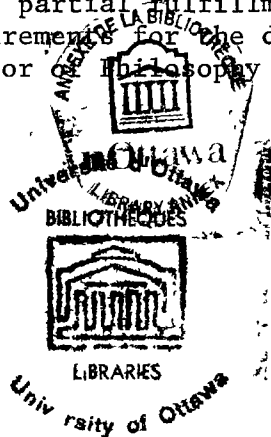


THE MAJOR CONCEPTS
OF
JOHN MARKS BREWER

By Thomas Franklin Grady, Jr.

Thesis presented to the Faculty of
Education of the University of
Ottawa as partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy



Jamestown, North Dakota, 1970

UMI Number: DC53994

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI[®]

UMI Microform DC53994
Copyright 2011 by ProQuest LLC
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis was prepared under the supervision of Professor Pierre Turgeon, Ph.D., of the Faculty of Education of the University of Ottawa.

The writer is indebted to R.-H. Shevenell, O.M.I., Ph.D., Dean of the Faculty of Psychology, Maurice Chagnon, Ph.D., Vice-Rector of the University, and to Lionel Desjarlais, Ph.D., Dean of the Faculty of Education for their early assistance; to Thomas Richard Drey, Esq., for his continued interest in the study, and to the Librarian of Harvard College and the heirs of John Marks Brewer for their kind decision to make available to the writer the repository of the professor's personal papers for study.

CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

T. Franklin Grady was born April 19, 1932, in Beverly, Massachusetts. He received the Bachelor of Science degree in Education from the State College at Salem, Massachusetts, in 1954. He received the Master of Education degree from Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts, in 1955.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	page
INTRODUCTION	v
I.- VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE EARLY TWENTIES	1
1. The Educational Conditions of the Time	1
2. The Initial Literary Efforts	6
3. The Impact of World War I	16
II.- THE CURRICULUM	22
1. The Obligation of the School to Youth	22
2. The Role of Industry and the Community	24
3. The Life Career Class	30
4. The Guidance-Infused Curriculum	36
III.- THE GUIDANCE TEACHER-GUIDANCE SPECIALIST	41
1. The Guidance Teacher	41
2. The Scope and Functions of the Guidance Teacher	43
3. The Emergence of the Guidance Specialist	50
4. Brewer's View of the Good Counselor	52
IV.- PUBLIC SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN THE EARLY SIXTIES . . .	54
1. The Educational Conditions of the Time	54
2. The Expanded Role of Guidance in Modern Education	59
3. The Impact of World War II and the Space Age	67
V.- THE MODERN CURRICULUM	77
1. The Obligation of the School to Today's Youth	77
2. The Role of Industry and the Community in Today's Schools	85
3. The Survival of Brewer's Concept of the Guidance-Infused Curriculum	96
VI.- THE MODERN COUNSELOR	104
1. The Teacher as a Counselor	104
2. The Scope and Functions of the Counselor Specialist	109
3. The Survival of Brewer's Concept of the Counselor	118
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.	128
BIBLIOGRAPHY	131
Appendix	
1. ABSTRACT OF <u>THE MAJOR CONCEPTS OF JOHN MARKS BREWER</u> . . .	146
2. BREWER THE MAN	148

INTRODUCTION

Probably no other sector of professional education has expanded so rapidly in so short a time as has that of guidance, now a part of the pupil personnel program. The on-going essay for identity, professionalism, and systematization, in the opinion of the writer, has caused the guidance fraternity to forget, or at least to overlook, the important contributions of those who devoted entire lifetimes of service in the earlier, more difficult struggle to gain initial recognition and acceptance for guidance, and to equip the fledgling movement with methodology, tools, and a working philosophy.

John Marks Brewer was one of the early advocates of guidance (then termed "vocational guidance") and his career was dedicated to winning for guidance a place in the public schools, to changing its early identity from that of a settlement house service for the poor to that of a vital and natural function of education. In order to accomplish this arduous task, he had to overcome certain attitudinal obstacles in educational circles which were so deeply entrenched that only the passing of decades and the phenomenon of national emergency could surmount them, and even then, only partially.

Forced as he was to labor for the acceptance of guidance in the public schools, he was doubly burdened with the responsibility of equipping the service with an ethic and perhaps its first textbooks as well. Brewer worked incessantly to gain recognition for guidance at every level of education, first by securing permission from a reluctant

Harvard administration to transfer Frank Parson's Vocational Bureau from the Boston Y. M. C. A. to the university campus. Next, he spoke throughout the land to a remarkable variety of groups; worked on a volunteer basis with communities interested in investigating guidance; wrote for journals serving a number of professions; donated his services to federal agencies and committees; visited public schools to advise teachers and administrators on guidance; and produced textbooks to assist teachers untrained in guidance who were willing to add a modest effort at guiding students to their regular teaching responsibilities. Finally, he wrote continually for and to newspapers, pleading for public support for guidance, an endeavor he continued after his retirement from the Harvard faculty and until shortly before his death.

It should be remembered that Brewer's labors for guidance were primarily, but not exclusively, on behalf of the large numbers of immigrant and poorer-class youngsters who were exploited in the child labor market and who swelled the lines of the unemployed during that period.

His two major objectives were an enhanced curriculum and a professionally qualified guidance teacher, later a guidance counselor or specialist. Although he put forth many other recommendations for the guidance movement, these two topics will be studied and their development traced. To this end, an attempt has been made to balance the consideration of the concepts by presentations of both the earlier

educational conditions which attended their promulgation, and those of the most recent decade, in which period their survival is sought.

This work, then, attempts to review the literature and the educational milieu which preceded and received the first efforts Brewer made on behalf of guidance; to identify two of his several conceptual constructs; and to determine whether or not said contributions may be discerned in the mélange of modern professional thought within the guidance-pupil personnel discipline.

If Brewer's concepts have endured, in whole or in part, then his stature as one of the fathers of the guidance movement in America will be certified beyond that indicated by the scant references to him one finds so infrequently in current professional literature.

CHAPTER I

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE EARLY TWENTIES

1. The Educational Conditions of the Time.

Brewer was one of the early proponents of vocational guidance. He knew and worked with David Stone Wheeler and Meyer Bloomfield, successors to Professor Frank Parsons, founder of the Vocation Bureau of Boston. Brewer was a student in the first university course in guidance, given by Professor Paul H. Hanus at Harvard Summer School in 1914.¹ Five years later, Brewer assumed the directorship of the Bureau which had been transferred to the Division of Education of Harvard University under the title Bureau of Vocational Guidance. Thus began a lifetime dedicated to the furtherance of guidance for youth.

In order to understand Brewer and his concepts, it is necessary to consider the times in which he lived and the conditions with which he had to contend.

Therefore, the purpose of this investigation is to discover, first, through a review of the literature, the educational conditions which existed in the United States from World War I to the Great Depression which commenced in 1929. This period (1916-1929) generally represents the first decade of Brewer's published works which were to continue to appear until 1949, a year before his death. Second, the writer will analyze the works

¹ John Marks Brewer, et al., History of Vocational Guidance, Its Origins and Early Development, New York, Harper, 1942, p. 74.

which Brewer wrote during this period in an attempt to clarify the basic concepts which provided the framework for his professional career and contributions. The writer believes that by their content, the books and articles studied in this project adequately explain Brewer's initial concepts of: the curriculum and the teacher-counselor.

Furthermore, the writings within Brewer's first professional decade provide a key to understanding the major works which appeared later in his life and which may have influenced considerably the establishment and the nature of public school guidance programs in the United States.

A study of the developmental aspects of the concepts named above, as articulated through Brewer's published works, will provide the identifiable data which will enable the writer to determine the extent to which the Brewerian influence has survived in or contributed to the expansion of the guidance movement to its present-day pupil personnel sequence, in which the modern concepts of the curriculum and the guidance specialist have been greatly enhanced in role and significance.

The sources will be presented in a chronological order in this review in order to provide some insight into the tenor of the times which produced the rigidity of the public educational systems which Brewer sought to change.

Describing the national conventions of the National Education Association (then the National Teachers' Association) in the 1800's, Wesley stressed their quasi-religious tenor and the fact that many of the speakers were actually preachers who combined the concept of public education with the stern religious ethic which permeated American schools in general and which

characterized New England teachers and administrators in specific. The public school personnel were almost exclusively white, Anglo-Saxon and Protestant, as were the members of their school boards. The New England states were looked upon as the leaders in matters educational and the aforementioned characteristics of the educational establishment were especially true of the New England educators. This, then, was the stolid group which controlled the educational structure and which would determine the acceptability of any and all proposals for change in said structure.²

The hundreds of thousands of immigrants who were arriving during the period not only taxed the school systems and budgets, but they prompted an attitude of fear, suspicion, and hostility on the part of many Americans, even the educated. A professor from the University of Rhode Island warned a national teachers' convention against the dangers of immigration, using such terms as "accursed instigators", "the cupidity of the foreigners", and "the nefarious rebellion which will result from their fetters of ignorance".³

One index of the gradually expanding concept of the obligation of the public schools is the topics to which the national conventions turned their attention over the period preceding Brewer's initial efforts, and the period in which he began his professional endeavors. From 1858 until 1890, eighty-one papers were delivered to the national conventions on teaching

2 Edgar B. Wesley, N.E.A.: The First Hundred Years, New York, Harper, 1957, p. 29.

3 Ibid., p. 35.

theory, seventy-five on colleges, and only three on the importance of compulsory attendance in the public schools. The concerns were exclusively academic and administrative. Only two papers were delivered on youthful crime and education during the period of thirty-two years. However, in the shorter period from 1930 until 1939, 188 papers dealt with the problem of effective rural education, eighty-five on the importance of business education, and seventy-one on vocational guidance and education. Interest in the non-college youth had been established. Brewer's concerns were primarily, but not exclusively, centered on such youngsters.

In 1892, the National Teachers' Association passed a resolution warning, "The American public school is distinctly the product of American soil and should be defended from all change."⁴ One can understand how bigotry and prejudice caused teachers to view immigrant children and their parents as being different from and separate from the regular "American" children and their parents. This attitude was one of the major barriers to Brewer's plan for a program which would assist the immigrant or working-class youngster.

Locked in the traditional, classical preparation courses for college, American high schools were operated by educators who ignored advances in foreign education, regardless of their nature. When change did come, it came very slowly and after painful, heated debate. For example, Klemm⁵ points out that in 1899, Germany had 861 public manual training

4 Wesley, op. cit., p. 369.

5 Louis R. Klemm, Progress of Education in the Century, Edinburgh, Chambers, Ltd., 1903, xxi-508 p.

schools in 605 cities with 1,514 workshops training boys for industrial occupations. Eleven years earlier, in 1888, the first manual training school, the Cogswell School in California, initiated America's effort after a controversy of bitter disagreement. Founded in 1881, the North Bennett Street Industrial School in Boston introduced "Sloyd and manual training", but the school was financed by philanthropists and was not and is not, a public school. Neither vocational education nor vocational guidance were welcome in the public schools of that period, and of the subsequent three decades.

Wesley also points out that the generally disorganized experimentation and self-discovery which had previously characterized the growth of American education in the early 1800's came to a halt as powerful forces altered, restricted, and constricted the public schools in general, and the high schools in specific, into "narrow appendages of the colleges which functioned only for the intellectually and economically gifted."⁶ G. Stanley Hall, in 1902, criticized the massive control of the public schools by "the dead hand from the tombs of culture".⁷

The very task of communication was a major hurdle for Brewer, for it should be remembered that communication during this period was quite limited. "The Wizard of Menlo Park", Thomas Alva Edison, produced such wonders as the phonograph in 1877, the incandescent lamp in 1879. F. W. Meyers startled the world by announcing the existence of mental telepathy

6 Wesley, Op. Cit., p. 66.

7 Ibid., p. 68.

in 1882, in England. The Bell Telephone System was not established until the late 1800's and radios did not come into use until the 1920's.⁸ Ideas were spread through literature, primarily, which was a slow and costly process. It was, therefore, the literary arena that Brewer chose as the sounding board for his theories of guidance.

2. The Initial Literary Efforts.

An inspection of the literature of the time reveals a small number of works which are somewhat germane to guidance, but which deal with peripheral areas, such as success literature, moralistic writings, and manuals on child rearing. However, Ward's Applied Sociology⁹ came close to an accurate presentation of the problems facing youngsters at that time by maintaining that many great men would eventually arise from the most common of people, if only society would give them a better opportunity to overcome the racial, economic, religious, social, and educational barriers which prevented full self-realization for so many thousands of lower-class children. This became one of Brewer's main dictums.¹⁰

In 1907, Johnson's book, Education by Play and Games¹¹ heralded some of the ideas which would become important points in the programs urged

8 Roy Milton Schork, The World of Communications, New York, Ottenheimer, 1949, vi-287 p.

9 Lester F. Ward, Applied Sociology, Boston, Ginn, 1906, ix-188 p.

10 John M. Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, Macmillan, 1923, p. 2.

by John Dewey, John Marks Brewer, and their associates.

At this point, Hanus who, in 1914, was to offer the first university-level summer course in guidance, wrote a book which reminded American educators of the excellent progress the Germans were making in vocational education and which pointed out the acute need for such education for out-of-school American youth.¹² He also set forth a plan of procedure which became the basic formula followed by school systems which instituted such courses.

The year 1909 may be looked upon as a significant one in the literature on guidance, for it saw the publication of two works which brought into focus the beginning direction in which guidance was to travel. The first was an article which urged a systematic, scientific business management which stressed the fact that properly placing workers in jobs which were suited to their talents and interests would result in less labor turnover, a happier work force, and would ultimately constitute a major contribution to society.¹³ However, the author offered no practical suggestions for the procedures which his readers might follow.

The second important work was Choosing a Vocation by Parsons, written while he served as director of the Vocational Bureau and Breadwinners' Institute of Boston.¹⁴ Published posthumously, the book is

12 Paul H. Hanus, Beginnings in Industrial Education, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1908, xiv-305 p.

13 Harrington Emerson, "Efficiency as a Basis for Operation and Wages", in The Engineering Magazine, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1909, p. 32-49.

14 Frank Parsons, Choosing a Vocation, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1909, viii-165 p.

considered to be the earliest vocational guidance text, written by the man who is looked upon as the founder of the guidance movement.¹⁵

The book's introduction contains five points which justify the need for giving vocational counsel to young men and women, despite the doubts which then existed as to the practicability of such service. The points emphasized the value of careful planning, of consultation with experienced adults, and the wisdom of careful self-analysis, done with guidance, before a vocation was selected.¹⁶

These points provide insight into the unstructured methods then used by young people in their haphazard choice of a life's work, for in urging them to consult, to use care, to think about their own abilities, the writer was attempting to correct the serious errors commonly made in omitting these steps.

In his book, Parsons decried the drifting of youth from one futureless job to another and the exploitation of child labor by employers who discharged the young, unskilled workers when they became old enough to need increased income for marriage and family responsibility.

Advocating a systematic, "scientific method" in planning each youngster's career, Parsons¹⁷ stated that no one would think of building a house without the assistance of expert advice or without the most careful

15 Carroll H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper and Row, 1961, p. 5.

16 Ralph Albertson, "Introductory Note", in Parsons, Op. Cit., p. vii-viii.

17 Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 4.

financial and mechanical planning, and yet adults allowed children to wander, haphazardly, into whatever jobs happened to be open. No thought was given to the damage done to the child who failed or who found himself approaching adulthood in the same routine job which offered no training for advancement nor hope for promotion.

Yet, he foresaw the necessary neutrality of the counselor and warned against the danger of excessively directive, controlling advice when he stated:

No person may decide for another what occupation he should choose, but it is possible to help him so to approach the problem that he shall come to wise conclusions for himself.¹⁸

Parson's book is a remarkably comprehensive manual, for it contains suggestions for talks to youth groups, sample questionnaires, interviewing techniques, sample self-analyses, and methods for investigating and comparing vocational opportunities.

Parsons studied census books and constructed tables which revealed those occupations in which young people met the most rapid advancement, and those which employed the largest numbers.

He described Bloomfield's generous offer to house the Vocation Bureau in the Civic Service House, a social service agency in Boston's teeming immigrant district, the North End. Shortly after the opening of the Bureau, branches were established at the Young Men's Christian Association and Women's Educational and Industrial Union. The Bureau's mottoes were, "Light, Information, Inspiration, Cooperation".¹⁹

18 Ibid., p. 5.

19 Ibid., p. 92.

It is important to note that vocational guidance began in a settlement house in an immigrant neighborhood rather than in the public schools. This is but one of the reasons which so long delayed the respect and adoption of the guidance idea by educators, to wit, it was looked upon as a service for the out-of-school, working class youth. Brewer had to combat this short-sighted view in his efforts to establish guidance programs in the public schools.

Parsons wrote of a school for vocational counselors which had been established at the Y.M.C.A. to train men for carrying on the work in connection with other Y.M.C.A.'s, schools, colleges, universities, social settlements, and business establishments. The training consisted of lectures, seminar discussions, research, practice in interviewing, reports of results, conferences and special tests. Each candidate in counselor training spent three hours each week examining and counseling applicants for vocational advice. In order to enter the school, young men had to have excellent character, good manners and dress, at least a high school education, and a satisfactory experience in teaching, business, or social work.

Furthermore, Parsons urged would-be counselors to study history, economics, civics, and psychology, in which they were to gain a working knowledge of the human personality, a kind and sympathetic nature, and a strong command of vocational and educational requirements. Their ability to organize and classify facts was to be guided by the scientific method.

The last section of his book is dedicated to the building of good health, manners, morals, and ideals, illustrated by a number of cases which show the efficacious results of good vocational counsel.

In reviewing Choosing a Vocation, Brewer and Kelly²⁰ cited its excellent influence on those who were beginning to work in the field of vocational guidance, but they criticized Parsons' long personal analysis form which every applicant was expected to fill out, stating, "Any one who could answer the questions intelligently was in no need of guidance."²¹

Commenting on Parsons' work, McGowan and Schmidt observed:

In 1909, Frank Parsons wrote of vocational guidance as a process of vocational orientation, individual analysis, and counseling. Lack of testing and interviewing theories and techniques led to the neglect of the last two aspects of vocational guidance and to the emphasis on exploratory activities which characterized the work and writing of such leaders as Brewer.²²

Quite apart from Parsons' work in the North End of Boston, which work received very little notice at the time, the public schools of New England were beginning to feel pressure from those who felt that educators were wrong in ignoring the immigrant and working-class child. The battle was joined when no less an authority than Charles William Eliot, President of Harvard University, instead of urging a continuation of the status quo, took the schools and schoolmen to task by writing a book in which he scored the narrowness of mind and curriculum in the public schools of New England, and called for a broad curriculum and a wide program of school experiences

20 John M. Brewer and Roy Willmarth Kelly, "A Selected Critical Bibliography of Vocational Guidance", in Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 4, 1917, p. 19-20.

21 Ibid., p. 20.

22 John F. McGowan and Lyle D. Schmidt, Counseling: Readings in Theory and Practise, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962, p. 8.

for all students.²³ His position on this matter was directly responsible for Harvard's receptiveness towards Brewer and the Vocational Guidance Bureau which later was centered at Harvard.

Eliot reminded the educators that although no two children were alike, and although whole groups of children would differ one from the other, the primary obligation of every teacher was to bring out the innate powers and to develop to the highest possible degree the natural and acquired capacities of each individual. He also observed that if the child were expected to cooperate and to work up to his or her capacity, the teacher would have to become aware of the problems of the individual, and strive for the highest possible development of every child in the class.

Writing of the period in which the inception of guidance took place, Roeber states:

Very early in the guidance movement, Parsons, Brewer, and others, recognized the need for specially trained people. They also recognized the great economic and other limitations which would delay the employment of a qualified counselor in each school.²⁴

Roeber alluded to the prejudice and inflexible refusal to change which characterized public school personnel and which caused them to hold steadfastly to education for the favored few who were able to go on to college. As resentment and anxiety grew over drop-outs, child labor, and the lack of real educational opportunity for the lower class youngsters, the

²³ Charles William Eliot, Educational Reform, New York, Century, 1909, p. 14.

²⁴ Edward C. Roeber, The School Counselor, Washington, Center for Applied Research, 1963, p. 77.

vocational guidance concept, with its emphasis not only on the individual, but especially on the individual who was destined to work, very quickly became the vehicle, or the movement, espoused by those who desired a broader training and concern for all the children.

A significant point is made by Keller and Viteles, in their description of the situation:

Vocational guidance in some form (usually quite unorganized and badly done) is an inevitable accompaniment of the educational process. Yet, in the United States, it seems to have become a 'movement' on a certain day in a certain year, like a battle or a political campaign. In English, French, and German educational literature, one is reminded again and again that vocational guidance was born when, in 1908, Frank Parsons organized the Vocational Bureau in the Civic Service House in Boston.²⁵

Although some time would elapse before the schools felt the impact of the birth of guidance, those who believed in it began immediately to publish. Bloomfield, a Harvard graduate who had come from a slum neighborhood in New York, published the second book on vocational guidance in which he included an impressive and moving description of conditions faced by youngsters of that time.

Quoting from Royal Commissions in England and from the Commission on Industrial Education in Massachusetts, Bloomfield showed the disastrous loss to society from the futile, futureless, monotonous jobs that characterized the exploitation of children in their early teens. He argued that it was an important - and a neglected - obligation of the public schools to protect such children and to look to the betterment of their lot in the future.

25 Franklin J. Keller and Morris S. Viteles, Vocational Guidance Throughout the World, New York, Norton, 1937, p. 31.

Bloomfield praised the City of Edinburgh, Scotland, which established an Educational Information and Employment Bureau on July 20, 1908, and the State of New York in which a small number of teachers were trying to do employment placement work in the schools.²⁶

As a contributor to a book four years later, Bloomfield wrote an article in which he described the methods of educational guidance and placed guidance squarely in the public schools as its proper and most advantageous location.²⁷

In 1915, Bloomfield published Youth, School and Vocation²⁸ which included the material contained in The Vocational Guidance of Youth, with recent data on reasons for the drop-out problem and employment conditions of the time. He also commented on the meager developments in vocational guidance which had taken place in the five years since the appearance of his first work.

Again, the minutes of the conventions of the National Education Association provide valuable reflections of the attitudes of educators. In 1917, Reed delivered an address in which she stated that occupational guidance was still in a chaotic condition and that which was being given in the schools was "ludicrous in the extreme and is absolutely detrimental

26 Meyer Bloomfield, The Vocational Guidance of Youth, New York York, Houghton Mifflin, 1911, p. 77.

27 Meyer Bloomfield, "Vocational Guidance and the High School", in C. H. Johnston, The Modern High School, New York, Scribner, 1914, p. 608-628.

28 , Youth, School and Vocation, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1915, xi-273 p.

to the recipients."²⁹

Resisting the job placement function stressed by others, she reminded the teachers that the most important single responsibility of vocational guidance was the stimulation of character development and the inculcation of the ideas of good citizenship. Yet, despite her commendable interest in guidance, she betrayed an amazingly disdainful attitude towards the disadvantaged children by referring to them as "the gum-chewing girl and the overalls boy whose deficiencies in personality have been decreed by Providence".³⁰

Therefore, it may be assumed that although the need for guidance was keen, and obvious, the reluctance to change and the prejudiced attitude of class-conscious educators prevented a rapid or a widespread transformation, for not only were school boards reluctant to spend money for a new service which never previously had been necessary, but the children who were college-bound were being well taken care of, as they always had been. The others would surely make their way, as they always had done.

However, child labor was becoming an unpopular practice and the public began to demand greater attention from the educators to the problem of school-leavers. Arguing that no child should be allowed to work full-time in a factory until he was at least fourteen years of age, Hopkinson wrote:

29 Anna Y. Reed, "Vocational Guidance and Educational Preparedness", in Addresses and Proceedings, Washington, National Education Association, 1917, p. 617.

30 Ibid., p. 619.

Do people really care about this education they are talking so much about? The majority of children in some of our schools, for example, suffer from pediculosis, and next to nothing is done to assist them. With similar complacency, educated men and women blandly ignore the sad bodily condition and imperfect physical development of so many thousands of American children, especially those of the immigrant and laboring classes.³¹

In summary, the initial literary efforts of those who urged a response to the plight of uneducated, unguided young people mark the first appeals on behalf of the guidance movement in America. While Brewer had not then entered the profession, those who wrote clearly cited the problems which were to be the targets of his endeavor. Their initial literary efforts were largely ignored and resulted in little positive response. However, Brewer and those who urged the establishment of guidance services were to receive unexpected assistance from the dynamics which attended World War I.

3. The Impact of World War I.

The impact of World War I on American education is a subject for another study. However, it did assist the guidance movement by bringing before the public the importance of testing and of the efficiency which resulted from placing the right man in the right job.³²

31 Alfred Hopkinson, "The Education Bill", in The Contemporary Review, Vol. 113, 1918, p. 155.

32 U.S., The Personnel System in the United States Army, Washington, The Adjutant General's Department of the U.S. Army, 1919, p.29.

The public learned with surprise that while the United States contended with a 52% annual labor turnover, Germany had only a 4% labor turnover. Interest began to grow in Germany's efficient use of human talent and their excellent system of diversified educational opportunity for all of their youth.³³

The nation began to question why the schools did not do more to cooperate with industry in the training and placement of young workers. Many reasons were given, but the defense was lacking; the papers were filled with complaints about our lack of preparedness, about the sad confusion of vast numbers of young Americans who had neither clear life plans nor practical training for employment. A vacuum had been created and the public schools were charged with responsibility for its creation and its elimination.

