

# BULLETIN

OF THE

## Department of Elementary School Principals

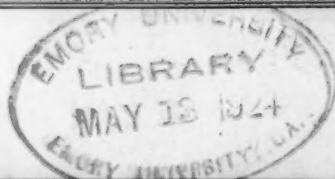
---

|                                                                           |     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Standards for Judging Classroom Work.....                                 | 131 |
| Time Required to Complete an Elementary School Course.....                | 138 |
| Cooperation between the Principal and Supervisors in<br>Minneapolis ..... | 160 |
| Cooperation between the Principal and Supervisors in Detroit.....         | 164 |
| The Fight to Reduce School Privileges.....                                | 169 |
| The Challenge to the Elementary-School Principal.....                     | 172 |
| The Value of the School Principalship .....                               | 177 |
| Roster of Principal's Club Officers .....                                 | 185 |
| The Elementary Principals' Association .....                              | 186 |
| Minutes of Chicago Meeting .....                                          | 188 |
| Endorsement of Education Bill .....                                       | 190 |
| Announcements .....                                                       | 191 |

---

PUBLISHED QUARTERLY BY THE  
DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
of the National Education Association of the United States  
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET NORTHWEST, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter November 20, 1922, at the post-office at Washington, D. C., under act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized December 18, 1922.



**BULLETIN**  
of the  
**DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

Published quarterly in October, January, April, and July by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association of the United States. Jessie M. Fink, Editor.

The payment of \$2.00 active membership dues entitles a member to attend all meetings of the Department, to hold office, and to receive the Bulletin quarterly.

One dollar of each membership fee is for a year's subscription to the Bulletin.

Subscription to non-members is \$2.00 per year; single copies, 50 cents; Yearbook, \$1.50.

Members are requested to report at once any change of address, giving old as well as new address.

---

Entered as second-class matter November 20, 1922, at the postoffice at Washington, D. C., under act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized December 18, 1922.

---

Executive and Editorial Offices, 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

---

**OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION  
1923-24**

*President, W. T. LONGSHORE*

Greenwood School, Kansas City, Missouri

*First Vice-President, J. D. WILLIAMS*

Woodlawn School, Birmingham, Alabama

*Second Vice-President, ELIZABETH BATES*

Sixty-Sixth Street School, Los Angeles, California

*Third Vice-President, GEORGE A. BEERS*

Clark School, 3925 West Van Buren Street, Chicago, Illinois

*Secretary, JESSIE M. FINK*

Palmer School, Grand Rapids, Michigan

*Treasurer, COURTLAND V. DAVIS*

J. E. B. Stuart School, Norfolk, Virginia

*Executive Committee*

J. W. ANTHONY

225 Hampton Street, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania—term expires in 1924

MARY MCSKIMMON

Pierce School, Brookline, Massachusetts—term expires in 1925

ANNA LAURA FORCE

Lincoln School, Denver, Colorado—term expires in 1926

LUISE H. KRAUSS

Grattan School, San Francisco, California—term expires in 1927

## STANDARDS BY WHICH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL MAY JUDGE CLASSROOM WORK

FRANKLIN M. UNDERWOOD

*District Superintendent, Saint Louis Public Schools, Formerly Principal  
Rose Fanning School, Saint Louis, Missouri*

**I**T WILL be helpful to get the setting for our discussion. The work of the elementary principal falls naturally into two main divisions, administration and supervision. The work of the principal as an administrator has, in turn, two aspects, the organization and business management of the school on the one hand, and on the other, social relations. The work of the principal as a supervisor has two distinct phases, educational diagnosis, or judging the quality of the work, and, second bringing about the desired result or dealing with the teacher.

As an administrator, in the matter of the organization and business management of the school, the principal's duties would include the appointment and assignment of teachers, the classification of pupils, the ordering and distribution of books, supplies, and equipment, the keeping of school records, the care of building and grounds, the interpretation and execution of the rules of the Board of Education and instructions of the various departments, the interpretation of the curriculum and its adjustment to the needs of the particular school, and the arrangement and management of the program of studies and activities, curricular and extra-curricular.

In the matter of "social relations," the principal's duties would be to provide for proper coöperation of the school, home, church, library, museum, theatre, press, city departments, commercial and industrial establishments, and other agencies involved in the total problem of the education of the child. It would include also his relationships with individuals and organizations of all sorts where their activities touch the work of the school. It would include activities concerned with the conception of the school as a community center and the responsibilities of the principal as a leader in his community.

These duties of the principal as an administrator constitute an important part of his work, and must receive adequate attention. And yet it will be seen that they have to do with securing the *conditions necessary* for effective instruction. Effective classroom instruction is the end for which the school is established, and these administrative matters serve as a *means* to a favorable educational situation. Hence, though important, administrative responsibilities cannot be regarded as the primary concern of the principal. He is primarily an educational expert, concerned with the supervision of instruction in the classrooms, where the whole educational scheme functions for the child.

