

The American Teacher

Democracy in Education; Education for Democracy.

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ON THE HILLTOP

Standing on the hilltop you see the evidences of countless activities of mankind—the homes, the factories, the fields of grain, the bustling trains.

The point of vantage enables you to see; and the mind puts together the parts and interprets the meaning of it all to man.

During the past summer you have been away from the valley of labor, far enough to see in perspective the part you have been doing.

Have you taken thot to measure its importance as work, its value to man, and its relation to your own highest ideal of teaching?

TOOLS vs. RULES

CAROLINE L. PRATT

IF YOU were to present your boy with a pocket knife and tell him that he could use it for no other purpose than to whittle pudding-sticks for kitchen use, you should not be surprised that he refused the knife—on these terms. No self-respecting boy would accept it. If he wants a knife at all he wants it for his own purposes. His mind is full of the things he can do with it. He wants to try them out.

It is quite the same way with tools. The boys look forward to the shopwork in the schools only to find when they get to it that it is not for them after all. It is to make pudding-sticks for a hypothetical kitchen. There is no more reality in it than in a spelling book. There are the tools; they are real, more so perhaps, than anything else in the school. And perhaps again it is this very fact that makes them turn with more disgust from the tools than from a spelling book when confronted with *prescribed models*. It is again their self-respect that rebels against making pudding-sticks when it is so obvious that the tools should be used for the boys' own purposes.

To go back a little, less than forty years, the introduction of shop work into the public schools was a more or less unconscious recognition of industry as an educational factor. Besides dealing with the symbols of things, the children were to be given the opportunity to deal directly with the things themselves. It was supposed that this would be an entering wedge into the intolerably scholastic and formal educational system; that it would give to the schools something of the character of the education which grown people receive when they enter industrial pursuits. In other words, the children were, for the first time, to get their facts first-hand and be allowed to apply their facts then and there. Unfortunately this has not happened. The school system has been too strong for the shopwork and it has lost its individuality in its effort to conform to the schools' formal

requirements. Founded upon industry, whose chief recommendation to the public school system is that it has been the greatest instrument in the development of the human race, the shop work of the public schools solves its problems before it allows the children to come in contact with it and it removes the industrial motive—*usefulness*.

This is the point of departure between the shop work as taught in the schools and shop work as taught in outside classes such as are provided in settlements. However, it is in the nature of an accident that the work is different. What the children want has to be considered in the settlement as it never has to be in the schools. The former has no truancy officer to stand behind unwilling children. The teachers are obliged to make the work attract the children. This has been done pretty universally by allowing the children to make the things they want and to keep them when they are done. No one who has done hand work successfully will regard this as a bribe; it is the just reward of hard labor.

One snowy winter several of the boys in a neighborhood shop made sleds. The school method would have been to keep the sleds until the end of the term, summertime, and exhibit them. The informal method permitted the boys to take the sleds right out into the snow and use them! They made snow shovels, too, as well as iron scrapers; and when they were done they were put to use. There were no drawings given out for these. Each boy solved his own problems, explaining to the teacher his next step. There were no measurements dictated. Thus the work kept the salient characteristics of industry—the motive, *immediate usefulness* of the object made; the opportunity to grow mentally through solving problems and inventing; the accumulation of certain definite, appreciated facts to be used in future.

But work of this sort entails conditions which are against the usual school prac-

tice. If the boy is to get anything from his shop work, if he is to progress, if, indeed, he is to be saved from defeating his own purpose, his work must be closely supervised. This means that as every boy is on a different piece of work, the class must be small. It takes a good teacher to supervise the work of more than ten boys working under such a plan.

Given a small class, no informal teacher need fear the criticism of the formal teacher in the matter of technique; and in point of thotful workers his pupils will far outrank those of the formal classes.

The difference in method is further illustrated by the following comparison of the teaching of working drawings. The formal teacher's method is to give every child a drawing and before the material is touched the drawing is "explained." A working drawing is abstract and the reading of it demands a good deal of imagination. Few of the children understand the drawing after it is explained. The time put upon it at this stage of the work is thrown away.

The informal teacher's method is no less educational in its aim. But owing to the conditions named above the critic that the teacher is most afraid of is the pupil. His class of ten would dissolve into thin air if he attempted many explanations to begin with. His boys come in one or two at a time, and he is able to find out which, if any, have had shop work before. If they are entirely new at it they are delighted with a suggestion of a simple marble board or coat rack—if it is not forced upon them. To a teacher of the informal type it is not an embarrassment but a joy if a boy comes in with a mind full of a project. If, after trying to adapt the method of working out such a project to his ability, the teacher still finds it too stiff for him, but cannot persuaded him to postpone it, he will wisely let him set to work on it and make his own discoveries of inefficiency. Just before the boy reaches the vanishing point the teacher will gather up the fragments and without admitting utter failure, will suggest putting this away until he gets used to the tools thru making something simpler.