Slow as progress in guidance had been to date, at this point enough work had been published to allow Brewer and Kelly³⁴ to compile a bibliography of all such works in guidance. The comments made on each entry were certainly critical and perceptive, but the comments were never in bad taste. Even in this short book, Brewer offered a reading course for teachers who would hopefully use the sources listed in planning guidance programs for their class or their school.

Binet published his intelligence scale in Paris at the same time Frank Parsons was beginning the work of vocational guidance in Boston.

33 McGowan and Schmidt, Op. Cit., p. 8.

34 Brewer and Kelly, Op. Cit., vi-76 p.

The World War brought the two concepts into juxtaposition, but it did not weld them. While Hull³⁵ urged that vocational guidance be established on the basis of psychological testing, Brewer chose exploratory experiences as the foundation for the guidance movement. Convinced that a child of thirteen or fourteen was too young to determine correctly his career choice, Brewer advocated that the intermediate grades, or junior high school years, become "a prevocational school with a great variety of offerings, and with each child put into contact with many different activities and experiences."³⁶

To the regular curriculum, therefore, he added dramatics, debating, school paper publication, freehand and mechanical drawing, bookkeeping, library and lunchroom management, music, outdoor and science clubs, to name a few. An extensive variety of shop experiences were to be required of all and related to mathematics, drawing, stagecraft, and school maintenance projects. These wide, exploratory experiences, he believed, would prepare the student to make a more informed vocational choice in high school.

After the war ended, the task of helping thousands of returning veterans into occupations drew the attention of the nation to the great value of vocational guidance. Just prior to this period, in 1916, Brewer received his doctor of philosophy degree from Harvard. In the same year, he began to teach the first university course in

35 Clark L. Hull, *Aptitude Testing*, New York, World Book, 1928, p. 21.

36 Brewer, *The Vocational Guidance Movement*, p. 231.

counselor training to be given in the regular academic year.³⁷ His doctoral dissertation³⁸ was later published in book form by Macmillan.³⁹

Brewer's first published work⁴⁰ appeared in The Annals of the American Association of Political and Social Science in September of 1916, because for some time, his ideas were considered to be impractical by many educators. However, his genuine interest in the betterment of society found ready appreciation in sociological circles.

In summary, American education at the beginning of Brewer's career was primarily a product of a rigid, traditional conservatism. The major city school systems were taxed with a huge immigrant and laboring class, the children of which rarely went to college. Child labor was beginning to be viewed with concern and the plight of school drop-outs was becoming a source of embarrassment to the schools which had traditionally claimed to serve "all of the children of all of the people."⁴¹

As Brewer assumed directorship of the Bureau of Vocational Guidance at Harvard, neither vocational guidance nor vocational education had been received with enthusiasm or even serious regard in the public schools of New England, or, for that matter, of the nation. Quite to the

37 Anna Y. Reed, Guidance and Personnel Services in Education, New York, Cornell University Press, 1947, p. 31.

38 John Marks Brewer, A Constructive Study of Vocational Guidance, doctoral thesis presented to Harvard University, 1916, viii-308 p.

39 -----, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, Macmillan, 1918, xi-333 p.

40 -----, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, 1916, p. 54-63.

41 Hopkinson, Op. Cit., p. 160.

contrary, guidance was an idea child from the slum area of Boston. It is safe to state that in 1916, the majority of public school administrators neither understood nor cared to learn about vocational guidance which they saw as a social service for finding employment for unguided foreigners or young drifters who did not really belong in their schools in the first place.⁴² Brewer observed the reluctance of school officials to establish new programs for "manual types".⁴³ Despite abundant evidence of "vocational anarchy" in the form of young boys and girls in sweatshops or wandering the streets in search of work, Brewer declared, "the public mind moves slowly, and the education of community opinion needs to be extended greatly."⁴⁴

So long as the traditional curriculum remained unchanged, Brewer believed that any ancillary program for the non-college youth would be a distinctly second-rate appendage. Describing the prevailing curriculum as "antiquated", Brewer charged that complacent school officials "assumed that those who found books too much for them would drift into the ranks of manual workers and get on as best they could."⁴⁵

Therefore, he sought to prevent the isolation of the non-college bound by enhancing the curriculum itself so that it would contain opportunity and preparation for all youngsters who would share school life and

42 Ruth Eckert and T. O. Marshall, When Youth Leaves School, New York, Harper, 1938, p. 21.

43 Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, p. 148.

44 Ibid., p. 4.

45 Ibid., p. 14.

and experiences as equals.

World War I helped set the stage for Brewer's work by stressing the values of, and the need for vocational guidance. The impact of World War I on guidance may be marked because it brought about the first federal sponsorship of guidance-related services for young men and publicized the poor results caused by deficient guidance services in the schools.

Furthermore, the gallantry in action of young men from the immigrant and lower-class groups earned them the nation's gratitude, a fact which served to lessen the hostility to the presence in public schools of youngsters from similar backgrounds.

The war helped to converge a number of movements which had been unrelated in pre-war years, such as testing, vocational training, job placement, counseling, and psychology.

In his effort to place guidance in the schools, Brewer turned his first attention to the heart of the school - the curriculum - which was to become the pivotal point in his philosophy of guidance. Hence, his plan for the curriculum should next be examined.

CHAPTER II

THE CURRICULUM

1. The Obligation of the School to Youth.

The social conditions which existed in the early years of Brewer's career seemed to determine the nature of the demands he made for changes in the curriculum of the public schools.

In his first published article¹ he wasted no words in excoriating the negative influence of the street, the uninformed urging of adults, and the misinformation of advertised personal power and mind-building courses as prime problems which were actually hurting youngsters in their life-planning. He stated flatly that "conditions for finding employment are in a woefully unsatisfactory state"² and that youngsters were being victimized by charlatans who sought to reveal to them hidden knowledge of their heredity, native ability, innate qualities, by using phrenology, character analysis, and other specious methods.³

Brewer left no doubt as to his plan of remedy for such specious methods. He stated that it was the responsibility of the public school to prepare the child realistically for life through a versatile curriculum which would have to be restructured at every level, down to and including

1 John Marks Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 54-63.

2 Ibid., p. 59.

3 Ibid., p. 63.

the kindergarten.

He cited as a disgrace the terrible rate of school-leaving before the sixth grade, and charged that "the school fails to attract the child. He leaves because neither he nor his parents think that schooling is worthwhile. Nor does the school make any effort to keep the child or to make him feel that he is significant."⁴

Rejecting most educational activity as testing, classifying, grading, and instructing, but not educating, Brewer asks, "If education is to be concerned with living, must the school [...] turn itself into a laboratory for the exercise of life? Exactly that."⁵ A versatile curriculum, offering a comprehensive, varied, "jack-of-all-trades" experience, should commence in the kindergarten, he urged, where many kinds of mental and manual experiences both in the classroom and on the playground would establish in the child an enthusiasm for school and for learning.

The elementary school should gear its subjects at every possible opportunity to the world outside so that at the earliest possible moment, the child could relate school work to life.⁶

The junior high school, he felt, was an admirable place for a wide range of exploratory courses which were necessary for self-discovery. Junior high school should provide practical, manual activities for every

4 Ibid., p. 60.

5 Idem, Education As Guidance, New York, Macmillan, pp. 18, 23.

6 Idem, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", p. 56.

student, regardless of his future course. This was the point, too, at which vocational information should be made constantly available through the regular classes, through the "life career class", and through conferences on occupational choice, preparation, and educational planning. Extra time would have to be allotted to teachers, for this was the point at which most drop-outs would be lost to the good influence of the school.⁷

He quoted Davis,⁸ one of the earliest guidance counselors, who charged that school children were assigned tasks that no one outside of school was performing. There was no realistic carry-over from school experience to life experience. Instead, Brewer stated, boys should learn physics by putting a car together, learn carpentry by building stage scenery, and learn democracy by operating their own student government.⁹

It is important to remember that the public schools of the period were primarily centered on college preparation and that the battles for the establishment of vocational courses had yet to be won.

2. The Role of Industry and the Community.

Brewer stated that the school had to begin to open up a dialogue with industry in addition to its traditional communication with colleges and universities, for the majority of the young would enter the world of work, not the world of higher education. Labor unions, managerial groups, and

7 Ibid., p. 57-58.

8 Jesse B. Davis, Vocational and Moral Guidance, Boston, Ginn, 1914, xxi-284 p.

9 Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", p. 59.

successful businessmen could well advise the school people on enriching the curriculum and could establish programs for employing the school-leavers systematically rather than the practise then extant of allowing "girls under sixteen to wander from place to place in search of work."¹⁰

Furthermore, the community had to broaden its view, as did the school, in order to include working children in the Boy and Girl Scouts, in athletics, recreation, and in vacation camp experience. Once the child left school, such beneficial and enjoyable experiences were usually closed to him, a fact which reveals to some degree the larger prejudice against the immigrant or working-class child held by the community and reflected in the curriculum of the public schools.

However, Brewer was fair as well as frank in his view. Anticipating the hesitation of his readers, he admitted, "Vocational guidance has not been free from certain misconceptions and questionable practices."¹¹ Yet, he contended, despite errors made, could the alternatives of forced advice, bogus mind-reading and astrology courses, and children wandering the streets be accepted? So began his press of the discomfiting question in a calm, logical manner, a characteristic which was to distinguish his cause and enhance its progress.

He demanded a reexamination of school methods, for if the school were not worthwhile in the eyes of the child, something was grossly amiss. Vocational guidance would so enhance the curriculum that the school would

10 Ibid., p. 60.

11 Ibid., p. 62.

then "awaken in the student a realization of his opportunities and a desire only for rewards of honest service".¹²

He began his first article by listing four reasons for the reluctance of the schools to initiate vocational guidance. They were:

A. School people have not known the occupational world well enough to advise pupils in regard to vocational opportunities.

B. Schools 'prepared for life' only in general and indefinite ways.

C. It was too frequently assumed that parents would provide all the vocational guidance necessary, or that the job itself would automatically furnish it.

D. Excessive stories on American individualism led to an enervating admiration of 'the self-made man', and to other such tacit denials of the utility of vocational guidance.¹³

He concluded his article with the optimism which was to characterize almost all of his writings, for he followed most criticism with an encouraging, positive prediction, a compliment, or by citing progress which was being made. He wrote:

The progress in these fields of educational and economic endeavors during the past decade gives hope enough for the future. The movement which we are discussing (...) aims to contribute its best thought to these streams of conscious evolution and, at the same time, to derive from them the means for a more efficient vocational guidance of youth in school and occupation.¹⁴

Also in 1916, the book Oral English¹⁵ appeared. Although it

12 Ibid., p. 63

13 Ibid., p. 54.

14 Ibid., p. 64.

15 John Marks Brewer, Oral English, Boston, Ginn, 1916, viii-396 p.

did not mention vocational guidance specifically, it constituted an example of what Brewer hoped for in the new curriculum, for it provided direction in planning class reports which would enrich the listeners with information about personal experiences and insights into the occupational world. Debating and parliamentary procedure were described and group meetings built around open discussion and self-government were urged.

The author wrote a Manual for Teachers to accompany the text in which he suggested that the benefits of the traditional procedures of the English class, i.e., memorization of classic works, declamation, and drill in grammar, spelling, and composition would easily be preserved in a new curriculum which would make less drudgery of the necessary work and inspire more interest and enthusiasm among the students.

Brewer's second article¹⁶ was quite significant in that it was his first opportunity to write for an audience of educators through the pages of School and Society. He did not neglect his opportunity, for the article is an impressive apologia for guidance and a statement of his educational philosophy.

Brewer put at ease his potential critics by freely agreeing that ethical aims must be kept primary and that cultural functions must not be compromised or minimized by any change made in the curriculum. Nevertheless, he held that it was the clear duty of the school to offer, through its curriculum, "participation in and preparation for the more specific activities of life", without sacrificing "important ethical or social effects"

16 John Marks Brewer, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. 5, No. 128, June 9, 1917, p. 661-668.

of becoming "crassly utilitarian or materialistic."¹⁷ Clearly, he hoped to avoid the impasse of either culture or guidance, preferring to blend the best of the traditional curriculum with an infusion of a new approach which would gear all learning to life.

According to Brewer, the youngest child could benefit from constructive play, developing habits of respect for others and fair play - habits which will later have influence on his life as a worker. Kindergarten's lessons in domestic tasks, music, games, stories, and nature are all essential before the adolescent life of any child is allowed to unfold.

Even the kindergarten and primary grades should offer beginnings in acquaintanceship with various types of trades and the general occupational world. Literature, history, and geography provide excellent opportunity for the child to learn the foundations on which the country's industrial and commercial life is built.

The present curriculum, "all academic and all setting-still" is the bane of the child's life, he claimed. Why was the seventh grader, bursting with curiosity and energy, denied access, under school direction, to educative experience in nature, gardening, mechanical activities, self-government? Were these not common components of life? He continued to pose questions for his readers' consideration: Was such a restrictive curriculum deserving of its oft-given title of liberal or broad? Was every child suited to the collegiate preparation now forced on all?¹⁸

17 Ibid., p. 661.

18 Ibid., p. 662.
21

He envisioned a "school of tomorrow" in which the lecture method was postponed until college. Offering painful comparison, he described a secondary school in which no pupil had access "to a drawing instrument, typewriter, lathe, workbench, anvil, printing press, or garden, yet this school boasts of its offering a liberal education."¹⁹

He stated that vocational guidance would like to see every child have a "jack-of-all-trade experience", a "vestibule" or "exploratory" introduction to many facets of life's activities.²⁰

This experience would include academic studies, agriculture of a simple sort, some of the elementary operations of commercial life, an opportunity for experience in manual arts, and a definite training in cooperation with his fellows and teachers. Under such a proposal every intermediate or junior high school would offer a really broad and liberal experience to all, and under a properly conducted system of distribution and concentration, there need be no hardship or danger of trying to 'cast all children after the same pattern'.²¹

Leadership experiences through self-government, camping, scouting, and school activities were absolutely necessary, he wrote, for any curriculum, regardless of how broad it claimed to be.

The junior high school's variety of courses and shared, cooperative experiences should be continued into the high school with the college group simply electing traditional courses and the non-college group electing the pre-vocational training of their choice. The students would then have lived and worked together, gained a mutual appreciation of the academic and

19 Ibid., p. 665.

20 Idem, History of Vocational Guidance, New York, Harper, 1942, p. 133.

21 Idem, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", p. 662.

practical which attainment would remove the unfortunate stratification of prestige which unfortunately polarized vocational and classical education. In order to preserve and strengthen the comprehension of all students of the need for and dignity of all occupations, Brewer recommended a new course which would become an integral part of each student's curriculum. He named it the Life Career Class.

3. The Life Career Class.

The life career class, he observed, should be placed "at least as early as the sixth grade, if children are to be allowed to continue dropping out of school before they reach the eighth grade".²² The life career class, which was to appear in many of his writings, was defined as follows:

Organized and conducted in exactly the same way as a class in history or geography, its subject matter may deal with the advantages and disadvantages of various kinds of occupations, such as those connected with agriculture, mechanics, commerce, manufacturing and civil service.²³

The class was to inculcate the idea that each occupation had its own contribution to make to human welfare and, therefore, a dignity which made no occupation unworthy of choice.

All subjects, he contended, have vocational enlightenment. For the musician, his first music lesson in the third grade was the first step to his career. Even the surgeon and the lawyer struggled with the first Latin lessons. Who could say what results would come from introducing young minds

22 Brewer, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", p. 661.

23 Ibid., p. 662-663.

to a wide variety of experiences? "Since the work activity is so predominant in man's life, any of the commoner studies which completely ignores it must be abstract and lifeless indeed",²⁴ Brewer wrote.

Demonstrating a clear command of the principles of developmental psychology, Brewer explained that postponing the actual career decision as long as possible is wise, for youngsters change their minds and their early choices are too often made on an emotional or fanciful basis. Moreover, with industrial change and development, traditional trades were being eliminated or altered, leaving stranded those who had trained for nothing else. "Boys of poorer families should be given the broadest possible experience in manual exercises in order to enhance their eventual employability."²⁵

Brewer actually envisioned the distant future by urging "double session", "two platoon", or "distributive education" in which students could attend school in the morning and work in a school-connected job in the afternoon, and vice versa.²⁶ Such a plan would hold in school the pupil with a short attention span and give financial relief to those who faced the necessity of helping out at home.

He urged the passage of legislation which would make state aid available to school systems giving the time of at least one teacher to vocational guidance work as one step in "preventing the present waste of

24 Ibid., p. 663.

25 Ibid., p. 664.

26 Ibid., p. 665.

young life, through misguidance and lack of help".²⁷

Brewer repeated the points cited in his first article, but in this message to educators, he made two powerful, telling points. Was it fair, he queried, in a democracy, to spend seventy-five dollars a year on the boy in high school, but no dollars on the boy of the same age and intrinsic value who was at work, or on the streets? Vocational guidance, he stated, was devoted to the success of one hundred per cent of the children and sought to provide aid to the large majority of employment-bound who needed it most.²⁸ He cited the failure to assist these young people as an appalling dereliction of duty.

Brewer assailed the errors made by educators who deliberately failed to recognize their responsibility for the futures of so many youngsters who were entering "the life of the hopeless grind", spent in "occupational anarchy".²⁹

Again, he openly repeated and challenged the unfortunate attitudes of those who felt that it was undesirable to teach children materialistic values; that earning a living was a "caterpillar" way of life; and that spiritual and cultural life should be confined, if it existed for such youngsters at all, to the hours "after the five o'clock whistle".³⁰ "If the kingdom of heaven on earth is to be brought about, spiritual values in

27 Ibid., p. 665.

28 Ibid., p. 665.

29 Ibid., p. 666.

30 Ibid., p. 667.

all the relationships of human activity must be discovered and developed",³¹ he concluded. That obligation rested at the feet of those who were charged with educating the children.

Brewer held the life career class to be the first step in the process of infusing the staid, traditional curriculum with genuine warmth, concern, and service to all the students, even and especially those who were not then considered appropriately prepared for collegiate education. Yet, his approach to the educational establishment was less that of the revolutionary as it was that of the wise, kindly professor who was armed with a deep and just conviction. He believed that his idea's time had come. "For the great masses of men in our society today, life is organized around work, and this is the reason why it is important that every child have adequate vocational guidance."³²

Brewer's first book was published in 1918. In it, he attempted to do many things. He traced the history, the problems, and present status of the guidance movement and carefully described and defined the concepts of a program of vocational guidance. He depicted and condemned as needless the many problems facing out-of-school, out-of-work, and abandoned youth in the large cities. Brewer attempted to make his book a guide to good guidance, an appealing plea on behalf of those who needed guidance, and a sourcebook of ideas and model plans for guidance. He even included a list of practical problems with proposed solutions and a list of frequently asked

31 Ibid., p. 668.

32 John Marks Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, MacMillan, 1918, p. 2.

questions with proposed answers. The book presents a valuable picture of the hopes of an enthusiastic idealist, but one who buttressed hope with practical planning; appeal with quiet determination.

In it, for the first time, he used the term "educational guidance" and defined it as "conscious effort to assist the intellectual growth of an individual."³³ Actually, anything that had to do with instruction and learning was educational guidance, and most educational guidance was vocational guidance. They diverged occasionally when, for example, a youngster was placed in a job or when Latin was urged for its broadening, cultural advantage; the first action being strictly vocational, the second, strictly educational guidance. "The distinction depends on the purpose involved: whether to improve the child's vocational chances or to advance his education."³⁴ In short, the curriculum was to be made up of the stuff of the needs of youth. The entire educational enterprise was to be infused inseparably with helping the individual discover his needs, assess his potentialities, develop his life purpose, and prepare for its actualization. He sought not to eliminate courses, but to enrich them with relevance to life and to center them upon the student's needs.³⁵

Brewer criticized the junior high school's three-track system of college preparation, clerical training, and general (quasi-vocational) courses because too often the child was not prepared to make so important a

33 Ibid., p. 12.

34 Ibid., p. 13.

35 Carroll H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper, p. 6.

a decision and most children had to make that decision with little or no realistic information or assistance. Instead, he proposed a program of varied experience for all, in which practical courses were mixed with traditional courses. Each child, on entering junior high school, would be required to take a life-career course, commercial and industrial geography, elementary economics and sociology, and civics. He would then be able to choose supplementary courses, with the careful assistance of a counselor, from subject matter areas which were to be broadened beyond the ordinary academic titularies. For example, the English group would contain English literature, composition, oral English, school newspapers, dramatics, and debating. The music group called for involvement in band, glee club, or orchestra; and the business group called for experience in managing the lunchroom, book store, and assisting in the administrative offices. He united civics with experience in student government, clubs, assemblies, and camping trips. He also felt that all students should participate in manual endeavor by working on their own school building with the janitors, painting, carpentering, and gardening, and handling stagecraft projects for dramatics.

Brewer wrote his next work bearing on curriculum in 1921.³⁶ In it, he defended the importance of courses in civics, which were under criticism, holding that the business of every good teacher was to train students to disagree with him.³⁷ Only by such courses, he argued, could students

36 John Marks Brewer, "Courses in Citizenship", in School and Society, Vol. 13, No. 318, January 29, 1921, p. 144-146.

37 Ibid., p. 145.

continue to search for better information on the problems of civic and social life and so learn to solve them.³⁸

In March, 1922, Brewer wrote an article³⁹ for industrial arts teachers whom he urged to work for the inclusion of all students in their courses and not just the poor and the slow. He maintained that an understanding of industrial arts was vital to all children.

Brewer had approached the process of enriching the curriculum with guidance by suggesting innovations in each subject which would make it more relevant to life and, resultingly, more interesting to the student who was actually preparing for life. Having discovered that all courses could be so improved, Brewer began to see the entire educational process as one which could well be synonymous with his view of life-career preparation and guidance. The curriculum and guidance need not be juxtaposed; they could be one. To this end, he proposed the guidance-infused curriculum.

4. The Guidance-Infused Curriculum.

In December of 1922, his article "Education as Guidance"⁴⁰ was published, ten years prior to his writing the book of the same title. Brewer advocated the importance of changing the curriculum so that skill in the activity of living became the objective of education, with wisdom and

38 Ibid., p. 146.

39 John Marks Brewer, "The Need for Try-Out Courses in the Junior High School", in The Industrial Arts Magazine, Vol. 11, March, 1922, p. 85-88.

40: -----, "Education as Guidance", in School and Society Vol. 14, December 23, 1922, p. 180-189.

knowledge as the tools. He enlarged on his previous opinion that activities should attend the curriculum, claiming now that they must become the curriculum and that traditional subjects existed to serve the student's growth in school life, home membership, citizenship, vocation, leisure, recreation, personal well-being and religion. This was to be accomplished by having all students live and work together cooperatively. They would learn democratic methods and realize the importance of the individual by student government which was to reflect as fully as possible the civil government. Relevant subjects and cooperative projects would enhance the students' personal life at home. The school was to sponsor club activities which would keep students together, in cooperative endeavor, on weekends and during vacations. By living and working together as good citizens, they would become good citizens.⁴¹

In 1923, Brewer and others⁴² produced a textbook for use in teaching the life-career class. Containing many pictures and easy to read, Occupations was a useful manual which advised the reader how to proceed in his investigations, supplied him with a good overview of opportunities in the world of work, and offered sound advice on personality, attitudes, and deportment.

41 Ibid., p. 186.

42 Enoch Burton Gowin, Wm. Alonzo Wheatley, and John Marks Brewer, Occupations, A Textbook for the Educational, Civic, and Vocational Guidance for Boys and Girls, Boston, Ginn, 1923, x-441 p.

On October 16, 1925, Brewer addressed the opening meeting of the faculty of the Graduate School at Harvard.⁴³ He reemphasized the same points he had been promulgating patiently for the previous nine years, noting that two-thirds of the population of our country worked with their hands, but that public education did very little to prepare them for life, although they would pay the bulk of the taxes for public education.⁴⁴

However, he stated, "In 1920 it would have been very difficult to find a manual training shop in a junior high school building, but in 1925, we can count 569, and the number is rapidly increasing."⁴⁵ Brewer also cited the need for better educational materials for the teaching of occupations, noting that the great majority of teachers were completely unfamiliar with commerce, industry, and trades.⁴⁶

In 1927, he defended the importance of business training in junior high schools,⁴⁷ reiterating the vital importance of exploratory experience before the final vocational selection is made.

In 1929, he wrote an article which synthesized his thoughts on vocational guidance and the curriculum, when he stated that since education

43 Brewer, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance", in The Harvard Alumni Bulletin, Vol. 28, No. 5, October 29, 1925, p. 129-137.

