding educators and public men, among whom were the following:

1. Chairman of the conference, Dean James E. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, and probably one of the most advanced men in the field of extended educational thought.

2. Dr. Charles A. Beard, writer and professor

3. Dr. Everett Dean Martin, head of the People's Institute of the Cooper Union of New York.

4. Dr. Alfred E. Cohn, medical research expert

of the Rockefeller Institute

5. C. R. Dooley, personnel manager and educational director of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey

6. E. C. Lindeman, teacher and writer on sociological subjects

7. John C. Dana, librarian of the Newark Public Library

8. Mrs. John C. Campbell, organizer of educational activities among the southern "poor whites"

9. William Allen White, of Kansas

10. Dr. Clark Wissler, of the American Museum of Natural History

As a result of this group's deliberations, the Carnegie Corporation decided to take up a sweeping investigation of the Country's then existing adult education facilities and programs. In order, however, to make the investigation more thorough, it was decided to limit the scope of research to a comparatively few fields, but to scrutinize these fields very closely. For example, the initial studies were limited to non-vocational activities. In addition, certain activities --newspapers, radio, magazines and periodicals, motion pictures--were omitted from the study because of their too indefinite and changeable nature. Also, special problems such as the education of special races and groups (Negro, Indian, Southern mountain whites) were left to be considered at a

later date. From an original list of nearly fifty types of adult education activities there were selected a half-dozen for the preliminary investigation.

Investigation into these activities brought forth so much factual material that repeated meetings of the advisory council were required to deal with the facts. The conviction grew that there existed common bonds of interest between all the widely divergent adult education activities then being carried on, and, as a result of this growing conviction, a national conference on adult education was called in the Fall of 1925, at Cleveland. A unanimous conclusion of this conference was that the facts revealed by the advisory council concerning the extent of interest in adult education activities warranted the formation of a national body designed to coordinate the various local and regional programs. The Cleveland conference decided, moreover, that, before a national body was formed, it would be well for a series of regional meetings to be held in which active adult education workers could assemble and express their opinions as to how a national body should be constituted.

The first regional meetings convened at New York City in November of 1925, and was followed by other regional gatherings at San Francisco in February of 1926, at Nashville in the same month, and at Chicago in March,

1926. Each of these groups favored the formation of a national body, or association, and a committee of seven was selected to attend a national meeting to organize such an association.

This second national conference was held at Chicago on March 26 and 27, 1926, and was presided over by Director Leon J. Richardson of the University of California Extension Division. Out of this conference came the American Association for Adult Education. The object of this Association, as stated in Article II of the constitution was as follows:

> Its object shall be to promote the development and improvement of adult education in the United States and to cooperate with similar associations in other countries. It shall undertake to provide for the gathering and dissemination of information concerning adult education aims and methods of work; to keep its members informed concerning the achievements and problems of adult education in other countries; to conduct a continuous study of work being done in this field and to publish from time to time the results of such study; to respond to public interest in adult education and particularly to cooperate with community group activities in this field, in the formation of study groups whether within or without regular educational institutions; and in other ways to cooperate with organizations and individuals engaged in educational work of this nature in the task of securing books and instructors; and to serve in such other ways as may be deemed advisable.[2]

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[2] Ibid., p. 17.

The Association was organized with a Council of one hundred and an Executive Board of eighteen, the duties of the latter being to employ officers and to take charge generally of the work and functioning of the body.

The organization was financed through an initial five-year grant of $137,500 made by the Carnegie Corporation.

II. ACTIVITIES OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION SINCE ITS INCEPTION[3]

The activities of the American Association for adult education are best summed up in its yearly reports, the essence of which follows:

1926-1927. A year of general organization and exploration, and functioning as a clearing house for general adult education information

1927-1928. Active contacts established and maintained with more than four hundred adult education organizations, each of more than local scope. Development of the Association's policy as one trying to explain, interpret,

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[3] Morse A. Cartwright, "The American Association for Adult," Ten Years of Adult Education (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1935), Chapter IV.

and clarify adult education, but only to propagandize to a limited extent.

1928-1929. Most important progress of this year, publication of the Journal of Adult Education to be continued as a monthly magazine appealing especially to adult education organizers, teachers, and administrators.

1929-1930. Extension of membership in the Association to "citizens interested in education" as well as to prefessional educators. Membership in 1930 was around one thousand.

1931-1932. During this year the Association concerned itself with the economic and social crises then confronting the country. Some of the outstanding activities were: (1) Conducting of studies on adult education in industry, (2) Sponsorship of a conference on "re-education Problems Arising From Technological Unemployment", (3) Studies in occupational education, (4) Organization of the National Occupational Conference, and (5) Initiation of an Adjustment Service for the unemployed of New York City.

1932-1933. No special developments

1933-1934. A general reaffirmation of the purposes and principles of the Association. The year's report says in part:

> We remain a clearing house for information about adult education, a medium for publication, an agency for the sponsorship, and, in rare cases

> only, the conduct of studies, researches, experiments, and demonstrations in the methods and techniques of aiding adults to educate themselves . . . .
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> It is our function to be of service to American adult education to the utmost limit of available personnel and financial resources. In the light of the recent unprecedented growth in volume of adult education in the United States, it is evident that performance of the task before the Association will tax the ingenuity of its leaders. Never-ending emphasis upon quality and stern disapprobation both of shoddiness and of those who would use the movement for ulterior purposes should continue to be our guide stones.[4]

III. OTHER RECENT FORMS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

1. Correspondence schools.[5] This type of work is carried on both by colleges and universities and by private schools; the work done by the colleges and universities was considered separately as college extension work.

The first private correspondence school noted in the United States was an organization called the Society

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[4] Ibid., p. 28.

[5] Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1934 (New York: The American Association for Adult Education), pp. 52-53.

to Encourage Studies at Home, set up in 1873. In 1883, a Correspondence University was organized at Ithaca, New York. Since that time there have sprung up literally dozens of similar institutions doing correspondence work. Probably the best known of modern correspondence schools is the International Correspondence Schools of Scranton, Pennsylvania, organized in 1891.

The clientele of correspondence schools runs into the hundreds of thousands, and the benefit received from taking the work depends to a great extent upon the character of those who operate the various institutions. Some subjects lend themselves fairly well to correspondence study while others, by their very nature, cannot be studied thus with any degree of success. Generally speaking, adult educators have frowned upon education through correspondence except in certain cases, notably the supervision of directed reading courses, et cetera.

2. University extension programs.[6,7] This type

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[6] Mary L. Ely, Adult Education in Action (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 130-134.

[7] Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1934 (New York: The American Association for Adult Education), pp. 254-272.

of adult education may be carried on through correspondence, or in regular classes meeting at some convenient time and place.

Courses offered by colleges and universities through correspondence cover a wide range of subjects, including the laboratory sciences and courses for advanced students. The techniques and materials used in correspondence teaching are, as a rule, quite similar to those of residence study. A study of the results of correspondence study indicated that, in many instances, correspondence teaching could be as effective as classroom instruction. Many teachers championed this method of teaching because of the possibilities of adaptation to special conditions, as well as because such procedure would fit with the new conceptions of emphasizing individual instruction.

Records indicate that around 70 per cent of those enrolling in university correspondence courses are able to complete their work. As to grades, the indications are that those taking at least part of their work by correspondence average higher marks than those taking all their work in residence.

Extension classes offered by universities were generally available in a wide range of subjects, depending upon popular demand and available facilities. Classes were held either at the university at night or

any other desirable time, or convened at any suitable center readily accessible to the students. Instructors were usually regular faculty members, and the quality of teaching was virtually the same as that of resident instruction.

3. Public libraries and adult education.[8,9] The public libraries' contributions to adult education was divided into the following four general services:

1. Individual counseling on books and reading, and maintenance of reading lists and readers' advisory services.

2. Sponsorship of public interest in the various arts, through exhibits, talks, et cetera.

3. Sponsorship of book reviews, music and art programs, and similar activities.

4. Cooperation with clubs, schools, and other educational institutions in the provision of reading lists, meeting places, speakers, and in generally aiding in publicizing the activities of these groups.

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[8] Ely, op. cit., pp. 92-99.

[9] Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1934, op. cit., pp. 70-97.

4. Rural adult education.[10,11] An entire thesis could be devoted to the various phases of rural adult education, but here only a few of the outstanding activities were considered.

The basis of agricultural extension work in the United States is the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, which provides for cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics. The principal provision of this act was that all land-grant colleges were obligated to carry on agriculture extension work in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture. According to agreement, each college pools all available funds for agriculture instruction into a single division at the college, with a director appointed by the school officials and approved by the Department of Agriculture.

For those, constituting a great majority, who are unable to attend actual class sessions at the colleges, contact with the state and Federal agriculture program is made through the regular county agents and special workers.

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[10] Ely, op. cit., pp. 100-102.

[11] Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1934, op. cit., pp. 1-15.