This informal method of encouraging the boy to choose what he shall do, makes it incumbent upon him that he shall be understood; that is, he has to explain to his teacher what it is he wishes to make. He soon finds that their common ground is a working drawing which *he* has to make. This puts the whole matter into the teacher's hands and instead of pushing a boy to do a distasteful thing, the latter comes to the teacher and uses every method of expression at his command in order to be understood. The informal teacher accepts the most crude illustrations of objects and works for better ones each time, knowing that the principal difficulty is that the boy's images are not clear. These images are made clear by actual work in three dimension material. After a boy has made many pieces of a model he is in a better position to draw it and later he gets so that he can image the whole and can then make his working drawing before touching his wood. With some boys this works out quickly, in six weeks perhaps, while with others it may take a year. It is the only psychological way to teach working drawings.

If it were possible to introduce such work into a public school, the shop might serve as a clearing house for the whole school. That is, if children do not understand the meaning of words, the exact meaning, or if, as so often happens, the arithmetic is a dead letter to them, in an informal shop where every piece of work is individual and there is no chance to copy, these defects come out promptly. I think it would be no exaggeration to say that the informal shop teacher of a neighboring school knows the weaknesses of that school better than any teacher in it; and, furthermore, such an informal teacher, going from one neighborhood to another, finds the defects pretty much the same in the schools of any city. There is a lack of understanding of simple English words and practical arithmetic; and this in spite of the fact that two or three hours a day, for five days a week, are given up to just this. Words and figures, these are being taught, but what of the meaning back of words and fig-

ures? The informal shop teacher not only finds it is not there but there is an actual closing of the mind against it. The children "let go" mentally and resort to guessing. This is so well recognized as a school habit that the Binet tests for intelligence advises getting the children away from the school influence in order to get the desired results. Here is a fair sample of the guessing habit: A child of eight whose school teacher has grave doubts as to his mentality, was asked to put his finger on the middle of a piece of wood. He knew what "middle" meant but the form of the question threw him into his school attitude and he guessed and put his finger on the end. If he had been playing a game of marbles and one of the boys had told him to put a marble in the middle of a given space he would have done it at once. But the school, instead of having opened the child's mind had actually closed it. I will follow out this particular episode, as it bears upon the particular point for which I am contending.

The obvious thing was to startle the child out of his school attitude and make him *think*. So the question was put thus: "Suppose you had to break this piece of wood into two even pieces, one for you and one for Salvator, where would you break it?" He put his finger on the middle. The problem was to get the exact middle of this piece of wood in order to nail another piece to it. It was seven inches long. I looked at the boy and at the piece of wood and thought it was hopeless. But it occurred to me that this bright faced youngster would hardly find it difficult to divide up something to eat. So I said "Here are seven apples". He nodded appreciatively. "Now then, how many would you give Salvator if you were to give him half." "I'd give him three and keep four for myself"; a simple and practical solution for all ordinary purposes. But I threw in another condition. I said, "Yes, but I am not going to give you seven apples unless you divide them exactly

and give Salvator his full share". Like a flash he answered, "I'd give Salvator three, take three myself, cut the other one in two, give him half and keep half myself." I had thought the boy stupid. He was but school stupid. It took him but a moment more to discover that one-half of seven inches is three and one-half and to apply the result to his wood. I had given him an emotional stimulus and shaken him out of his stupor and by instantly applying his knowledge he stands a good chance of retaining it.

The exciting point in this connection is the paucity of intellect evident in a child who puts his finger on the end of a piece of wood when asked for the middle, and his native ability to grapple with a real problem when presented in the right way. He is not an idiot. He is asleep. If such a boy had been in informal shopwork in a school the shop teacher could have made his discovery known to the class teacher and together they might have started him in his inherent right to an intellectual career. It is here that the informal neighborhood teacher fails. He can do but half what he might do if his work were in cooperation with the school teachers.

Besides better individual training, the great fundamental thing which such work would do for a school is this: It would put it in the position, for the first time, of consciously recognizing that every child has a life of his own; that he has his own interests; that he has his own important social adjustments to make. It would put the child in possession of something with which he could go right out into the world now and solve some of his problems. It would recognize his play as a part of his life and his home as another part.

For, after all the object of education is to put an individual in a position to better adjust his relationships. The schools recognize this when they give themselves over to supplying such information as they suppose will be useful at some future time; useful in ad-

justing relationships. What they fail to recognize is that if the object of education is that there may be a better adjustment of relationships, its process must be thru such adjustment. The children can only become educated

by being useful to their several groups *now*, to learn to adjust their relationships by adjusting them. The simplest, most obvious point of attack for the introduction of this fundamental idea is thru the shop work.

THE TEACHERS' COUNCIL

HENRY R. LINVILLE

I am not one of those who fear the narrowness of the class teacher. If she is ever in any degree narrow-minded, we have particularly ourselves to blame for keeping her in a system so mechanical as to limit too much the exercise of her initiative and invention. Truly, a sincere invitation to teachers to become regular purveyors of good to the entire school system, and not to be timid protestors in a far corner, will give us the benefit at first hand of the opinions of those who are the real educators.—THOMAS W. CHURCHILL, President of the Board of Education, City of New York, in his semi-annual report.

A constantly increasing number of teachers of New York City have looked forward for many years to the coming of an educational Messiah, who might lead them out of professional bondage to some measure of freedom and self-respect. If in the long years of waiting for his coming, there develops among teachers a clear realization of what they want for their own good and for the good of the service, the obligation on the Messiah must necessarily be more exacting.