There is general agreement among the workers in the field of supervision that the function of supervision is the improvement of teaching. As above indicated, there are two phases of the principal's work in bringing about improvement in instruction. The first phase is that of educational diagnosis or analysis. Here the principal must bring to bear his whole fund of philosophy of education, principles of teaching, and general scholarship, in order

## OUTLINE OF STANDARDS

## THE PUPILS

## I. Method of Study and Work

1. Hygienic conditions
2. Supplies and equipment
3. Routine habits.
4. Richness in motive and purpose
5. Individual initiative (individuality, originality, independence)
6. Individual judgment of relative values
7. Individual organization of ideas
8. Coöperation with teacher
9. Coöperation with other pupils (democratic attitude, teamwork, group or committee work, citizenship)
10. Are all participating?
11. Is each working up to capacity?
12. Accuracy and thoroughness
13. Economy of time and energy
14. Perseverence

## II. Results

1. Character, citizenship (tastes, appreciations, interests, motives, purposes, attitudes, ideals)
2. Knowledge
3. Habits and skills
4. Finished productions

## THE TEACHER

1. Attitude toward work
2. Attitude toward pupils
3. Presence
4. Voice
5. Use of English
6. Scholarship
7. Organization of subject matter
8. Skill in assignment
9. Skill in teaching

## A

- (a) Drill material
- (b) Problem material
- (c) Appreciation material
- (d) Reviews and summaries

## B

- (1) Clearness of aim
- (2) Devices
- (3) Questions
- (4) Technique
- (5) Resourcefulness
10. Skill in directing and supervising study
11. Skill in testing
12. Leadership (discipline, influence)

## THE SUBJECT MATTER

1. Has it evident worth to the child, and to society?
2. Is it adapted to the nature of the child?
3. Is it a specimen of real life? Has it a natural setting?

to determine the strong and weak points in the lesson observed. The value of his work here will clearly depend upon the reliability of the standards which he uses in judging the work. The determination of these standards is the topic of our discussion. May I say, before proceeding with this discussion, that the second phase of the principal's work as a supervisor, dealing with the teacher, is an entirely distinct problem. A principal may be an excellent educational analyst and yet fail in this matter of dealing with the teacher. Perhaps the highest quality of skill is required in this latter responsibility. His work ultimately succeeds or fails in his technique in dealing with the teacher.

Now for our discussion of standards by which the principal may judge instruction. Are there certain universal standards, based upon the major objectives of education, which are applicable to all subjects, all grades? How shall we determine these? There are two processes going on in the classroom, *teaching and learning*. Of these, that of primary significance is the learning.

Such education as is going on is going on in the child. What the child is doing is our primary concern. As to method, it is the child's method that is of most importance. The teacher's method is a means. The child's method is the end. We must observe the child to determine when the highest quality of learning is going on. Then we are in a position to observe the teacher, to determine the technique which accompanies this highest quality of learning in the child. We cannot judge the value of what the teacher does apart from what the child is doing. The value of the teacher's technique can only be determined by the resultant child activity. Hence our first and primary concern in judging the quality of instruction has to do with what the pupils are doing. In practically all our teacher-rating schemes we have been led to watch the teacher. We have been judging *teaching* whereas *learning* is the significant activity. Teaching is of consequence just to the extent that it results in learning. It has no isolated significance. The classic illustration of the value of the teacher in the educational situation is that of James A. Garfield, who said that his idea of a great university was a student on one end of a log and Mark Hopkins on the other. Mr. Garfield wished to indicate the importance of the teacher as compared with building, equipment, etc. Great as is the importance of the teacher—I should be the last to underestimate it—the fact remains that the value of this situation would be best determined by observing what were the students' activities. What the student accomplished, would be the ultimate criterion of even Mark Hopkins' success.

How, then, shall we go about evaluating the pupil's work? The child's activities may be viewed from two standpoints—first, his *method of study and work*, and second, the *results* achieved. As to his method of study and work, the following standards as listed in the first column of the outline are proposed as fundamental and universally applicable to all work in all grades: Hygienic conditions; supplies and equipment; routine habits; richness in motive and purpose; individual initiative (individuality, originality, independence); individual judgment of relative values; individual organization of ideas; coöperation with teacher; coöperation with other pupils (democratic attitude, team-work, group or committee work, citizenship); are all participating; is each working up to capacity; accuracy and thoroughness; economy of time and energy; and perseverance. These standards are based upon the fundamental purposes of education. If we can reach agreement on these fundamentals, we shall meet the greatest need in American education today. How can we understand each other, not to mention coöperate intelligently, unless we can agree on the fundamental objectives of education?

First of all, three of these standards have to do with creating a favorable situation for successful work. There must be, for instance, satisfactory *hygienic conditions* for work. Matters of room temperature, ventilation, humidity of air, length of period, varied activities, such as the proportion of standing and sitting time of pupils, the proportion of blackboard and seat work—such are matters needing attention in this respect.