A good county agent must be a good business man, a leader of men, must be well grounded in all phases of his work. His work may be carried on to a certain extent through personal and individual contacts and demonstrations, but it is most effectively done through mass instruction at special meetings, county fairs, et cetera. A very vital part of his task is the development and fostering of a cooperative spirit among those in his district. The fact that this spirit of cooperation has developed to so high a level is one of the best things to come out of the entire extension program.

a. Some agencies of rural adult education.[12] Aside from the county agents and other special workers connected with state programs, there were, as in the cities, a number of agencies carrying on, more or less successfully, the task of rural adult education. First were the schools, which frequently served as centers for adult activities, and which also aided the cause of adult education through instilling in children the conception of education as a continuing process throughout life. Next were the libraries; while rural library facilities were still far from what might be desired, great advances had been made along the

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[12] Mary L. Ely (editor) Adult Education in Action, "The A B C of Rural Education," by Kenyon L. Butterfield (New York: The American Association for Adult Education, 1936), pp. 212-215.

line of county and travelling libraries, and in package service from college and state libraries. Other agencies for promoting rural adult education were the various farmers' organizations, such as the Grange, which were featuring more and more of educational programs. Other factors tending to spread adult education in rural districts were the radio, newspaper, motion picture, drama, and other facilities the result of modern invention. The development of the automobile and attendant good roads opened to rural dwellers a host of new opportunities just through the ability to get into town easily and quickly to attend events which could never reach them at home.

IV. THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION[13]

Federal aid to education was rather consistent for the years 1914-1940. In 1914, Congress enacted the Smith-Lever Agricultural Extension Act, and in 1917 the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, both laws aiding very materially the progress of adult education in the United States. Under the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act and

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[13] United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation, Foreword, Bulletin Number 15, 1933, p. ix.

subsequent relevant legislation, agricultural extension work increased to the extent of involving a yearly expenditure of more than $20,000,000. In the same way, the Smith-Hughes Act and subsequent laws brought into being a vocational education program costing the states and the Federal governments in excess of $30,000,000 annually, and reaching more than 1,000,000 persons enrolled as students. For vocational rehabilitation work, an extra $2,000,000 has been spent annually. The main thing to be noted behind all this work has been the cooperation of the state and Federal governments in the control and administration of the various phases of the programs.

Under the general heading "The Federal Government and Adult Education" has been considered some of the most important pieces of Congressional legislation, along with more developments in the various emergency education programs. Following are the most important Federal laws dealing with adult education.

1. The Smith-Lever Act, approved May 8, 1914:[14]

a. Purpose of the Act: To provide cooperative agricultural extension work between the agricultural colleges in the several States . . . . and the United States Department of Agriculture.

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[14] United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, op. cit., Appendix I, pp. 257-259.

b. Specific provisions. Section 1. Cooper- agricultural extension work may be inaugurated in the state agricultural colleges which will be carried on in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture.

Section 2. Cooperative agricultural extension work shall consist of giving instructions and demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to those persons not attending the state agricultural colleges. Information is to be dispensed through field demonstrations, publications, and other media of public enlightenment.

Section 3. To pay the expenses of this work, the following financial grants are provided: (1) A yearly appropriation of $480,000 of which $10,000 goes to each state assenting to the Act; (2) An additional appropriation of $600,000 for the fiscal year in which the $480,000 first becomes available, and each year for the next seven years, a sum exceeding by $5,000,000 the sum appropriated for the preceding year; (3) For each year thereafter, the annual sum of $4,100,000 is to be allowed in addition to the $480,000 already mentioned as the basis appropriation.

2. The Smith-Hughes Act, approved February 23, 1917.[15]

a. Purpose of the Act: To provide for the

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[15] United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, op. cit., Appendix IV, pp. 263-272.

promotion of vocational education; to provide for cooperation with the states in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; to provide for cooperation with the states in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and to appropriate money and regulate its expenditure.[16]

b. Specific provisions. Section 1. Be it enacted . . . . that there is hereby annually appropriated . . . . the sums provided in sections two, three, and four of this act, to be paid to the respective States for the purpose of cooperating with the States in paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects, and teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, and in the preparation of teachers of agricultural, trade, industrial, and home economics subjects; and the sum provided for in section seven for the use of the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the administration of this act and for the purpose of making studies, investigations, and reports to aid in the organization and conduct of vocational education. Which sum shall be expended as hereinafter provided.

Section 2. To help the States in paying salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of the agricultural courses, there is appropriated $500,000 for the year 1918; $750,000 for 1919; $1,000,000 for 1920; $1,250,000 for 1921; $1,500,000 for 1922; $1,750,000 for 1923; for 1926 and annually thereafter, the sum of $3,000,000. These moneys are to be allotted to the various States on the basis of the proportion of each State's farm (rural) population to the rural population of the entire country. After 1923, no State's share of the annual appropriation shall amount to less

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16 Ibid., Paragraph 1, p. 263.

than $10,000.

Section 3. To aid in paying the salaries of teachers, directors, and administrators of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, same appropriations and provisions as for agricultural teachers. The sums to be allotted to the States are given on the basis of the ratio of each State's urban population to that of the entire country. Not more than 20 per cent of any money appropriated may be used in any one year for the salaries of home economics teachers.

Section 4. For the purpose of aiding the States in the training of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects and teachers of trade and industrial and home economics subjects, the following appropriations are made: $500,000 for 1918; $700,000 for 1919; $900,000 for 1920; 1921 and annually thereafter, $1,000,000. Sums to be allotted to the States according to population ratios.

Section 5. For any State to enjoy the benefits of Sections 2, 3, and 4, its legislature must set up a State Board of not less than three members who are empowered to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in administering the act. Each State may accept the benefits of any one or more of the respective funds mentioned, and may vaive the benefits of other funds.

Section 6. A Federal Board for Vocational Education is created, consisting of the Secretaries of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor; the United States Commissioner of Education; and three citizens appointed by the President. One of these citizens shall represent labor, another commerce and industry, and the third agriculture. The duties of the Board are to cooperate with the States in carrying out the provisions of the act; to make or cause to be made studies, investigations, reports, et cetera, with special emphasis on their use in establishing vocational schools and classes.

Section 7. An annual appropriation of $200,000 is allowed for the operating expenses of the Federal Board.

Section 8. In order for any State to secure the benefits of this act, the State Board must prepare and submit to the Federal Board for approval, plans showing the types of vocational education for which the money is to be used, the kinds of schools and equipment, courses of study, methods of instruction, qualifications of teachers, teacher-training programs, et cetera.

Section 9. Federal appropriations shall be used only for the purposes stated--payment of teachers' salaries and training. All other incidental expenses must be borne by the States and localities. Special condition for the reception of Federal money--each dollar of Federal money

must be matched by a dollar of local and State money, both for payment of teachers' salaries and for teacher training.

Section 10 and 11. For all types of instruction covered by this act, the work must be of less than college level and must be offered to those above 14 years of age who already have entered upon (or intend to enter upon) the type of employment for which they desire training. In vocational training, the field may be expanded to include other subjects offered to "enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence." Part-time schools and classes must offer not less than 144 hours of class room instruction per year. Evening industrial schools shall fix 16 years as the minimum entrance requirement and shall confine instruction to those subjects that are supplemental to daily employment.

Section 12. For any State to receive the benefits of the teacher training provisions, the State Board shall submit for approval by the Federal Board plans showing that such training can be provided in schools and classes under public supervision, and that such training shall be given only to those persons already having adequate vocational experience or contact with the line of work for which they are studying, or who are acquiring such experience as a part of their training.

Section 18. The Federal Board is required to make an annual report to Congress concerning the administration

of the act and the expenditure of all Federal funds allotted to the States.

3. Vocational Rehabilitation Act, June 2, 1920.[17]

a. Purpose of the Act. To provide for the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment.

b. Principal provisions. Section 1. In order to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or in any legitimate occupation and their return to civil employment there is hereby appropriated for the use of the States . . . for the purpose of cooperating with them in the maintenance of vocational rehabilitation of such disabled persons and in returning vocationally rehabilitated persons to civil employment for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1921, the sum of $750,000; for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, and thereafter for a period of two years, the sum of $1,000,000 annually. . . .

c. Special provisions. (1) Federal funds must be matched, dollar for dollar, by State money. (2) All Federal funds must be used solely for administrative purposes and expenses, and not for buildings, equipment, et cetera, the latter being furnished in all cases by the States. (3) All vocational rehabilitation courses shall be available to any civil employee of the United States who is disabled in the performance of his duty.

Section 2. The term "disabled person" shall

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[17] United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin Number 15, pp. 276-280.

be construed as referring to any person either now unemployable or expected to be unemployable because of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or the result of accident or disease. The term "rehabilitation" is understood to mean the rendering of such disabled persons capable of engaging in remunerative employment.

The following tables indicate the extent of Federal participation in all types of vocational education in the years 1918-1933.

TABLE VI*

EXPENDITURES FOR ALL TYPES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TEACHER TRAINING, BY YEARS--FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL FUNDS COMBINED

Type of Activity	Year Ending June 30th		
	1918	1920	1933
Total	$3,039,061	$8,535,164	$30,022,938
Agricultural education	739,933	2,437,286	9,468,546
Trade and industrial education	1,536,439	3,396,727	13,614,736
Home economics	334,549	1,054,489	4,677,736
Teacher training	428,140	1,646,662	2,261,982

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United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation, Bulletin Number 15, Table II, p. 212.