The quotation given above is but one of several indications given by the President of the Board of Education of New York City that he means to do what he can to encourage teachers "to become regular purveyors of good to the entire school system." We should be as ready to accept these statements of the President as sincere, as we shall doubtless be to examine his acts and those of the majority which he represents for definite and tangible progress toward the realization of the end which they are seeking.

The most important movement now

under consideration tending toward the inauguration of a system of co-operation between authorities and teachers in New York City is set forth in Document 6, 1913, recently issued by the Department of Education and entitled "A Plan for the Organization of a Proposed Council of Teachers." This document is a report of the Committee on By-Laws and Legislation presented to the Board of Education June 11, 1913.

Early in the year 1913 President Churchill extended to the presidents of the several teachers' organizations an invitation to consider and recommend to the Department of Education plans for an advisory council to the Board of Education. The presidents accepted the invitation and began a series of conferences which resulted in the report which was forwarded to the President on May 22, 1913.

In June a public hearing was given, and the criticism of all teachers was requested. A few teachers attended the hearing, but the great body of teachers knew little and probably cared little about the plan. The report is now in the hands of the special committee that is studying the report of Professor E. C. Elliott, on "The System of General Supervision."

The following extract from the report contains all the important features of the new plan:

I. The organization shall be known as The Teachers' Council.

II. The Teachers' Council shall have a two-fold function:

1. The furnishing of information and the opinions of the teaching staff (principals and teachers) upon questions submitted by the

Board of Education or by the Board of Superintendents.

2. The introduction of recommendations concerning any of the problems affecting the welfare of the schools and the teaching staff.

All final decisions shall be left to the Board of Education or the Board of Superintendents.

III. The Teachers' Council shall be allowed absolute freedom in its debates and deliberations.

IV. The Teachers' Council shall be composed of forty-five (45) representatives from such voluntary teachers' organizations as were in existence March 1, 1913, and of such other teachers' organizations as may thereafter be recognized by the Board of Education.

V. Representation in The Teachers' Council shall be distributed among the various elements of the teaching staff as follows:

1. Secondary schools (high and training):

a. Principal	1
b. First assistant	1
c. Men teachers	2
d. Women teachers	2
e. Teachers in training schools	1

Total 7

2. Elementary schools:

a. Principals—	
Manhattan, 1 man, 1 woman	2
Brooklyn, 1 man, 1 woman	2
Bronx	1
Queens	1
Richmond	1

b. Assistants to principals or heads of department	4
c. Teachers of the 7th and 8th years, 2 men, 2 women	4
d. Teachers of the 1st to 6th years, inclusive, Manhattan 3, Brooklyn 3, Bronx 2, Queens 2, Richmond 1	11
e. Kindergarten teachers	1
f. Shopwork teachers	1
g. Domestic science (cooking) teachers	1
h. Additional teachers	1

Total 30

3. Other public school activities:

Evening schools, disciplinary and probationary, vocational, trade and continuation, recreation, sewing, drawing, mu-

sic, physical training, etc.

Total 3

4. Representatives at large, elected by The Teachers' Council, total

5

45

VI. The members of The Teachers' Council shall be elected by the method described below:

1. Each secondary school teachers' organization which includes principals in its membership shall elect two secondary school principals as delegates to a conference. The members of this conference shall meet on a specified date, at a specified place, and shall elect one secondary (high or training) principal as a member of The Teachers' Council.

2. Each teachers' organization which includes elementary school principals in its membership shall elect two elementary school principals as delegates to a conference. The members of this conference shall meet on a specified date, at a specified place, and shall elect seven elementary school principals (distributed among the Boroughs as provided for in Article V, Section 2a) as members of The Teachers' Council.

3. Each teachers' organization which includes teachers of the first to the sixth year classes, inclusive, shall elect three delegates to a conference. The members of this conference shall meet on a specified date, at a specified place, and shall elect (11- teachers, distributed among the Boroughs as provided for in Article 5, Section 2).

4. In like manner the teachers' organizations concerned shall send two delegates to each appropriate conference for the election of representatives of all the other groups provided for in Article V, except for the election of representatives at large.

5. All the conferences shall be held on the same date.

6. A candidate for The Teachers' Council need not be a delegate to a conference, nor a member of a voluntary teachers' organization, but must be of the rank or grade assigned to the conference.

Since Mr. Churchill and the "Progressive" party in the Board of Education are primarily responsible for the idea of the Teachers' Council in the educational system of New York City,

they should be held at least jointly accountable with the presidents of the organizations for the construction of a council that will serve a useful purpose, and have some chance of being workable. Moreover, it is but fair to hold them jointly accountable for outlining a plan that will really "give us the benefit at first hand of the opinions of those who are the real educators."

Those who are familiar with current discussion on the relation of the teacher to the democratic movement in education can easily see flaws in the fundamentals of this plan. Teachers who are interested chiefly in the practical working of a plan will be able to detect features that mean the ultimate control of The Teachers Council by a relatively few energetic persons.