The second factor is the provision with regard to *supplies and equipment*. The success of many a lesson is limited to the extent that the teacher has been able to assemble the books, materials, and equipment needed for the

work in hand. It is unfortunate that many times we are unable to provide supplies and materials which would be of great aid in a lesson. The question here is, "Has the teacher assembled such needed material as could be obtained by her or by the pupils?"

The third factor in creating a favorable situation for learning is the proper *routine habits* of the pupils. The teacher who believes in pupil initiative to the extent that she has the pupils use their individual initiative in passing to the blackboard, giving out supplies, and the like, has missed the point in this respect. Routine matters constitute the one place where individual initiative should not be utilized. This is the place for system. An effective working out of routine matters into systematic, automatic habits prepares the way for economical, whole attention to the big vital factors in effective learning.

I wish here to pay a tribute to Dr. F. M. McMurry, for many years an outstanding figure in the field of elementary education in this country. The four universal standards used by him, as stated in his book, *Elementary School Standards*, are fundamental, in my judgment, and these we shall next consider. Dr. McMurry's is the outstanding contribution in the meager literature we have on this subject.

The first of these standards is *richness in motive and purpose* on the part of the pupils. Dr. McMurry well says, "The biggest thing in modern education is richness in purpose on the part of pupils." It is the basis of the philosophy of the "project method," as developed under the able leadership of Dr. William H. Kilpatrick. It must be our fundamental and most important standard. We have always thought there should be an aim in a recitation, but until recently it seemed sufficient if the aim was in the teacher's mind. The pupil was to do as he was told and ask no questions. We have found at great cost that this latter plan will not do. We now believe that the highest type of learning takes place only when the pupil is confronted with a problem which is vital to him—the solution of which he feels is worth while to him, indeed essential to the realization of an end he has already set for himself. We may not be able to secure purposing on the part of 100 per cent of the class in a recitation, or perfect purposing on the part of any individual all the time, but we must recognize that the extent to which we do realize just that, constitutes one of the best measures of our success. Every teacher's growth in the techniques which secure pupil purposing in larger and larger degree will be a fundamental criterion of her growth as a successful teacher.

Our next standard, closely related to the preceding one, is *individual initiative*. This involves the extent to which the individuality, originality, and independence of the child are exercised in the recitation. The teacher may, on the one hand, ask every question that is asked in the recitation, give every direction, and otherwise completely control the activities of the pupils, or she may stimulate and encourage questions from the pupils, and encourage suggestions from them as to ways of proceeding. She may permit them to proceed in different ways, upon their own initiative, with a view to letting them judge later their success, and compare the various procedures used, and the various results. Initiative is a quality much needed in a democracy,

where the citizens control the destinies of a nation. We have but to read the stories of the lives of great men who have achieved great success in life to realize that initiative is a quality fundamental to large achievement. Only by providing situations in the classroom whereby pupils will be given opportunity and stimulus to exercise individual initiative can we hope they will emerge from our schools with power and tendency.

Our next standard is *individual judgment of relative values*. As in the case of initiative, judgment is a vital factor in successful living. The farmer who is a good judge of crops, of how, when, and where to plant; how, when and where to dispose of his products—in short who is a good judge of the issues which face him, in his business, is the successful farmer. Now one may learn to judge only by judging, just as one may learn to walk only by walking, to sing by singing, to dance by dancing, to swim by swimming, or to think by thinking. Comenius enunciated this principle five hundred years ago, and it has been emphasized by nearly every great educator since that time, but it still has great difficulty in finding its way into our practice. The teacher who has six or eight pupils read their compositions, and then has the class judge which is the best, giving reasons; or the teacher of penmanship who asks, "How many think their specimens are too slanting?", "too light?", "just about right?", and after a show of hands has the class judge as to whether the individual judgment was correct, instead of merely going about herself criticizing the papers and *telling* the pupils what is wrong; or the teacher of drawing who has six or eight pupils come to the front of the room, hold up their drawings or specimens of constructive work, and asks the class to judge which is the best, and tell why they think so; these teachers are developing taste and judgment in their pupils. This principle carried into all their work will produce a result essentially and fundamentally different from a situation where the teacher exercises all the judgment, and the pupil's activity is limited to accepting the teacher's judgment. The extent to which a teacher provides stimulus and opportunity for individual and group judgments on the part of the pupils will be an important measure of the quality of her teaching.