TABLE VII*

EXPENDITURES OF FEDERAL FUNDS ONLY, FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TEACHER TRAINING

Type of Activity	Year Ending June 30th		
	1918	1920	1933
Total	$832,427	$2,476,505	$7,728,245
Agricultural education	273,282	889,886	3,364,441
Trade and industrial education	307,375	699,645	2,298,676
Home economics	57,774	155,768	1,116,077
Teacher training	193,996	731,204	949,051

*United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation, Bulletin Number 15, Table III, p. 213.

V. THE FEDERAL EMERGENCY ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM[18]

1. Development of the program. The Emergency Education Program was started in the Fall of 1933, and was intended primarily to put people to work and to find jobs for thousands of teachers then on relief rolls. The program was first designed to aid primarily certain rural schools which were in imminent danger of having to close unless outside assistance were not made available. In September of 1933 the program

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18 Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1936 (New York: The American Association for Adult Education), pp. 28-53.

was expanded to include general adult education, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation. In October, nursery schools were added to the program. In December, a monthly fund of $2,000,000 was set aside for the hiring of 40,000 unemployed teachers. In this formative period, the education program suffered considerably from frequent poor quality of instruction, lack of proper supervision and properly formulated state programs, insufficiency of instruction materials, et cetera. As the work progressed, however, there began to be a noticeable improvement in the functioning of the program and quality of teaching; in special fields, policies of instruction and administration were worked out by national committees, activities being planned so as not to conflict with those of the regular public schools. Two staff members of the United States Office of Education were lent to the Relief Administration, which also added to its education department specialists in workers' education, nursery schools, and parent education.

Following are the six lines of education embarked upon by the Federal Education Relief Administration as the foundation upon which the entire education program rested:

1. Literacy education. One of the first objectives set up in 1933, because of a national illiteracy percentage of 4.3 per cent. Classes were held in schools,

churches, and in all other available centers. Teaching materials were designed to supplement and correlate with the learners' daily work and experiences. In April, 1935, there were nearly nine thousand teachers on the literacy program, with more than 292,000 enrolled in their classes.

2. General adult education. Under this heading were included practically all subjects offered in grade and high schools, and colleges. Local officials attempt to offer any subject for which there was sufficient demand, and for which a qualified teacher was available. In April, 1935, there were nearly twenty-one thousand general adult teachers with over 900,000 enrollees.

3. Parent education. Organized by 1934. In June of that year, twenty states reported more than one thousand study groups consisting of over 28,000 parents. The parent education program was developed to meet two specific needs: (1) need of parents for training in how to deal with special economic and social problems created or intensified through the depression. (2) Need of unemployed teachers, social workers, and others to render socially constructive services.

4. Workers' education. Defined as a program offering to industrial, commercial, domestic, and agricultural workers a variety of opportunities to "train themselves in clear thinking through the study of those questions

closely related to their daily lives as workers and as citizens." The chief objective of the program was the stimulation of active and continuing interest in current economic and social problems, with a view to the development of a sense of personal responsibility for their solution.

5. Vocational education. A primary purpose of vocational education has been to reduce the number of unemployables by giving them some sort of specific vocational or trade training. Five different fields were included under this general heading:

(a). Trade and industrial education

(b). Home economics education--includes instruction in foods, clothing, child care, home management, and related subjects

(c). Agricultural education--offered to those not reached by regular state vocational agriculture programs

(d). Commercial education

(e). Vocational adjustment and counseling

6. Nursery schools. Intended for the benefit of pre-school age children.

2. Works Progress Administration and adult education.[19]

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[19] Ibid., pp. 36-38.

The Works Progress Adminstration was set up in 1935, with a Federal appropriation of $4,800,000,000, and Harry L. Hopkins, Relief Administrator of New York City, was appointed Administrator. The Federal Education Relief Administration's education program was retained, with the following added features:

a. Federal Writers' Project. Included in Professional and Service Projects of the Works Progress Administration. The chief work undertaken by this group was the assembling and publication of the "American Guide" which was described as "a comprehensive guide to the United States, arranged by states, cities, and counties."

b. Federal Art Project. The primary objective was the employment of artists on relief rolls, although up to 10 per cent may be taken from non-relief whenever necessary.

c. Federal Music Project

d. Federal Theater Project

3. The Civilian Conservation Corps.[20] The Civilian Conservation Corps was established in the Spring of 1933 for the purpose of putting unemployed young men to useful work in forestry, soil conservation, et cetera.

Educational courses conducted in the camps were classified as elementary, high school, vocational, and general.

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[20] Ibid., pp. 38-40

No courses were compulsory, but the enrollees were urged to take advantage of all existing opportunities. A great deal of work in literacy was done.

CHAPTER V

SPECIAL STATE PROGRAMS

I. ADULT EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE

Adult education in the state of New York has been carried on as a part of the regular school system since at least 1921. From 1921-1927, the program was financed according to the "fifty-fifty" law, by which local communities were reimbursed by the state to the extent of one-half the money paid in teachers' salaries, with the provise that the state should not pay more than $1,000 towards any one teacher's salary. Since August of 1927, there has operated the so-called equalization law, whereby all special quotas have been virtually abolished. The chief difference between the two ways of financing the program was that local boards of education had more power in widening the scope of work than under the special quota system.[1]

The following table of statistics for the year 1929-1930 shows the enrollment in adult education classes in the state according to general subject fields.[2]

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[1] Caroline A. Whipple, "The State Education Department and Adult Education," Adult Education (Albany: The University of the State of New York), Part II, p. 19.

[2] Ibid., Part VI, p. 35.

TABLE VIII

ENROLLMENT IN ADULT EDUCATION CLASSES, 1929-1930

	Men	Women	Total
Immigrant education	36,005	32,337	68,382
Elementary education	4,011	2,148	6,159
Academic courses	31,195	21,985	53,180
Commercial education	6,352	12,097	18,449
Industrial and technical education	24,400	7,555	31,995
Home economics	23	8,051	8,074
Miscellaneous	3,347	2,156	5,503
Total	105,333	86,369	191,702

1. Immigrant education. As the above figures indicate, the heaviest enrollment throughout the state was in immigrant classes teaching literacy and Americanization. This can be more easily understood when it is realized that more than a third of the state's population is of mixed or foreign parentage. According to the Census of 1920, more than 250,000 were totally unable to speak English, and more than 400,000 were illiterates unable to write in any language. The work in immigrant education is therefore concerned with the teaching of English and the preparation of aliens for citizenship. English classes were of varying grades to take care of the different educational levels of those who attended them. The State Education Department had available for these classes suitable printed courses of study, as well

as miscellaneous aids for both students and teachers. In order to check on this branch of the state adult education program, the State Education Department, which is responsible for administering the election laws pertaining to literacy, prepares and sends out literacy tests to all school districts--for state and national elections in the fall and for local elections as needed. In 1929-1930, these tests were taken by more than 56,000 new voters, of whom nearly 50,000 passed and received literacy certificates. A further feature of the state's literacy program is the maintenance of neighborhood and home classes for foreign women who work at night, or who are otherwise prevented from attending the regular classes. In 1928-1930 there were 1,143 men and 10,940 women enrolled in these classes. As for teacher qualifications for teaching immigrant education, there were three courses required: (1) methods of teaching English to foreign-born adults; (2) immigrant backgrounds; and (3) American political institutions and government. In 1930, 672 teachers had passed these courses and were qualified to teach immigrant education.[3]

As mentioned above, neighborhood and home classes are arranged for those (especially women) who are unable

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[3] Caroline A. Whipple, "Immigrant Education," Adult Education (Albany: University of the State of New York, May, 1931), Part VI, pp. 35-36.

to attend regular school sessions. These home classes were originated in Syracuse in 1918. The essential facts concerning the organization and operation of these classes are as follows:

a. Members of classes secured through visitations, and securing of names from special organizations dealing with immigrants.

b. Classes held in available school rooms, settlement rooms, community houses, day nurseries and libraries, rooms in vacant buildings, public parks, private houses, et cetera.

c. Class sessions lasted from 30 minutes to two hours, from 3-4 times per week. Best hours were 9:30-11:30 A.M. and 3-5 P.M., and also evening classes.

d. Classes contained from 3-10 pupils when held in private homes, and up to twenty or more when held in neighborhood centers.

e. Interest and attendance held through various social activities, such as presentation of short plays, celebration of national holidays and other festive occasions, staging of exhibits, demonstrations, community

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[4] Elizabeth A. Woodward, Educational Opportunities for Women From Other Lands (Albany: University of the State of New York Bulletin, September 15, 1920), pp. 5-21.

singings, et cetera.

f. Topics generally discussed: general care of the home, preparation and serving of food, clothing, general child care, intellectual and moral development, the mother's relations with the school, the mother and the neighborhood, the mother and the larger community, simple arithmetic used in daily life, general topics contributing to patriotism and citizenship.

2. Elementary education. The term "elementary education" is used to include the common branches of learning--English, geography, history, civics, arithmetic, et cetera. The pupils enrolled in these classes were both native and foreign in extraction--persons who found need in their daily life for this knowledge, or who were planning to enter a day or an evening high school. A criticism was made by the writer (Caroline A. Whipple) that these classes were not as yet conducted in the most efficient manner. She felt that the teaching methods were not sufficiently adult in character, but, rather, were "weak editions of day school courses . . . . with no attempt to adapt them to needs of adults."[5]

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[5] C. A. Whipple, Adult Education (Albany: University of the State of New York Bulletin, May 15, 1931), pp. 36, 37.