Take for example the provision for the election of secondary school principals incorporated in Section VI, paragraph 1. "Each secondary school teachers' organization which includes principals in its membership shall elect two secondary school principals as delegates to a conference." There are at least three organizations of secondary school teachers that have some high school principals as members, the conference would be made up of six or eight members, only two of whom would come from a principal's organization.

In paragraph 2 of the same Section opportunity is given for still greater power to be held by those elementary school principals who, tho few in number in particular organizations, have the same voting strength as those delegates who represent the organizations wherein elementary school principals predominate or have large influence. One would be safe in saying that practically all the teachers organizations in the city have elementary school principals in their membership. Even in the High School Teachers Association there are elementary school principals. The High School Teachers Association therefore would be obliged to send two elementary school principals as delegates.

In carrying out the provisions of Paragraph 3 of Section VI worse confusion would result from unequal representation as well as from the difficulty of electing delegates to all the required conferences. As an indication of the complexity of the plan, it is illuminating to note that The Teachers League would have to elect twenty-eight delegates, since the membership includes men and women in all branches of the service, and from all parts of the City. It does not require much imagination to see that the burden of selecting proper delegates would be so great as to discourage the effort altogether.

Then would arise the opportunity of the few energetic persons who for reasons of interest in educational politics would make the necessary arrangements with indifferent organizations to have friendly delegates sent to the conferences. Friendly delegates would of course be more or less indifferent also to the high purpose of The Teachers Council. In this connection it is inconceivable that paragraph 6 would ever be thot of. No one but an active person would ever be elected by the delegates, and that active person would be a member of an organization.

The mechanical faults here pointed out are serious enough to condemn even a good plan with a great idea behind it. But the plan for the Teachers Council that is now in a fair way to be adopted by the Board of Education is an indication of blind groping for relief from the prevailing condition of educational thralldom; but there is nothing vital that is grasped. To use a term employed by Prof. Dewey in a recent address given before The Teachers' League, there is no "motive" for the existence of this Council. It may make a thousand suggestions, but it has no power to carry out a single one of them. The Board of Education may submit to the Council all the questions upon which the teachers could be supposed to have an opinion, but all the Council can do is to talk, and give opinions which the Board of Education is under no obligation to consider.

A remark made in the hearing of the writer by one of the presidents while the plan of the Council was under consideration in conference indicates the source of our greatest difficulty. He said: "We don't want power, because we would have to assume responsibility." How far we have fallen away from the ideals of teaching as applied to children, that we can best develop character thru responsibility!

In the May number of *THE AMERICAN TEACHER* Professor E. C. Elliott in his article on "The Proposed Supervisory Council for the New York Schools" said:

"My own conception of the Supervisory Council is not that of the 'advisory council' now being advocated for the New York City School system. A properly constituted Supervisory Council would consist of a permanent representative body of teachers and educational directors with *legalized* powers and functions; not subject to political interference under the guise of retaining to the people or person vested rights and privileges; nor dependent in the scope and character of its activities upon the benevolent paternalism of the Board of Education. President Churchill's aim to create an organization of representatives of the teaching staff for advisory purposes is in the right direction. But his shot is bound to fall short, because his advisory council will have only those powers and responsibilities that the Board may see fit to give it. Without permanent authority it will have no real responsibility. Without responsibility it becomes merely an ornament, and not an element of strength to the structure of the government of the schools."

Considered from the point of view of

the need to the school system of a desire for responsibility among its teachers, the problem becomes one of the successful administration of a plan that contains the elements of democracy in its very beginning. A teacher who might not care to assume responsibility in the government of an educational system might conceivably be glad of the opportunity to take his share of responsibility in the management of his own school, if selected by his peers as a member of the Teachers' Council of the school. If members of this small type of council were given legalized powers, the school system could reasonably expect the members to meet the responsibilities and incidentally to prepare themselves for responsibilities in larger councils.

Instead of the confusing system of electing delegates who in turn would elect members of the Teachers Council, a far simpler arrangement would be for the members of each grade in the service to vote by districts or boroughs for candidates who are put in nomination by a primary system. The carrying out of the details of the plan should be entirely free from connection with any organization.

The movement should not be so much a heart-felt longing for the coming of a Messiah as it should be the realization of the need of a motive for more aggressive participation in our common work of training the children of the race.

Speaking of greater freedom of initiative for pupils, and pupil self-government, Hermann Weimer, in his "The Way to the Heart of the Pupil," says:

"The only dangerous opponent of the movement is the love of ease. He who tries to give his pupils liberty must work, must work harder and in strange ways. Pupils who voluntarily co-operate in the study of a favorite subject will ask their teacher many questions with which he has not busied himself for a long time, and with which he would never trouble himself if everything were going in the old well trodden paths and the strict following of the course of instruction."

The teacher who can enforce obedience only thru punishment does not belong in any school. He possesses as little control over the minds of his pupils as the man who does not know at all how to exercise his will power. For the power he uses does not come from himself; he does not owe it to his personal superiority, but to the supreme power of the state, which invests him with it. He practises usury with others' capital and, if his borrowed power were taken away from him tomorrow, he would stand entirely destitute and powerless before his pupils.—HERMANN WEIMER, in "The Way to the Heart of the Pupil."