The next standard is *organization of ideas*. We may have, on the one hand, a situation where the teacher makes the outline, organizes the work, the pupil's activity being limited to copying and learning the outline, and accepting the teacher's organization; or, on the other hand, the teacher may encourage—even require—the pupils to make their own outlines, to organize their own material around a few salient topics. She may lead them to successfully make three- or four-minute talks, giving well-organized discussions involving related ideas supporting a central proposition. She may for instance, at the end of a term, ask the pupils to prepare the five or ten questions which in their judgment constitute the most important matters under consideration during the term. She may ask them further to be able to state why they chose those particular questions. Indeed, it is difficult to say whether finding answers to questions is as important as *finding* the questions in the field. This latter has been too much the sole privilege of the teacher. Our pupils will not learn to organize ideas by memorizing statements in textbooks, or by accepting the organization of the teacher. They can learn

to think only by thinking. They will do real thinking only when faced by a problem which is real to them. Organization of ideas is an essential element in thinking. The child's mind will not be developed by teacher's thinking. We must therefore observe the extent to which the classroom situation provides opportunity and stimulus to thinking on the part of the pupils.

Our next standard is coöperation. This is the complement of initiative. Too much initiative might lead to selfishness. This must be checked by the extent to which the individual serves others. Indeed this is the greatest factor in the success of a democracy. It is a *sine qua non* of the success of civilization, it conditions the very existence of society. A generation ago, a typical assignment was, "Take the next two pages." Each pupil was to "learn" it (memorize it). Each was to do the same thing and each was to work independently. Dire consequences would follow if any pupil consulted with another on any point. The assignments were individual; the recitations were individual. No pupil had any concern with what another pupil said. He was responsible for his own recitation only. There is value in independent work, where a pupil works out his own problems for himself, learns to "stand upon his own feet." We still believe in this type of activity properly motivated and worked out, but we find individual activities do not cover an important field in the child's education. Group activities are also needed. Every child will eventually be a member of various organizations, religious, social, political, industrial, he will serve on committees, he will be constantly facing the need of working successfully with other people. He will be engaged in many activities which can only be accomplished by a group—not by an individual. Hence it is vital that he learn to coöperate with others in his school experiences. There must be group assignments as well as individual assignments. The class for certain work should be divided into groups or committees, each investigating and reporting on matters contributing to the work in which all are engaged. The experience of contributing something *to the whole group*, of being a member of a sub-group, of feeling a responsibility to the group rather than to the teacher, and of receiving the contributions of other sub-groups must not be omitted from the child's experiences in the classroom, if this fundamental quality of coöperation, essential to good citizenship, is to be an outcome of education in our pupils.

The next two standards carry our observation further to the individual child. Our first question here is: "Are all the pupils taking part in the recitation?", and our second related question: "Is each working up to capacity?" The recent movement toward the formation of "homogeneous groups" is an effort to secure the most effective participation of the individual in the recitation. It is an administrative matter which may wholly fail. For instance, if we place all children who by test are thirteen years of age mentally, in the same group, nothing is gained, as they will differ as widely in *rate of learning* as any representative group would. If you attempt to classify in single groups those of the same mental age and also the same rate of learning, your groups will be so small as to be administratively impossible in the average school. The group of life is the *representative* group. Are we adequately preparing for life if we use exclusively "homogeneous groups" in

school activities? Can children learn to understand, appreciate, and work with all types of people, as they will have to do after leaving the school, by such an arrangement? To what extent is our problem rather one of developing the teaching techniques which will permit each pupil in a *representative* group, to work to capacity in whatever is under consideration? But whatever position we take in the matter, our aim and our standard will be the participation of all—each to his capacity—in whatever work is undertaken.

European critics of American education generally accuse our students of a lack of *thoroughness* and *accuracy* in their work. We may question the truth of this charge and we may assert that our students show certain other important qualities in which our friends across the water would suffer by comparison, but we must admit that thoroughness and accuracy are important elements in effective method and study and that we have always had to war against superficiality, carelessness, and inferior ideals and standards of work on the part of pupils. I am inclined to think our prescription for the trouble would be "better motivation" rather than the "greater amount of systematic drill," which would probably be the resort of our European friends. We would feel, as we have frequently found to be true, that the most effective way to secure thoroughness and accuracy is to make the undertaking meaningful to the child. Again, whatever position we may take on this matter, we must constantly strive for the desired thoroughness and accuracy in the work of our pupils, and wherever this quality is lacking, we may know there is a matter needing attention.

*Economy of time and energy* is vital to successful method and study. We may, on the one hand, secure acceptable results, but with great expenditure of both time and energy. Or we may conserve both time and energy in our work through effective planning, effective devices, and effective technique.

Another vital factor in the success of any undertaking in a classroom situation or in a later life situation, is the quality of perseverance of those involved. The persistence with which a pupil carries through to completion the ends he has set for himself will determine in marked degree the success he will achieve in his school work, as it will in like manner determine the success he may attain in the greater problems of life he must later meet. We must encourage and develop this quality by arranging the school situations so that the student will have the opportunity and the stimulus to persevere in his work, and experience success and satisfaction in so doing.