3. Industrial and technical education. As indicated in a preceding table, there were in the year 1929-1930 enrolled nearly 32,000 persons in vocational classes. This type of adult education is administered under the following divisions:

a. Agricultural education. During the school year of 1936, there were 9,614 students in attendance in all types of classes and schools teaching some phase of agriculture. Five thousand two hundred fifty of this number were taking full-time work in 213 high school agriculture departments; 3,600 were enrolled in short-term winter courses offered at various high school centers; 572 were enrolled in full-time classes at the state agriculture colleges; and 192 were enrolled in special courses offered by these same schools.[6]

Statistics concerning the occupations of those enrolled in the various agriculture courses offered by the state indicate that 52.1 per cent were, at the time of study, actively engaged in farming or some allied occupation. More than one third of this number owned or rented farms, half had inherited their property, and

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[6] Report of the Vocational and Extension Education Division, for the School Year Ending June 30, 1936 (University of State of New York Bulletin), p. 138.

about one fifth were hired laborers.[7]

The state of New York maintained six schools of agriculture, of which the one at Farmingdale was cited as an example. At this institute courses were offered both in general and specialized farming, as well as in allied trades--landscaping, care of machinery, food handling, et cetera. Special emphasis was placed on application of technical knowledge and new methods, and in the management and marketing of produce. The curriculum covered two full years, in which were featured general farming, livestock and dairy farming, poultry raising, fruit growing, and vegetable gardening. During the summer (April-October) arrangements were made to apprentice a number of the students out on selected farms in order to give practical application of principles studied in classwork. Special services of the institute included special lectures and exhibits, provision of poultry disease laboratory service, general extension services offered by the teaching staff, sponsorship of various contests, and other similar services.[8]

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[7] Ibid., p. 140.

[8] Report of the Vocational and Extension Education Division, for the School Year Ending June 30, 1936 (Albany: University of the State of New York Bulletin, January 3, 1938), pp. 141-143.

b. Industrial and technical education. The following figures indicate the enrollment in the various industrial classes offered by the state, for the year 1935-1936.[9]

TABLE IX

THE ENROLMENT IN THE VARIOUS INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, CLASSES, AND COURSES IN NEW YORK STATE

Schools, Classes, and Courses	Enrolment
General industrial schools	649
Trade schools and industrial high school	56,497
Technical high schools	13,520
Part-time cooperative schools	2,404
Apprentice training schools	7,018
Trade extension schools	7,576
Part-time schools	56,250
Industrial arts classes	207,127

(I). General industrial schools. These institutions are vocational schools established to prepare for entrance into semi-skilled vocations those young people fourteen years old or more, who have completed at least the sixth grade. These schools are organized on both junior and senior high school levels, and provide programs of guidance, industrial training, and general education. The curriculum consists of a six hour day in which the time is

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[9] Ibid., p. 144.

divided equally between practical shop work and general and related subjects. The practical work is general in nature, and the students are trained in a number of fields in which employment opportunities exist. Entire trades are not taught in the general industrial schools, since the students are largely young people hindered by mental limitations from ever becoming really skilled workers. Pupils are not required to pass Regents examinations in any subject in order to receive certificates of graduation. The desirability of these institutions has been more widely recognized as a means of caring for those young people who have been unable either to attend regular high or trade schools, or who, for other reasons, have not gained from work taken in such schools.[10]

(II). Trade schools and industrial high schools. These schools are vocational in nature, and have for their purpose the training of young people (fourteen years and older, who have completed the sixth grade) for entrance into the skilled trades and crafts. The courses are two years in length, during which time entire trades are taught which prepare the students to the rating of skilled

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[10] Report of the Vocational and Extension Education Division, for the School Year Ending June 30, 1936 (Albany: University of the State of New York Bulletin, January 3, 1938), pp. 144 and 145.

labor.[11]

(III). Technical high schools. The general aim of these schools is to give a broad education in mathematics, science, and technology in a given field. The aim is also to establish a close relation between each of these subjects so as to give integrated instruction in the vocation in question. Along with the strictly technical courses offered in these schools, other subjects--English, civics, history, economics, et cetera--are given which emphasize the various economic relationships in modern industry. Some of the subjects offered in these schools include architecture, electricity, industrial chemistry, structural design, general handcrafts, graphic arts, et cetera. The success of these courses is indicated in a study made by the principal of Brooklyn Technical High School of the degree of success enjoyed by 660 graduates who entered college; he found that, of these 660, only 4.4 per cent failed to survive the first year in college after graduating from the high school.[12]

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[11] Ibid., pp. 145-146.

[12] Ibid., pp. 147-149.

(IV). Cooperative part-time education.

For several years prior to 1936, the great number of unemployed high school graduates willing to take the sort of jobs formerly filled by younger people was a factor in reducing the number of available jobs for the cooperative pupils. By 1936, however, changing business conditions had created a slight increase in the demand for cooperative part-time students. This condition was especially apparent in the distributive industries. During 1936 there was established in the Textile High School of New York City a unit of cooperative part-time work, which improved both the pupils and the work done.[13]

4. Other adult education services in New York State. Other adult education services offered by New York State include the following:

a. Industrial Service Bureau. Purpose, assisting those in authority in factories and elsewhere to organize training courses which improve relations between workers and employers[14]

b. Bureaus of educational and vocational guidance.

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13 Ibid., p. 150.

14 Ibid., pp. 150-151.

Found in cities of 100,000 population and over.[15]

c. Training of industrial teachers in vocational industrial, vocational technical, and industrial arts fields[16]

d. Training of teachers and leaders in home economics and vocational homemaking fields[17]

e. Special schools, which include the following:[18]

(I). Schools for Indian education

(II). Schools for the blind and deaf

(III). Rehabilitation service

II. ADULT EDUCATION IN PENNSYLVANIA

The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has recognized for many years the fact that the education of adults is an inseparable function of public school systems; in 1925, by legislative enactment, a program of continuing education for out-of-school young people and adults was made a definite part of the state public education program. Since

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15 Ibid., pp. 155-157.

16 Ibid., pp. 157-159.

17 Ibid., pp. 167-173.

18 Ibid., pp. 174-180

that time many progressive communities have been enabled to meet their local education needs through state aid equivalent to that given to the regular day schools. The need for adult education has been brought home forcefully to Pennsylvania through the fact that, in 1930, there were 650,000 girls and boys not in attendance at any school, and, from 1930-1938 there were in the state nearly 600,000 high school graduates of whom a great majority were unemployed. This situation indeed called for concerted action by all educational agencies to provide for these and other people in similar circumstances at least an interval of "wholesome leisure occupation."[19]

Some of the legislative enactments helping to establish a state adult education program are as follows:[20]

1901. Act 11. Provision for the establishment and maintenance of night schools for the industrial training of children over twelve years of age, these schools to be set up in any community upon the request of fifty or more taxpayers.

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19 Lester K. Ade (Superintendent of Public Instruction), Pennsylvania Program of Extension Education, Bulletin Number 292 (Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1938), Foreword.

20 Ibid., pp. 12 and 13.

1907. Act 60. Establishment of schools for adults, including foreigners, with further provision that local school boards should provide means of instruction for "any colony, camp, or settlement of adults."

1911. Act. 19. Upon application, to the number of twenty-five or more in any locality, of parents of children above fourteen years of age, there were to be set up free evening schools to give instruction in special and vocational subjects.

1919. Act 311. Provision for Americanization and citizenship training for foreigners not in attendance at the regular schools.

> 1925. Act 266. Provision for the equalization of educational opportunity and the encouragement of the study of citizenship by recognition of extension education, for boys and girls who are employed and for adults, as a function of the public schools of this Commonwealth; and to facilitate the proper organization and administration of such extension education; making extension education an integral part of the State public school program; and providing for the mandatory organization of extension classes, the establishment of standard evening schools, a minimum salary schedule for extension school teachers, and state aid to school districts for the maintenance of extension schools and classes equivalent to that provided for day schools.

1927. Act 62. Authorization of the board of school directors in any school district to grant the use of school grounds and buildings for general adult activities --social, recreation, and educational. Also, provisions made for the leasing of buildings and equipment to any

university or college in the state for the purpose of conducting and maintaining university or collegiate courses.

1. Legislation governing the state adult education program.[21] According to legislative enactments, any type of approved educational service for adults and young people out of school, and which is deemed worthy by the local school board, is eligible to receive from the state extension reimbursement equivalent, on a percentage-of-the-minimum-salary basis, to that to which the board is entitled for the upkeep of its regular day schools.

Extension education may include a variety of activities, from public forums and parent education discussion groups to regular, formally conducted class sessions in the evening elementary or secondary schools. The activities may also range from a brief but intensive ten-hour course in the reading of blueprints or machine operation, to a regular four-year course of the standard evening high school.

Recreation activities include practically everything commonly grouped under this heading--group work in the creative arts, gymnastics, hobby clubs, community center

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[21] L. K. Ade, "Legislative Provisions," Pennsylvania Program of Extension Education, Bulletin 292 (Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1938), pp. 59-63.

programs, et cetera.

Standard evening high schools are provided for out-of-school young people and adults who wish to engage in further systematic study, the completion of which work entitles the student to a regular diploma and full credit. For those desiring short and intensive courses to aid them in their daily work or to give a broader general educational background, special evening schools are provided.