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HENRY R. LINVILLE . . . Editor-in-Chief

BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG, Managing Editor

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This paper seeks to advance the status of the teacher to the dignity and the influence of a profession, by advocating high standards of admission to the calling; by urging an extension of the opportunities for the participation of teachers in the direction of educational affairs; and by supporting the organization of teachers for all legitimate professional purposes.

WHAT'S THE USE?

SO OFTEN do we hear weary, discouraged teachers asking the question "What's the use?" as an implied reason for their taking no interest in militant educational reform, that we are inspired to respond, "What's the use of living?" We might go further into the matter and inquire, "What can be the use of education of a teacher who has given up hope?"

Take our word for it, there is much and great use in siding with the right. A good strong fight for a great idea makes the red blood surge joyously thru the

body, clears the mind and exalts the spirit.

Let us not fear the strength of the entrenched reactionary. He has the battlements, the moats, the drawbridges in plenty, but his position is weak. Part of his weakness consists in the very fact that he is depending on those antique means of defense, that have assumed the form of good old educational doctrine. Another weakness is his fear of the kind of ammunition that the militant movement is using. He stands in terror of the penetrating power of great, radical ideas. That is where we have the advantage. We have nothing to fear.

The reactionary's chief support comes from the indolence and indifference of those who have power but ask hopelessly "What's the use?"

CREDIMUS III

"We believe that with an intelligent outlook upon life, teachers will be able to contribute from their experience in teaching the best ideas for the adjustment of education to the needs of human living." From "Credimus" in December (1912) number.

There has never been a scarcity of people who are sure they know life as it really is. All of us have been advised by some of them from college commencement platforms, and solemnly warned at critical stages of our careers; and we in turn have passed the wisdom along. But when we analyze the experience of those who are wise in advice, it becomes apparent that most of them have learned life thru the exigencies of their own personal business. This experience is commonly moulded into a primitive "philosophy" by the interpretation given to life in general by a religious creed, or a lodge, or an educational prophet, or by a district leader.

We that are young, inexperienced, or misguided should have a ready test for life-guides, that is, if we want a life-guide at all. Anyway, we do want to have an intelligent outlook upon life. For a preliminary test we may obtain a valuable hint from the fact that there are so many kinds of advice. Advice has not been reduced to a science. Besides, we

actually know that life is complex, and practically beyond the capacity of one mind to interpret for another.

There may be other tests. Whatever they are, it ought to be clear that the spirit of the little child who says, "Let me do it?" would be a pretty good one for us to manifest in the process of becoming teachers. Let us try the experiment of developing our own outlook upon life. Starting from where we are with all the advice that has been given us, we may combine with it a little observation of our own. The observation may verify what we have heard, or it may not. The only thing is to save what is true.

Then there are books that bring to us the thoughts of other minds of other times, and of our own times. There is wonderful stimulus in meeting in a book some great mind with eyes that see to the bottom of human souls, a mind that interprets what it sees in terms of universal human experience. Every time we meet a mind of that kind our own horizon widens and our understanding deepens. A good book enlarges our "apperceptive mass" mightily.

Out of the apperceptive mass come our standards slowly but definitely taking shape, the good one growing into the light, the bad ones or the narrow ones seeking the shadows, or happily disappearing altogether. But with all the new experiences we have in the practice of our profession of teaching, in books that we read, in our scholastic life, in travel, and in other forms of social intercourse with our fellowmen, we get that increasingly accurate and truthful and intelligent outlook upon human life.

With developing standards and with some ability to see and understand the true bearing of human experience in general, we are measurably equipped to determine more accurately than ever the meaning and value of our own experience in teaching.

There are many reasons why teachers have not taken a more active part in "contributing from their experience in teaching the best ideas for the adjustment of education to the needs of human living." But one of them is their neglect to dis-

cover standards for themselves. Another is that they are afraid to do anything; afraid even to do a good thing.

THE GARY SYSTEM

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE for September contains an intelligently written article on the school system of Gary, Indiana.

This school system consists of one large school which is constructed to accommodate all the children of the foreign-born workers in the mills of the United States Steel Corporation at Gary. The organization of the work of the school is similar to that known as the cosmopolitan high school, except that at Gary the curriculum starts with the kindergarten, carries the pupils thru the grades, thru the high school, and completes the first two years of college subjects.

Side by side with the textbook subjects—and they teach Latin and German at Gary—shopwork is carried on in many branches. There is free opportunity for each pupil to try himself at different kinds of manual work, until he finds the kind he likes and can do.

Each shop in the school is a real one. The teaching is done by a trade-union man skilled in the production of real things for definite uses. The common fault of manual training work appears to be avoided at Gary, for all the work done there is applied to the needs of the school. In the cabinet shop, furniture is made for the school; in the plumbing department, repairs are made in the school where they are needed; the boys who are learning to paint practice on the school building. It is claimed that enough is saved to the school in this way to equal the entire cost of conducting the school departments, including the salaries of the instructors.

The lunch room is managed by the girls of the cooking class, and sells enough to pay the cost of maintenance, including the salary of a housekeeper.

The school building is open practically all the time. The regular day classes are in session from nine until four, but children may remain until half-past five.

About half the scholars remain voluntarily. On Saturday also the school building and grounds are open, and about half attend voluntarily.