The teacher or principal in judging the quality of the work of the classroom, would not, of course, expect to find every one of these standards provided for in every recitation. Some of them should be present, as they are universally applicable to all work and all grades, if the work is organized on a plane for the most effective learning. The procedure of the principal or teacher in judging the lesson could be one of checking the outstanding standards cared for in the lesson. The outline could thus be used as a score card of the recitation. It would be expected that in the work of a term, all standards would be adequately provided for, though only a few may appear prominent in any individual lesson.

This concludes our discussion of the standards which apply to the method of study and work on the part of pupils. This constitutes the field which is

most significant educationally. We must, however, consider results attained as well. Results in the child are more significant than the finished product which is external to the child. There may be, on the one hand, an almost perfect external result, achieved by following in minute detail the specific directions of the teacher, as in the making of a paper box or wagon. Each pupil would in the end have a box or wagon just like that of the teacher. In fact, there would be scarcely anything of the child's own in the activity. His acts would be merely mechanical, the teacher pushing all the buttons. On the other hand, by a different procedure, the child could be led to put much of himself into the activity. It could be largely self-chosen, involve taste, judgment, and organization exercised upon the initiative of the child. The external product might be inferior in certain cases, but the educative value of the activity would be much superior, due to the method of study and work, and to the result that is taking place in the child. The value of the finished product cannot be judged apart from a consideration of the methods employed, the child activities involved in working it out.

The results "in the child" are the first three mentioned in the outline. I put first "character and citizenship," which include tastes, appreciations, interests, motives, purposes, attitudes, and ideals. These are the biggest things in life. They must be considered above knowledge. They are the springs to action, the emotional element which is the greatest factor in determining behavior. Knowledge comes second. We concede its importance, but it is no longer the primary aim of education. Habits and skills constitute the third element in the results desired "in the child." I can merely mention them.

Time will not permit the discussion of the qualities *in the teacher*, which seem most significant in the classroom situation. They are only of significance, however, as they are seen to affect learning. You will note twelve qualities listed in the outline. Possibly the true situation may be best arrived at by judging both the "teaching" and the "learning."

There is yet to be considered a third factor in the educational situation, the curriculum. I have added to the outline three questions which should be answered with respect to the curriculum. A situation may easily arise where the fault is not in the child, nor in the teacher, but rather in the curriculum as planned and required.

### TIME REQUIRED TO COMPLETE AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE

GEORGE MELCHER

*Assistant Superintendent and Director of Efficiency, Kansas City, Missouri*

**I**N THE LAST decade, educators have spent days and months studying economy of time in education, and have written volumes on this subject. Almost countless efforts have been made to reduce the subject matter in the various branches of study, especially in the tool subjects, to the minimum essentials. Many eliminations, re-valuations, and re-organizations of the materials in the course of study have been made. Much excellent work has been

done and the character and quality of the work in the elementary schools has unquestionably been greatly modified and improved by means of these studies.

However, may we ask, "Where is the economy of time?" The school day is just as long as before these studies were made, the school year has the same number of days and months—in fact, the tendency is to increase the length of both the school day and the school year. In all of these studies, it has been assumed that the course of study in the public schools should consist of a kindergarten course of at least one year, and twelve years above the kindergarten. These twelve grades may be divided, and formerly were almost universally divided into eight elementary grades and four high-school grades. Recently, many cities have divided these twelve grades into three parts; six elementary grades; three intermediate school grades, or junior high-school grades; and three senior high-school grades.

Only occasionally has a voice been heard declaring for a "real economy of time in education" and recommending reducing these twelve grades to eleven grades or fewer than eleven. Let us assume for the sake of argument that the traditional elementary school course of eight years was adapted to the conditions under which it was developed and that it satisfied the educational needs of that time. May we not properly ask, "Does it adequately meet the needs of modern society?" In this connection we wish to call your attention to the following interesting facts and questions:

*First*—The eight-year system developed prior to the American public high school. It seems to be modeled after the eight-year German elementary school which assumed that such an elementary school course completed the education of the child. Should not the fact that large numbers of American children continue their education into the high school be considered in determining the length of the elementary school course?

*Second*—The eight-year system developed when the number of days that schools were kept open was much less than now. Should not an *increase* in the number of school days per year have a tendency to *decrease* the number of years required to complete the elementary school course?

*Third*—Since the elimination of much useless and non-functioning subject matter from the elementary school course, the re-organization of the material, and the re-placing of emphasis, should we not be able to complete the elementary school course in a shorter time?

*Fourth*—Should not our improved methods and increased skill in teaching also tend to shorten the time required for an elementary school course?

*Fifth*—May we not learn something from the educational systems of European countries? In *School and Society* for February 2, 1924, page 138, you will find the following: "Some weeks ago Prime Minister Baldwin (now ex-prime minister) said that he did not believe the actual achievement in the schools of America to be comparable to that of the British schools and that on the whole the American boy of 15 was 'in knowledge and achievement about two years behind an English boy of the same age.'" It is generally conceded that the European boy is ready for senior college about two years earlier than the American boy. The world is now knit to-

gether so closely, commercially and industrially, that it is important that American children be given every advantage that is given European children in order that the young manhood and womanhood of America may have a fair opportunity in competition in world affairs.