44 Ibid., p. 131.

45 Ibid., p. 133.

46 Ibid., p. 133.

47 Idem, "The Arguments for Junior Business Training", in School and Society, Vol. 25, No. 627, January 1, 1927, p. 7-8.

is preparation for life, and the essence of life is activity, it is small wonder that children lost interest in stultified courses about which only the teacher was enthusiastic. The curriculum should contain not only factual content, but it should also provide the student with opportunities to learn how to study, to use tools of reference, to learn how to question, to weigh opinions, and make wise decisions. Especially, the curriculum should help the student to investigate life's opportunities and to choose that curriculum which would best suit his plan for life. Brewer could not see how any curriculum could accomplish this without the sampling opportunity contained in the vestibule, or life-career class.⁴⁸

Finally, in 1932, Brewer clarified his concepts of the ultimate purposes of the guidance-infused curriculum. Regardless of final occupational choice, guidance should have made each child aware of other areas and their problems so that guidance will have taught vocational cooperation and youngsters will not form a world so selfish that men prey upon and exploit each other. Vocational guidance, then, is a plan and procedure for achieving these two aims: the aim of helping to secure individual success, and the social aim of fitting pupils to create a better world of work.⁴⁹

Therefore, it is seen that Brewer viewed the school and the principal agent responsible for the preparation of the child for life. Faced with the sad facts of school-leaving by large numbers of youth, he urged first that

48 Brewer, "Educational Guidance", in The School Executive, Vol. 48, February, 1929, p. 268-269.

49 -----, "Vocational Guidance: What It Is", in Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. 11, October, 1932, p. 3-6.

educators add to the curriculum a life-career class and that they try to interest the potential school-leaver in enhancing his employability by remaining in school. However, very shortly, he demanded that the entire curriculum be revised, placing the traditional courses in one track, but adding others which could be elected after vestibule, or exploratory experiences in junior high school. In such a plan, every student was to be exposed to a wide variety of experiences which would enhance his readiness to choose his final direction, which choice would be made with the guidance of a counselor.

Eventually, Brewer believed that educational guidance and vocational guidance should be harmonized, serving the futures of both the college-bound and the work-bound, both of whom would gain a deeper understanding and appreciation of the other as a result of the new, guidance-infused curriculum, in which all courses and activities would relate to realistic preparation for life. This revised curriculum, to Brewer, was vital and inseparable from the foundation of a good guidance program.

Although educational guidance broadened the confining term "vocational guidance," its major weakness was that of giving the impression that guidance could be taught. This provided a convenient excuse for not employing a counselor. Furthermore, while it urged the teacher to teach the child rather than a subject, it opened the door to pressures, which would demand that guidance be primarily ethical, moral, patriotic or inspirational, etc.

However, if this plan were to succeed, the most important people involved were the teachers. To them, Brewer next turned his attention.

CHAPTER III

THE GUIDANCE TEACHER-GUIDANCE SPECIALIST

1. The Guidance Teacher

When Brewer began to work on behalf of guidance, there were no full-time counselors in the schools. The first hope of guidance advocates was that teachers would strive to add the guidance function to their regular duties or else be freed from some of the teaching in order to devote time to guidance. Therefore, the writer uses the term guidance teacher, for the first guidance counselors in the schools were teachers who combined vocational guidance with teaching, a practise which is till carried on today.

In Brewer's first article, he clearly defined the training and function of the guidance teacher. He was to be a teacher who had mastered the study of the economic, industrial, commercial, and professional life of the community and who could cooperate with teachers, workers, and employers.¹ He was to follow up the school leaver, assisting him whenever possible and deriving from him information which would enhance the assistance of future school leavers.

Noting that a score of communities had already appointed guidance "supervisors", Brewer described their work as assisting teachers

¹ Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 54-63.

to find vocational values in the subject areas; conferring with teacher groups, civic organizations, labor unions, and managerial groups in order to help students obtain work; conducting life-career classes, and assisting with extra curricular activities.²

Yet, he cited the fact that most teachers were so ignorant of the occupational world that they were unable, and, therefore, reluctant to advise students on vocational opportunities. Furthermore, he claimed that teachers were guilty of characterizing students abruptly and unfairly on the basis of race, creed, or economic standing.³

Brewer realized that one of the most stubborn obstacles to the adoption of the concept of the importance of the individual was the deep resentment of immigrant and lower-class youngsters which existed in society and the schools. Educated members of immigrant or minority groups were unwelcome as teachers in most American communities, regardless of their qualifications. Indeed, the teachers in New England were white, Anglo-Saxon and Protestant almost to a man. The public schools were held to be the wonderful product of the Protestant ethic. Their invasion by poorer classes had been barely tolerated, but the idea of changing the schools in order further to accommodate them was at first deemed to be intolerable and preposterous.⁴ Moreover, thousands of such children were encouraged by their uneducated and needy parents to work rather than

2 Ibid., p. 57.

3 Ibid., p. 62.

4 John Lawrence Cutler, Religion in New England, Boston, Unitarian, 1938, p. 226.

attend school because the dire task of survival was of paramount importance.

Brewer castigated the stand-offish attitude of teachers towards school-leavers when he pointed out the absurdity of assuming that parents were able to supply all the vocational guidance necessary or that the job itself would somehow automatically furnish it.

One of the finest statements of Brewer's opinion of teachers is his "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance",⁵ and his concept of them is significant, for the teachers were to be the practitioners of his theory of guidance. However, before they could do so, it was necessary for them to correct unfair practises which Brewer considered to be damaging. If the teacher is to contribute to "complete living", he must analyze life and escape the narrowness of his own cultural matrix. Yet, he may remain true to his profession, for, broadly conceived, guidance is a long, continued, vital educational experience of great importance to each child for his adult life.

2. The Scope and Functions of the Guidance Teacher

The guidance teacher was to assist all of his students in the following endeavors:

⁵ Brewer, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. 5, No. 128, June 9, 1917, p. 661-668.

1. Laying a broad foundation of useful experiences.
2. Studying occupational opportunities.
3. Choosing an occupation.
4. Preparing for the occupation.
5. Entering upon work.
6. Securing promotions and making adjustments.⁶

Noting that teachers often repressed and discountenanced cooperative activities among children in favor of the quiet, orderly class, Brewer reminded them that cooperation in society was bound to increase rather than decrease as America melded together her many ethnic groups. Therefore, the teachers should be the first to prepare themselves and next their students for a new America where class, ethnic, and religious differences would be de-emphasized in favor of cooperative living and mutual respect. Vocational guidance, he said, seeks an attitude on the part of the teacher that will allow him to see his children as laborers and farmers as well as lawyers and doctors; an attitude which will make him sensitive to the practical needs of his pupils and alert to help them plan their futures.⁷

He criticized "teachers and vocational counselors" for asking the child what career he has chosen, preferring that they ask which careers he is considering. In this, Brewer reveals a sensitivity to the insecurity and confusion that can exist in a young mind.

He plainly reminded the guidance teacher that vocational guidance sought to "serve the needs of all the children of the community, whether rich or poor, working or not, and whether most interested in

6 Ibid., p. 661.

7 Ibid., p. 663.

academic studies or in handiwork."⁸

Brewer elaborated on the guidance teacher's functions beyond those prescribed in his first article. He was to be a liaison officer between school and community; employers and potential employees; advisor to teacher, parent, child, and employers. He was to form a cooperative group of representatives of all the major community facets, follow up the young worker and help him to relocate if his employment situation proved to be negative.

Some of Brewer's statements on proper counseling procedures have held true down through the years, even to modern counselor training. One of these was his insistence that counselors were not to decide for their students. Rather, they were to make clear the opportunities open to the youngster and to answer his questions, but the decision was to be his alone.

However, other statements he made would meet with resistance from modern counselors, such as his claim that guidance "cannot be concerned with the few at the expense of the many".⁹ With the advent of the psychologically-trained counselor, the problems of the individual would become paramount, but at the time, Brewer indicated that the counselor was not to care for a select, bright, or wealthy group and ignore those whose educations were to be short and who faced immediate employment.¹⁰

8 Ibid., p. 664.

9 Ibid., p. 665.

10 Ibid., p. 665.

Guidance was too important to be entrusted to private, profit-making agencies; it was to be controlled by the state and the counselor was to be directly responsible to the public school superintendent in order to avoid misuse of his services by other educational or public officers who might not understand the true function or vital importance of guidance. Another reason for the latter recommendation was that as the curriculum was revised, the guidance teacher should be free to guide the changes without pressure from teachers or principals who might hinder the advance of the guidance objectives.

In The Vocational Guidance Movement,¹¹ Brewer states that he does not feel that "a stranger can well counsel a stranger"¹² and for this reason, counseling was de-emphasized at the Boston Vocational Bureau. Yet, the counseling function was to be an integral part of educational guidance, for he stated that once a teacher began to teach a life-career class, or one in occupational information, pupils will begin to come to him with personal questions and problems. Therefore, "Educational guidance will probably mean not less but more counseling."¹³ He warned the reader that the best work of the guidance teacher will not be readily measurable nor will it lend itself to display, for it will rest in the happiness and success of the student in time to come. Yet, he felt that any fair school committeeman would be willing to invest in

11 John Marks Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, Macmillan, 1918, xi-333 p.

12 Ibid., p. 26.

13 Ibid., p. 98.

such a service if he considered the pressing needs of the young.

Brewer agreed with Bonser¹⁴ that the four necessary qualities of every guidance worker should be "information, experience, appropriate personality, and a capacity for constructive research."¹⁵

However, he almost surrendered the counseling function to the teachers when he pointed out that not only are they closest to the students, but that their attitude can spell success or failure for the guidance programs. At this point, Brewer was in the process of modifying his concept. The guidance teacher idea was supplemented by the more intensively trained guidance director who would coordinate the program and advise the guidance teachers. Hoping to avoid polarization and to establish close cooperation, Brewer urged that teacher training prepare the candidate with an appreciation for and understanding of guidance. He also insisted that guidance personnel respect and understand the role and functions of the teacher.¹⁶

Brewer's guidance teacher was to be a person of first-class ability who would naturally merit respect and be able to gain cooperation from the community and school personnel alike.¹⁷ Every counselor must be an outward-going, communicative individual, quite prepared to confer at any time with a

14 Frederick G. Bonser, "Is 'Prevocational' a Needed or Desirable Term?", in School and Society, Vol. 2, No. 50, December 11, 1915, p. 830.

15 Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, p. 141.

16 Ibid., p. 142.

17 Ibid., p. 282.

student, teacher, principal, superintendent, labor union steward, employment manager, corporation president, or state legislator.¹⁸

In 1925, Brewer was still calling for a revision in teaching methods.¹⁹ Although he was able to praise the good work done in expanding opportunities for youngsters via curriculum expansion, he decried the fact that teachers were largely ignoring the lower groups, allowing them to choose courses with no assistance from any teacher. As a result, Brewer himself went into the schools and talked with shop boys who thought their course would prepare them for college and commercial course girls who failed a simple test on basic business terms and promptly reported and denounced these tragic proofs of neglect.²⁰ His dramatic evaluation gained considerable attention from educators and wide public interest.

Too many teachers were closing the doors of opportunity on students by shuffling them into courses with no thought of their abilities or interests. Such a teacher was as guilty of malpractice, he charged, as was "a surgeon who operates on a patient without first making a diagnosis."²¹

Brewer pointed out that teachers could then (1925) undertake more university courses in guidance than ever before, but he stated

18 Ibid., p. 283.

19 John Marks Brewer, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance", in The Harvard Alumni Bulletin, Vol. 28, No. 5, October 29, 1925, p. 129-137.

20 Ibid., p. 131.

21 Ibid., p. 133.

that three new courses should be offered: Principles of Guidance, Techniques of Counseling, and Organization and Administration of Guidance.²² First envisioned by Brewer, these titles have endured.

He sternly pointed out to all that something must be done "to fructify the great desert in juvenile life between the ages of 14 and 18."²³ Only twenty American cities were doing effective work in guidance, hardly sufficient to enhance "the empty day of the child worker", the boys and girls who were "allowed to waste themselves through the lack of a guiding hand".²⁴ Kitson²⁵ verified Brewer's statement by observing that in 1925 "the very minimum guidance services (classes in occupations and job-centered help) was given to only 2 or 3 million children out of 20 million in American schools".²⁶

In writing the introduction to Doermann's book,²⁷ Brewer again insisted that guidance was an educational experience and that any teacher-counselor who attempted to direct the student without awakening him was in grave error.

22 Ibid., p. 134.

23 Ibid., p. 135.

24 Ibid., p. 137.

25 Harry Dexter Kitson, The Psychology of Vocational Adjustment, Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1925, vii-273 p.

26 Ibid., p. 5.

27 Henry I. Doermann, Orientation of College Freshmen, Baltimore, Williams & Wilkins, 1926, xiv-392 p.

In his next book,²⁸ Brewer and colleagues provided a number of actual cases which covered many problem areas teachers were likely to encounter in educational and vocational guidance. He repeated many of his previously stated concerns and showed the unnecessary financial cost to cities which allowed children to fail in courses which were improperly elected. However, Brewer realized that a guidance-oriented teacher alone was insufficient. He began to write of the guidance specialist.

3. The Emergence of the Guidance Specialist.

"The guidance movement has proceeded far enough to make it clear that individual counseling can best grow out of group counseling."²⁹ By this, Brewer meant that classroom discussions would prompt questions regarding personal plans from the students.

For the first time in his published works, Brewer states:

Specially trained counselors are necessary for the work of educational and vocational guidance. The teacher of arithmetic, geography, Latin, history, civics, algebra, or practical arts is not likely to³⁰ be competent to advise either educationally or vocationally.

This is an important shift in his philosophy, for up to this point, he had urged teachers to handle guidance themselves in cooperation with a trained director.

28 John Marks Brewer, Mabelle B. Blake, Ella L. Bresnahan, et al., Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance, Boston, Ginn, 1926, xxiv-243 p.

29 Ibid., p. 5.

30 Ibid., p. 6.

He categorically disapproved of shunting the guidance function onto the teacher, the home room teacher, or the vice-principal. If schools needed specialists in science, so did they need specialists in guidance. The student had less need of "heart-to-heart" talks from the untrained faculty than they did of "head-to-head" talks with trained counselors.³¹ Here, then, he completed the sharp turnabout from his earlier statements in The Vocational Guidance Movement in which he urged that all teachers should dispense vocational guidance assistance.³²

However firm or optimistic he may have been in his plans for guidance, teachers were not about to change too quickly. The strange dichotomy which seemed to characterize teachers of the time, i.e., the loyalty to democratic, free education for all, coupled with a disdain for poor children or those from the homes of the foreign-born, persisted. Conditioned attitudes refused to melt under the urging of one Harvard professor. For example, writing in School Life³³ in 1927, Reavis urged teachers to do all they could to develop the capacities of their students, help them plan their leisure, their future, and to perform other quite laudable services. Yet, in the same article, he wrote with disdain of the negative influence on the schools of the youth from the foreign and lower classes. The message for such as they should be this: become

31 Ibid., p. 6.

32 Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, p. 141.

33 William C. Reavis, "General Guidance Responsibilities of the Secondary School", in School Life, Vol. 13, No. 1, September, 1927, p. 1-3.

scholars or leave.³⁴ The counselor should, apparently, spend time only with those who "belonged" in school.

Brewer continued to supply the small, but growing group of guidance-dedicated teachers with information, suggestions, plans, and goals. His first attention was devoted to the characteristics and tasks of the good counselor.

4. Brewer's View of the Tasks of the Good Counselor.

In 1929, Brewer still bemoaned the lack of vocational experience which counselors had, and urged them to obtain an understanding of the industrial and business world through their studies, their professional duties and visits, and by summer work experiences, for the educated had scant association with the world of work.³⁵

In the same year, he listed the five tasks of every good counselor:

1. To serve the individual immediately.
2. To improve the guidance technique by following up the individual cases.
3. To improve the wisdom of children regarding various occupations through the cooperation of people already in the various fields of activity.
4. To improve the administration of vocational guidance, and
5. To contribute to the development and improvement of other forms of guidance.³⁶

34 Ibid., p. 3.

35 Brewer, "The Vocational Experience of Counselors", in The Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. 7, November 28, 1929, p. 76-78.

36 -----, "The Task of Vocational Guidance", in The Teachers' College Record, Vol. 30, April, 1929, p. 693-702.

Yet, even the professional counselor was not to displace the vitally important liberalized curriculum. "It has been found ineffective", he concluded, "to organize counseling without class work."³⁷

In summary, therefore, Brewer's first ten years produced a view of the teacher that began with stress on the teacher's doing guidance work with the aid of an expanded curriculum, and changed to the teacher's doing guidance work in cooperation with a guidance specialist, or director, and finally evolved to the professional counselor's assuming full responsibility for counseling and guidance work, still working with teachers and the expanded curriculum.

The counselor was to be an occupational expert, preferably a former teacher with business or occupational experience, who was fully capable of organizing, directing, cooperating, and communicating with many types of adults, yet who respected and assisted all of the youngsters who needed help with planning. There was in his concept, however, a lack of stress on psychological preparation for handling emotional problems.

The concepts of the guidance-oriented curriculum and of the professional counselor were well propounded by Brewer.. Their genesis has been traced from his initial writings which were seen in the light of the educational conditions of that period. In order to determine to what extent, or in what form, these concepts survived the passing of time, it is essential that the educational conditions extant at the beginning of the most recent decade be examined.

37 Brewer, "Educational Guidance", in The School Executive, Vol. 48, February, 1929, p. 269.

CHAPTER IV

PUBLIC SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN THE EARLY SIXTIES

1. The Educational Conditions of the Time.

In order to understand the modern academic melange wherein the enduring influences of Brewer's works are to be identified, it is necessary to review the bewildering influences which shaped modern public school education.

One of the early and major forces which can alter any society 'from within, education was often set upon by a citizenry whose demands on education oft exceeded its willingness to sacrifice for it. As legislation gradually outlawed child labor and raised the school leaving age, increasingly large numbers of Americans demanded more public schooling for their children. Serving a more heterogenous group than ever before, the public schools of the sixties were plagued by such problems as the maladjusted young, those with special health problems, delinquents, racial tensions, the need to be more responsive to the employment needs of the non-college bound, and the demands for curricular changes and staff to handle these tasks. By 1960, equality of opportunity and equality of status were twin ideals the nation had adopted, and the nation fully expected the public schools to accomplish the goals.

Writing in 1962, Conant stated,

When this century began, approximately fifty percent of the boys and girls fifteen years of age were not attending school; many were at work. Fifty years later, the percentage of this group attending school had reached 85.¹

He pointed out that in 1910, only thirty-five percent of the seventeen-year olds were in school, but in 1962, the corresponding figure exceeded seventy percent. Furthermore, over a third of American young people were attending college, compared to a fifteenth or twentieth of their European peers.²

Yet, despite the upsurge in school attendance, Arbuckle³ opined that the sixties would see thirty percent of all youngsters entering the labor force without a high school diploma. The dilemma of the school leaver or "dropout" which caused Brewer such deep anguish had yet to be solved.

The rising standard of living and literacy in the sixties brought enrollment increases of a million per year so that the national school system which educated some forty-eight million in 1963 was educating fifty-two million in 1967 and government predictions warned that accommodation for seventy-two million must be made by 1980.⁴

1 James B. Conant, "The Comprehensive High School" in Talks on American Education, Henry Chauncey, ed., New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962, p. 26.

2. Ibid., p. 25.

3 Dugald Arbuckle, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, p. 27.

4 William M. French, America's Educational Tradition, Boston, Heath, 1967, p. 364.

The anthropologist, Margaret Mead, inveighed against even the higher school leaving laws, arguing that society had no moral justification to allow young people voluntarily to depart from learning when society fully understood that poverty or personal problems usually caused the "dropout" to leave and that poverty and personal problems could both be overcome best by more, not less, education. "Why should learning a minimum be a legal right and requirement, but learning a maximum amount be a privilege?" she asked.⁵

Miller⁶ observed that education in the sixties was clearly one of America's largest and most expensive enterprises. No longer the private domain of the college-bound, the public schools made a direct contribution to national economic growth which was largely based on the effectiveness of labor which, in turn, was greatly dependent on improving education.

Throughout the public schools of the sixties, the prim school-marm of the past had been largely replaced by militant, unionized teachers who brought the strike into the profession of education. Increased public pressure on and interest in the school system resulted in a multitude of divergent manifestations such as the bitter conflict over prayer which brought down the Supreme Court ban and the battle waged by the Council for Basic Education and Admiral Hyman Rickover for a

5 Margaret Mead, "Questions That Need Asking" from Teachers College Record, Vol. 63, No. 2, November, 1961, p. 90.

6 Richard I. Miller, "Education in a Changing Society", in Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, Washington National Education Association, 1963, p. 44.

preservation of traditional academic excellence versus a growing investment in "the extra curriculum" and life adjustment functions.⁷

The problems of poverty, threatened nuclear war, pressures and tensions in the large urban schools, the sudden polarization of a "youth culture", their distrust of the establishment, "the generation gap", narcotic abuse, and the battle over sex education are only a few of the prevailing winds which characterized the atmosphere of the groves of academe during the decade of the sixties, constituting a drastically different milieu from the comparatively serene, authoritarian public schools which Brewer sought to improve.

The schools which Brewer sought to improve, by comparison, suffered from too little responsiveness to society and from too little concerned involvement by the citizenry. They were staid, serene, authoritarian, and inadvertently class conscious. All of Brewer's pleas could well be summarized as the plea that the schools retain and serve all school-aged youngsters in such a way that they will learn of life in school, be able to prepare realistically for it, and gain, in the process, ideals which would enable them to be useful, happy citizens. Brewer's America and Brewer's schools were far less complex than they had become in 1960, but his ideals were still vital and relevant.

The fact is that an adult population which is only a few less than three percent illiterate⁸ has produced a more complex society which

⁷ , A Citizen's Manual for Public Schools, Washington, Council for Basic Education, 1965, p. 36.

⁸ George D. Spender, Education and Anthropology, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1965, p. 187.

foisted its problems and demands upon public education. The teachers suddenly found themselves obligated to offer far more diverse intellectual and practical preparation than had previously been required throughout the history of the profession. Social and psychological problems resulting from the uncertainty of adults regarding the role that their children should be allowed to fill in the home, school, and society caused the young eventually to feel cynicism, doubt, despair, and distrust of the older generation. They also turned these feelings on the government, politicians, formal religion and other institutions which had traditionally received virtually unquestioned loyalty and respect from former generations, including their parents' generation. Indeed, Brewer's magnum opus contained entire chapters on guidance for religious activity, citizenship, "right doing", thoughtfulness, cooperation and wholesome living.⁹

Comfortably moralistic, he wrote, "Until the kingdom of heaven is come upon earth, there will evidently be more, not less, work to do in improving human conduct."¹⁰ If stealing, bootlegging, lying and cheating can be taught, he reasoned, so can the importance of religion and ethical conduct. The task should be shared by the school with the home and the church, but the former should teach ideals, the latter two denominationalism.¹¹

Youngsters of the sixties might have laughed at much of this;

9 John Marks Brewer, Education As Guidance, New York, Macmillan, 1938, p. ix.

10 Ibid., p. 486.

11 Ibid., p. 458.

their parents might have objected strenuously.

We must realize, cautioned Mead, that youngsters growing up in the mid-twentieth century have an unprecedented life expectancy of seventy years, live in a world of automation, global communication, drugs, and space exploration, and yet face daily the possibility of the suicide of the entire human species.¹²

The teenagers of the sixties who grew up in the fifties had little knowledge of, or interest in, their parents' world, for their own world had changed too violently and rapidly within their own lifetimes. "We have to face the fact that from the 1930's to the 1960's, there has been a social revolution and that our culture has undergone profound changes."¹³

Those changes sent reeling the proponents of "things as they used to be" in education and society turned with enthusiasm to guidance in the hope that this long-neglected function might offer calm direction to the young who were caught up in the confusions of the educational conditions of their time.

2. The Expanded Role of Guidance in Modern Education.

That guidance has expanded its role in and contributions to modern

12 Margaret Mead, "A Redefinition of Education", in N.E.A. Journal, Vol. 48, No. 2, October, 1959, p. 15.

13 Torsten Husén, "Social Determinants of the Comprehensive School", in International Review of Education, Vol. 9, No. 2, 1964, p. 158.

education is an obvious truism. Yet, it is important to note the nature of the expansion, for in the process of growth, many advocates articulated what guidance should be; the debate goes on.

"Men work better when they are doing what nature has especially fitted them for", Parsons wrote in 1894.¹⁴ The infant movement which had its birth in a Boston settlement house was to become a recognized third force in public education, supplementing the instructional and administrative, but doing so via a vastly different rationale for which Parson's idea child served as matrix.

The combination of the word "guidance" with "vocational" for many years and the recognition of the National Vocational Guidance Association as the primary national guidance association served both to help and to hinder the growth of the professional discipline. It helped because for half a century its existence reminded educator and layman alike of the obligation of the school to prepare and to guide the young wisely and well for their eventual place in society. It hindered because an increasing number of guidance personnel began to feel that guidance had to be concerned with much more than vocational counseling and placement.

Brewer realized this and expanded his concept of the counselor's duties to include assisting the pupil with personal, academic, and behavioral problems as well as with vocational planning and preparation.¹⁵

14 Frank Parsons, The Country's Need, Boston, Arena, 1894, p. 9.

15 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 158.

The sophistication of mental health and psychological concepts so influenced the thinking and dynamics of the guidance workers that in 1952, the American Personnel and Guidance Association was formed, with the National Vocational Guidance Association as a subdivision. The way was thus cleared for more professional attention to the expansion and refinement of the operational aspects of modern guidance.

As counselors in the public schools gradually increased in number, they formed the American School Counselors' Association, omitting entirely the words "vocational" and "guidance". Thus, the trend moved away from the concept of "guidance" counselors, but divergence of opinion still exists, according to Arbuckle¹⁶ who reports that some authorities define guidance as a concept, others as a point of view, and yet others as a number of definite services.

Shertzer and Stone found that graduate students were able to find over one hundred definitions of guidance in recent professional literature. Yet, despite the wide divergence, there was substantial agreement which led the authors to propose the following definition: "Guidance is the process of helping an individual understand himself and his world."¹⁷ It should be noted that this definition, distilled from the many and the modern, is extremely close to that propounded by Brewer in 1932.