Those children who are subnormal physically play outdoors or in the gymnasium under supervision. Those who are subnormal mentally are allowed to work in the shops until they find their bent.

In the evening men and women attend classes, or go to the gymnasium or to the swimming pools. There are large rooms for plays, lectures and dancing.

Thus the Hungarians and Poles at Gary, on the shore of Lake Michigan, are given a start in American life thru the efficient management of the Steel Trust. The Trust was obliged to support some

kind of a school-system. They began by establishing one on conventional lines, and abandoned it for one that was better because it was cheaper.

Many would deny to the Steel Trust any credit for creating an institution that is a long step toward the ideal. And it may be that this corporation is not fundamentally interested in what the boys and girls do later as citizens. The main point is that a private corporation has demonstrated the feasibility of operating schools that children like—and that for less money than the conventional educators spend upon schools that children hate.

It lies with us to apply the results of these experiments to the schools of the public, that a more democratic system may be evolved.

THE TWO WAYS

IT'S A MISTAKE to think that for every difficulty there is an "only way" out. There are usually two ways, at least. There is the short and easy way of the practical person, the man of action. There is also the long and tedious way of the theoretical person. It is impossible to say off-hand which is the better way. Perhaps neither is the better way—they are just different. They are merely different expressions of different temperaments. Some people instinctively turn to the right, and some instinctively

turn to the left. In like manner, some instinctively choose the method of cutting a knot, whereas others laboriously seek to untie it.

If you are in doubt—as some people are—as to the right answer to various school problems, you may take your choice from among those already offered by people of these two different types. On the left side is given the answer of the "practical" person; on the right, that of the "theoretical" person:

A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.

Let's not give them any knowledge.

Let's give them as much knowledge as possible.

It is impossible ever to realize our ideals.

Let us have no ideals.

Let us try harder to approach them.

No prescribed methods can fit all cases.

Then we do not need to study methods.

Then we must learn to adapt general principles to special situations.

Some pupils are incapable of profiting from the education of the schools.

Let's send them to work.

Let's reorganize the school so that they will be worth while for all the children.

The only way to get to the inside of some children is by whipping them.

Let's whip 'em.

Let us open up new avenues to their interiors.

There are many children in school that you can't trust out of your sight for a minute.

Let's watch 'em closer.

Let's teach them responsibility and give them training in self-control.

If it weren't for the examinations, some children would never study at all.

Let's give 'em a stiff examination.

Let's find a way to make our lessons interesting and impressive.

Some children come to school so tired and sleepy that it's a waste of time to try to do anything with them.

Let's do nothing with them.

Let's feed 'em up.

Vocational guidance? Nonsense! Some people never know what they want.

Oh, very well; let's give them nothing.

Oh, very well. Let's give 'em a chance to find out what there is to want, and teach them to want the best.

Teachers are rated according to the results they get; no one inquires as to their methods, their kindliness of disposition, the human by-products of their teaching.

Let us get promotions; let everything else slide.

Let us get results as well as human by-products.

Some children have naturally more ability than others.

Let's teach them to exploit the weaker ones.

Let's teach them to give greater service.

The teachers don't know enough to manage their own schools or to select their own text-books or subject matter.

Let's do the managing and selecting for them.

Let's train up a generation of teachers that do know enough.

OPEN COURT

UNIFORMITY VS. EFFICIENCY

To the Editors, THE AMERICAN TEACHER:

There is one thing encouraging about the present educational tangle—some unreasonable notions of the public concerning the perfection and efficiency of our public schools have been exploded. The public has begun to sus-

pect weaknesses and backwardnesses in this most boasted institution. Not that these were of recent development or have long escaped detection. The teachers, armed with the unwelcome facts, had long sought the public ear. But how? Consider the obstacles:

1. There were no magazines (such as this) to carry the facts abroad.
2. There was that most stubborn American self-complacency.

3. There were no official channels through which the practical experiences and findings of the class-room could flow either to the public or to educational authorities.

Yet these obstacles have been circumvented. Even laymen have become dimly conscious of problems long neglected and now bulking large.

They are prodding officials into activity. This vague disquiet is what underlies the disturbances of the board of education, the "progressive" movement, the investigations, and the hasty expedients thrown out by the superintendents.

To justify the epithet "hasty" let us examine one of these experiments:

A year ago "rapid advancement" classes were started in many schools. The plan was to select the brightest pupils of one grade, and to hurry them through the work of three terms in the space of two terms. The plan held out promise of relief from a system that makes a fetish of uniformity and inflexibility; that undertakes to feed 700,000 children equal chunks of knowledge, to be consumed in rhythmically uniform bites.

These rapid advancement classes were at least an admission that all children are not created equal. They were a modification of the lock-step idea. As such they were welcome—and useful, until heavy-handed Uniformity interfered.

First—The size of the classes was ill-considered. For such a rapid pace only the exceptional, the very alert child could be expected to qualify. The supply of such pupils is naturally very limited, and, correspondingly, such classes should have been very small ones.

But there seems to exist some tradition among New York Superintendents that a teacher who is not handling 40 to 80 pupils is not fully earning his salary. Therefore classes, even of carefully selected, exceptionally bright pupils, must *not* be small. If not enough bright pupils were at hand, they must be "made." They were made, wholesale.