2. Specific laws and definitions governing state adult education. Some of the specific laws and definitions governing the operation of the state adult education program in Pennsylvania are:

a. Definition of extension education. The term "extension education" is used to designate any instructional recreational, and social service offered and administered by the local school directors, for the benefit of out-of-school young people and adults. Under this term, however, is not included the work of continuation and other vocational schools supported in part by Federal subsidies.

b. Status of extension education. Extension education is considered an integral part of the state's public school system, and of the school districts where organized. It is under the supervision of the county or district superintendents, as are the regular day schools.

Matters pertaining to teacher qualifications and general plans of operation are cared for by the State Council of Education.

c. Mandatory and permissive legislation. Any local board of school directors may, and, upon the written request of fifteen or more residents over sixteen years of age and not in attendance at any regular public or private day school, must provide free extension education in any particular course or curriculum requested. (Section 4102, School Laws)

d. Location and housing of extension education activities. Extension classes are held in the regular school buildings, at such times as do not conflict with the activities of the regular day classes of the public schools. Admission to these extension classes is denied to those already in actual full-time attendance at any public or private day school. The boards of education may refuse to grant further housing facilities whenever the average attendance for any month falls below ten. (Section 4103, School Laws)

e. Permission to require deposit fee. Any board of school directors may require a deposit not to exceed five dollars from each person enrolling in extension courses; they may also require that this fee accompany the application for extension work. This deposit

is (or may be) required not as a tuition fee, but rather as an indication of good faith and actual desire for the work requested. The law provides that that fee be returned at the end of the term provided at least a 75 per cent attendance mark has been reached; the fee may also be returned at other times for such good reasons as death, sickness, or for any other cause deemed acceptable by the school board. (Section 4104, School Laws)

f. Authorization of accredited evening secondary schools and classes.

> All school credits derived from any curricular classes of any district shall be accepted by the school authorities of that district toward fulfillment of the requirements for graduation from any curriculum of any day school of corresponding grade in that district. Upon the satisfactory completion in extension classes of the curricular course of study required for graduation from any curriculum of any school district by any person, such person shall be awarded the appropriate school certificate or diploma at the close of the then current school year. (Section 4105, School Laws)

g. Certification of teachers and leaders. Those who expect to teach extension classes must receive special training and be certified for the type of work they want to do. (Section 1301, School Laws)

h. Annual report on extension activities. Every county and district superintendent of the state must submit an annual report, on or before the first Monday in August, concerning the past year's activities, with recommendations

for the next year's activities, changes, et cetera. (Section 1151, School Laws)

i. Application for appropriations. On or before the first of November of each year, each school district of the first and second class, and each third class school district having a superintendent must file with the Superintendent of Public Instruction a report concerning the sort of teaching licenses held by each teacher, and the compensation paid each teacher according to the type of certificate held. (Section 1210, School Laws)

j. Reimbursement of school districts for maintenance of extension education.

> For every member of the teaching and supervisory staff employed by any school district in extension schools and classes . . . . the Commonwealth shall pay to the several districts the same percentum of the minimum salary herein required to be paid to part-time teachers in such extension schools and classes as is paid to such districts of the minimum salary of the full-time teachers. (Sections 1210-19, School Laws)

k. State enumeration of illiterates and aliens. Between March 1st and September 1st of each year, the board of school directors in every school district shall cause to be made an accurate census of all the children between the ages of six and eighteen within their district. Beginning with the year 1938, and thereafter in 1940, 1945, and every fifth year following, or more frequently if deemed desirable, each school board shall include as an addition to the

census of children already mentioned, an enumeration of all adults ten years of age or older who are unable to write the English language. The State Council of Education is empowered to set up standards to be used in judging whether residents are to be classed as literates or illiterates. (Section 1425, School Laws)

3. Class organization and operation. Following are some standards and definitions pertaining to class organization and operation:[22]

a. Definition of terms.

(I). Day school--the "traditional public school, either elementary or secondary" operating between the hours of 9:00 A.M. to 4:00 P.M.

(II). Extension schools and classes--any free public school classes or activities maintained within a school district, outside of the day-school activities.

(III). Curricular course of study--

> Any elementary or secondary course of study or activity, excepting such reimbursable vocational and special-education courses of study, included in the study and activity program of the regular elementary or secondary public day schools in any given school district.

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[22] L. D. Ade, Pennsylvania Program of Extension Education (Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1938), pp. 65-72.

(IV). Extra-curricular course of study or activity--any course of study, except vocational and special-education courses, not included in the programs of the regular public day schools.

(V). Standard course of study--any regular extension course for which standard school credit may be awarded.

(VI). General course of study--any curricular or extra-curricular course of study organized to meet the needs of a particular group.

(VII). General requirements for approval of an extension activity for state reimbursement:

(A). Extension courses and classes which are closed before the completion of the scheduled number of sessions are not reimbursable except upon the discretion of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

(B). The nature of a course cannot be altered during the current term.

(VIII). Schedule of classes:

(A). The maximum number of class periods per school session that may be devoted to any given course of study or activity are two.

(B). From one to six class periods per week may be devoted to any given course of study or activity. This does not, however, prohibit reimbursement

for leaders of forums, discussion groups, and similar activities which meet bi-weekly, monthly, or less frequently.

(C). The class period may last from forty to seventy minutes.

(IX). Teaching load:

(A). The maximum teaching load per week of prepared classwork or its equivalent shall not exceed twelve clock-hours in the cases of those teachers engaged also in full-time day-school teaching or some other full-time day employment.

(B). In courses involving shop practice, laboratory work, or recreational activities, the maximum teaching load shall be computed on the basis of two hours of practice work being equivalent to one hour of classwork or directed study.

(X). Student load:

(A). Except for those students in English and citizenship classes, the maximum student load is fifteen hours of prepared classwork or directed study per week, except for special cases.

(B). The maximum load for shop and laboratory classes is computed on the basis of two hours of practice to one hour of prepared classwork.

(XI). Pupil-teacher ratio:

(A). Based on average daily attendance, this ratio should not exceed thirty-five pupils to one teacher in any formal prepared classwork. This provision is not to be construed, however, as restricting the student-teacher ratio in such activities as chorus, band, and other recreational activities, or in any of the various informal group discussions, forums, et cetera.

(XII). Principles governing accreditment of extension secondary schools:

(A). Standard courses of study are to be organized and maintained as such throughout the school year or term.

(B). Both prepared classwork and directed study are eligible for approval as extension work.

(C). Course standards are to be maintained on the same level as those of day schools, as regards equipment, facilities, texts, course content, and required achievements.

(D). Teaching supervision is to equal that of the day schools.

(E). Admission to classes and courses requires the same prerequisites as for day classes.

(F). Pupil-teacher ratio not to exceed

30-1 in any class, except for special cases previously noted.

(G). Adequate provisions must be made both for study and library facilities, and also for counseling service to aid students in the selection of the proper courses and in guided study.

(H). Graduation from secondary extension schools is upon essentially the same basis as graduation from a regular day school, with similar requirements as to attendance and achievements.

In the field of higher education, adult training in Pennsylvania has been carried on through extension classes, extension centers, correspondence instruction, et cetera, through the state's colleges and universities. The cause of higher education in many communities has been advanced through experiments in junior college plans. In general, these programs of higher education have met with marked success, although there is still to be desired closer cooperation between local authorities and those colleges and universities sponsoring the various types of extension work.[23]

4. Essential points in Pennsylvania's adult

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[23] Ibid., pp. 76 and 77.

education program. To sum up the essential points in the adult education program sponsored by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, following are the salient features in the recent development of the program:[24]

a. In the development of legislation dealing with adult education, the aim has been at all times to made the laws as general as possible, so as to emphasize the major purpose of instituting adult education as a "regularly ordered educational function."

b. The general legislation affecting adult education is based upon the principle of equal opportunities for all, and adult schools are given full consideration in the School Laws of the Commonwealth.

c. To parallel the compulsory education laws for children, provisions are made that, whenever fifteen or more residents above the age of sixteen years apply in writing for any course taught in the regular day schools, or for special English and Americanization classes, such instruction shall be provided by the school board of the locality in which the applicants reside.

d. Great latitude is granted to local school boards in the setting up of adult classes, as concerns course content, physical arrangements, et cetera.

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[24] Ibid., pp. 79 and 80.

e. State financial aid is provided for adult classes on a basis equivalent to that given to the regular day schools.

f. By action of the 1937 General Assembly, provision is made for an annual enumeration up to the year 1940 (and every fifth year thereafter, unless special conditions arise making a more frequent enumeration advisable) of those adults unable to write the English language.

g. A course for leadership preparation in adult education was authorized by the State Council of Education in 1937, this curriculum to be given at the Shippensburg State Teachers College.

h. In December of 1936, the Pennsylvania State Association for Adult Education was organized, comprised of the following departments: Department of School Extension Service, Department of University Extension Service, Department of Library and Museum Service, Department of Literacy and Citizenship Preparation, Department of Vocational Education, Department of Parent Education, Department of Adult Education Councils, Department of Recreational Service, Department of Prison Education, Department of Leadership Education, Department of Federal Adult Education Services, Department of Public Health, and Department of Workers' Education.