16 Dugald S. Arbuckle, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1967, p. 99.

17 Bruce Shertzer and Shelley C. Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1966, p. 31.

Guidance is frequently misconceived; it is best understood through the concept of self guidance, its ultimate aim. [. . .] Guidance is neither adjusting nor suggesting, neither conditioning nor controlling, neither directing nor taking responsibility for anybody. [. . .] The work we do in schools may be described as helping children to understand, organize, extend and improve their individual and cooperative activities.¹⁸

Gradually, it became evident that the personal, human needs of the student could no longer be handled as an incidental function of the teacher or administrator, although there is not yet unanimity in this realization. Therefore, guidance provided professional management in the field of human relations just as the administrators supplied professional management in the overall operation of the schools and as the teacher did in the classroom.

Constantly involved in a group situation, the student learned to respond as a member of the group. Therefore, whether his group was a class, a club, an athletic team, a neighborhood gang, or an informal social gathering, it made certain unspoken demands of conformity upon him, thus deepening his need for a situation in which he would be looked upon as an individual whose responses, ideas, and concerns are matters of prime importance to a sincerely interested person.¹⁹

The number of counselors employed stands as a further indication of the expanded role of guidance in modern education. In 1954, seven thousand counselors in the nation were assigned half-time or more to

18 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 2.

19 Gerald T. Kowitz and Norma Giess Kowitz, Operating Guidance Services for the Modern School, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968, p. 9.

guidance responsibilities. By 1965, there were thirty-one thousand full-time counselors and the counselor-pupil ratio had dropped from 1 to 960 in 1958, to 1 to 507 in 1965.²⁰ Membership in the national professional guidance associations burgeoned correspondingly.

Of unquestioned importance to the expanded role of guidance in modern education was federal legislation, representing the long-awaited national response to the pleas of Brewer and many others on behalf of unguided or misdirected youth. The training, placement, and counseling of the youthful worker were the subjects of eleven major federal acts. By 1965, the government was spending \$157 million on 1,674 Manpower Development and Training projects, involving 120,194 trainees.²¹

Such legislation accustomed the public to the federal government's response to the plight of those young people whose lives were adversely affected by the complexities of economic and cultural change. Such opulent assistance was unheard of in Brewer's day.

However, most authorities credit one piece of federal legislation with having done more to vivify modern guidance expansion than all of the previous, ancillary attempts had accomplished. Declaring that "the security of the Nation requires the fullest development of the mental resources and technical skills of its young men and women", the Congress of the United States declared, "We must increase

20 Shertzer and Stone, op. cit., p. 78.

21 Arbuckle, op. cit., p. 13.

our efforts to identify and educate more of the talent of our Nation."²² Having so spoken and agreed, Congress passed, in 1958, the National Defense Education Act.

The several titles of the act provided direct financial assistance to schools which instituted or expanded their programs of guidance, counseling, and testing, and, among other things, empowered the Commissioner of Education to contract with colleges and universities to support new programs for the training of counselors. The "NDEA" was responsible, then, in large measure, for the spectacular increase in full-time counselors and for the reduction of the counselor-pupil ratio previously cited. Brewer probably never envisioned such national recognition and sponsorship for guidance. Certainly no such funding existed during his lifetime.

The George-Dean Act of 1936 provided \$2,500,000 to states for guidance and vocational information; the NDEA of 1958 provided sixty million dollars. Parson's Vocation Bureau in 1910 was the only counselor training institution in the country; in 1957, there were 212 universities providing such training; in 1963, some 450 institutions offered counselor training.²³

Nevertheless, it would be erroneous to view federal legislation as the only impetus for the expansion of guidance. Factors already named, the Sputnik achievement of the Russians, increased sophistication of

²² , Commitment to Youth, Washington, U.S. Office of Education, 1964, p. 6.

²³ Schertzer and Stone, op.cit., p. 42.

public expectations, enhanced scholarship and research in mental health and psychology all rendered salubrious influence. Dugan²⁴ identified further factors such as increasing public familiarity with and acceptance of guidance services, the support and influence of educational leaders and professional organizations for an adequate counselor-student ratio, and national concern over correctable deficiencies in the young, drop-outs, economic and cultural deprivation, all of which provided a groundwork of ultimate grass-roots support for the dramatic federal funding and sponsorship.

Brewer had worked long and patiently to establish not only guidance programs, but also organizations of professional guidance personnel. Those professional organizations in guidance for years worked long and patiently in anticipation of the day when the President and Congress would heed their concerns and galvanize into massive action. From the first conference of persons involved in guidance services in Boston in 1910, which conference marked the nascence of the National Vocational Guidance Association in 1913, which Brewer served as president, to the founding of the American Personnel and Guidance Association in 1952, guidance workers were dedicated, determined and hopeful as was Brewer before them, in the face of misunderstanding, opposition and, worse, apathy. In 1965, the APGA had eighteen thousand members in seven professional divisions.²⁵

24 Willis E. Dugan, "Critical Concerns of Counselor Education" in Counselor Education and Supervision, Volume 0, 1961, p. 5.

25 Shertzer and Stone, op. cit., p. 38.

It is significant to note that Brewer seemed quietly confident of the eventual expansion and acceptance of guidance. In 1942, he cited the fact that our society prizes the importance of the individual and that our society contained four factors which would inevitably call for response and assistance from guidance. They were the division of labor, the growth of technology, the spread of modern forms of democracy, and the successful establishment and extension of vocational education.²⁶ In 1944, he was still pleading for more public concern for the forgotten youth who was confused and unguided. He called upon all "alert citizens to formulate a positive demand that education be improved to care for those least prepared for its opportunities."²⁷

Having traced the expansion of guidance in modern education, it is necessary to treat in more detail the prevailing, prior influences of two great forces without which the progress of the movement would have been drastically impeded, despite the factors already elucidated. They are considered apart from the other influences because they permeated and dominated the totality of education in America, a concept indispensable to the subsequent points of this paper.

26 John Marks Brewer, History of Vocational Guidance, New York, Harper, 1942, p. 3.

27 -----, "For Better Education", in The Christian Science Monitor, September 21, 1944, p. 2.

3. The Impact of World War II and the Space Age.

An attempted total evaluation of all of the ramifications of the impact of World War II on our society, or even on education, would be a vast undertaking. Hence, insofar as is possible, its influence on guidance only will be considered.

The first federally sponsored, nationwide recognition and utilization of guidance services was the establishment of counseling services in the Separation Centers of the Armed Forces two years before the end of World War II. Military experience, training, and educational courses were there summarized, analyzed, and prepared in a form which the dischargee could present to educational or occupational authorities. Counseling was offered to all whose post-service plans were indefinite.

To their credit, government officials and military leaders determined to do everything possible to assist the returning servicemen, but facilities were limited, the numbers all but overwhelming, and the availability of trained counselors and rehabilitation programs sadly inadequate. Business, industry, and education were called upon to prepare not only to receive, but to counsel and otherwise assist and train the veterans.

Viewing the cooperation of the civilian sectors as a moral and patriotic duty, Evans warned them that "Counseling given at Separation Centers and military hospitals should be regarded as only preliminary to the work of civilian agencies".²⁸ Both the governmental and civilian

28 Colonel George R. Evans, "The Army Separation, Classification and Vocational Counseling Program" in Occupations, Vol.XXIII, November,1944, p.70.

leadership were suddenly and thoroughly impressed with the drastic and vital need for counseling. The hundreds of thousands of servicemen who returned to adult citizenship were likewise fully cognizant of the need for and the functions of guidance services.

Nor did the government limit to the separation function its determination to provide guidance. The United States Veterans Administration established at a crash-program rate, four hundred guidance centers at colleges and universities throughout the nation. Broadly conceived and adequately financed, these centers put into operation a comprehensive program of testing, counseling, job placement, and rehabilitation training, correlating for the first time the skills of the counselor, educator, physician, clinical psychologist, and social worker. That the public's familiarity with and understanding of the guidance functions were consequently extended is obvious. What may be less obvious is the enduring value of the resulting expansion of public understanding of the existence, nature, and crippling effects of emotional, social, and physical problems.

This appreciation, coupled with the achievements of the guidance teams, provided a dramatic demonstration of success for guidance on a national stage before an anxious - and grateful - citizenry. A direct result of these programs was the marked stimulation of guidance interest and activity on the campuses chosen to host the veterans' centers.²⁹

²⁹ Percival W. Hutson, The Guidance Function in Education, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, p. 6.

The war's upsetting influence on family life was self-evident. The absence of the father from so many homes resulted in a variety of problems for the young. The veteran-father returned from an experience which enhanced his understanding of others and often of the damaging results on the personality of psychological pressures. Not only had technology and educational improvements paved the way, but the direct results of World War II played a significant role in the important shift in the public's concern over and interest in the individual differences in children. The nation seemed to become interested in the "whole child" and expected the schools to be aware of more than his ability to memorize material and to conform, and insisted that not only his intellect, but his personal adjustment be considered. Ulich³⁰ and Pounds³¹ consider this shift in public perception of the child to be a highly significant factor in the remarkable public response to the subsequent challenge of Russian technology to the American educational system.

Robinson³² points out the fact that World War II brought government and industry into a degree of close cooperation unparalleled in American history. Not only was great effort expended to fit workers

30 Robert Ulich, The Education of Nations: A Comparison in Historical Perspective, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1961, p. 142.

31 Ralph L. Pounds, The Development of Education in Western Culture, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, p. 283.

32 Francis P. Robinson, Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling, New York, Harper, 1950, p. 110.

to war jobs where they could be maximally productive, but industry continued, in post-war years, to develop and to duplicate government-inspired personnel programs, for the productivity of the well-adjusted, satisfied worker was far more desirable than the interruptions and inefficiency of the same worker in an incompatible assignment.

The Practise of vocational guidance and the understanding of the functions and benefits of counseling penetrated deeply into American national culture as a result of World War II, which conclusion is supported by the fact that guidance programs for adults were thereafter continued and increased by industry, private institutions, federal and state governments, and certain educational institutions. No longer was guidance to be associated solely with the lives of school children. Each state and the federal government now operate vocational counseling offices throughout the land and it appears that vocational counseling, re-training, and placement will continue to be called upon to meet the sudden upsets characteristic of a volatile, technological economy.³³

The impact of the Space Age has been multi-faceted and so intricately developmental that it is now virtually impossible to discern which advances would have evolved by the ordinary progression of research and which are the by-products of the automated, computerized technology which received its greatest impetus, if not its birth, in the American reaction to the initial Russian success in space exploration.

33 James J. Cribbin, An Analysis of the Theological, Philosophical, Psychological, and Sociological Principles of Guidance Presented in Literature Published Since 1935, unpublished doctoral dissertation presented to Fordham University, New York, 1951, p. 151.

That education would never again be the same became evident as parents in the sixties began to hear from their children and from local school officials of the planned addition of new and extensive educational innovations such as the new math, language laboratories, educational television, computerized scheduling, etc.

However, education was not the sole recipient of the impact. The repercussions in the worlds of industry, business, labor, and agriculture were fully as powerful and the consequential needs of these sectors worked their own pressures on the schools. The schools would be hard-pressed to prepare their students to meet the demands of an ever-changing, technological society.³⁴ Brewer's warning that "learning to live is the only genuine curriculum"³⁵ had finally been heard.

With the Sputnik aloft, national scrutiny was quickly turned on the public schools and educators felt the impression of that inspection. The resulting judgment was that American schools were found wanting. The attitude of complacent trust in the natural superiority of American education was further shattered as citizens began to read of the unusual curricula and quality of Russian education.

However, teachers and administrators rejoined with sharp reminders that poor quality in public education could not be blamed entirely upon the school personnel when society in general, and the community in particular, was equally or more culpable for the laxness. The public

34 Richard I. Miller, "Education in a Changing Society", in Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, Washington, National Education Association, 1963, p. 31.

35 Brewer, Education as Guidance, p. 9.

schools, they declared, will be only as good as the citizens ordain. The educators refused to be scapegoats in matters that concerned all citizens.³⁶

Americans were amazed to learn that while 20-25% of their youth took a straight academic program, all Soviet youngsters were obliged to do so, as were they required to take practical shopwork, restricted in America to vocational programs and only occasionally offered to the non-vocational course student. Motivation to study was found to be uniformly high in Russia, while the motivation of American students varied markedly from low to high, but was generally only fair. Russian youth anticipated serving their country and contributing to the welfare of society; American youngsters seemed more materialistic in their goals.³⁷

The rest of the story is common knowledge; America responded with bewildering speed and eventual success in space. Yet, that success was had at a staggering cost - not only in dollars - but in the aftermath of upset, confusion, and insecurity forced on young people. The very fiber of human ability to change and adjust was strained as never before.

It took man 475,000 years to arrive at the Agricultural Revolution; 25,000 years to come to the Industrial Revolution; 150 years thereafter, man was in the Space Age.³⁸

36 Miller, op. cit., p. 42.

37 Henry Chauncey, "Some Comparative Checkpoints Between American and Soviet Education" in Comparative Education Review, No. 3, February, 1959, p. 18-20.

38 Stanley Dropkin, et. al., Contemporary American Education, New York, Macmillan, 1965, p. 215.

Automation alone has delivered a violent shock to educators who always believed that even large-scale problems could somehow be solved by formal schooling. Automation threatens with problems so complex, so profound, that they may well successfully challenge education as we have known it. The National Committee for the Support of Public Schools warned the Congress of the United States,

Automation presents a large-scale threat which can easily constitute a crisis not only for business, industry, and the national economy, but especially for the schools which now are charged with preparing the young for a society which will no longer exist as the educator has known it.³⁹

The spate of recent federal legislation on the problems of manpower training, relocation, welfare, and unemployment stand as concrete proof of the dilemma which space age automation and technology have thrust upon America. Old jobs disappeared and new, more technical ones appeared in rapid succession. Racial tensions worsened as minorities pointed out that their unemployment was always more extensive than that of the majority. All these factors, and more, worked an insidious influence on the young.

Speaking in 1962 on behalf of the Youth Employment Bill, President John Kennedy stated,

39 John K. Norton, Changing Demands on Education and Their Fiscal Implications, Washington, The National Committee for the Support of Public Schools, 1963, p. 2.

We have in this country one million boys and girls who are out of work. In the next eight years of this decade, we are going to have eight million boys and girls who will leave school before they finish and they are going to be looking for work. They will be unskilled and they will have trouble finding jobs, for the unskilled labor opportunities have dropped from 12.5% at the end of World War II to less than 6% today, and this figure will be inexorably reduced under the influence of automation and the advanced technology of the Space Age.⁴⁰

Describing the \$435 million Manpower Development and Training Act under the newly created Office of Manpower Automation and Training as "a program which will have no end", Chase⁴¹ opined that the young labor force should become accustomed to being wracked by technological change, for so rapid is the pace of space age technology that young adults may routinely expect to take new jobs in new industries perhaps a half-dozen times in their working lives.

Despite their advantages, the Space Age and the velocity of scientific change have wrought upheaval and deep disturbance upon the young. Seemingly banded together across national boundaries, young people everywhere began to impinge forcibly upon adult consciousness and then to reject with a bitterness and intransigence the values and verities of their sires. Their immense idealism, vitality and economic strength on the one hand and their inertia, confusion, and uncertainty of moral absolutes on the other, clash so vehemently that the very foundations of governments have been shaken.

⁴⁰ Harry L. Miller and Marjorie B. Smiley, Education in the Metropolis, New York, Free Press, 1967, p. 54.

⁴¹ Edward T. Chase, "Politics and Technology" in The Yale Review, New Haven, Yale University Press, Vol. 52, March, 1963, p. 329.

The brash ebullience and the undisciplined energies of the young have produced in each country a conspicuous group of young people - sartorially and ideologically somewhat different - but essentially the same: the Hippie, the Yippie, the Teddy-boy, the Halbstarke, the Leder-jacken, the Stilyagi, the Red Guard. The contemporary youth culture with its seemingly delirious addiction to rock-and-roll music, alcohol, drugs, revolution, riot, and vandalism has assaulted such dissimilar capitols as Washington, Tokyo, Manila, London, Peking, Moscow, Paris, Rome, and others. Nor can this worrisome manifestation be brushed aside with ancient clichés about the traditional rudeness of youth. Society can treat the conscious suffering and insecurity of youth in vacuo only at its peril.⁴²

The foregoing manifestations are of substantial significance to the growth of guidance, for they supplied the cultural and societal tensions which motivated the previously described legislation.

In summary, World War II strengthened and paved the way for the expansion of guidance in the United States and the Space Age followed, attended by much discord among the young who stand in greater need of guidance today than at any previous period in American history. Regardless of whether the youth is an "angry young man" or one who clings to the ideals and habits of his fathers, his education has become the paramount factor in his eventual success in and adjustment to society. The need for guidance which motivated Brewer has been widened and deeply intensified, to wit, the plight of unguided and the danger of alienated youth.

42 John Barron Mays, "Teen-Age Culture in Contemporary America, Britain and Europe", in Annals, Vol. 338, London, November, 1965, p. 32.

Whether public school guidance personnel should attempt to preserve and transmit established ideals and values, as Brewer once advocated, or remain neutral in recognizing the student's right to his own thinking, even if sharply divergent, is a question to be determined by the profession and the individual counselor.

Having reviewed the salient characteristics of the educational conditions of the most recent decade, it remains now to inspect the modern curriculum to determine the survival, in whole or in part, or the complete absence of Brewer's concept of the curriculum.

CHAPTER V

THE MODERN CURRICULUM

1. The Obligation of the School to Today's Youth.

In light of the preceding observations, it seems that the current obligation of the school to modern youth is so complex that said obligation has not yet been definitely clarified, nor has the educational fraternity as a whole agreed upon a hierarchy of responsibilities or goals, nor established a national priority of response thereto. Long admired as the ingenious key to preserving the autonomy of the public schools from federal controls and influence, the local school board today poses a stubborn problem to those who urgently advocate necessary overall changes and improvements, just as they resisted the initial advocates of guidance. Regional problems, such as the financial lack of rural schools and the many tensions of the inner city schools, occupy local educational leaders so completely that they often fail to consider their schools as a segment of a national system. Therefore, the American public schools are still a long way from being coordinated into a unified nationwide system, prepared to offer orderly response to major problems, to identify their several obligations to youth, and to cooperate in fulfilling them.

However, education has become a popular domain of research for behavioral scientists in the past two decades because of such factors as international competition for technological superiority; school and college enrollment pressures caused by population increases and societal demands for more education for their children; financial sponsorship for

educational research from foundations and government; improved methods of scientific research in behavioral fields; and the inclinations of behavioral scientists to help shape the future development of formal education as a significant social institution.¹

Nevertheless, the intellectual schematism of the wisest thinkers must pass a long series of hurdles, attended by untiring advocacy, before it can directly actuate definite change in the schools or in the lives of youth. Although containing the nation's most precious natural resource, the schools are owned and financed by the citizens who often occupy sharply divergent views on matters educational.

Clearly portraying the reverberations in the educational world of national upheavals and conflicts, Wrenn points out that even federal concern with education, employment, physical and social health at state and community levels "is being resisted vigorously". Name-calling, Bible-quoting citizens are denying economic progress and refusing to recognize the modern demands on the schools with "an undreamed-of intensity." "Name calling and labeling, and invalid inferences from facts are indulged in by both proponents and opponents", Wrenn states, so that despite the plight of the young and the onward rush of societal and technological developments, the movement for social change and educational adjustment thereto "is reduced to a crawl."² This situation is reminiscent

1 Laurence Siegel, Instruction: Some Contemporary Viewpoints, San Francisco, Chandler, 1967, p. 1.

2 C. Gilbert Wrenn, "A Second Look", in Counseling: A Growing Profession, by John T. Longbary, et al., Washington, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1965, p. 54.

of Brewer's long advocacy of guidance, despite little positive response. Wrenn points out that when he wrote in 1960, even his startling predictions with regard to scientific and technological developments were not imaginative enough and his hopeful anticipation of the speed of corresponding social innovation and change was too optimistic.³

The 1960 publication to which he referred was produced as a result of the distress over the increasingly complex obligation of the schools to modern youth which prompted the officers of the American Personnel and Guidance Association to commission Wrenn and a distinguished committee of educators, organized under the title, The Commission on Guidance in American Schools, to study the dynamics of the problem and to submit their recommendations thereon. Their findings contained a definition of the schools' primary obligation:.

It is to facilitate the intellectual development of students who vary widely in intellectual ability and who vary in the relation of the intellectual to the social and emotional dimensions of their personalities.⁴

Intellectual development in many schools, they stressed, was debilitated by excessive community demands for services and functions which will be treated in the next section of this paper, but the issue of intellectual development as the central task of the school, applied to the academically able and the less able alike, was set before the nation's school counselors as the major cause with which they must identify.⁵

3 Ibid., p. 53.

4 C. Gilbert Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World, Washington, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962, p. 76.

5 Ibid., p. 77.

Having thus clarified what they considered to be the school's primary duty, the Commission next juxtaposed their realistic concern for the more-than-half of the youngsters who will not pursue higher education or post-high school training. Stressing the indispensable importance of vocational preparation, they further refined their definition of the school's obligation to youth by stating, "It would seem that the school could be charged with a multifold function of developing intellectual, social, and vocational competencies - perhaps in that order of importance."⁶

It is significant to note that a group of professional experts should suggest a charge to the public schools of 1962 which reflects, point for point, a prepostulation which Brewer wrote in 1935, at which time he declared, "There is only one subject-matter for education, and that is Life in all its manifestations".⁷ All persons interested in the development of the student should inspect the curriculum "to discover to what extent it serves the vocational needs, the recreational and social needs, as well as the academic needs of the pupil."⁸

Despite studies and reports, surveys and polls, educational commissions and congressional committees, government and foundation funding, the hydra remains, seemingly producing two problems for every one solved.

6 Ibid., p. 78.

7 John Marks Brewer, "Individual Development and Guidance - Definition and Scope", in The Harvard Teachers' Record, Vol. 5, June, 1935, p. 164-171.

8 Ibid., p. 167.

Miller declared that "secondary education in the United States is still a definitely selective affair, in spite of democratic ideals of equality and educational opportunity."⁹ Youngsters who find the formal school program to be irrelevant or incomprehensible still drop out, only to find themselves in competition with unskilled workers - young and old - for a steadily diminishing number of jobs. Brewer's advocacy has yet to be answered.

Bound by tradition and too often welded to maintaining the status quo, the American school is basically a conservative institution, according to Mathewson¹⁰ who states that education therefore is not a favorable medium for experimentation or innovation. The simple acquirement of information, academic knowledge, and marketable skills still seem to many Americans to be the "school's rightful business".

Concern for the development of the individual as a person and for procedures that will help him form a self-identity over a period of years seem pretty esoteric to many. Teaching personnel are naturally absorbed with their subject matters, school¹¹ administrators with the daily conduct of institutional affairs.

Once more, there is evidence of a modern educator who reveals in 1962, a weakness Brewer detected and deplored in 1938. Noting that everywhere, among educators of the time, one heard such worthy aims as "worthy home membership, cooperative citizenship, utilization of individual talent, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character, " Brewer proceeded to report

9 Carroll H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper and Row, 1961, p. 189.

10 Robert H. Mathewson, Guidance Policy and Practice, New York, Harper and Row, 1962, p. 367.

11 Ibid., p. 367.

a much less impressive rendering of stewardship by those administrators.

"When one attempts to discover to what extent the school program of studies is being reorganized to achieve these objectives, he is confronted with inadequacy and even neglect."¹²

Vital to any and all changes, powerful in its secure position as one of the hallowed shibboleths of American education, the local school board takes unto itself the decision as to what will and will not be changed. It is protected and justified by its long history and by having built what many consider to be one of the better educational systems of any country . Yet, it often seems not to comprehend that the rush and exigencies of modern life have reduced the size of the country, so to speak, and the upsurge of a resentful, sometimes violent, youth culture which has charged the schools with being irrelevant has underscored the urgent need for national improvements in the curriculum, services, and practises of American education. Local boards are locally loyal and the federal education department is tenuously structured in authority.

Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, founder of the nuclear navy, and an outspoken critic of the status quo of local control, holds that only a national system of examinations and school accreditation will halt the dilemma caused by thousands of local school boards who take upon themselves the right to interpret and direct the program and progress of their schools. Frightened by the spectre of government control and political influence, many Americans are prepared to offer vigorous

12 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 9.

opposition to his plan, according to French.¹³

Small wonder, then, that the schools have been slow and disorganized in reaching agreement upon their obligations to youth, in concerning themselves with national needs, in discommoding their routine, and in agreeing to heed warnings regarding the future.

The appeals that Brewer made on behalf of the dropout, the working youth, and the young scholars who stood in need of a broader understanding of life and their world are still being made, and are still being ignored by many of the same groups which once rejected his pleas - the local school boards. "Students urgently need to learn the knowledge, skills, and values that will qualify them to help meet the occupational needs of an urban-industrial society, and they need to begin today!"¹⁴ Miller might simply have quoted Brewer, for the entreaty is the same. Simply put, the preceding declaration is obviously true, and, although none bother to deny it, many fail to act upon it. Commenting on the curious juxtaposition of a willingness to experiment and improvise with a strong aversion to total planning in the American schools, Shertzer and Stone¹⁵ opine that experimentation will eventually produce solutions to the major problems of youth. The same authors observe that school

13 William M. French, America's Educational Tradition, Boston Heath, 1967, p. 376.

14 Richard I. Miller, "Education in a Changing Society", in Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, Washington, National Education Association, 1963, p. 29.