Any who boasted a couple of A's on their report cards, or on whose cards B's predominated with a sprinkling of C's were declared eligible.

Tradition was vindicated, efficiency spiked.

The pace soon proved too hard for those whose "rapid advancement" was being forced. They dropped to the rear. Their presence in

the class was an annoyance to the teacher and a considerable hindrance to the rapid advancement of their classmates.

Second—This indiscriminate recruiting of special classes created a new condition in the regular classes. They were like milk thrice skimmed.

Stripped of their customary proportion of intelligent boys, even the normal proportion of mediocre boys reduced, the caliber of the regular classes sank appreciably. The inertia of this slow, indifferent, deficient, disorderly residue was distressing.

The ordinary problems of the classroom were intensified. The class progress, ordinarily slow enough, dropped to a crawl. Teachers chafed and wondered at the sterility of their little domains. It is the teacher to whom the load is finally shifted, who must wage the disheartening, fruitless, nerve-wearing fight, who must atone with health for the blunders of others.

Against the idea itself nothing can be said. It is an extension of the principle underlying our "Special Deficient" classes and our "E" classes. We criticize only its mis-application. It is capable of vast extension.

In several German cities, whole schools are organized on this principle. The exceptionally dull child, as well as the exceptionally bright one, is provided for. Three courses are offered, one in which the apt pupils may cover the work in four years, while the average and the sluggish ones take 5 to 6 years respectively. Transferring from one course to another is permissible. The teachers, in conference, pass upon the candidate's fitness for such transfers.

This is the goal towards which the logic of the advancement classes points. We have so far adopted only the first timid installment of the whole plan. We have yet to make that first step useful and effective.

We must recognize how limited is the number of pupils who can measure up to the standards of such classes, and become resigned to small select classes.

We must also be prepared to entrust the selection, to those who have the most intimate knowledge of the pupil's capabilities—the teachers.

A. KAY.

New York City.

BOOK NOTES

All books may be ordered from
THE AMERICAN TEACHER

THE EDUCATION OF TOMORROW: The Adaptation of School Curricula to an Economic Democracy. By ARLAND D. WEEKS, Professor of Education, North Dakota Agricultural College. With an Introduction by M. V. O'SHEA, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin. 12mo. pp. xi+231. New York: Sturgis & Walton Co. 1913. \$1.25 net.

The current discussions between the advocates of "practical" education and the defenders of "cultural" education fail to convince largely because they present incompatible social ideals, and ideals, moreover, that are both out of harmony with our actual social life. On the one hand is the demand for economic efficiency presented in terms which suggest merely a more profitable exploitation on the part of the dominant economic class; on the other hand is a wailing lest the people be deprived of a preparation for leisure which most of them will never enjoy. In the terms of Professor Weeks' new analysis, we are asked to choose between production knowledge and consumption knowledge, whereas every single one of us is in need of a large amount of both kinds. More than that, current discussions leave out of consideration, for the most part, the important fact that the schools are doing practically nothing to train the individual in "distributional" knowledge—that kind of knowledge, namely, which aids one to get his just share of the social wealth.

The distinctive contribution of this book is this analysis of knowledge into three classes corresponding to the three phases of the economic life, and the correlating of these three phases with the needs of the individual for education. We know that formal schooling was for generations provided only for those who needed highly trained skill in consumption—the owners of wealth and the users of leisure. The extension of the privileges of education has meant too generally the mere vulgarization of some of these fragments of consumption knowledge. Production

knowledge was for ages transmitted empirically in the home or thru apprenticeship; and the professional classes were the first to organize this into systematic instruction. The demand for industrial education arises in part from the felt need for more efficient workers. The knowledge of distribution has been for ages the esoteric possession of governing and master classes. Democracy demands that this knowledge, like the knowledge of wealth-making and wealth-using, be diffused for the benefit of all, without regard to race, color, creed or previous economic status. If necessary, the child's attendance in school must be subsidized, but none should be deprived of the opportunity to acquire those classes of knowledge that are essential for wealth production, for wealth distribution and the worthy utilization of the opportunities of civilized living.

While the emphasis is placed on the kinds of knowledge that are of greatest value, upon the need for a reevaluation of school knowledge and upon a democratic diffusion of valuable knowledge, there is an evident understanding of the importance of something besides knowledge. Professor Weeks expects more from the teacher than the average teacher of today is prepared to give; if knowledge transmission were the end of all schooling, most teachers could no doubt qualify. The suggestion that we make a survey of all causes of human failure, for the purpose of finding what knowledge is really needed in life, should make us do some thinking. The relation of history teaching to progress is hinted at by two pregnant illustrations: The State of Wisconsin uses its school machinery for gathering out of history whatever may be used today; the commonwealths of New Zealand and Australia, thrown out of touch with historical precedents, carve their way into the future on the basis of common sense and live energy. The older communities teach their children about Henry the Eighth and George Washington—and mark time. Another good point in the book is the showing up of the connection between educational inefficiency and the prevalence of the bargain principle in the administration of public affairs. The effort to get the cheapest has resulted in cheap teachers and cheap curriculum and cheap supervision. It is evidently incumbent upon the teachers of today to teach their pupils to be dissatisfied with the present kind of education when it

comes to making provision for *their* children in the education of tomorrow.