Other departments may be organized from time

to time by the Association's Executive Committee.

5. Philosophy of public adult education in Pennsylvania. The philosophy of the public adult education program was well summed up by Dr. Ade in the two following statements of principles:

> a. Public education is democracy's agent for preserving its institutions and perpetuating its ideals. This vital equity of the State in public education supplies the potent motive of self-preservation and reserves to the Commonwealth the inherent right of complete control. As a corollary, these premises impose upon the State full responsibility for the organization and maintenance of an adequate program of free public instruction, impartially administered as to age, economic circumstances, and geographical location within the Commonwealth.
>
> Recognizing the inherent rights of all residents of Pennsylvania to a prorata share of the education maintained by public funds, and assuming for public education its rightful function and responsibility of mass education for social competency, a comprehensive development of legislative provisions for public adult education has characterized the enactments of the Commonwealth during the past two decades . . . .[25]
>
> b. A continuing education of out-of-school youth and adults for continuing readjustment, as a major principle in public education, has won for extension education a permanent place in our democratic social order. Proper educational opportunities for parents, and for all other adults, has done and will do more, not only by fostering self-adjustment in these individuals, but also by correcting and controlling the incidental

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25 Ibid., pp. 77-79.

education of children and youths through improved home and community environment than any other single level, department, or phase of free public instruction. As the only means of attaining mutual understanding and cooperation, extension education for adults is vital to social unity.[26]

III. ADULT EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF CALIFORNIA[27]

1. Functions and objectives of adult education.[28] The functions and objectives of adult education in the state of California are:

a. To make all adult residents of California literate to the extent of being able to understand all information disseminated through the various publicity agencies.

b. To create and foster a level of social intelligence enabling the great mass of adults to "act with discrimination in the face of organized programs of propaganda."

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[26] Ibid., p. 82.

[27] Handbook on Adult Education (State of California, Department of Education Bulletin, Number 20, October 15, 1937).

[28] Ibid., p. 1.

c. To make adults economically self-sustaining and to rehabilitate those within the state who need vocational training or retraining in order to "bear their own economic weight."

d. To offer appropriate health and physical education programs to adults whose economic efficiency is lessened through ignorance of fundamental health principles.

e. To "democratize culture so that the major influence on our adult population will not continue to be that of the commonplace."

f. To provide general increased job efficiency.

2. Procedures in establishing adult education programs in the state.[29] The procedures in establishing adult education programs in the state of California are:

a. General procedure. Before starting an adult education program in any community or locality, the sponsors should make a rather extensive survey to determine community needs, facilities, probable number who will enroll, et cetera. If such a survey indicates that an adult education program is feasible, the sponsors should follow the regular procedures outlined for the establishment of the type of class desired--special day and evening classes, separate evening

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[29] Ibid., pp. 2 and 3.

high schools, et cetera.

b. Procedure for special day and evening classes:

(I). The local board of education passes a resolution establishing the type of classes desired, or authorizes the superintendent of schools or principal to set up such a program under the administration of specified high schools.

(II). After the program has been authorized (and approved) by the State Division of Adult and Continuation Education), a budget is set up by local authorities.

(III). Teachers qualified for teaching adults are hired by the local school board. These teachers must either hold general secondary credentials, special secondary credentials, or special secondary credentials for teaching any special day or evening classes.

c. Procedure for setting up separate Evening High Schools:[30]

(I). The evening high school is a separate administrative unit set by the local school board.

(II). The school board appoints as principal one who is qualified for the position, and who is not currently principal or assistant principal of a regular day

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[30] Ibid., pp. 3-5.

high school.

(III). Classes must be at least two hours in length, and for four evenings per week for a school term of not less than 128 days.

d. The school attendance must average at least forty each day.

e. Credit must be granted for work done to apply toward high school graduation, and certificates of graduation must be granted those completing all requirements for high school graduation.

f. Four-year graded evening high schools are to provide study programs for the entire four-year high school course, unless attendance does not justify; in this case, courses may be organized on a two or three year basis.

g. Annual reports are made in October.

3. Regulations governing the establishing of adult classes.[31] The regulations governing the establishment of adult classes in the state of California follow:

a. Adult classes are classified under the following general headings: (1) Americanization and Literacy; (2) Social-Civic Education, including Forums, Economics,

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[31] Ibid., pp. 5-8.

Sociology, Public Speaking, Et Cetera; (3) Parent Education and Child Study; (4) Homemaking; (5) Vocational Education, including Agriculture, Commercial Education, and Trade and Industrial Education; (6) General Adult Education, including the Cultural Subjects; (7) Health and Physical Education; and (8) Cultural Education--similar to general adult.

b. Special regulations governing the conduct of forums and lectures:

(I). At least four sessions must be devoted to the same general topic.

(II). Students must be allowed active participation.

(III). Speakers and conference leaders must hold either lecture permits or state credentials for teaching special day and evening classes.

(IV). All students and participants must be actually enrolled.

(V). Programs must be primarily educational in purpose and content.

(VI). A complete program of the forum must be submitted for approval to the Division of Adult and Continuation Education before the first meeting is held.

c. Special regulations for Americanization classes:

(I). The school district of each locality is required to offer literacy and Americanization classes upon petition of twenty or more applicants over twenty-one years of age who cannot read or write the English language with a degree of proficiency equal to that of sixth grade elementary students. Classes for citizenship are established upon the application of twenty-five or more persons.

d. Special requirements for health and physical training classes:

(I). Courses must be justified as educational.

(II). The nature of the course must be clearly indicated by its name.

(III). Before the first class is held, the teacher must submit a detailed report of the work to be done.

(IV). The class period must be devoted largely to instruction, and not to actual athletic competition.

4. Financing of adult education programs.[32] Programs conducted by high schools are financed as a part

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[32] Ibid., pp. 9-11.

of the entire state high school program and appropriations are made on these three bases:

a. Number of years maintained

b. Average daily attendance--"bonus" apportionment

c. Average daily attendance--regular apportionments as for other high school attendance

In addition to state support, additional financial support is drawn from local taxes, student fees, and from special state funds for vocational classes.

The above three ways of dispensing funds for adult classes may be explained more fully as follows:

a. Number of years maintained. An annual state appropriation of $800 is received for each year, grades nine to twelve, maintained by a high school. Thus, a school offering a full four-year course receives annually $3,200, while a school offering only a two-year course would receive a sum of $1,600.

b. "Bonus" apportionments for first thirty units of average daily attendance. This is as follows:

(I). For each of the first ten units of average daily attendance--a "bonus" of $120.

(II). Second ten units--$90.

(III). Third ten units--$60.

c. Apportionment on average daily attendance.

This is a flat allowance of so much per pupil, and is distinguished from "bonus" apportionment in that the latter is intended as an incentive to increase attendance.

Special funds for vocational adult education are made available through Federal grants authorized by the Smith-Hughes and George-Ellzey Acts.

A school board may charge adult pupils a fee not to exceed six dollars per term, except in literacy and Americanization classes, and in classes in elementary subjects. Seventy-five per cent of all money received thus is spent for teachers' salaries.

5. General and special teacher requirements.[33] The requirements were divided into the general and special groups.

a. General requirements:

(I). For all except health and physical education, teachers must be at least twenty-five years old; for the latter, twenty-one years.

(II). Certificate of physical and mental health.

(III). Recommendation from a school superintendent or other high school official.

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[33] Ibid., pp. 13-15.

b. Special requirements. Special requirements according to activity are:

(I). Agricultural education.

(A). One year of university or college training, or its equivalent.

(B). A minimum of three years successful teaching experience in the specified subject.

(II). Americanization education.

(A). Three years of college or university training, or equivalent.

(B). Three years of successful teaching or social work.

(III). Business education.

(A). Three years of university or college, or its equivalent and mastery of the subject to be taught.

(B). A year of successful business employment.

(IV). Child study and parent education.

(A). Evidence of prestige and leadership in the group being organized.

(B). Evidence of not less than five years of first-hand experience with, and responsibility for, children or pre-school age.

(C). Evidence indicating the individual's

grasp of the essential problems of parent education.

(V). Health and physical education.

(A). Three years of college or equivalent, with at least fifteen semester hours of work in the general field of health and physical education.

(B). Three years of successful teaching or social work.

(VI). Homemaking education.

(A). Three years of college or equivalent.

(B). At least four years of experience, after the age of eighteen, in the usual homemaking pursuits.

(C). At least three years successful experience within the specific courses to be taught.

(VII). Social-civic education.

(A). Three years of college or equivalent, or three years of successful experience in the field to be taught.

(VIII). Trade and industrial education.

(A). High school graduation, or equivalent.

(B). Five years of practical experience in addition to the regular apprenticeship or learning period, plus master of the trade to be taught.

CHAPTER VI

ADULT EDUCATION IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

I. ADULT EDUCATION IN DENMARK[1]

The name of Nickolai Grundtvig is one of the most important in the history of Danish life and education, for it was he who conceived the theory of the first Danish folk school. As Grundtvig traveled over the country and in foreign lands during his study and preparation for the ministry, he began to realize the inadequancy of his own educational training for real living, and he grew more and more dissatisfied with the sort of instruction offered in "dead schools." He was also awakened to the realization that if popular government which had been recently adopted by the Danes was to be a success, the citizens must be educated without being separated from the work of life. Grundtvig saw the condition of the ignorant peasantry; he learned their ways and sympathized with them. It was then that the idea of education for all people--education for the purpose of making all men better--came to Grundtvig.