15 Bruce Shertzer and Shelley C. Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1966, p. 2.

curricula change as society changes, although the adjustments in the former are always lagging slowly behind the latter. Profound societal changes upset much that may have been taken for granted. However, they warn that the recent scientific and technological advances call for "extensive curriculum reconstruction if major youth maladjustments and discontinuities and certain non-relevant skills and knowledges are to be avoided".¹⁶

Again, not only the survival, but the correctness of Brewer's analyses are evidenced. The previously quoted authors wrote in 1966. Writing in 1934, Brewer asked, "When will educators give us a school system which will relate meaningfully to life, assist the pupil to adjust in the world of work and the world of cooperative citizenship, and help him to solve his moral and ethical problems?" He charged that both schools and colleges were resigning a large part of their duty and actually contributing to the cause of crime by neglecting an effective attack on the problems cited. It seemed to Brewer that "a very large part of crime, juvenile and adult, is vocational life gone wrong."¹⁷

If, then, the curriculum may be defined as learning activities carefully planned so that by engaging therein, the pupils will be well and successfully inducted into productive, adjustive societal membership, it is clear that the evolvments of our time - and of the future time that belongs to the young - virtually clamor and entreat for the wholesale upgrading, modernization, systematization, and enrichment of the

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 368.

¹⁷ John M. Brewer, "Protecting the Children from Crime", in The New York Times, October 8, 1934, p. 3.

curriculum so that the public schools may better meet their obligations to all of today's and tomorrow's youth. Such was the life-long plea of Brewer.

In view of the intimate interdependence of the school and the community, and of the community's interdependence with the vagaries of industrial economics, industry and the community should next be considered in an effort to clarify their role in the evolution and plight of the modern curriculum.

2. The Role of Industry and the Community in Today's Schools.

In the preceding section, the close relationship between the school and its cultural environment was suggested as one reason for the wide variance which exists in the different interpretations extant regarding the school's obligation to youth. It is impossible to consider the formal, institutionalized aspects of the schools in general, or of a single school in specific, without studying at the same time the broad currents of political, social, economic, and intellectual thought which surround and infuse education.

Many theorists seem to ignore the fact that educators must deal with the social-cultural realities which confront them and their institutions before they can respond to the ideals and objectives of new theories. Therefore, the selection and organization of curricular content and experiences must take into account the immediate society in which the child lives and which pays for and influences the school's activities.

Modern society is highly diversified and complex and, as has been previously pointed out, it consists of many groups of people with characteristically different ways of life, standards of living, and convictions regarding the proper course their schools should follow. This section will consider further the dynamics of the relationship between the school and its constituencies.

Urbanization, automation, increased leisure, social class differences and their corresponding intellectual atmospheres are but a few of the forces which manifest themselves in the path and purposes of the public schools. American public education is more often than not viewed as a consumption of capital rather than as an investment in physical capital and this viewpoint has caused our schools to fail to keep pace with the economic and industrial growth of the nation, according to John Galbraith, the Harvard economist.¹⁸

Perhaps no other influence is felt more keenly in the schools than that of social class. Davis¹⁹ claims that it is impossible henceforth, to generalize about "the child"; that we shall always have to ask, "a child of what social class, in what cultural environment?" The plight of schools in urban areas is receiving unprecedented attention and suffice it to say that their problems are momentous enough to warrant full-scale national concern. Unemployment, high mobility, low income, meagre homes,

18 Stanley Dropkin, et. al., Contemporary American Education, New York, Macmillan, 1965, p. 211.

19 Allison Davis, Social Class Influences Upon Learning, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1958, p. 162.

the lack of formal schooling of parents in the slum districts, and the general lack of parental support or understanding of the teachers all contribute to the exodus of qualified teachers from the very areas which need them most.

Hence, the school, in attempting to fulfill its traditional role of supplementing and complementing the education offered by home and community often faces the cul-de-sac of having to undo or to oppose the negative or restricting influences from those sectors which should offer enrichment and support. Therefore, the state and structure of a given society, or community, is mirrored in its schools and reflected through the schools, their supervisors, administrators, and teachers, into the lives of the children. "These two contrasting functions of education - the perpetuating and the change-promoting functions - should always be kept in mind when considering social class influence on education."²⁰

It is easy to see, then, in view of the point stressed by Havighurst, the sharp contrasts of opinions regarding the proper function and importance of the school shared by citizens in communities of widely varying economic levels. The upward mobility of the son's doing better than did his father is basic to the American concept of education, but today's schools also witness the downward mobility of youngsters from middle- and upper-class homes who drop out of school for a variety of reasons.

Favoring education as a quantitative good, the American public shares a general belief that education leads to better jobs and higher

²⁰ Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Class and Education", in NSSE Yearbook, Chicago, National Society for the Study of Education, 1960, p. 120.

incomes; an extremely small minority hold that education is a good thing, in and of itself.²¹ Therefore, the present-oriented lower classes often encourage youngsters to drop out of school in order to assist with dire domestic needs while the future-oriented middle- and upperclass families go to great lengths to keep their children in school and to see that higher education is made available to them.

Thus the same situation in the sixties existed and was excoriated by Brewer in the thirties. Departing from his usual reserve, Brewer caustically observed that "we play the orchestra only for those who graduate" and that there was frequent rejoicing when certain pupils dropped out of school. "A troublesome problem is 'solved!'" he stated with acrid sarcasm.²²

Yet, while America expects that education will provide a continuing supply of increasingly capable citizens, the schools are exploited and their potential diminished, according to Shertzer and Stone.²³ For example, some citizens urge the schools to provide more extensive child welfare programs; others urge the schools to abandon universal education in the interest of the gifted few; another group insists the schools should inculcate strong nationalistic ideals; a firm advocacy urges that the schools strip the curriculum of all but the basic, intellectual disciplines. Many citizens are confident that the municipal investment made, and the curriculum offered in the schools during the years of their own

21 Ibid., p. 122.

22 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 124.

23 Schertzer and Stone, op. cit., p. 22.

youth are still quite good enough for today's youth, ignoring the dramatic increases in educational levels demanded by business, industry, and the professions.

The exploitation of the schools by well-intentioned citizens debilitates the intellectual development the teachers are able to actuate. Too many communities see the schools as a "catch-all" system which should render an omnibus function in serving many interests.

Virtually everything in the school's duties seems useful and important to someone. From producing state championship teams (primarily, of course, for the character development of the boys) to supporting Community Chest and buying United States Savings Bonds (always to teach citizenship, of course, and never to increase the volume of collection), the schools are asked continually to extend the boundaries of their responsibility.²⁴

Educators must protect the school from community abuses. Otherwise, it may become little more than a center for entertainment, civic occasions, and the support of charitable enterprises. Even some of the community services offered by schools in the past, such as job placement, organized recreation, and many phases of public health can now be handled by community agencies which did not exist when the school first undertook these tasks,²⁵ nor when Brewer advocated their establishment.

Community pressure groups pose a problem as great as that of the local school board to the unification and modernization of the schools. Parents who group themselves into desirable neighborhoods, or choose to live in an area served by an excellent school, become an informal pressure

24 Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World, p. 76.

25 Ibid., p. 76.

group which often demands a continuation of the status quo and which resists changes they deem undesirable. Their influence often results in favored treatment of their schools and neglect of schools in poorer, more disorganized neighborhoods.²⁶ This situation was criticized publicly by Brewer in 1934 when he wrote a letter to the editor of a major newspaper. In the letter, he decried the differences between schools in opulent neighborhoods where bright young men may become better acquainted socially with "a gallery of their fellows" through school-sponsored trips and clubs and those schools in poor neighborhoods where the curriculum is limited to "all sitting still" to such a degree that "any active boy would want to 'kick over the traces' and run away."²⁷

The community, then, plays a vital, but quixotic role in today's schools. Controlling both the purse strings and the school board, the communities may ordain the most beneficial boons to the school's progress, or impose thereon the most baleful banes. Cautioning against the dangers of blind faith in the majority rule, a former United States Commissioner of Education reflected Brewer's concern for the neglected youngsters when he wrote:

26 Christopher Jenks, "Education: Cultivating Greater Diversity", in The New Republic, Vol. 151, November 7, 1964, p. 34.

27 Brewer, "Over the Editor's Desk", in The Christian Science Monitor, September 20, 1934, p. 4.

The danger here, of course, is the ominous threat that plagues every democratic, egalitarian society - the tyranny of the majority over the minority. Nothing is more conducive to mediocrity, more destructive of genius and creativity, or of intellectual and moral improvement than when the community dictates to the school. The purpose of education is not to endorse and sanctify the opinion of the many and impress it on the few, or to perpetuate whatever is common and habitual. It is rather an advancement of the individual and his greater society that cannot be achieved without creative change and wherein the full light of criticism must be thrown on whatever claims sanction and perpetuation.²⁸

In the last decade, particularly, public concern for the public schools has been formalized in the organization of literally thousands of citizens' committees on education, according to Shipton,²⁹ who declares that no school system which is the pawn of business groups, labor unions, patriotic organizations, women's clubs, church groups, and the character-building agencies can be expected to advance in an orderly response to its obligation to youth. The educational system needs a national philosophy and a consistent procedural methodology.

Industry, including labor, management, and the community businessman, has played an increasingly important, but often tardy, role in supporting the school's service to youth. The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in 1956 stated, "Industry must undertake more of the task of specific job training for young workers

28 Sterling M. McMurrin, "Academic Freedom in the Schools", in Teachers College Record, May, 1964, p. 141.

29 James M. Shipton, "Who are the Critics of the Public Schools?" in Staff Research Memorandum No. 3, Cambridge, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1954, p. 13.

than it has in the past assumed."³⁰

However, the role and obligation of the modern employer are much more significant than the above statement indicates. Rather than offering a mere in-service training for workers, and expecting schools to prepare them, business, labor and industry must realize that the schools are hard-pressed to meet "the constant pressure of an evermore complex society against the total creative capacity of its people and especially that of its people and especially that of its schools."³¹

For too long, business and industry expected the schools to assume responsibility of training candidates for employment so thoroughly that a minimum of time and expense would have to be devoted to preparing the young worker for full, productive employment. The explosion of modern technology has made the tasks of even the beginning workers so varied and sophisticated that the schools are hopelessly unable to meet their demands.

Increased leisure, shorter work weeks, and earlier retirements have convinced labor groups that the working force is best served by being broadly educated as citizens before being highly trained as workers, for only then can the worker adjust successfully to the non-employment factors of the present and future technological change. Therefore, education is beginning to be viewed by organized labor as a lifelong process; lifelong learning is a new imperative. "It should be made clear to every young

30 Manpower and Education, Washington, New Educational Policies Commission, 1956, p. 77.

31 The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America, New York, Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Inc., 1961, p. 233.

worker in the land that the price of holding a job will increasingly depend on continuing education throughout the entire life of the individual."³²

Brewer entered the same plea in 1938, when he reminded school authorities that unless the atmosphere for learning were made "normal and wholesome", young people would abandon learning at their first opportunity and thus deprive themselves of future growth and flexibility as employees and deprive their country of citizens whose lives are enriched by continued learning.³³

The phylogeny of labor as a directing force in the community and nation was dramatically portrayed by Ginzberg and Berman.³⁴ During the past half century, trade unionism has effectively utilized its ability to sway voters and was thus able to exert influence on local, state, and federal legislation. However, the strength of organized labor must now be used in overcoming the worker-threatening developments of technology. For example, less than half the men needed to mine 452 million tons of coal in 1958 mined 457 million tons in 1968.³⁵

Helping to train workers to be more productive and to adjust to new approaches to old tasks, and to prepare workers for the more frequent

32 "Impact of Automation" in Monthly Labor Review, No. 1287, Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, 1960, p. 114.

33 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 553.

34 Eli Ginzberg and Hyman Berman, The American Worker in the Twentieth Century, New York, Free Press, 1963, xii-674 p.

35 Clarence Randall, "For a New Code of Business Ethics" in The New York Times, April 8, 1968, p. 24.

change of jobs are upsetting to labor organizations which for years have held job security to be so dear a goal. Labor has turned to the schools for assistance in these tasks, advising on the modernization of vocational training, the increase of vocational guidance, and by revamping on-the-job training programs for young workers. Brewer long urged the schools to turn to labor with the same offerings.

Another factor which influences labor's interest in the schools is the changing attitude of workers towards the career plans of their children. There is a definite hierarchy of values and prestige attached by workers to various jobs and research indicates that a large proportion of workers engaged in lower-level occupations did not plan to enter them, would not enter them again if starting over, and hoped their sons would become professional men.³⁶

The work of the filling station attendant, dishwasher, butler, maid, chauffeur, maintenance man, store clerk, city cleaning worker have almost been declared objectionable as vocational goals by the "American dream of progressive improvement in status from generation to generation."³⁷

Therefore, labor and industry have had to utilize the tools of guidance in helping the worker to overcome the problems of frequent job change, status anxiety, unemployment, and prestige in the community. Industrial psychologists and widespread testing and counseling are now accepted as natural functions of candidate selection, from the common

36 Gladys L. Palmer, et. al., The Reluctant Job Changer, Philadelphia, University of Philadelphia Press, 1962, p. 133.

37 Percival W. Hutson, The Guidance Function in Education, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, p. 62.

labor to the top management level.

The demands of the laboring American have been summarized as follows: the desire for justice; the desire for status; the desire to have his job made a career; and the desire for security.³⁸ Hence, American labor has become interested in the schools in a variety of ways, most of them favorable to guidance. It has urged that all youth be well grounded in academic disciplines; that excessive specialization in vocational education be avoided; that industry cooperate with the schools to avoid duplication in training; that industry assume more responsibility for pre-job and on-the-job training, vocational counseling, and job adjustment according to aptitudes; that the public schools guide well, helping youngsters of all economic levels to comprehend the fact that the entire horizon of future opportunities is open to them; that the public schools redouble their efforts to stem the flow of unskilled drop-outs into the labor market. American labor thereby took up the requests which consistently threaded Brewer's works.

Modern democratic America is certainly a pluralistic system which accommodates a proliferation of special interest groups. Nowhere is the politics of pluralism more manifest than in the public schools which are on the receiving end of turbulent pressures from every side. The modern curriculum, reflecting as it does the school's effort to meet its obligation to youth, has always been an extension of the will of those who ultimately control the school, to wit, the school board and the citizens they represent.

38 Ibid., p. 77.

To what extent the evolution of the modern curriculum, sired by so diverse a population, has discarded or retained the suggested guidance-infused curriculum of John Marks Brewer should next be considered.

3. The Survival of Brewer's Concept of the Guidance-Infused Curriculum.

The cooperation and communication between the schools and business, labor, and the community, urged by Brewer, is now an accepted characteristic of public education. His alarm over the dropouts and over the irrelevance of a stultified curriculum, previously cited in this paper, are commonly reiterated in critiques of modern education.

Brewer's dream of having labor leaders, business managers, and executives visit the schools to advise the youngsters was, then, a startling suggestion.³⁹ Not only did such experts eventually visit the schools in countless numbers for occupational information assemblies, guidance nights, and career conferences, but, moreover, they opened their shops and businesses to students for cooperative work-study and distributive education programs, and they exerted their influence on behalf of the expansion of business and trade courses in the public schools.

On a broader scale, although specialists are unquestionably needed in modern society, business, industry, and the social scientists are insisting that the larger human problems are not technical ones, but general. They require practical wisdom, understanding appreciation of

³⁹ John Marks Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation" in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 59.

the other fellow's worth, rather than mere technical know-how. According to Gray,⁴⁰ our schools are finally learning that general education is not properly the force-feeding common a few decades ago. Rather, true general education is allowing the youngster to experience and appreciate many activities which contribute to the community well-being. By relating the widely diverse activities of laborers, professionals, and businessmen to the common good, the student gains a new, deeply personal understanding of the worth and need of every man's contribution.

Writing in 1956, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association⁴¹ almost quoted Brewer⁴² directly when they urged, as he urged, a quarter century earlier, that workers also need intellectual, aesthetic interests; that technical and manual skills must be supplemented by wholesome attitudes towards others and an appreciation of their contributions; that cooperativeness, flexibility, and good citizenship are equally as vital as specialization and technique. Neither the liberal arts nor vocational training can afford to neglect the cultivation of humane personal qualities in individuals.

The proliferation of job opportunities is verifying the wisdom of Brewer's vestibule or jack-of-all trades experience in which every student has an opportunity to involve himself in practical manual, intellectual,

40 J. Glenn Gray, The Promise of Wisdom, Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1968, p. 203.

41 Manpower and Education, Washington, National Education Association, 1956, p. 68.

42 John Marks Brewer, "Vocational Guidance: What It Is", in Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. 11, October, 1932, p. 3-6.

cooperative, and creative work projects.⁴³ Students must be given the opportunity to become involved in the universal disciplines before they are allowed to make career choices, argues Gray.⁴⁴ Their choice should not reflect their teacher's, their parents', or their counselor's preference, but their own response to personal experience.

In view of the predicted instability of certain jobs and the growing frequency of occupational change, "it would seem desirable to build a broad rather than a narrow base in terms of educational preparation so as to facilitate retraining for new occupational roles."⁴⁵ There being no better period than the elementary- and secondary-school years in which the learner can obtain broad, exploratory experience with the practical, fine, and liberal arts, combined with the extracurriculum, Hutson⁴⁶ advocates Brewer's curriculum, without referring to him, and, moreover, repeats Brewer's⁴⁷ complaints regarding the waste of talent in unguided, floundering individuals. One of the interesting sources of support for Brewer's guidance-infused curriculum is the feminist movement which resents the low female representation in, among other fields, science and medicine. Early

43 John Marks Brewer, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance" in The Harvard Alumni Bulletin, Vol. XXVIII, No. 5, October, 1925, p. 130.

44 Gray, op. cit., p. 210.

45 Walter L. Slocum, "Occupational Careers in Organizations: A Sociological Perspective", in Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLIII, May, 1965, p. 866.

46 Percival W. Hutson, The Guidance Function in Education, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, p. 54.

47 John Marks Brewer, "A Way Out for Baffled Youth", in New York Herald Tribune, March 23, 1935, p. 4.

in-school experience with physics, biology, elementary chemistry, and practical arts would help to break down the age-old prejudice against a girl's entering science as a career. Such experiences would help to ease the concepts of ascribed status in the minds of the teachers, counselors, parents and child.⁴⁸

It has been discovered that Brewer's recommendations were wise, for just as workers' morale improves when they grasp the purpose of their work, are allowed to help plan it, and adjust within the total project according to their interests and experiences, so do students respond. Absences drop, and dropouts decrease when students encounter realistic experience instead of mere verbalism; when their interests and suggestions are deemed important determinants of the learning activity; and when they must work with and depend upon one another for the overall success of a given project.⁴⁹

Indeed, the democratic principles which Brewer advocated for class activities and for overall school administration⁵⁰ were reflected in an official statement of the U.S. Office of Education⁵¹ which declared that successful learning depended upon an action program of teamwork, exposing

48 Doris Campbell, "Women - In Science or Out," in Science, Vol. 149, August 13, 1965, p. 707.

49 David Mallery, High School Students Speak Out, New York, Harper, 1962, p. 100.

50 John Marks Brewer, "A Prerequisite to Democratic Methods in School Administration", in School and Society, Vol. XII, No. 297, September 4, 1920, p. 152-157.

51 Vitalizing Secondary Education, Bulletin 1951, No. 3, Washington, U.S. Office of Education, 1951, 102 p.

the student to the best experiences in the fields of general and vocational education.

The plea for enriching the public school curriculum with "life adjustment" or "democratization" experiences did not die with Brewer. Professor Charles A. Prosser of Harvard worked a lifetime for the same cause, observing in the annual Inglis Lecture on Education, in 1939, that the school curriculum was too much like Mark Twain's weather - "there has been a great deal of talk about the curriculum, but not much has been done about it."⁵²

Prosser urged that 50% of every student's day be spent in the study of "life education" subjects which would be the core of the curriculum. Vertical education for the few would be decreased in favor of more horizontal education for everybody, he claimed. Instead of catering to the one in six who goes to college, his plan would cater to the five who go directly into life and, in his opinion, "would also give the one who goes directly to college a better mental as well as more useful training."⁵³

Brewer expanded his philosophy of the guidance-infused curriculum, of ultimate life adjustment through learning to cooperate in projects for the common good, into a book written for the "guidance of local societies."⁵⁴ The book is a superb apologia of the impregnability and wholesomeness of the democratic method when applied conscientiously to

⁵² Charles A. Prosser, Secondary Education and Life (The Inglis Lecture), Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939, p. 5.

⁵³ Ibid., p. 7.

⁵⁴ John M. Brewer, Wellsprings of Democracy, New York, Philosophical Library, 1952, xii-232 p.

our personal and societal lives. It is interesting to note the violent upheavals on college campuses which have often been staged on behalf of causes which call for a more democratic administration of educational institutions.

Brewer's concept of the guidance-infused curriculum is embodied in the comprehensive recommendations of the National Education Association's Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, previously quoted. Richard Miller, the author, fails to quote Brewer and perhaps this is significant, for the survival of a man's philosophical concepts may be determined by the actuality of their vivification fully as well as by the label of his authorship.

For example, the points made by Kelly⁵⁵ in stressing the importance of education for citizenship are remarkably similar by contrast with those made earlier and so frequently by Brewer.⁵⁶

The preservation of democracy is being laid before teachers and counselors today as one of their ethical obligations.^{57, 58} Brewer propounded the same vision of democracy's internal defense through infusion with thousands of young citizens who had been educationally experienced in democratic procedures and guided in an open, democratic

55 Earl C. Kelley, "The Importance of Education for Citizenship" in In Defense of Youth, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, 1962, p. 44-49.

56 John M. Brewer, Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance, Boston, Ginn, 1926, p. 209-220.

57 Kelley, Op. cit., p. 48.

58 Hadley Cantril, The Politics of Despair, New York, Basic Books, 1968, p. 145.

manner.^{59, 60}

Democratic procedures and a guidance-infused curriculum as Brewer defined it are actually called for by the several accrediting associations of the American Commission on Secondary Schools⁶¹ and in the latest evaluative criteria of the National Study of Secondary School Evaluation.⁶²

The wide range of practical life-experiences Brewer urged for his vestibule courses is now more widely accepted and manifests itself in numerous schemes of school-community involvement, examples of which frequently appear in the public press.^{63, 64, 65}

Therefore, the principles of guidance-influenced curriculum envisioned and articulated by John Brewer, and considered to be demanding and somewhat extreme in his day, are now seen as being so modest, so moderate, and so self-evident in worth that they are naturally blended into the dynamics of modern school operation. Brewer asked only that the

59 John M. Brewer, "New Strength for Democracy", in The Boston Globe, November 21, 1934, p. 3.

60 -----, Wellsprings of Democracy, p. 15-25.

61 Policies and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools, Chicago, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1969, iii-45 p.

62 Manual for Evaluative Criteria, Washington, National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, 1969, ii-356 p.

63 Mary Phraner Warren, "The School Children Love," in This Week Magazine, March 16, 1969, p. 18-19.

64 Thomas Hintgen, "They're Learning About Learning", in The Fargo Forum, August 24, 1969, p. B-12.

65 Larry Van Dyne, "Curriculum Reform That's Working," in The Boston Sunday Globe, August 3, 1969, p. 2-A.

curriculum be enriched by guidance so that the student would be made aware of, appreciative of, many occupational areas; so that he would learn to accept and cooperate with others of different economic and vocational identities; so that in being well prepared for the world of work he learn the practises of democratic cooperation.⁶⁶

Compared to the definition of guidance rendered by Shertzer and Stone, following their survey of definitions, i.e., "Guidance is the process of helping an individual understand himself and his world",⁶⁷ Brewer's vision of the nature and purpose of guidance cannot be adjudicated either extreme or outmoded, but certainly as current, even in 1970.

In summary, current professional literature in educational philosophy in general, and that in guidance and counseling in specific, bear overwhelming testimony that Brewer's concepts have, indeed, endured in the finest possible manner: that of being so routinely recognized as good that they no longer need bear the sponsorship of this or that man's name. His works have genuine implications for an understanding of the genesis of the modern school curriculum.

Central to the consideration of Brewer's plan for guidance, and of any guidance plan, is the counselor. A relatively short span of time has seen rapid and extraordinary changes in the role and status of the guidance specialist so named. Therefore, the modern counselor commends itself as the next logical topic of consideration in this endeavor to determine whether or not Brewer's original concepts are yet extant.

66 Brewer, "Vocational Guidance: What It Is", in Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. 11, October, 1932, p. 3-6.

67 Shertzer and Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, p. 31.

CHAPTER VI.

THE MODERN COUNSELOR

1. The Teacher as a Counselor.

Having reached professional status in an extremely short period, the position of guidance worker in the public schools began in the classroom before it was graduated into the counselor's office. The early public school "guidance teachers" who attempted to counsel their students were unaware of the metamorphosis which their endeavors were to undergo.

Even in the comparatively short span of Brewer's written works, one may see the change actuated. In 1916, he clearly outlined the training needed by the teacher-counselor who was to serve as did the English occupations master.¹ In 1937, he urged that teachers cooperate in furthering the guidance program by "encouraging children to visit the counselor whenever necessary".² In the same article, he suggested that counselors should serve not more than 250 pupils and that they should divide their time between teaching guidance classes and personal interviewing.³

1 John Marks Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 54-63.

2 ----- "The High School Guidance Program - What are Its Essentials?" in The Journal of Education, Vol. 120, December, 1937, p. 393.