Let us do what we can to the end that we be superseded by a better generation of teachers. One thing you can do is to read this book and adopt a point of view that looks toward the morrow and the children instead of toward yesterday and the payroll.

THE WAY TO THE HEART OF THE PUPIL. By DR. HERMANN WEIMER, Rector of Schools, Biebrich on Rhine. Authorized translation by J. REMSEN BISHOP, Principal, and ADOLPH NIEDERPRUEM, Head of German Department, Eastern High School, Detroit. 12mo. pp. xiii+178. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1913. \$1.

While the clamor for "efficiency" frequently gives off the sound of clinking coin, we are in danger of forgetting that there are forms of efficiency that are not to be measured in terms borrowed from the market place. This little book bespeaks a human relationship between teacher and pupil that must appeal to all who are dissatisfied with the arbitrary and mechanical results of systems and regimentation. On the other hand, those who can understand only mechanical measures and formal systems will think the author inclined to the sentimental. But the author speaks not only from his own sentiments, or from his reverence for Pestalozzi; he gives form to the heart of his long experience as a successful teacher and supervisor of teachers. Dr. Weimer goes so far as to say that the teacher of the right fiber, with the true love in his heart, can overcome all the obstacles of system and authority and the indifference of the home. Pestalozzi is his master and the individual pupil is the object of his solicitude. Some of the topics discussed, with an abundance of concrete illustration and subtle suggestiveness, are the needs of the teacher and the pupil, the influence of personality, the punishing power of the teacher, uniformity and individuality, the school and home, responsibility for reform. This is a good book to take off by yourself when you feel the need for detachment from the thousand trifles, without the desire to escape the problems of the teacher's life.

Fifty cents will pay for a year's subscription to **THE AMERICAN TEACHER** for your friend.

VOCATIONS FOR GIRLS. By MARY A. LASELLE and KATHERINE WILEY, Instructors in the Technical High School, Newton, Mass. With an Introduction by MEYER BLOOMFIELD, Director of the Vocation Bureau, Boston. 12mo. x+139. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1913. 85 cents net.

In one of his novels Gustav Frenssen tells of a man whose native talents and ambitions fitted him for the vocation of grave-digger. It is hard to believe, however, that there are in this country a third of a million girls each of whose heart's desire is to become a laundress, or that over a million of them can find the limit of development and satisfaction in the routine work of a factory. The authors of this little book have been at great pains to describe a number of occupations for girls in the most roseate possible way. The best that they can say about half of the occupations described is in the nature of mitigation. This is not a criticism of the authors; it is simply characteristic of the occupations into which our girls are sent—as well as the boys. If the public schools are to take part in the very important work of assisting in the distribution of individuals among the various occupations, society will have to make demands upon the managers of our industries far beyond what we have been accustomed to expect as our "rights"—by the orthodox professors of economics. A book like this only serves to emphasize how far behind our "occupations" are, compared to our sciences and arts, from a simple human point of view. The authors have made a good beginning in an important department of school activity, and the book should be of help to those who have to do with girls in school or in social service.

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QUESTIONS ON THE TEACHER'S ATTITUDE.

Is the smile on my face frozen on, or does it show because I am cheerful?
 Do I paralyze my pupils' minds by filling them with fear?
 Do I consider the pupil's weakness, or do I indulge him to save myself trouble?
 Do I class the slow response with wanton reticence?
 Or with stupidity?
 Do I think a pupil stupid because he cannot meet the school tasks?
 Do I encourage selfishness and egotism by constant censure?

Or do I merely alienate the pupils from me?
 Do I abuse my pupils to improve their characters?
 Or just to relieve my feelings?
 Do I use sarcasm and ridicule for cheering my pupils?
 Or what do I use them for?
 Do I successfully use suspicion and cynicism to arouse the confidence of my pupils—in me?
 Or in themselves?
 Or in human nature?

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Where excessive severity rules in a school, there falsehood flourishes luxuriantly. There lie is piled on lie, there dissimulation becomes second nature.—HERMANN WEIMAR, in "The Way to the Heart of the Pupil."

The welfare of the school does not depend upon the influences or reforms from without, but upon powers that reside in the human breast.—HERMANN WEIMAR, in "The Way to the Heart of the Pupil."

It is true that teachers will make mistakes—even the best of them. But no mistake can be greater than that of the higher educational officials when they refuse teachers the opportunity to make mistakes by putting them in a strait jacket. Mistakes necessarily go with freedom; and educational systems have got to be founded on trust of teachers, not on suspicion. Want of trust in employes is bad enough in a factory; hardly defensible even there, where a mechanical product is the aim. But schools are not aiming at mechanical products; they are aiming at devotion to ideals, right mental habits, assimilated knowledge and independence; and we'll never get pupils to show these qualities until teachers are showing them abundantly in their consciousness of freedom.—PROF. FRANK M. McMURRY, in Address on "The Uniform Minimum Curriculum with Uniform Examinations," before the Department of Superintendents, Philadelphia, 1913.

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