The folk school as conceived by Grundtvig embraced

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[1] Olive D. Campbell, The Danish Folk School (New York: The MacMillian Company, 1928).

the following characteristics:

1. Schools to be limited to persons over eighteen years of age.

2. Academic training for teachers should be minimized, and more emphasis should be placed on experience in the common life and labor of the average man.

3. Cultural subjects were given preference over vocational subjects, and the teaching of religious and political views was discouraged.

4. The use of textbooks and examinations was regarded with disfavor.

Grundtvig did not live to see his theory in complete operation, but in 1844 the Rodding Folk School was established, which, although not conforming entirely to these conceptions, did put into practical operation quite a few of his ideas. The objective of this first folk school was stated as follows:

> The object we have set ourselves is to found an institution where peasant and citizen can secure knowledge and skill for use and pleasure, not so much to his particular livlihood and business as to his part as a son of the country and a citizen of the state. The institution should have, too, a deep influence on his home and private life. We call it a high school because it is not to be the usual boys' school but an institution of learning partly for young men after Confirmation age and partly for full-grown boys and men, and we call it a folk high school because members of every station of life are admitted, although it is especially suited for peasants, and it is from them that most of the pupils are expected.

Kristen Kold, a disciple of Grundtvig, but with slightly different ideas, took a lively interest in the folk school movement, and in 1851 opened his first "folke-hojskele" with an enrollment of fifteen men students. The school was to run five months and the curriculum was to include Bible study, church and Danish history, geography, and literature. At the request of the men students, Kold also introduced summer courses for women.

The folk school movement in Denmark, coming as it did during the many land reforms when the half-submerged middle-class farmer was struggling for political and economic freedom, became very popular and experienced rapid growth, and, although these first schools were simple and small, they played an important part in experimenting with a new type of education, and of preparing the way for the real folk school movement which gained impetus after the War, when a great need for education was revealed.

Today, all folk schools are patterned a great deal after those early traditional ones. The school term is generally from November 1st to April 1st for men, and from May 1st to August 1st for women. All students attend voluntarily, all must meet the same requirements, and pay the same tuition. Instruction is mainly in the form of lectures followed by discussion during meals or during the evening. A wide variety of subjects is offered,

both cultural and vocational. No textbooks are used, and there are no lessons, to prepare. Long tables and wooden benches are still the rule in many of the Danish folk schools. The ages of the students are from around sixteen to thirty-five years of age. State aid is given those who need it, to the amount of five dollars to ten dollars per month paid five times a year.

The Danish folk school system has been so successful that many other countries have adopted this system of adult education with varying degrees of success.

II. ADULT EDUCATION IN SWEDEN[2]

The folk schools, introduced into Sweden in the middle of the Nineteenth Century during their rapid growth in Denmark, were adopted as a practical method of educating the peasantry and of preparing them for the equal suffrage acquired in 1866. These folk high schools were patterned directly after the Danish, but were more academic in their teaching and methods. The teachers are required to be university graduates, and the schools themselves are much better equipped and more comfortable.

The Swedish people have been very successful with another system of education--the study circle, which meets

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[2] "People's High Schools and Study Circles in Sweden," School Review, June 1935, pp. 405-409.

in the evening and is optional with the student. The first study circle was started in Lund in 1907 by Lekter Oleson, an undergraduate. This form of study differed widely from the lecture in that it was an undertaking or effort for the workers by a worker. The first circles were formed in connection with the temperance movement, but the scheme was seen adopted by a workers educational society offering all types of educational facilities to the town workers.

The typical study circle consists of about twelve members and a teacher who acts as discussion leader. Free discussion by the students takes place in the circle.

The study circle has had a very rapid growth. In the short period it has been active, it has increased eighteen fold, until in 1940 there were more than eight thousand such circles active in Sweden. The most popular subjects for workers who do not attend day school are modern languages--especially English--and economics. A new circle is formed whenever and wherever there is a need expressed for it.

III. ADULT EDUCATION IN SOVIET RUSSIA[3]

In no country is adult education emphasized as it

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[3] G. S. Counts, New Education in Soviet Russia (New York: The John Day Book Company, 1929).

is in Soviet Russia today. This strenuous educational activity comes as a result of the revolution. The ignorant, superstitious peasant youth was one of the most serious problems confronting the new regime. The Communists, quick to realize the seriousness of the problem, directed themselves immediately to providing institutions of learning where these young people are taught the standards and ideologies of Communism. Their aim is to teach all youth and to prepare the more capable ones for positions of social and technical leadership in the reconstruction of rural life. In other words, the present Russian schools are dedicated to the two-fold task of guarding and maintaining the new social order which grew out of the revolution.

The educational system functions in three main fields: professional, social, and political.

For those engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries, and who have been denied educational opportunities, there are workers' faculties where a three year college preparatory course is offered.

To help meet the needs of the young people, clubs have been formed which deal with a wide variety of interests, and a large number of young people assemble for sports, music, drama, art, and other recreational activities. Many of these clubs are sponsored by trade unions

which make education a large part of their responsibility.

It is one of the primary Soviet aims to blot out illiteracy of all sorts, but especially political ignorance. To this end, a large number of graded schools for adults has been organized--elementary schools for political illiterates, Soviet party schools, and Communist universities. The illiteracy rate, formerly very high, has been rapidly lowered. In 1936 there were more than 50,000 schools for illiterates, with an attendance of over 2,000,000 persons.

The shrine of Communism is the Red Corner, which is one of the most unique of the educational institutions. It is a meeting in a room or a corner of a room hung with red banners, pictures of revolutionary heroes, cartoons, poems, newspaper clippings, et cetera, all designed to spread Communistic propaganda and teachings. Classes in social studies and history are often taught in this very appropriate atmosphere.

There are other Communistic societies and experimental schools working in eight or nine fields of educational experimentation under the general direction of a group called the Central Pedagogical Study.

It has been said that the most striking achievement of revolutionary Russia lies in the organization of political and adult education. All cultural possibilities have been

opened to the public, and, for the most part, all agencies for adult education are controlled and directed by the state, including libraries, cottage reading rooms, Red Corners, museums, exhibitions, excursions, radio, press, correspondence schools, and lectures. Education is carried on in factories, the army, hospitals, wherever adults may be gathered together in classes. There are short-term training schools for teachers of adults at government expense, and a special institute in Moscow to train "red profs." The following paragraph is found in the new Russian Primer for Children:

> We need factories not only to refine iron and steel. We also need factories to refine people; we need schools, universities, libraries, cottage reading rooms; we need books and magazines--many times more than we have now . . . . We must root out uncouthness and ignorance; we must change ourselves, we must become worthy of a better life.

There is an abundance of evidence that the state is attempting to provide all the spiritual feed its people need, and undoubtedly the general cultural level of the people has been raised, but there is lacking that freedom of thought and discussion and widening viewpoint that characterize adult education as the term is understood in the United States.

IV. ADULT EDUCATION IN SPAIN[4]

Civil war in Spain in the last few years has revealed and emphasized the need for adult education in that country. It was reported in 1937 that one out of every four men recruited in the cities could not read or write, and that 80 per cent of those recruited from the country were illiterate. To remedy this situation, schools in trenches--Educational Militia--were founded in January, 1937. By June, 1938, over 75,000 soldiers had learned to read and write. The following paragraph is a description of such a school:

> A few steps led down from the trench to the long, low dugout lit by two windows. One looked out upon the trench and beyond to the towers of Madrid, which it defended. The other window was a slit--a loophole--which looked out across No-Man's Land to a ridge of dirt which marked the Rebel lines. One man stood sentry here while others pored over their lessons . . . . while over the hum of voices broke the occasional ping of a bullet striking against a parapet.

Further education has been carried on by means of posters which have been used to instruct the soldiers in the rudiments of military tactics, as well as science, mathematics, and a little history and politics.

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[4] "Educational Happenings in Spain," School and Society, 47:819, June 25, 1938.

The Association for Popular Culture has also established a library of some 15,000 social, literary, and scientific books and magazines for men in the trenches.

For young working men showing talent, Spain has established secondary and higher schools of learning. Students may enter free of charge and the state will provide for maintenance costs, books, and other equipment. The state will also grant an adequate indemnity in case of those giving up work to go to school.

The Teaching Centers, established by a decree of April 21, 1937, are to provide vocational training for workers in each neighborhood, thereby enabling the more talented workers to take advantage of opportunities for further study.

A school for vocational training for women was started in Valencia also by decree. However, it was to be only temporary, since in the future it was planned to have all vocational centers organized on such a basis that both men and women could be taught together. The Council of Culture decided to make one hundred appointments of teachers for vocational direction in the schools of Barcelona alone.

V. ADULT EDUCATION IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES[5]

In every country adult education has been the last addition to the educational system. In some cases it is very conservative and clings to traditional and established values. It may be radical with the sole purpose of effecting change, or it may be liberal and subject to change as new evidence and better understanding develops. The problems of education are general, but their solutions are determined by culture and tradition. Thus, we find that each country has a system of adult education similar to that of other countries, but molded to fit each particular need and local condition.