3 Ibid., p. 393.

In 1935, after much reservation about the enthusiastic claims of the nubile psychologists and their tests, he finally conceded that "counselors must use the tools of the psychologists",⁴ ending years in which he stood firm in refusing to accept tests which he felt had not yet been fully validated. Continuing, he cautioned against a struggle for authority, which later was to cause some friction between counselors and administrators. If counselors can furnish valuable services to their students, they can afford to allow the administrators to keep their authority. The work of the counselor will speak for itself.⁵

Brewer, of course, was writing for and about teachers, for they were to be the pool from which counselors would come. His thoughts not only helped those who aspired to guidance work, they also broadened the understanding of guidance by those who chose to remain in the classroom.

In 1960, Caswell⁶ affirmed that good teachers must ever be concerned with helping the pupil develop meaning and understanding; with influencing the pupil's behavior. Thomas went to far as to declare that regardless of the degree to which a school's counseling program is developed, guidance is still "carried on largely by teachers, and primarily in the classroom."⁷

4 Brewer, "Individual Development and Guidance - Definition and Scope", in The Harvard Teachers' Record, Vol. 5, June, 1935, p. 166.

5 Ibid., p. 170.

6 Hollis L. Caswell, "The Nature of Good Teaching", in School and Society, Vol. 88, No. 2182, December 3, 1960, p. 459.

7 Donald R. Thomas, "Our Professional Expectations of Teachers", in The Educational Forum, Vol. 24, No. 4, May, 1960, p. 423.

Therefore, perhaps Brewer philosophized more wisely than his contemporaries realized when he envisioned education as guidance, for, despite the sophistication and specialization of psychological services, the good teacher still feeds the imitative needs in youth; his example and personal opinions still guide, for better or for worse; the impact of his interest in and inspiration of the student has yet to be replaced.

With the excitement which attends a new discovery, educators are rushing into print with prideful descriptions of new curricular changes which bring the real life of society into the classroom, or which expand classroom activity into the world beyond the school.

Virtually paraphrasing Brewer, a teacher described the real-life experience project of East High School in Denver, Colorado, as follows:

What we are really trying to do here is to offer the kids a chance to confront the world and to survive in a group so that they learn to be responsible for themselves and to each other.⁸

The full circle has been traversed. From Brewer's concepts of the life-experience class, the guidance-infused curriculum, and the guidance-oriented teacher, the public school guidance movement soon chose the guidance specialist, or counselor, as an educational officer who was to help both student and teacher. Now, with guidance and counseling organized and established more firmly than ever before, the infusion of life experiences into the classroom is being heralded as an innovation - as the

⁸ John Olson, "Experience Is Their Textbook", in Life, Vol. 68, No. 20, May 29, 1970, p. 32.

wonderful product of the latest educational thought. In actuality, the concerns of the young for good environment, for peace, for social justice, previously discussed in this paper, have all but forced the unwilling educator to expand the boundaries of academic consideration to include real life, life now, in all its facets.

The cry for relevance in education is not, however, a new cry. Brewer, among others, energetically argued for it years before the students began to demand it.

Interest in counseling courses continues to increase nationally as many students and adults who have no intention of entering guidance work seek the insights and skills which such study provides. In 1964, 328 American graduate schools offered courses in counseling taught by 1,125 counselor educators.⁹ Three years later, the number of graduate schools offering such courses increased to 336; the professors of counseling numbered 1,352.¹⁰

The modern teacher is now required by law to be certified by the state in which he expects to teach, and the courses required for certification, with few exceptions, uniformly include child and/or adolescent psychology, tests and measurements, and the principles and practices of guidance.¹¹

9 Directory of Counselor Education, Washington, Office of Education, December, 1964, p. 12.

10 Hubert W. Houghton and Laura Trexler, Inventory of Counselor Education Programs, Washington, Office of Education, 1967, p. 5.

11 Arbuckle, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1967, p. 159.

Brewer urged all teachers to realize that their efforts on behalf of their pupils will be enhanced if they take courses which will introduce them to the guidance point of view. Nor should they consider their guidance obligations discharged if they have counselors on the staff to assist students.¹² The entire instructional staff had to share an interest in guidance if the youngsters were to be well served. Moreover, he warned the guidance specialists that one of their primary obligations was to advise and assist teachers to understand the worth and the purposes of the guidance program. By his personal example of willing assistance and cooperation, the counselor will teach his colleagues one of the cardinal principles of the guidance program. Without such cooperative assistance, the counselor will encounter little success, for the guidance program cannot function well without faculty support and cooperation.¹³

Arbuckle observed,

The teacher is one who sees all of the children all of the time, and any system of personnel services is bound to be ineffective unless the teachers understand, are sympathetic to, and are involved in the program of personnel services.¹⁴

Arbuckle wisely points out the negative results of the authority clash between counselors and administrators, previously envisioned by Brewer. While the counselor strives for a unique professional role, too many principals and superintendents still adhere to the "every counselor a teacher" point of view. The president of the National Association of

12 Brewer, Education as Guidance, p. 6.

13 Ibid., p. 540.

14 Arbuckle, op. cit., p. 144.

Secondary School Principals accused the counselors of attempting to "carve out a special niche that may be more esoteric and specialized than the educational program of a high school can afford."¹⁵

There can be little question, then, that teachers are vital to guidance in both their support of the program and their potential as a source of future counselors. Buckingham declared, "The school that has good teachers will need little else, and the school that is without good teachers will be good for little else."¹⁶

Brewer both foresaw and described the professional roles of the counselor and the teacher as they relate to the school's guidance program. His perception of the counselor should next be considered in comparison with the emerging scope and functions of the modern counselor specialist.

2. The Scope and Functions of the Counselor Specialist.

Neither the Great War nor the Great Depression could deter the early guidance workers who traversed the difficult road to acceptance and professional status. That the modern counselor's scope and functions have been well established is evidenced in part by the criticism which still attends them - now directed not at whether or not they are needed - but at the manner in which they will execute their duties. Fired upon by such esteemed professional groups as the Council for Basic Education and the

15 John M. Sexton, "A Reaction to the American School Counselor Association Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors", in The School Counselor, No. 12, March, 1965, p. 133.

16 B. R. Buckingham, "The Supply and Demand in Teacher Training", in The Ohio State University Studies, Vol. 43, No. 15, 1969, p. 3.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, counselors are now pilloried in the public press where such writers as Braun¹⁷ expose the damages done to young lives by counselors who are incompetent. Yet, he also criticized the misuse of counselors for clerical tasks by school principals, the impossible overloads of pupils per counselor in many schools, and the fact that only twenty states require counselors to have graduate degrees and only ten require that they have experience in the world of work.

The program director of Educational Testing Service, opined,

I have to say that as many as seventy-five percent of counselors don't do any real harm - or too much good, either. Of the rest, about half do great harm by giving students inaccurate information.¹⁸

Other authorities are quoted as being in agreement with Gannon in the same article.

Arbuckle¹⁹ concurs, but is more discerning as to the causes for poor counselor interpretation of professional scope and functions. He cites the essentially middle class values counselors tend to urge upon students; their devotion to security over risk which prompts them to discourage the gifted from unusual planning; their established moral codes which influence their reaction to and handling of the pupil who deviates.

The cajoling, manipulating, and directing of the pupil towards decisions the counselor believes he should make is contrary to Brewer's

17 Robert J. Braun, "Is Guidance Failing Our Students?", in Parade Magazine, March 8, 1970, p. 9.

18 Ibid., p. 9.

19 Arbuckle, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, p. 41.

concept, and, incidentally, to the codes of professional practice established by the counseling fraternity. The acceptance of the counselor and the gradual crystallization of his scope and functions are verified by the criticism levied against those who transgress or abuse their positions.

Great debate is carried on regarding whether the scope and functions of the counselor should evolve from mere theory or from a full philosophy; whether one's beliefs regarding the nature of man are prerequisite to good counseling; whether guidance is, indeed, worthy of professional identity or merely the role of another educational enterprise; and whether the counselor is a generalist or a specialist.²⁰

Wrenn²¹ prefers to see the counselor as both: a generalist in that he is available to all in the school, acquainted with the school's program and the referral opportunities in the community; a specialist in that he has a special knowledge of the student and his problems, of the scope of student learnings in life as well as in school, of the collation and interpretation of all sources of information on the student, and of the art of so communicating with the student that the latter is ultimately helped to understand himself better.

While final agreement on the scope and functions of the counselor await the resolution of debate, many seem to agree with Hoyt²² who urges

20 Herman J. Peters and Gail Farwell, Guidance: A Developmental Approach, Chicago, Rand McNally, 1966, p. 95.

21 Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World, p. 143.

22 Kenneth B. Hoyt, "What the School Has a Right to Expect of Its Counselor", in Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XL, October, 1961, p. 129, and "Guidance: A Constellation of Services", in Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XL, April, 1962, p. 690.

that the counselor serve as consultant to principal and teachers, coordinate the school so as to marshal all sources of guidance help, work with the faculty to enrich their instruction with the guidance point of view, a stance remarkably similar to that taken by Brewer.

Noting that "the writing of textbooks for guidance is in its infancy",²³ Brewer urged the interested teacher "to make his teaching count for guidance."²⁴ He described a careful plan whereby the pioneering teacher could gradually persuade a faculty toward the guidance point of view so that a "bit-by bit introduction of a guidance curriculum paralleling and gradually supplanting the old curriculum" may be accomplished.²⁵ Above all, he stressed the absolute requirement that the counselor, rather than becoming a remote authority, should "aid in official relationships between students and faculty, keeping students, faculty and administrators well informed, and secure the cooperation of faculty { . . . } and everyone concerned directly and indirectly" with the goal of the guidance program: that of assisting students in their preparation for life.²⁶

Guidance, then, has come away from the old identification with vocational guidance, just as the counselor is now departing from identification with guidance.

23 Brewer, Education As Guidance, p. 591.

24 Ibid., p. 590.

25 Ibid., p. 604.

26 Ibid., p. 175.

The dissatisfaction with the term 'guidance' has steadily increased, since in many ways 'guidance' is almost the exact antithesis of both the practice and the belief of the professional 'guidance' counselor.²⁷

It seems fair to state that those involved in student personnel work, to utilize the latest term, share a belief in the importance of the individual, his rights and freedom of choice. Personnel workers are individual-centered, rather than object or content-centered. If the teacher is student-centered and the counselor client-centered, both are primarily concerned with the individual; the content, the tools, and the techniques are secondary.²⁸

Warning against the counselor's natural tendency to react to student behavior with the imposition of his own moral constructs, Brewer stated, "The mistake of trying to make the punishment always fit the crime must be replaced by a study of the individual's needs."²⁹ Again, Brewer outlines five steps in the decision-making process, urging the counselor to consider issues, present and describe alternatives, but always to allow the child the right to make his own decision.³⁰ Further, he pointed out that the perception of the neglected child would be different from that of other children and that the counselor must comprehend this difference and accept the child with whatever attitudinal framework he

27 Arbuckle, op. cit., p. 99.

28 Ibid., p. 101.

29 John Marks Brewer, Education As Guidance, New York, Macmillan, 1938, p. 495.

30 Ibid., p. 59.

has developed.³¹

These self-same points stressed by Brewer have been recently advocated by professional leaders such as Miller,³² Cribbon,³³ Beck,³⁴ and Wrenn³⁵ in a statement of basic principles (fundamental truths or basic doctrine) which they found to be accepted by most leaders in the profession as being characteristic of the guidance function. They declare that guidance must center upon the individual and his development; be aware of and understand the individual's social environment; recognize the individual's dignity, worth, and right to choose; assist in, but not dominate decision-making; stress cooperation, not compulsion; must be a sequential and continuous educational process; must strive to provide the formal educational system with the individualizing, personalizing, and socializing element.

Elaborating on these points, Shertzer and Stone³⁶ indirectly stress each one of Brewer's major theses for the quality and type of guidance program he envisioned and espoused, especially the point that guidance is

31 Brewer, op. cit., p. 418.

32 Carrol H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper, 1961, p. 449-451.

33 James J. Cribbon, "A Critique of the Philosophy of Modern Guidance", in Catholic Education Review, Vol. 53, February, 1955, p. 73-91.

34 Carlton E. Beck, Philosophical Foundations of Guidance, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice Hall, 1963, p. 145-147.

35 C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Philosophical and Psychological Bases of Personnel Services in Education", in Personnel Services in Education, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1959, p. 41-81.

36 Shertzer and Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, p. 43-44.

not to control or force the student in decision-making.³⁷

They point out that guidance must accept the child in his world with his unique perceptions; so did Brewer.³⁸ They make a major point of the dignity and worth of the individual and of his right to choose his own destiny; so did Brewer.^{39, 40}

Brewer believed that the counselor should teach by example; that his spirit of respect for all should be reflected in his personal and professional life so that he became a source of good help, a force for unity and progress. "Life is essentially cooperative, yet acting together is not easy to learn, hence this task is a vital part of the school's program of guidance."⁴¹

He pointed out that the system of grading and promotion in schools and in business fostered a spirit of competition which could easily be abused so that the other fellow was ignored. Once more he scored the separation of youngsters by economic status in large cities where neighborhoods are so polarized. If democracy is to work, all citizens must learn cooperation. They can best learn it when students learn it from adults

37 Brewer, "Individual Development and Guidance - Definition and Scope", in The Harvard Teachers' Record, Vol. 5, June, 1935, p. 169.

38 Ibid., p. 171.

39 Ibid., p. 171.

40 Idem, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance," in The Harvard Alumni Bulletin, Vol. XXVIII, No. 5, October 29, 1925, p. 137.

41 -----, Education As Guidance, p. 537.

who teach it by practicing it.⁴²

Brewer stressed cooperation and even thoughtfulness in many of his books and articles.^{43, 44, 45}

That guidance should be a continuous process and that it should recognize individual differences and the relationship of the student to his own environment were the themes of many of his articles.⁴⁶

Indeed, in his first published article, he rejected the idea that guidance was merely a matter of helping individuals choose their occupations or of helping children find jobs. Rather, he declared, guidance "is a long, continued process" and that if guidance is to deserve the attention of those promoting the welfare of youth, "it must be broadly conceived as an educational process (concerned with the individual) as long as he needs guidance."⁴⁷

This conviction is threaded throughout Brewer's works, for he never wanted guidance to be considered an occasional or a distributive service. In the memorial tribute written by his colleagues following Brewer's death,

42 Ibid., p. 538.

43 Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, Macmillan, 1923, p. 245.

44 -----, "New Strength for Democracy", in The Boston Globe, November 21, 1934, p. 3.

45 -----, "Cooperation Under Leadership," in School and Society, Vol. 55, May 9, 1942, p. 529-530.

46 -----, "The Need for Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. XI, No. 279, May 1, 1920, p. 512-517.

47 -----, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. V, No. 128, June 9, 1917, p. 662.

his deep belief in the value of guidance as a life-long process was indicated by the voluntary assistance he willingly gave to the United States Government in structuring the Works Project Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps during the depression and, later, as consultant to the Veterans' Administration when it established counseling and placement centers for returning servicemen.⁴⁸

Guidance is obligated to help the child actualize his best talents, the experts explain. This was the point of Brewer's vestibule or try-out courses; they allowed the child a greater opportunity to discover fields that appealed to his interests and possible aptitudes; they enriched and informed his decision as to the path he would follow.⁴⁹

Correctly is it stated that guidance is a personalizing, socializing element in education. That the guidance expert should be an integrating agent, bringing into harmony many and diverse sectors of school and society for the benefit of the child was an unchanging feature of Brewer's philosophy. That the entire guidance effort should bring about cooperation, lessening of tension and of authority specification was repeatedly cited by Brewer as one of the major benefits of infusing the guidance orientation into the curriculum.⁵⁰

48 Hubert Armstrong, et al, "A Statement for the Minutes of the Harvard Graduate School of Education", in The Harvard University Gazette, February, 1951, p. 186.

49 Brewer, "The Need for Try-Out Courses in the Junior High School", in The Industrial Arts Magazine, Vol. XI, March, 1922, p. 85-88.

50 -----, "Is It the Right Answer?", in The Clearing House, Vol. 10, January, 1936, p. 294-297.

Therefore, when one consults the experts to seek their view of the scope and functions of the counselor specialist, one finds some diversity, of course, but a firm degree of unanimity of opinion. The points upon which there appears to be the greatest agreement are points which Brewer delineated as features of his oft-recommended program of guidance for the public schools of America.

The counselor specialist, then, is charged by the leaders of his profession with the same basic ethical and professional obligations which Brewer articulated years ago. If the scope and functions have not changed radically from Brewer's time and Brewer's outline thereof, notwithstanding the inevitable refinements brought about by professionalism and inter-disciplinary research, his concept of the counselor should be inspected to see whether or not that concept is yet approved by modern guidance authorities.

3. The Survival of Brewer's Concept of the Counselor.

From the days of urging the classroom teacher to relate the material taught to adult life down to the days of state and federal legislation regulating and recommending counselor certification standards, the guidance worker, or counselor, has evolved in concept. Numerous have been those who fathered concepts of what guidance and counseling should be. One of these fathers was Brewer whose concepts seemed at the time to receive scant reception, but whose concepts were eventually melded into actual guidance practise. His concept of the guidance counselor was formulated when very few were so engaged. Therefore, Brewer had to forecast, in a sense, what the counselor should be. Whether or not his

recommendations endured may be determined by an inspection of the opinions of accepted authorities.

Earlier in this paper, Brewer's first article was quoted, revealing that initially, he hoped the guidance teacher would be one who had mastered the study of the economic, industrial, commercial, and professional life of the community, who would cooperate with teachers, workers, and employers to the ultimate benefit and guidance of the child.⁵¹

Understandably, Brewer saw the counselor as one heavily involved in vocational planning and coordination of employment placement. This is so because guidance in the United States began as vocational guidance which was one aspect of a broad social welfare concern which was destined to be adopted by professional educators as an obligation of the public schools.⁵²

Faced with an enormous reluctance on the part of the schoolmen to change and with an intransigent refusal on the part of school boards to spend extra funds on his new plan, Brewer was forced at the outset to urge his counselors not to neglect the many in favor of the few.⁵³ Yet, he also envisioned the natural response of young people who are stimulated to think about their futures and declared that any effort in educational or

51 Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 54-63.

52 Carroll H. Miller, Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper, 1961, p. 169.

53 Brewer, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", p. 665.

vocational guidance would inevitably result in not less but more individual counseling.⁵⁴

As guidance gained some acceptance, as different approaches were tried and results reported, as more teachers sought graduate school training in guidance, so did Brewer's concept of the counselor mature. He urged that the counselor keep faith with his students, that he not allow his position to be misused by teachers or principals who might not yet understand his function.⁵⁵ Brewer also foresaw that the counselor's attitude and personality could spell success or failure for the guidance program.⁵⁶

In the fullness of time, Brewer advocated the full-time counselor, free from distracting duties, dedicated to assisting the youngster with any problem - not just those of vocational planning. Brewer's last articles were in the form of moving pleas to the public to insist that the school authorities give counseling assistance to youngsters whose lives were

54 Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, p. 98.

55 Ibid., p. 26.

56 Ibid., p. 142.

being made unhappy by family problems or environmental disadvantages.⁵⁷⁻⁶²

Clearly, Brewer had taken to heart the value of the personal, therapeutic good the counselor could offer above and beyond the services of vocational guidance.

In 1925, Brewer saw the need for expanded graduate training for counselors and urged that three new courses be offered. They were: Principles of Guidance; Techniques of Counseling; and Organization and Administration of Guidance.⁶³ A year later, he added the following courses to the recommended preparation: Occupational Information, Research, and the Survey; The Conduct of Life-Career Classes; Psychology Applied to Vocational Guidance; Special Problems in Vocational Guidance.⁶⁴

In 1967, many of these courses are still found in the list of courses recommended for certification of counselors on the master's

57 -----, "Family Takes New Forms as Times Change", in The Boston Herald, January 6, 1930, p. 12.

58 -----, "Aid of Schools in Family Problems Urged", in The New York Times, January 8, 1930, p. 8.

59 -----, "Youth and Crime", in The Christian Science Monitor, April 25, 1934, p. 1.

60 -----, "Protecting the Child from Crime", in The New York Herald Tribune, October 8, 1934, p. 3.

61 -----, "A Way Out for Baffled Youth", in The New York Herald Tribune, March 23, 1935, p. 4.

62 -----, "For Better Education", in The Christian Science Monitor, September 21, 1944, p. 2.

63 -----, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance", p. 134.

64 -----, Case Studies In Educational and Vocational Guidance, p. 218.

degree level, although some titles have altered.⁶⁵

Therefore, Brewer's concept of the training needed by the counselor has, without any question, endured, although many new courses have since been added to those he recommended. He stressed the importance of the counselor's personality in the counseling process; a genuine interest in and understanding of all young people; tact and patience.⁶⁶

Brewer agreed with the early guidance workers who saw the wise choice of vocation as the result of the student's having learned all about his own abilities, interests, limitations, and the requirements and opportunities of the vocations, with the counselor's help. Brewer agreed with this view, but advanced it, reasoning that all teaching which enhanced, enriched or informed the individual's life, or changed his goals or behavior, was also guidance. Therefore, individual counseling which gave direction or enhanced character was also a learning situation; therefore, teaching. From this marriage of counseling and learning came his theory of education as guidance and his concept of the guidance-teacher counselor.

However, Brewer's view of the counselor matured, as has been pointed out, so that ultimately, he saw the counselor much as the professional he is today, foretelling many of the conflicts and professional

65 Hubert W. Houghton and Laura M. Trexler, Inventory of Counselor Education Programs, Washington, Office of Education, 1967, p. 46.

66 Brewer, et al, Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance, Boston, Ginn, 1926, p. 218.

problems which attended the eventual growth of the profession.

Whether counseling should serve the adjustive or distributive needs of youth is a topic of some divergence of opinion. Krumboltz⁶⁷ advocates that counseling should modify behavior instead of striving to achieve self-understanding or self-acceptance. On the other hand, Rogers⁶⁸ has held that self-understanding will lead either to realistic self-acceptance or else to changed behavior, but he does not see the goals as polarized or mutually exclusive.

Brewer's comparatively uncomplicated view of the counselor did not reflect the refined differences debated by today's authorities, but his view of the counselor was one that included the possibilities of all of the functions now performed by public school counselors. As previously pointed out, teachers still counsel and always will. There remain those who advocate more involvement by teachers in counseling so that counselors do not become a mystic, esoteric cult of private professionals who give the impression that only they can properly assist others with problems.⁶⁹

Many of the ethical problems which confront modern counselors were foreseen and cautioned against by Brewer. Schwebel names three basic causes for poor, or unethical counseling; excessive self-interest, unsound judgement, and ignorance of aspects of life which is

67 John D. Krumboltz, "Behavioral Goals for Counseling", in The Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 13, Summer, 1966, p. 153-159.

68 Carl R. Rogers, "A Theory of Therapy, Personality, and Interpersonal Relationships", in Psychology: A Study of Science, Vol. 3 New York, McGraw-Hill, 1959, p. 212-235.

69 Roger H. Garrison, "Teaching as Counseling", in The Junior College Journal, Vol. 34, October, 1963, p. 13.

different from his own.⁷⁰ In his doctoral dissertation, Brewer embodied these weaknesses into his construction of what the counselor was and was not to do and later repeated them in his first published article.⁷²

Seemingly endless comparisons may be made between points stressed by Brewer in his works and those urged by modern authorities. Boy and Pine⁷³ repeat Brewer's warnings that the counselor should be free from disciplinary administration, clerical tasks, truancy supervision, or record keeping. Arbuckle⁷⁴ lists a number of counselor functions recommended by the American Personnel and Guidance Association, the American School Counselors' Association, the U. S. Office of Education, and professional journals. Not a single one of them conflict with the original recommendations which Brewer pressed so patiently during his lifetime, nor do those stressed by Shertzer and Stone⁷⁵ in their treatment of criticisms of counselor errors. Indeed, the authors quote the seven points Brewer cited in Education as Guidance as recommended criteria:

70 Milton Schwebel, "Some Ethical Problems in Counseling", in The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXIII, January, 1955, p. 254-259.

71 Brewer, A Constructive Study of Vocational Guidance, unpublished doctoral dissertation presented to the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, Harvard University, 1916, p. 63.

72 -----, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. V, No. 128, June 9, 1917, p. 661-668.

73 Angelo V. Boy and Gerald J. Pine, Client-Centered Counseling in the Secondary School, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1963, p. 72-73.

74 Dugald S. Arbuckle, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1967, p. 113-124.

75 Shertzer and Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1966, p. 45-48.

(1) the person is guided in solving a problem, performing a task, or moving toward some objective; (2) the person being guided usually takes the initiative and asks for guidance; (3) the guide is sympathetic, friendly, and understanding; (4) the guide should have experience, knowledge, and wisdom; (5) the method of guidance is to offer opportunities for new experiences and enlightenment; (6) the person guided progressively consents to receive guidance offered and makes his own decisions; (7) the guidance offered helps the individual receiving it to become better able to guide himself.⁷⁶

They point out that Brewer's plan left its mark upon counseling and guidance as they are known today, although the guidance movement did not embrace the entire education as guidance concept.⁷⁷

Therefore, the writer concludes that Brewer's concept of the counselor survives today, in literature and practice, although the survival is one of an entire matrix rather than of a single definition. Brewer described the counselor in terms of his function within an overall program, in terms of his role, his opportunities, obligations, and possible problems. Time, the maturation of the profession, and the gradual efflorescence of research and philosophical debate have not proved him to be unwise in his postulations.