Is an eight-year elementary school course a sacred and divinely established institution or is it a mere human accident? When the American public school course was in process of standardization, who knew whether the course should be six, seven, eight, nine, or ten years? In some cities where public elementary schools developed early and where the sentiment for public education was strong and where the people desired to give their children as much education as possible in the public schools, a nine-year elementary school course was developed. This was especially true in several cities of New England. The children in these cities had a longer training in the public schools before entering the private academies; also those children who did not pursue their education further in the academies had a longer school training prior to entering upon their life work.

However, in some communities where the sentiment for private elementary schools was strong and public schools were looked upon as "charity" schools and where the funds for public education were limited, a seven-year elementary school course was developed. However, comparatively few cities have only seven elementary grades. The great majority of American cities have eight elementary grades as do also most State courses of study. After the establishment of public high schools, practically all those communities that had established nine elementary grades reduced their elementary course to eight grades.

For some reason which the writer has been unable to discover, in 1867 the Kansas City public schools were organized with a seven-year elementary course of study. In 1874, Dr. J. M. Greenwood was elected superintendent of the Kansas City public schools. He accepted the seven-year course of study. When he took charge, the total enrolment was only 4164 pupils and the population of the city by the census of 1870 was 32,260. Dr. Greenwood developed the seven-year course in Kansas City, studied its operation and became fully convinced that it was the proper length of an elementary school course and became an enthusiastic defender of the seven-year system. Twenty-one years ago, he discussed the seven-year system before the general session of the Department of Superintendence at the National Education Association.<sup>1</sup> "Had I found after going to Kansas City that children required eight years to do the work satisfactorily, I should have asked the Board of Education to change from seven to eight years; but I have never found it necessary or even desirable to suggest a change. Beginning under the seven-year course and not feeling sure as to results, I watched carefully and cautiously the entire work over which the pupils passed and made it a point to test out our seven-year pupils with all kinds of questions used by the eight-grade pupils in the best schools of the country; and our seven-year pupils stood as high as the highest."

<sup>1</sup> Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1903, p. 248.

Kansas City is the largest school system having a seven-year elementary school course. The enrolment in all the day schools of the city is over 60,000 pupils. Kansas City is conducting a valuable experiment in education for the country. It is altogether probable that either a seven-year or an eight-year course is the better for the average American child.

If the elementary school course can be satisfactorily completed for the average child in seven years it means (1) adding one year to the life of every child; (2) adding one year to the educational level of the majority of the children; (3) adding one year of useful service to society to the life of many children; (4) raising by one year or more the educational level of the community; (5) reducing the cost of education; (6) increasing the earning power of society; and (7) improving the social well-being of society.

In the settlement of this question mere opinions have no validity. The procedure must be scientific. We challenge the principals and superintendents of America to a scientific study of this question. This brief paper will only open the study which must be continued for some time in order to reach a conclusion both valid and scientifically determined.

In order to gather some information of value on this subject, I sent a questionnaire to all cities having a population of 75,000 or over and also to the largest city in each State that did not have a city with a population of 75,000. The questionnaire read as follows:

#### Questionnaire on School Progress

1. Do you have kindergartens in your school system? .....
2. What is the length of the kindergarten course? .....
3. What is the minimum age at which children may enter the kindergarten? .....
4. How many grades (exclusive of kindergarten) in your school system below a four-year senior high school? .....
5. Is your school system organized on the 8-4 plan or on the 6-3-3 plan?
6. What is the minimum age at which children MAY enter your first grade? .....
7. What is the average age at which children DO enter your first grade?
8. Do you keep a cumulative card record of the progress of your pupils through the grades? .....
9. What is the average length of time required for your pupils to complete the work in your school system below the four-year senior high-school course and exclusive of the kindergarten? (State in years and fraction of years.) .....
10. Was this average given in No. 9 secured by averaging the time required as shown by the cumulative cards of graduates? .....
11. Is this average based on the graduates of one year only or of several years? .....
12. State by years the classes that were studied in making this average.
13. What was the total number of graduates considered in determining the average given in Question No. 9? .....

14. If the average was not secured from cumulative cards, please state how it was secured? .....
15. If you do not have accurate data based on cumulative record cards of graduates, will you please estimate as accurately as you can the length of time required for pupils to complete the work of your grades beginning with the entrance in first grade and ending at the beginning of a four-year high-school course? That is, the time required to complete the usual standard elementary school course. (Please give estimate in years and fraction of year?) .....

Name of person filling questionnaire. ....

Official position. ....

Name of city. ....

Date. ....