Workers' education is the most important form of adult education carried on in England. The folk school, similar to the Danish, has grown very slowly and has met with many financial difficulties. Like its Danish prototype, it is privately owned by individuals or associations, and receives a small amount of state aid. There are no written examinations or credits.

The public schools of England are still very conservative in their teaching, and have by no means reached

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[5] P. P. Jones, "Adult Education in Other Lands," School and Society, November 6, 1937, 599-604; November 13, 1937, 631-634.

the masses; therefore England should be fertile ground for adult education.

Adult education was begun in Germany in order to enlighten the German citizenry after the appearance of representative government in the newly established German Empire. The first peoples colleges were patterned after Denmark's. They were lecture institutes without discussion and participation of the listeners. Political, religious, and philosophical groups engaged in the movement.

In more recent years, especially since 1933, new organization is taking place, and education is for all citizens under Nazi leadership. The school system is still in a period of reorganization and readjustment, but it is safe to say that where education has become a political measure to insure the doctrines of a Nazi dictator, and where individualism, open-mindedness, and tolerance have no place, true adult education does not exist.

Italy, like Germany, aims through adult education to teach the doctrine of Fascism, and has no real adult education as we understand it.

In Japan, folk schools similar to those of Denmark exist. The aim is to offer instruction, to make useful citizens, and to insure loyal subjects for the Emperor.

In France, adult education has made but little headway. The aim of such schools as do exist is to train

citizens to greater loyalty to the Republic.

Adult education has experienced a remarkable growth in Wales during the last decade. The system is extension training and tutoring. The students represent almost every profession and trade, with a high proportion of teachers. Women form about one third of the classes, and in rural areas are reported in the majority. In the industrial areas, however, there are no women students. The chief appeal of the schools is to the adult of from twenty-five to fifty years of age.

In Finland, adult education grew out of the co-operative movement. Finland has a very low rate of illiteracy--0.7 per cent in 1925. Many of the schools are supported by religious bodies.

Adult education in Czechoslovakia had its beginnings in pre-war days when the leaders of the nation, then Austria-Hungary, placed their faith in the training of adults. The first free peoples schools were formed to suppress all alien cultures, particularly German, and to foster their own national culture. After the war, however, the aim had to be altered according to the new relation of the people to the Czechoslovak government. In 1917 a law was passed for the establishment of citizenship courses and other courses, all fostered by the Ministry of Schools with boards of education in every community. In 1919, another act provided that all

communities must establish and maintain public libraries under the management of specially trained librarians. Political parties have organized their own evening schools. One interesting feature of the Czech education system is that public school teachers are required to participate in adult education courses.

The situation of the Polish education system has been recently reported as unfavorable. Poland has over six million illiterates, a part of whom are now being taught to read and write in adult classes.

Because of special historical circumstances, adult education in Poland is different from that of other countries in that the education must be limited to a certain extent to those who have not been able to receive regular schooling. The Polish movement is also marked by a growing tendency to connect it with social activity in general, such as the cooperative movement and social welfare.

Four year courses are offered for illiterates during the winter in the country and in town the whole year round. Peoples homes have been constructed by local organizations, and today more than eight hundred serve as centers for all forms of adult education and as centers of social life.

During the year of 1935-1936, the government of Iran passed certain measures for the education of all types of illiterates, and in September of 1936 more than 1,500

classes for adults were organized. These classes are attended by two shifts of students, on alternate nights. Public interest and enthusiasm soon compelled the Ministry of Education to add another ninety-seven classes. By the end of the year there were over 93,000 students ranging in age from eighteen to forty years.

The chief aims of these classes are to teach literacy and to provide adults with "useful individual and social training conducive to good citizenship."

An illustrated magazine is published and distributed free to the students, giving particulars of adult education and development of the work. Special books have been prepared by order of the Ministry of Education. Many secondary night schools have also been opened as non-government schools. Army recruits have to attend classes, particularly in the Persian language, conducted by their own officers.

Not much has been done for the women up to the present, and the government has not started any classes for them. However, the Ministry of Education is backing a women's club through whose instrumentality classes for women have been organized in elementary Persian, child care, and sewing--all of which have been well attended.

CHAPTER VII

THE PROBABLE FUTURE OF ADULT EDUCATION MOVEMENTS[1,2,3]

The hope that civilization may survive and continue to still higher levels of living seems to rest upon the possibility not only of rapid adult education, but also upon such education taking place on an increasingly large front. From the standpoint of social progress and intelligent civic action, it is very important that all classes, from the most under-privileged to the highest strata of society, be encouraged to keep on learning and thinking. If they are to keep pace with a rapidly changing world and maintain a democratic form of government, adults, who constitute the electorate empowered to determine public policy, must study and become more enlightened in order to insure that public policies become more enlightened

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1 "New Challenge to Education," School and Society, April 28, 1939.

2 "Proposal for All-Day Schools in New York City," School and Society, January 1, 1938.

3 Lyman Bryson, "What Can We Expect?" Adult Education, Chapter XV.

and humane.

With the increasing interest shown in adult education on the part of the Federal government and of private groups; with the growing desire manifested by large groups of adults to go on learning; and with the increasing army of out-of-school and out-of-work boys and girls who have graduated at a young age and who could well fill the gap in learning how to live in this complex age--it is quite evident that there is a real need as well as a desire for adult education, and that this need is being recognized by educational leaders throughout the world. It seems certain that adult education has a great future, and that definite strides will be made in this field during the next few years.

At this time, it appears that future adult education may be sponsored largely by one of several agencies; it may become a part of the regular public school system. or be supervised by the Federal government, or by a combination of the two.

In a recent report of the director and assistant director of evening and continuation schools in New York City, it was recommended that all-day schools for adults be established in connection with community center activities. These schools should be at the disposal of the community and should offer both formal and informal

education--lectures and forums on various subjects. It was further recommended that the board of education take over adult activities now conducted by the Work Projects Administration. As new buildings are being built for other schools, the old ones could be utilized as adult centers, thus making it possible for many who could not attend at night to attend during the day.

After three years of probationary service, teachers should have a permanent tenure, and supervisors of schools with twelve or more classes should be rated as principals and be paid as such. Above all, new classes should be frequently introduced to meet the students' needs.

Other educators are also of the opinion that adult education should become a part of the public schools responsibility, and that the public schools are less likely to be dominated by any special interest group, and that greater freedom of learning and teaching would be afforded.

On the other hand, Professor Lindeman, along with other great leaders in the field of adult education, declares that we can not afford to leave adult education to the public schools unless they are returned to the people. The majority of superintendents and other public school officials do not favor such schools, and the school system is not democratic enough to do successfully the work that needs to be done. There is danger of adult education

losing its flexibility and of becoming too stereotyped under formal school supervision; therefore it should be entirely separate and independent. However, there should be full cooperation between the two systems even though their techniques must be so widely divergent. Should the public schools take over the adult education program, but leave the actual administration in the hands of those specially qualified for such work, this plan might have a good chance of working out well.

At present, education for adults is a comparatively new but fast growing movement involving elements from both traditional educational procedure and the new body of information and philosophy known as progressive education. Being young, it has greater emphasis on leftist philosophy than has the current juvenile education system.

As the writer of this study sees it, the probable future of adult education depends largely upon its relationship to the two great streams of educational thinking and the two streams of political or governmental philosophy. An outline of the alternatives as viewed by the writer is given in Charts 1 and 2 which follow.

I. If world affairs remain roughly status quo.

A. May result in enough clear thinking to require radical revision of the present economic and political structure, with possible but not probable revolution.

B. Much the same as A might happen, but much slower. Development of strong folk movement of education to meet problems, starting on easy ones and growing to big job of running a nation on a really democratic basis. Giving to the people of great amounts of knowledge and information. This is our best hope, and on it rests the future of democracy for years to come.

C. Possible gradual loss of crusading vigor, or degeneration into an instrument of propaganda.

II. In case of war or Fascism, or both.

A. Revolution? Starting as a movement for freedom, but ending with dictatorship and "liquidation" of opposition.

B. Regimentation of the weak and crushing of the strong and rebellious. Many of the strong would work under cover until able to challenge those in power.

C. Dark Ages, followed slowly by renaissance. Would probably mean that seeds of civilization would need to be harbored in some secluded localities until ready to sprout again in a more receptive world.

CHART 1

POSSIBLE FUTURE OF ADULT EDUCATION
AS AN INDEPENDENT PROGRAM

I. World affairs remaining roughly in status quo.

A. It may leaven the lump and produce a better public school as well as keep its own power. Could become a very powerful movement.

B. Adult education might be considerably hampered at first, but might eventually develop into an active and functioning movement.

C. It may be vitiated by the weight of academic tradition and become a mere ghost of education, or worse still, an instrument of propaganda. The latter would be the result if Fascism came, for such a ready-made tool would not be overlooked.

"This ministry is not interested in questions of right and wrong, of truth and falsehood, but only in the end it wishes to achieve." --Goering.

Education the slave of propaganda and the producer of machinery, mostly for war.

II. In case of war or Fascism, or both.

A. Results similar to those in "B" of Chart 1.

B. Would be too weak to resist.

C. Same as "C" of Chart 1.

CHART 2

POSSIBLE FUTURE OF ADULT EDUCATION AS A PART OF THE REGULAR PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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