A significant evaluation was offered by Bennett who wrote,

John Marks Brewer represents the best thinking in his period regarding student personnel practices and the work of the counselor and seems, from the vantage point of the mid-century, prophetic of some of the best practices that have developed in subsequent decades.⁷⁸

Yet another tribute to his foresight was rendered by the 1949 convention of the National Vocational Guidance Association in Boston which

76 Ibid., p. 55.

77 Ibid., p. 56.

78 Margaret Bennett, Guidance in Groups, New York, McGraw Hill, 1955, p. 29.

"hailed Doctor Brewer as a leader in the development of the guidance counselor's role, of his materials and techniques."⁷⁹ The same article credited him with furthering the profession of guidance not only in New England, but across the United States as a whole. The writer believes the most perceptive statement in the article was that which declared, "He fought for guidance for the forgotten child when there were very few who cared to raise a voice or to pay a dollar for his care."⁸⁰

Curiously enough, Brewer's concept of education as guidance was carefully noted by the Chinese educator, Lu Ting-yi, a member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, who wrote,

The Communist educational system was built on the belief that education and guidance are one, but rejected the American class-structured educational system which Professor Brewer sought to moderate with his plan.⁸¹

In summary, the status and role of the counselor has undergone dramatic changes as a result of societal needs and advancements in federal sponsorship of guidance programs in the public schools. The study of guidance, counseling, and pupil personnel services has expanded and more graduate schools than ever before now recognize and offer courses in these areas.

⁷⁹ "Brewer Cited by National Vocational Guidance Association", in The Boston Herald, November 4, 1949, p. 3.

⁸⁰ Ibid., p. 3.

⁸¹ Lu Ting-yi, Education Must Be Combined With Productive Labour, Peking, Foreign Languages Press, 1958, p. 121.

Different schools of thought regarding the role of the counselor have evolved and, as a relatively young professional discipline, divergent opinions are gradually being reconciled and both legal and professional standards for counselor certification have been established.

Despite the vicissitudes which have attended the rapid expansion and acceptance of the guidance movement, the basic concepts of the counselor and his role propounded by Brewer are still reflected in modern recommendations by authorities in the field. Even the understandably vast differences which contrast modern society and education from those of his period have not obscured the enduring wisdom and intrinsic worth of the recommendations he made when counseling was a relatively new field.

A summary review of the research reported in this work is now in order so that conclusions may be drawn and recommendations may be made regarding the possibilities of further research related to Brewer and his period.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study of the writings of John Marks Brewer reveals that his concept of guidance was initially formulated in response to the pressing needs of unfortunate young people in the early twenties. As educational conditions changed and as the infant guidance movement gained momentum, Brewer was prompt in recommending new approaches to the guidance endeavor and equally prompt in modifying and improving his own ideas. Chief among his concepts were those of the curriculum and of the guidance specialist, which together formed the foundation of his plan for guidance.

He believed that the curriculum should be so enriched and so ordered that it would infuse academic studies with activities related to societal values and functions. Moreover, he believed the school should share with the home and church the obligation of passing on to young children the ethical, moral, and patriotic ideals which were then subscribed to by virtually all public school teachers and administrators. In short, he saw the entire educational process as guidance, although he eventually recognized the need for a professionally trained guidance staff.

Brewer's concept of the guidance specialist began with the guidance teacher but gradually evolved to the specialist, who, regardless of his title, was to assist the pupil but also serve as interpreter of the guidance program's objectives to faculty, administration, and the community. Brewer was explicit in describing the characteristics of the good counselor and the duties of his office.

The educational setting of the sixties was vastly different from that of the twenties when Brewer began his career. The World War and the

Space Age focused unprecedented national attention on the public schools. The federal government sponsored extensive programs for the improvement of guidance services, among many other projects of benefit to public education. The resulting sophistication and professionalization of the guidance movement produced research and new schools of thought which gave the movement a number of new functions, purposes, and specialists.

Yet, modern educational literature yields abundant proof of the enduring worth of Brewer's suggested curricular improvements. Although his idea of combining guidance with the curriculum was never accepted in toto, some of its principal features are now being heralded as creative curricular additions which help the pupil to experience real life activities in the school. Other of his recommendations have been quietly adopted and, today, modern public schools embrace his sense of concern for the disadvantaged youth to such an extent that it has become a routine tenet of public educational philosophy.

Professional debate over the role and duties of the guidance specialist is gradually approaching accord. Here, again, we find authorities and commissions proposing ideal qualities and concepts of the counselor which were formulated years ago by Brewer.

Brewer endured personal sacrifice by devoting his life to a cause which his own colleagues at Harvard later attested was held in poor regard at the time. Misunderstanding, obstacles and discouragements were many; progress was slow. His initial concepts were the best products of his creativity and served, for a time, as the major vehicles for the establishment of early guidance programs.

He knew some of the earliest guidance workers and taught many who now hold positions of leadership in the profession. The survival of so many of his concepts, only two of which are considered in this work, despite dramatic and all-pervasive upheaval and change in education, justifies, in the opinion of the writer, the conclusion that Brewer was, indeed, one of the prime movers in the modern guidance movement and that his influence thereon was profound, beneficial, and enduring. Although he is not considered today as a major counseling philosopher, his works and his ideas influenced many who are so considered.

Further research may well be undertaken to determine to what extent the guidance movement was advanced or hindered by its early identification with the immigrant youth whose massive entrance into public schools marked the end of one era and the beginning of a new one for the purposes and practises of public education.

Further historical research needs to be done to clarify the sacrifices and contributions of other pioneers in guidance, such as Meyer Bloomfield, Paul Hanus, Eli Weaver, David Stone Wheeler, William Proctor, and Truman Kelly. Not only are many of the publications to which they contributed long defunct, but the passage of time will make more difficult their location.

Finally, the genesis of psychological tests and measurements, their relationship to and influence on the guidance movement should be thoroughly documented and clarified, for the early proponents of such activity encountered many of the same obstacles and frustrations which for so long impeded the acceptance and growth of the guidance movement.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arbuckle, Dugald, Pupil Personnel Services in the Modern School, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1966, xi-404p.

A valuable assessment of the problems of contemporary youth and a plan for their solution by correctly functioning pupil personnel services in the schools. An excellent presentation of the philosophical justification for and practical procedures in a comprehensive program; similar in structure and in many recommendations to Brewer's Education As Guidance.

Beck, Carlton E., Philosophical Foundations of Guidance, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1963, xiv - 284 p.

A modern authority who presents an excellent study of the philosophical aspects of guidance, concluding with a definition of the discipline which has strong relevance to Brewer's.

Bennett, Margaret, Guidance in Groups, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1955, xii-367 p.

A thorough treatment of group guidance; contains a rare tribute to Brewer which declares him to be a prophet of some of the best concepts and practises in modern guidance.

Bloomfield, Meyer, Vocational Guidance of Youth, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1911, xii-123 p.

A valuable period piece by one of the early guidance workers, but a rather simple outline of the dangers youth face from being unguided or misguided by unscrupulous commercial agents.

-----, Youth, School, and Vocation, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1915, xi-273 p.

A more formal appeal for public school assumption of responsibility for occupational guidance; excellent information on public attitude toward child laborers and immigrant youth of the time.

Bonser, Frederick G., "Is 'Prevocational' a Needed or Desirable Term?", in School and Society, Vol. 2, No. 50, December 11, 1915, p. 829-841.

One of the early guidance workers discusses the confusion caused by lack of a uniform vocabulary in the profession. His opinions regarding counselor qualifications were similar to Brewer's.

Boy, Angelo, and Gerald J. Pine, Client-Centered Counseling in the Secondary School, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1963, xiv-376 p.

Modern authorities who repeat Brewer's recommendations regarding desirable structure for counselor role.

Braun, Robert J., "Is Guidance Failing Our Students?", in Parade Magazine, issue of March 8, 1970, p. 9.

An expose of damage done to young lives by incompetent counselors. Verifies the present acceptance and importance of counseling and the wisdom of Brewer's recommendations regarding the exacting personal qualifications and careful training of the counselor.

Brewer, John Marks, "A Broader View of Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. V., No. 128, June 9, 1917, p. 661-668.

The first published article; states his view of the proper place of vocational guidance - in the schools; describes the need for such service and the proposed benefits thereof. A remarkably succinct delineation of his plan for the guidance movement.

-----, A Constructive Study of Vocational Guidance, doctoral thesis presented to the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, Harvard University, 1916, viii-308 p.

A most comprehensive review of the early guidance movement. In its later book form, it has become a major research tool for anyone interested in the beginnings of guidance in America.

-----, "A Prerequisite to Democratic Methods in School Administration," in School and Society, Vol. XII, No. 297, September 4, 1920, p. 152-157.

Considered radical and unacceptable at the time, Brewer's recommendation that administrators include teachers and students in discussions of plans and problems is now "in." Valuable article for understanding Brewer's dream of guidance as a catalyst for school and community cooperation.

-----, and Roy Willmarth Kelly, "A Selected Critical Bibliography of Vocational Guidance", in Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. IV, February, 1917, p. vi-76.

An important "first"; certainly critical, it stands as the initial compendium of works available to those interested in trying to initiate guidance services.

-----, "A Way Out for Baffled Youth", feature in the New York Herald Tribune, issue of March 23, 1935, p. 4, col. 3.

A description of the national disgrace and waste constituted by wandering drop-outs, misplaced and unguided youth; one of his many pleas for public support of guidance for the disadvantaged.

-----, and Mabelle B. Blake, et al., Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance, Boston, Ginn, 1926, xxiv-243 p.

Perhaps the first textbook for college and university courses in guidance; utilizes the case study method made popular at Harvard Law School by Dean Pound. The selection and nature of the problems reveal the conditions faced by youth of that period.

Brewer, John Marks, "Cooperation Under Leadership", in School and Society, Vol. 55, May 9, 1942, p. 529-530.

If young people are to learn cooperation and democratic attitudes, they will learn them from adults who personify and practise them; interesting re-affirmation of Brewer's convictions.

-----, "Educational Guidance", in The School Executive, Vol. 48, February, 1929, p. 268-269.

A short, but potent criticism of the neglect of non-motivated school children by teachers. Contains an outline of his proposal for a guidance-infused curriculum which teachers could begin to implement.

-----, "Education as Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. XIV, December, 1922, p. 180-189.

Written ten years prior to his book of the same name, this important article first elaborates his belief that since education exists to guide the student toward life, the curriculum must reflect life activity and be infused with guidance. Knowledge and wisdom will come from learning to live and act correctly. Germinal statement of his ultimate plan for guidance.

-----, Education As Guidance, New York, Macmillan, 1932, x-668 p.

The magnum opus of Brewer's literary career. A comprehensive, painstaking, and well-founded work which presents both his philosophy of guidance and suggested methods for its implimentation.

-----, "For Better Education", letter to the editor of The Christian Science Monitor, Boston, issue of September 21, 1944, p. 3, col. 3.

An appeal to citizens to demand that school administrators extend better care to culturally deprived and out-of-school youth. Written in the year of his retirement, this letter proves that Brewer's concern for forgotten youth never waned.

-----, et al., History of Vocational Guidance, Its Origins and Early Development, New York, Harper, 1942, viii-344 p.

Still the most complete and authoritative reference on the subject available. Traces social trends which antedated the formal movement through the first organized programs. An invaluable source for understanding Brewer's position in the movement and his task.

-----, "Individual Guidance and Development - Definition and Scope," in The Harvard Teachers' Record, Vol. 5, June, 1935, p. 164-171.

One of the important articles in which he describes the probable future structure and scope of the role of the modern counselor. A valuable source of recommendations yet extant in professional standards.

Brewer, John Marks, "Is It the Right Answer?", in The Clearing House, Vol. 10. January, 1936, p. 294-297.

A suggestion for blending guidance with good teaching; a recommendation that the guidance worker be a catalyst for cooperation.

-----, "New Strength for Democracy", feature in The Boston Globe, issue of November 21, 1934, p. 3, col. 2.

A vision of democracy buttressed by the infusion of thousands of young citizens who have been practised in democratic procedures through years of experience in a guidance-infused curriculum in a cooperatively administered school system. A fine example of Brewer's greater view of the ultimate benefits of guidance.

-----, et al., Occupations, A Textbook for the Educational, Civic, and Vocational Guidance of Boys and Girls, Boston, Ginn, 1923, x-441 p.

An ambitious attempt to provide a multi-purpose tool designed to enrich the curriculum with wise career planning. Excellent example of Brewer's plan for guidance and activity centered education.

-----, Oral English, Boston, Ginn, 1916, viii-396 p.

A multi-purpose text which offers suggestions for classes in public speaking, debate, and parliamentary procedure. The suggested teaching methods constitute a good example of Brewer's concept of the guidance-infused curriculum; the book is one of the tools he created to demonstrate how to implement his philosophy.

-----, "Over the Editor's Desk", letter to the editor of The Christian Science Monitor of Boston, issue of September 20, 1934, p. 4, col. 3.

Condemnation of unequal opportunities, facilities, and social activities in schools in poor neighborhoods; excellent example of Brewer's discerning analysis of a problem just now receiving serious treatment.

-----, "Progress and Problems of Vocational Guidance", in The Harvard Alumni Bulletin, Vol. XXVIII, No. 5, October, 1925, p. 129-137.

Report to Harvard alumni on the state of guidance; contains full explanation of his recommendation for a variety of life-related activities for all students, an idea now gaining currency in modern recommendations for schools.

-----, "Protecting Children from Crime", feature in The New York Times, issue of October 8, 1934, p. 3, col. 2.

An important appeal on behalf of unguided and misguided young; excellent insight into Brewer's view of guidance as a positive moral force which would prevent crime and social maladjustment.

-----, "The Arguments for Junior Business Training", in School and Society, Vol. 25, No. 627, November, 1927, p. 7-8.

Stresses the advantages of orientation-to-business courses in junior high school and suggests the objectives, methods, and content for such a course. Interesting example of Brewer's advocacy of team teaching in the guidance-infused curriculum.

Brewer, John Marks, "The High School Guidance Program - What Are Its Essentials?", in The Journal of Education, Vol. 120, December, 1937, p. 393.

A valuable summary of Brewer's important viewpoints; contains a good description of the counselor as we know him today.

-----, "The Need for Try-Out Courses in the Junior High School", in The Industrial Arts Magazine, Vol. XI, March, 1922, p. 85-88.

One of his first arguments for curriculum revision, which theme became a permanent feature of his ultimate plan for guidance.

-----, "The Need for Vocational Guidance", in School and Society, Vol. XI, No. 279, May 1, 1920, p. 512-517.

One of Brewer's early appeals to educators on behalf of unguided and neglected youth; contains several of his concepts which endured throughout his subsequent writings.

-----, "The Task of Vocational Guidance", in The Teachers College Record, Vol. 30, April, 1929, p. 693-702.

An important article which defines Brewer's major goals for guidance. His subsequent writings seem to elaborate on the themes set forth in this work.

-----, "The Vocational Experience of Counselors", in The Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. VII, November 28, 1929, p. 76-78.

Presents the case for the importance of having counselors gain actual vocational experience before they attempt to guide children in career planning. An interesting case against the sufficiency of the liberal arts alone as a background for counselors.

-----, The Vocational Guidance Movement, New York, Macmillan, xi-333 p.

A comprehensive presentation of Brewer's interpretation of the problems and possibilities of vocational guidance. An invaluable summary of his writings to that date and a history of the contributions of early proponents of the movement. A most important source.

-----, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation", in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, No. 156, September, 1916, p. 54-63.

His first published work; his plan for using the cooperative contributions of labor, management, and local businessmen in vocational guidance and school planning; now promulgated by many as a new idea for modern schools. A valuable statement of his early conceptual definitions.

-----, "Vocational Guidance: What It Is", in Vocational Guidance Magazine, Vol. 11, October, 1932, p. 5-6.

Writing as the magazine's editor, Brewer presents a clear definition of terms which reflects a definite development from his early writings; guidance workers are urged to work for a unanimity of agreement on the usage of such terms.

Brewer, John Marks, Wellsprings of Democracy, New York, Philosophical Library, 1952, xii-232 p.

A superb statement of Brewer's dream for his country; not only a guide for all democratic groups, but a call for action to his fellow citizens. He recommends democratic procedures and cooperation for all levels of group living.

Cantril, Hadley, The Politics of Despair, New York, Basic Books, 1968, ix-324 p.

Interesting analysis of political attitudes in America; useful only in its reference to demands made on schools by citizens who wish them to assume responsibility for the preservation of democracy through training the young.

Caswell, Hollis, "The Nature of Good Teaching", in School and Society, Vol. 88, No. 2182, December 3, 1960, p. 457-464.

A good example of a modern recommendation of one of Brewer's tenets: that every teacher must practice guidance if the pupil is to be well taught.

Chase, Edward T., "Politics and Technology", in The Yale Review, New Haven, Yale University Press, Vol. 52, March, 1963, p. 326-335.

Interesting warning against the seemingly inevitable federal control of public schools; helpful information on federal response to school needs in the Space Age.

Chauncey, Henry, "Some Comparative Checkpoints Between American and Soviet Education", in Comparative Education Review, No. 3, February, 1959, p. 18-20.

True to his title, the author offers interesting data which demonstrates the greater need for guidance on the part of modern American youth.

Conant, James B., "The Comprehensive High School", in Talks on American Education, Henry Chauncey, editor, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962, p.128-147.

One of the several scholarly works by the man who oversaw and helped guide the transformation of the public secondary school into the Space Age. Presents balanced criticism and praise of the weaknesses and accomplishments of the American secondary school.

Cribbin, James J., "A Critique of the Philosophy of Modern Guidance", in Catholic Educational Review, Vol. 53, February, 1955, p. 73-91.

A scholarly critique which contains a definition of guidance strongly similar to Brewer's.

Cribbin, James J., An Analysis of the Theological, Philosophical, Psychological, and Sociological Principles of Guidance Presented in Literature Published Since 1935, unpublished doctoral dissertation presented to Fordham University, New York, 1951, vii-356 p.

Highly ambitious review of guidance literature; useful source of data on the modern expansion of guidance as a result of public demand.

Cutler, John Lawrence, Religion in New England, Boston, Unitarian, 1938, xvi-356 p.

This is a prime source on the unique religious influences which prejudiced New England school teachers against immigrant and poor youngsters and, resultingly, against the guidance programs aimed at their service.

Davis, Allison, Social Class Influences Upon Learning, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1958, ix-382 p.

Scholarly view of the sociological influence on youth; helpful data on the intense need for guidance in the modern school's effort to accommodate youth of different social classes, one of Brewer's contentions.

Ginzberg, Eli and Hyman Berman, The American Worker in the Twentieth Century, New York, Free Press, xii-674 p.

Excellent sociological study of the worker and his view of the schools and of his children's future; most helpful phylogeny of labor as a pressure group on education. Verifies wisdom of Brewer's urging that labor cooperate with schools.

Gray, J. Glenn, The Promise of Wisdom, Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1968, viii-280 p.

A philosophical analysis of education which stresses Brewer's ideas of the guidance-infused curriculum and of life-activities for all children; excellent example of the survival of Brewer's ideas, without due credit given.

Hanus, Paul H., Beginnings in Industrial Education, New York, Houghton Mifflin, 1908, xiv-305 p.

The author, one of Brewer's mentors, advocated vocational education by presenting in this book the many advantages of training out-of-school youth as was then successfully done in Germany. Provides the reasoning which resulted in the early identification of vocational education with vocational guidance.

Havighurst, Robert J., "Social Class and Education", in National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook, Chicago, National Society for the Study of Education, 1960, p. 118-128.

Excellent study of the functions of modern education and the need for counselors to be thoroughly grounded in understanding of life in classes other than his own, one of Brewer's contentions.

Hintgen, Thomas, "They're Learning About Learning", feature in The Fargo Forum, issue of August 24, 1969, p. B-12.

A fine example of enthusiastic results being obtained from the application of Brewer's curriculum theory.

Hopkinson, Alfred, "The Education Bill", in The Contemporary Review, Vol. 113, 1918, p. 145-163.

An impressive and effective attack on the abuses of child labor and public apathy to the youth involved, with descriptions of the tragic condition of the neglected youngsters of the time. Offers further verification of the conditions which motivated Brewer so strongly.

Hull, Clark L., Aptitude Testing, New York, World Book, 1928, xxii-284 p.

A case is made for establishing guidance services in schools with testing as their foundation; one of the many guidance theories proposed during the period.

Husén, Torsten, "Social Determinants of the Comprehensive School", in International Review of Education, Vol. 9, No. 2, 1964, p. 157-169.

Masterful analysis of modern sociological factors governing needs of youth and demands on educational systems.

Hutson, Percival W., The Guidance Function in Education, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, xxi-786 p.

An excellent work which includes a thorough history and review of guidance and the several scenes in which it operates, as well as a most comprehensive study of modern guidance practices. The author shares Brewer's view that guidance should pervade all education.

Jenks, Christopher, "Education: Cultivating Greater Diversity", in The New Republic, Vol. 151, November 7, 1964, p. 32-36.

A plea for fair treatment of disadvantaged youth whose school facilities and services are usually poorer than those of more favored youth; closely parallels Brewer's writing on the subject.

Johnson, George E., Education by Play and Games, Boston, Ginn, 1907, xx-188 p.

An interesting plan for infusing school curriculum with many of the activities and procedures later refined and urged by Brewer.

Keller, Franklin J., and Morris S. Viteles, Vocational Guidance Throughout the World, New York, Norton, 1937, xiii-575 p.

A major source of information on the international genesis of guidance. A valuable verification of the problems which faced Brewer and determined the rate of progress for guidance.

Kelley, Earl C., "The Importance of Education for Citizenship", in Defense of Youth, by G. A. Williamson, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, 1962, p. 44-49.

Almost a direct restatement of the idea put forth by Brewer in 1926; valuable evidence of the survival of Brewer's concept.

Klemm, Louis R., Progress of Education in the Century, Edinburgh, Chambers, 1903, xxi-508 p.

A good source of information on international educational conditions which preceded the twentieth century.

Kowitz, Gerald T. and Norma Giess Kowitz, Operating Guidance Services for the Modern School, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968, vii-276 p.

A high quality, competently-written work which advocates Brewer's concept of guidance as a service to other sectors in addition to the student. Espouses the team function and Brewer's idea of constant cooperation as a vital, ipso facto teaching function of the guidance worker.

Krumboltz, John D., "Behavioral Goals for Counseling", in The Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 13, Summer, 1966, p. 153-159.

Advocates modified behavior as a goal of counseling; Brewer urged likewise.

Mallery, David, High School Students Speak Out, New York, Harper, 1962, vii-283 p.

Good analysis of high school students' opinions on school and life; strongly verifies wisdom of Brewer's recommendation of life-related curriculum.

Mathewson, Robert H., Guidance Policy and Practice, New York, Harper, 1962, xvii-385 p.

Good treatment of the several schools of thought in modern guidance; helpful evaluation of public attitudes towards guidance and schools.

Mays, John Barron, "Teen Age Culture in Contemporary America, Britain and Europe", in Annals, Vol. 338, London, November, 1965, p. 30-38.

Excellent study of emerging problems of youth and the need for responsive counseling services; helpful information regarding education in the sixties.

McGowan, John F., and Lyle D. Schmidt, Counseling: Readings in Theory and Practice, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962, xiv-623 p.

Contains a precise delineation of the problems of the early relationships between vocational guidance and psychology, testing and counseling which are reflected in Brewer's articles.

McMurrin, Sterling, "Academic Freedom in the Schools", in Teachers College Record, May, 1964, p. 139-144.

Excellent defense of Brewer's theme of the right of the individual to free life choice, regardless of pressure from the majority. Helpful information on control of schools in the sixties.

Mead, Margaret, "A Redefinition of Education", in National Education Association Journal, Vol. 48, No. 2, October, 1959, p. 14-19.

Using modern forces and changes, the author urges the schools to vivify the curriculum, just as Brewer did many years previously. Impressive appeal for a curriculum responsive to sensitively-portrayed, complex needs of youth.

-----, "Questions That Need Asking", in Teachers College Record, Vol. 63, No. 2, November, 1961, p. 81-97.

Excellent example of a modern authority raising many of the same questions and criticizing the same neglect of youngsters which characterized Brewer's works.

Miller, Carroll H., Foundations of Guidance, New York, Harper, 1961, xv-463 p.

Excellent overview of the growth of guidance with adequate reference to Brewer; names him the first counselor educator, but fails to follow his influence into the present. Author scores many of the same abuses which Brewer assailed.

Miller, Harry L. and Marjorie B. Miller, Education in the Metropolis, New York, Free Press, 1967, viii-295 p.

Excellent analysis of the unique manifestation of problems in urban education; the authors decry many of the same abuses of disadvantaged young found in Brewer's works.

Miller, Richard I., "Education in a Changing Society", in Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, Washington, National Education Association, 1963, p. 44-71.

The author presents an insightful review of the power struggles waged in modern times over the purpose and direction of the public schools. Prerequisite information to the understanding of education in the early sixties.

New Educational Policies Commission, Manpower and Education, Washington, National Education Association, 1956, vi-178 p.