This questionnaire was sent to 106 cities including Kansas City. Returns were received from 63 cities. Of these 63 cities, 16 computed the average length of time required from cumulative cards; 10 made estimates from age-grade tables; 21 made estimates from general impressions or opinions; 16 declined to make estimates. One superintendent in making the estimate said "eight years approximately. Nearly as many skip terms of work as repeat terms of work. Probably eight and one half years would be a better guess." Another superintendent said "any estimate would be a mere guess." One said "eight years below high school" not seeming to realize that an eight-grade course does not necessarily mean that the pupils complete the course in eight years. Another said "we have no accurate statistical records to answer this question," another "we do not have the information available," another "about 10 per cent of our pupils repeat," another "majority eight years. Opportunity afforded to make time shorter if pupil so elects." Several replied "no data." Forty-seven out of sixty-three schools answered that they had a cumulative card system; sixteen reported they had none. The following fourteen cities having eight-grade systems give tabulations from cumulative cards as follows:

|                                  | Years |
|----------------------------------|-------|
| Boise, Idaho .....               | 8.00  |
| Cheyenne, Wyoming .....          | 8.04  |
| Erie, Pennsylvania .....         | 7.50  |
| Harrisburg, Pennsylvania .....   | 8.00  |
| Indianapolis, Indiana .....      | 8.10  |
| Milwaukee, Wisconsin .....       | 8.33  |
| Minneapolis, Minnesota .....     | 8.28  |
| Newark, New Jersey .....         | 7.97  |
| New Bedford, Massachusetts ..... | 8.28  |
| New Orleans, Louisiana .....     | 8.15  |
| New York, New York .....         | 8.11  |
| Oakland, California .....        | 8.33  |
| St. Joseph, Missouri .....       | 8.40  |
| Waterbury, Connecticut .....     | 8.00  |

Of these fourteen cities, a study of the questionnaire indicates that in at least ten of them the work has been quite accurately done. However, in two reports the number of pupils considered was too small to make the work valuable. For example, in Newark the superintendent had no data but cal-

culated the time from the cumulative cards in three schools—a total of 81 pupils—and found the average was 7.97 years. Cheyenne reported 8.04 years, but on a very small number of pupils. We appreciate the fact that some of the cities made the computations after the questionnaire was sent them. They report quite accurate data. We feel that the following eight are accurate and computed on numbers large enough to show dependable data:

|                                  | Years |
|----------------------------------|-------|
| Indianapolis, Indiana .....      | 8.10  |
| Milwaukee, Wisconsin .....       | 8.33  |
| Minneapolis, Minnesota .....     | 8.29  |
| New Bedford, Massachusetts ..... | 8.28  |
| New Orleans, Louisiana .....     | 8.15  |
| New York, New York .....         | 8.11  |
| Oakland, California .....        | 8.33  |
| St. Joseph, Missouri .....       | 8.40  |
| Average .....                    | 8.25  |

While estimates made from age-grade tables are much less trustworthy than those made by cumulative cards, nine cities having eight-year systems made estimates from age-tables as follows:

|                                  | Years |
|----------------------------------|-------|
| Detroit, Michigan .....          | 8.00  |
| Grand Rapids, Michigan .....     | 7.80  |
| Jacksonville, Florida .....      | 8.40  |
| Los Angeles, California .....    | 8.28  |
| Omaha, Nebraska .....            | 8.10  |
| Peoria, Illinois .....           | 8.70  |
| Philadelphia, Pennsylvania ..... | 8.21  |
| Spokane, Washington .....        | 8.33  |
| Trenton, New Jersey .....        | 8.30  |
| Average .....                    | 8.23  |

It is interesting to note that the average as estimated from age-grade tables is approximately the same as the average obtained by counting of cumulative cards—it being 8.23 in one case and 8.25 in the other cases.

The following eighteen cities having eight-year systems made estimates or gave opinions:

|                                  | Years |
|----------------------------------|-------|
| Albany, New York .....           | 8.20  |
| Bayonne, New Jersey .....        | 8.05  |
| Birmingham, Alabama .....        | 7.00  |
| Boston, Massachusetts .....      | 8.00  |
| Burlington, Vermont .....        | 8.25  |
| Cambridge, Massachusetts .....   | 8.00  |
| Cleveland, Ohio .....            | 8.34  |
| Dayton, Ohio .....               | 8.30  |
| Lynn, Massachusetts .....        | 8.25  |
| Manchester, New Hampshire .....  | 8.25  |
| Meridian, Mississippi .....      | 8.27  |
| Nashville, Tennessee .....       | 8.00  |
| Phoenix, Arizona .....           | 8.00  |
| St. Louis, Missouri .....        | 7.80  |
| San Francisco, California .....  | 8.00  |
| Seattle, Washington .....        | 7.90  |
| Springfield, Massachusetts ..... | 9.00  |
| Wilmington, Delaware .....       | 7.50  |
| Average .....                    | 8.06  |