Excellent report on the need for closer cooperation between management, labor, and business community in helping schools to prepare youth for the technological society; virtually restates one of Brewer's recurring themes.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Policies and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools, Chicago, The Association, 1969, iii-45 p.

A most important source of approved standards and policies wherein may be found a number of Brewer's recommendations; in the opinion of the writer, a highly significant verification of their survival and worth.

Norton, John K., Changing Demands on Education and Their Fiscal Implications, Washington, The National Committee for the Support of Public Schools, 1963, vii-212 p.

Study of the financial crisis facing modern public education; helpful source of information on the trend toward national control and financing of education, including guidance services.

Olson, John, "Experience Is Their Textbook", in Life, Vol. 68, No. 20, issue of May 29, 1970, p. 32.

A splendid example of the modern success of Brewer's recommended life-related curriculum.

Palmer, Gladys L., et al., The Reluctant Job Changer, Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1962, xiv-345 p.

Thorough analysis of worker attitudes towards technological changes in jobs and their children's futures; helpful background for schools of sixties; restates two of Brewer's themes.

Parsons, Frank, Choosing a Vocation, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1909, viii-165 p.

A modest effort to acquaint workers and those who advise them with procedures germane to wise career planning, this book is of great value as the first book written by the movement's founder.

-----, The Country's Need, Boston, Arena, 1894, xiv-194 p.

An earnest appeal is made to the nation to realize and develop the potential of unguided, drifting workers, old and young. Valuable background information on the conditions which prompted the founding of the Breadwinners' Institute in Boston.

Pounds, Ralph L., The Development of Education in Western Culture, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968, x-307 p.

The learned author has produced here a superb history of education and concluded it with an excellent comparison of modern national educational systems; helpful in gaining perspective on Brewer's period in American education and on the Space Age impact on education.

Prosser, Charles A., Secondary Education and Life (The Inglis Lecture), Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939, iii-28 p.

Excellent plan for core curriculum of life activity courses for all; author was colleague of Brewer who spent his life advocating a more democratic curriculum.

Randall, Clarence, "For a New Code of Business Ethics", feature in The New York Times, issue of April 8, 1968, p. 24, col. 4.

Provides valuable data on upheaval, in working ranks, of technology; restates Brewer's recommendations for cooperation of business with schools and for on-going guidance for young workers.

Reavis, William C., "General Guidance Responsibilities of the Secondary School", in School Life, Vol. 13, No. 1, September, 1927, p. 1-3.

A fine example of the double standard which permitted a writer piously to urge teachers towards a wider guidance service of the pupil, yet to ridicule, in the same article, young children from immigrant and lower class families. This subtle, abiding prejudice constituted one of the most serious obstacles to the implementation of Brewer's programs of guidance.

Reed, Anna Y., Guidance and Personnel Services in Education, Ithaca, New York, Cornell University Press, 1947, xi-496 p.

Authoritative history of guidance by one of the early leaders; adequate credit given Brewer for his creation of some of the earliest tools and texts in guidance.

Robinson, Francis P., Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling, New York, Harper, 1950, x-321 p.

A helpful source of information on the development of counseling and the impact of World War II on the growth of guidance.

Roeber, Edward C., The School Counselor, Washington, The Center for Applied Research, 1963, xi-107 p.

Interesting overview of the gradual evolvement of counseling from early vocational guidance. Verifies Brewer's role as one of the major sponsors of the guidance movement.

Rogers, Carl R., "A Theory of Therapy, Personality, and Interpersonal Relationships", in Psychology: A Study of Science, Vol. 3, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1959, p. 212-235.

Advocates self-understanding and self-acceptance as goals of counseling; in less sophisticated nomenclature, Brewer urged likewise.

Schertzer, Bruce, and Shelley C. Stone, Fundamentals of Guidance, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1966, xv-526 p.

An excellent, authoritative work encompassing the history and development of guidance and counseling; presents a complete set of models for modern guidance services and contains abundant verification of the survival of Brewer's concepts.

Schwebel, Milton, "Some Ethical Problems in Counseling", in The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XXXIII, January, 1955, p. 254-259.

A warning against poor counseling caused by weaknesses in personality and background of the counselor; another reflection of Brewer's earlier, similar warnings.

Shipton, James M., "Who Are the Critics of the Public Schools?", in Staff Research Memorandum No. 3, Cambridge, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1954, p. 13-15.

Valuable analysis of pressure groups which are dedicated to influencing public education; helpful background material for understanding the schools of the sixties.

Siegel, Laurence, Instruction: Some Contemporary Viewpoints, San Francisco, Chandler, 1967, x-376 p.

Interesting compendium of possible solutions to modern educational problems; helpful information regarding the impediment to growth of guidance and other services of local school board control.

Slocum, Walter L., "Occupational Careers in Organizations: A Sociological Perspective", in Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLIII, May, 1965, p. 863-866.

Urges broad base of experiences and education to prepare youth for changes in occupation; another re-statement of a Brewerian theme.

Spendler, George D., Education and Anthropology, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1965, xiv-356 p.

Rich source of information regarding the human condition in modern times and its resulting impact on public education. Most helpful in comparing the problems facing modern schools with those which faced the schools of Brewer's time.

Thomas, Donald R., "Our Professional Expectations of Teachers", in The Educational Forum, Vol. 24, No. 4, May, 1960, p. 420-424.

Yet another repetition of a Brewerian concept: that the good teacher must be prepared to be a counselor and to relate his class to life.

Ting-yi, Lu, Education Must Be Combined With Productive Labour, Peking, Foreign Languages Press, 1958, xii-392 p.

Unusual advocacy of the idea of education as guidance, with education strictly controlled to the service of the Communist state; contains surprising recognition of Brewer's authorship of the concept, although the American educational system he served is rejected.

Ulich, Robert, The Education of Nations: A Comparison in Historical Perspective, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1961, xiv-458 p.

A scholarly, historical treatment of comparative educational systems; especially helpful in gaining perspective on the educational repercussions of the Space Age.

U.S., Department of Labor, "Impact of Automation", in Monthly Labor Review, No. 1287, Washington, The Department, 1960, p. 112-116.

Interesting warning to labor forces that their children will face frequent job changes in their future; that better guidance is needed in schools and in industry. Another re-statement of one of Brewer's tenets.

U.S., Department of the Army, The Personnel System in the United States Army, Washington, The Adjutant General's Department of the U. S. Army, 1919, iii-122 p.

Brought to the attention of the public the need for testing and counseling in the efficient placement and utilization of men in the army; constitutes one of the positive influences on guidance of World War I.

U.S., Office of Education, Commitment to Youth, Washington, The Office, 1964, vi-212 p.

Impressive statement of the rationale which preceded Congress' passage of the National Defense Education Act; valuable, critical inventory of the stewardship of American public schools to all of the youth of the nation.

U.S., Office of Education, Vitalizing Secondary Education, Bulletin No. 3, 1951, Washington, The Office, vi-226 p.

A modern recommendation of one of Brewer's ideas: that of allowing the student to gain democratic experience in life-related work in school and in the problems of school administration.

VanDyne, Larry, "Curriculum Reform That's Working", feature in The Boston Sunday Globe, issue of August 3, 1969, p. 2-A.

Yet another modern example of the wisdom and worth of Brewer's theory on curriculum; reports active student involvement in school projects which have relevance to adult life.

Ward, Lester F., Applied Sociology, Boston, Ginn, 1906, ix-188 p.

A sociological view of the problems of the period preceding Brewer's career. Provides valuable verification of the sad plight of uneducated and immigrant youth which provided one of Brewer's major motivations.

Wesley, Edgar B., NEA: The First Hundred Years, New York, Harper, 1957, x-419 p.

Extremely valuable source of factual evidence of the attitudes and concerns of American educators before, during, and after the advent of vocational guidance; good insight into the attitudes with which Brewer had to deal in his efforts to gain acceptance for guidance.

Warren, Mary Phraner, "The School Children Love", feature in This Week Magazine of Chicago, issue of March 16, 1969, p. 18-19.

A highly interesting report on the positive results obtained from a curriculum which is veritabily a replication of Brewer's idea of activity-filled and guidance-infused curriculum.

Wrenn, C. Gilbert, "A Second Look", from Counseling: A Growing Profession, by John T. Longbary, et al., Washington, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1965, p. 50-56.

Excellent portrayal of reverberations in education of national upheavals and conflicts; useful information on pressure groups and their influence on guidance growth.

-----, "Philosophical and Psychological Bases of Personnel Services in Education", in Personnel Services in Education, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1959, p. 41-81.

Expert analysis of the foundations of pupil personnel services; includes valuable recommended definition which parallels Brewer's.

-----, The Counselor in a Changing World, Washington, American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962, vii-195 p.

Historic response of the national association to the increasingly complex obligation of the counselor; contains many tenets reflective of Brewer's philosophy.

A Citizen's Manual for Public Schools, Washington, Council for Basic Education, 1965, vii-194 p.

Cogent presentation of conservative educational philosophy which defends the academic quality of the liberal arts tradition against life-adjustment education. Excellent example of a scholarly pressure group which is still not enthusiastic about guidance.

The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America, New York, Rockefeller Brothers Fund, 1961, xi-348 p.

Impressive analysis of the complex problems foisted on schools by changing society; repeats Brewer's plea for cooperation of all community sectors with the schools.

APPENDIX 1

ABSTRACT OF

The Major Concepts of John Marks Brewer¹

In this research project, the scholarly legacy of the late John Marks Brewer, professor emeritus at Harvard University and early advocate of the guidance movement, was studied for the purpose of determining to what extent, if at all, his major concepts have endured into present guidance usage, or whether they were abandoned in favor of newer and better concepts. To this end, his two principal constructs, to wit, the curriculum, infused with guidance and enhanced with life-related activities, and the professionally qualified guidance specialist were identified and traced through their developmental evolvement.

The transformation of vocational guidance from a social service identity to an accepted function of the public schools constituted an arduous task because of the attitudinal reserve and educational conditions which pervaded American public schools in the early twenties when Brewer began his career. Of significant import to this consideration was the large number of immigrant and poorer-class child laborers who had been homologized with vocational guidance and whose exploitation and plight motivated Brewer's work on behalf of guidance and permeated his writings.

In view of the fact that vocational guidance was unprepared to function in the educational setting, Brewer contributed to its initial

1 Thomas Franklin Grady, Jr., doctoral thesis presented to the Faculty of Education of the University of Ottawa, Ontario, December, 1970, vii-147 p.

definitions of scope, function, and purpose, wrote some of its first textbooks, and offered the first full-time university course in counselor training given during a regular academic year.

From these efforts came his concepts of a guidance-infused curriculum and a professionally trained guidance specialist with ample supportive procedural recommendations and justifications.

The educational conditions of the early sixties were studied, together with the impact thereon of World War II and the Space Age which helped bring about federally-sponsored expansion of guidance services. The modern curriculum and the modern counselor were examined in their respective milieus in an attempt to discern the survival of Brewer's major concepts.

Ample evidence was presented to verify, in the writer's opinion, the fact that modern professional recommendations for public school curriculum, guidance practises, and counselor role and qualifications were strongly reflective of Brewerian thinking and, therefore, justified the wisdom and enduring worth of his concepts.

APPENDIX 2

BREWER THE MAN

A handicapped child was born on October 30, 1877, to Henry Wells Brewer and Adeline Deming (Balkam) Brewer in Antioch, California. The baby was afflicted with a crippled left arm. The parents named him John Marks Brewer.

The boy attended public school in Antioch and entered the University of California where he earned the degree bachelor of science in 1902. The young graduate became a teacher of English from 1902 until 1914. Always an active man, Brewer devoted his personal time to helping out at settlement houses for the underprivileged, and to working at boys' clubs and summer camps. He had a keen interest in the first trade and vocational courses and schools in California and visited them constantly.

During this period, he became interested in the endless potentialities and undeveloped talent represented in the children of the poor who dropped out of school by the end of the eighth grade, if not before, in order to work. Child labor became his foe and he decided to try to do something to stop the waste of early school leaving by children who were automatically sentenced to lives of manual labor. He decided to undertake graduate study in order better to be prepared to contribute, to speak, to lead, and he crossed the continent in order to study at Harvard University.

His choice of Harvard is significant, for California surely offered more convenient opportunities for graduate work. No financial

aid was given him at Harvard. Yet, he crossed the country and paid the higher fees in order to take his master's degree at the nation's oldest and most renowned university.

Harvard's stern adherence to the liberal arts tradition would appear to be an unlikely setting for the graduate study of one interested in working youth and trade schools, but Brewer had a plan for helping those youth. His plan was so great that it seemed unrealistic. Brewer intended to remake the philosophy and curriculum of American public education so that those who were neglected and excluded would be cared for and assisted.

Brewer was convinced that guidance - known then as vocational guidance - better belonged in the schools than in settlement houses and Y. M. C. A.'s to which areas it was then restricted. To this end, he devoted his life and, in view of the ultimate marriage between guidance and the schools, it seems that Brewer rather than Frank Parsons was truly the father of guidance as it is known today. Parsons advocated wise job planning and efficient job placement; he never attempted to weld the service to the school function, nor even to append it.

Brewer's idea could well be considered the scheme of a revolutionary or the idle dream of a visionary. The former was true to some degree, but the latter was more fully accurate, with one exception: the visionary who dreamed the dream was no idler.

He sensed that the national educational system took much of its direction from the New England educational establishment and that within

that establishment, no voice carried more prestige or power than did that of Harvard University. Therefore, he sought to prepare himself with Harvardian credentials before presenting himself to the establishment.

It should be remembered that Harvard in that period could fairly be described as having some lack of confidence in the perhaps less rigorous, public institutions of the South and West. Nevertheless, Brewer was admitted with full standing and proceeded to earn the master of arts degree which he received in 1915, after one year and a summer. He plunged directly into doctoral study and one year later was admitted to the degree doctor of philosophy.

Brewer married Edith Gaddis on June 26, 1909, and pursued his graduate work as a married student, an accomplishment of no small merit. One child was born to the Brewers, a son, Mark Gaddis Brewer.

His academic work was of such strength that he was invited to lecture at Harvard as an instructor in education. Many graduates of the Ivy League would have rejoiced at such an invitation, much less a graduate of the University of California. However, Brewer had found philosophical justification for his ideas and wanted to return to California for further experience and investigation of the vocational schools. Therefore, he startled many by resigning his instructorship, with thanks, in 1917, after only one year, and returning to California where he accepted the chairmanship of the Department of Education and

Psychology at the State Normal School at Los Angeles, a post he held from 1917 until 1919. Next, he became associate professor of education at the University of California, a post from which he resigned in 1920, after a single year.

It might seem to the observer that accepting and resigning from too many posts in too short a time was out of keeping with the academic tradition of rising through the ranks. Yet, Brewer was practising a plan of growing through experience which he would later advocate as the major forte of his philosophy of guidance.

In 1920, his purposeful wandering came to an end. He was ready to station himself in education at the point at which he could have the greatest influence for good and worthy change.

He notified Harvard of his interest in returning and, so highly was Brewer esteemed at Cambridge, that he was offered an associate professorship in education. Thus began an association with Harvard that was to last for a quarter of a century. The Board of Overseers of Harvard voted consent to the appointment on May 10, 1920.

When Brewer became associate professor in the fall of 1920, he already had to his credit the publication of eight articles and four books. His previous involvement in guidance resulted in his being elected president of the National Vocational Guidance Association, in 1920, an organization he was to serve again in 1922 as its secretary and later as a member of its sixth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth boards of trustees.

His service to the National Vocational Guidance Association was almost heroic, for it was a loose and tenuous organization. He gave unstintingly of his time to it and saved it when its own leaders sought to abandon it. In 1920, none of the national officers of the association bothered to attend its convention in St. Louis. The national president thought the organization was extinct beyond recall, but Brewer took it upon himself to write personal letters to interested persons and to call an informal meeting in New York.

The group decided to call itself "The National Vocational Guidance Society of the United States" and, in recognition of Brewer's singular devotion to the idea, elected him president. With characteristic vigor and optimism, the president called for the formulation of a statement of principles which called for the amalgamation of all ancillary groups, if they existed, in the country. It was 1939, nineteen years later, before the organization could claim eleven such groups.

Having been interrupted in publication by World War I, the National Vocational Guidance Association Bulletin issued four numbers from Chicago, ran into financial difficulties, and announced its impending demise. Once again, Brewer stepped in to save the sole professional organ of the guidance movement. He submitted the proposal that Harvard University should assume responsibility for publishing the magazine to the President and Fellows of Harvard.

It should be remembered that courses in education were held in some disdain by scholars in the older disciplines at that time. This was

certainly true at Harvard were the "division of education" was the poor cousin to all the other graduate divisions and, indeed, was made to support itself and assigned to rather shabby quarters, a situation which has only recently been remedied.

The idea of assuming the financial responsibility of a publication which had failed to be successful in the hands of an organization which had experienced difficulty in staying organized was not the only cloud which hovered above the proposal. The entire idea of guidance itself had been dismissed and ridiculed by disbelievers, and attaching the Harvard name to so specious a movement gave rise to serious caution and doubt.

However, Brewer earnestly and eloquently pleaded the cause of guidance in general, and of the magazine in particular. The time was ripe, he claimed. The movement was on the brink of widespread national acceptance and Harvard should be in the vanguard. He carried the day and, much to the astonishment and dismay of the critics, Harvard decided to adopt the nomadic journal.

Although the refuge offered the guest was supposed to be only temporary, the university met the bills of the magazine for ten years, until 1932, at which time the editor proudly announced that at last the magazine had become self-supporting. The National Occupational Conference assumed publication responsibility.

These incidents serve to verify the personal lengths to which

Brewer went on behalf of guidance when, seemingly, no one else cared. He could easily have taught his courses and criticized others for inaction. Instead, he "went to bat" for the idea child in which he believed so deeply, a gesture which, it should be noted, no other professor in the American university system saw fit to make on behalf of guidance. Hence, Brewer not only provided muscle and mind when the guidance organization faltered, but he obtained shelter and, indeed, important sponsorship for its creative outlet.

Eventually, the enthusiasm of the chairman of the Bureau of Vocational Guidance at Harvard, which post Brewer assumed after Roy Kelly resigned, began to become contagious. Brewer's students left each year to take positions in the public schools of America, imbued with the memory of the intensity in which their professor urged them to serve the least and the last, the children nobody cared for; to begin guidance activities in their classes; to speak to their faculty meetings and school boards; and always, to keep in touch with him.

This they did. The guidance movement, as it has been called, began to gain adherents. Teachers who had studied under Brewer worked to convince and interest others. The remainder of the story of the growth of guidance in America is well known. However, the facts attending the man who did so much to foster and nurture the movement in its infancy are not so well known.

Any review of the contributions of one person, or of the growth of any one movement may give the impression of an onward-sweeping, inexorable force. Such a view often fails to highlight the failures, frustrations, yes, and heartbreak which were suffered by those who espoused the once-unpopular, now fair-haired fraternity.

Most educators today are well aware of the frustrations of budget and lack of understanding which most pupil personnel experts must endure in their quest for first-rate services for school children. Few are mindful of the names of the men and women who endured public ridicule and endangered their careers by espousing what was considered by many authorities to be a crack-brained, socialistic, or anti-intellectual scheme. Brewer was one of those who endured.

The writer has failed to include in this paper an adequate description, if one can be constructed, of the cold hauteur of the New England educational establishment which Brewer sought to change. New England "Yankee" may be a proud name which calls to mind the stern virtues of the Founding Fathers. It can also describe men who were naturally hostile or totally indifferent to the ideas of men from other parts of the country where educational standards were deemed to be inferior to New England's.

For many years, Brewer traveled the length and breadth of the country, speaking to any group which would listen, pleading the cause of the drop-out, the child laborer, the unguided and confused.

He was made to wait for long periods in waiting rooms outside the offices of school officials and school boards whose curt dismissals of his suggestions were as short as had his wait been long.

Those entrenched traditionalists could easily wax hot and bitter when they felt that a suggested change implied criticism of the status quo. Anything which threatened to corrupt the pristine quality of solid, classical New England education received righteous invective. Brewer felt its sting from one of his colleagues, Professor Hugo Munsterberg, who ridiculed Brewer and his ideas in the public press and who hinted that Brewer was not a scholar of worth. This is not surprising when one recalls that the advocates of trade schools in Massachusetts were accused of attempting to pervert American education with German theories.

It is appropriate at this point to mention Brewer's religious faith, for his response to such abuse as Munsterberg's, in the writer's opinion, was a manifestation of his faith. Brewer was a Christian Scientist, a reader and practitioner of that faith. He held a number of high offices in the national church and was editor for a time of The Christian Science Monitor.

Suffice it to say that Christian Scientists believe deeply in the enduring value of right thinking and in the damaging results of hatred, anger, and the negative emotions. Therefore, Brewer seemed always to answer criticism with logic, unkindness with gentleness, and praise with deflection. Nor is this observation the over-generous praise of an admirer. His responses to Munsterberg, and others, offer proof of

Brewer's ability to rise above the personal.

His religion was involved in a tragedy which may have had impact on his career as a professor at Harvard. When his son, Mark, fell ill, in keeping with the custom of their faith, Brewer and his wife chose to seek no medical assistance for the boy, preferring to read over him, as did several Christian Science healers, according to the accounts of those who were his contemporaries.

His colleagues on the faculty inquired frequently for the boy, for both he and his mother, a poetess of some note, were well known and liked in the Harvard community. The other professors became concerned when the boy's condition failed to improve, and strongly urged Brewer to consult any one of the excellent medical experts on the faculty of the Harvard Medical School.

The Brewers thanked them for their interest, but quietly declined to agree. Their son died. The reaction of some of Harvard's leading professors was cold and unforgiving, for many considered the faith to be questionable and the readings useless. It is possible that the resentment which the incident caused may have been one of the reasons Brewer was never advanced to the rank of full professor.

Mrs. Brewer, following her son's death, suffered an emotional collapse which left her slightly infirm in mind and body thereafter. Nevertheless, Brewer escorted her to all faculty functions, took her on trips, and seemed ever gentle and solicitous for her comfort.

According to one of his former students, Brewer at this period in his life was a tall, handsome man with white hair, a ruddy complexion, and a warm sense of humor. He dressed impeccably and always wore a black leather glove on his paralyzed hand. He helped many schoolmen to establish guidance programs and carried on an extensive personal correspondence. He was constantly advising students, practising that which he taught, and was a most frequently sought-out counselor by even students who had never studied under him. Planning the futures of young people seemed to him to be the most enjoyable aspect of teaching.

Brewer was certainly not a retiring, hesitant or weak man. In his letters to the press, he brought under heated criticism the school boards of several cities, the school administrators who alligned against him, and even the Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and his Great and General Court!

He very openly ridiculed the practises, prejudices, and pressure for reaction found in New England and, more especially, in Massachusetts. He charged the state legislature with responsibility for the weak state department of education, and blamed the men of the department, the governor, and the Mayor of Boston for not fighting against the poor legislation. In a ripping attack on the lack of certification laws for teachers, he announced that the City of Cambridge, if it wished to do so, could hire a bootlegger as a teacher. Constantly, on a score of problems now solved, Brewer spoke and wrote and worked.

It was with a sense of some regret and discouragement that Brewer retired from Harvard in 1944. The guidance movement was in younger hands,

his dream for an enriched, guidance-infused curriculum rejected. Guidance had taken a different route and the members of a young movement are seldom aware of the presence of or the importance of the founding fathers.

Harvard honored him with the title, Associate Professor Emeritus. The National Vocational Guidance convention gave him a standing ovation for his early work. Little else was done, nor is there any indication that Brewer looked for honor or recognition at any time in his life.

He lived thereafter in Vermont until his death on August 25, 1950, in his seventy-third year. He was to live to see very little recognition given to his work or to his ideas for guidance. The professional literature was filled with the procedural debates which attended its active growth.

However, the writer found one highly significant, short article written by a former student of the man who had himself written magnificent tributes to such men as Bloomfield and Hanus for their contributions to guidance. It is perhaps unfortunate that none of his peers chose to return the compliment, but perhaps it is more fitting that tribute should come from a student.

Describing the last class day of John Marks Brewer, the student reports that the class felt that they were witnessing the passing of a truly great man, for it seemed that Brewer had a "presence" or charisma. Brewer was informed that the class wanted to purchase him a gift, a memento, and was asked for suggestions as to his needs.

The student recalled that the late afternoon sun streamed through the windows of old Lawrence Hall, "across the tracks" from Harvard Yard, as Brewer was fond of commenting wryly, as the professor explained the gift he would most highly prize.

He declared that he had all the things he would ever need, but that did not mean that he was not interested in a gift. If the class would not object, he asked that they devote their last hour to allowing him to speak personally with each one before he said good-bye. The final gift he sought was the company and the shared plans of his students.

Brewer was a most unusual man in that he dared great things, accomplished great things, crystallized great ideas in his philosophy, but did so with a certain quietude and humility which bespeaks the truly magnificent spirit.

From his position as professor in the oldest university in America, he wrote with obvious empathy for the child laborer, the school-boy bored with rote lessons, the lonely, poor child excluded from social activities, and always for the youngster who felt confusion as he faced his future.

Millions of young people have since derived both help and hope from counselors. It is, perhaps, appropriate in one sense that Brewer is given no credit by the recipients or by the counselors. Brewer promised that the good work of guidance would speak for itself. Likewise, such has been the case of the life of John Marks Brewer who, by remembering the forgotten child, fathered a movement which changed the educational system of America.