The following sixteen cities were unwilling to make estimates:

|                         |                           |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| Baltimore, Maryland     | Providence, Rhode Island  |
| Chicago, Illinois       | Richmond, Virginia        |
| Cincinnati, Ohio        | Rochester, New York       |
| Fort Wayne, Indiana     | Savannah, Georgia         |
| Louisville, Kentucky    | Somerville, Massachusetts |
| Norfolk, Virginia       | Utica, New York           |
| Oklahoma City, Oklahoma | Washington, D. C.         |
| Paterson, New Jersey    | Worcester, Massachusetts  |

Six cities having a seven-year system reported as follows:

|                                                            | Years |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| Charleston, South Carolina (from cumulative cards).....    | 7.21  |
| Dallas, Texas (estimated) .....                            | 7.00  |
| El Paso, Texas (estimated) .....                           | 6.86  |
| Kansas City, Missouri (from cumulative cards) .....        | 7.47  |
| San Antonio, Texas (estimated) .....                       | 7.00  |
| Winston-Salem, North Carolina (from age-grade table) ..... | 8.40  |
| Average .....                                              | 7.32  |

An analysis of the questionnaires first-hand reveals the fact that some of these estimates are mere guesses. For example, Winston-Salem, having a seven-year system, estimated 8.40 years for each pupil to complete the course which is an unreasonably high estimate. Were Winston-Salem omitted from the group, the average for the five remaining cities would be 7.11, an estimate which is probably too low. It is probable that the 7.32 years is approximately correct, for a seven-year system. Charleston, South Carolina, and Kansas City, Missouri, computed from cumulative cards. The average time shown by these two cities is 7.34 years for a seven-year system. South Carolina says that they had some rapid moving pupils in the class that was computed so that the 7.21 years is probably a little low. However, Kansas City had several slow moving groups in the class of 1923. Hence, this average may be a little high. The Kansas City average includes both white and colored children, also all children in subnormal or borderline groups who were granted elementary school certificates, so that the 7.47 years is the maximum time possible for the Kansas City group.

In the estimates by superintendents of eight-year systems, it is interesting to note that one superintendent estimated nine years, another seven years, another seven and one half years. The nine years is undoubtedly too high, seven, and seven and one half probably too low. In the same system, schools will vary greatly in the length of time required for pupils to complete the elementary school course. The school in Kansas City having the best record showed by its cumulative cards that the pupils had completed the elementary school course in an average of 6.97 years and that the median time was 6.72 years. The school having the poorest record showed that the average time required to complete the elementary school course was 7.80 years and the median time 7.58 years. The best school was located in a splendid residence neighborhood. In this school, the number of pupils gaining time was slightly greater than the number of pupils losing time. The school making the poorest record has a patronage, 90 per cent of which is Italian. Two

groups graduated from this school in 1923. One of the groups completed the course in almost normal time; the other group had repeated one half year at two different times. This added to the other loss by irregular attendance, sickness, etc., brought the average of this class to 7.80 years. We have given a large number of intelligence tests in Kansas City and our results show us that the Italian children are on a lower level, mentally, than the American children. This is especially true of our Italians in Kansas City who are largely Sicilians. This school was probably justifiable in having this high average, the average being caused by the language handicap of the children, lower mentality of the children, and lack of interest in school on the part of the parents. Our study of the progress of children through the grades convinces us that it is impossible to estimate or guess at the time. The only way to get it correctly is to make the calculations from cumulative cards.

From the letter of explanation which accompanied the questionnaire containing a statement of the method of procedure, it was evident that the time in Milwaukee, 8.33 years, was quite accurate, as was also the result in Oakland, 8.33 years. The results in St. Joseph, 8.40 years, and in Minneapolis, 8.28 years, were also accurate. Since several cities secured an average time of more than eight and one fourth years, it was quite evident to the writer that the average time in an eight-grade system is about 8.30 years. As indicated above the average time for a seven-grade system is probably a little more than 7.30 years. Thus, it is seen that the seven-grade system saves one year for each school child.

A study of the returns and the comparison of those returns with the actual facts known about the progress of children through the grades lead us to the following conclusions: *First*—That the guesses by superintendents of schools as to the length of time required to complete the elementary school course are practically valueless. *Second*—That the estimates based on age-grade tables, while more dependable than the "guesses" are untrustworthy. Especially is this true in a shifting population or in a growing city. *Third*—That cumulative card results, while accurate, are not comparable unless the computation is made in exactly the same way.

Therefore, in order that we may secure comparable data, I am submitting the plan of procedure used in securing the data in Kansas City.

*Method of procedure*—In the study of the length of time required for pupils to complete the elementary school course—

1. Secure all data for the study from accurately kept cumulative cards.
2. Eliminate the cards of all pupils who entered the system later than the beginning of the third year of the course.
3. Count the full time from the entrance of the pupil in the beginning first-grade class until graduation.
4. Count by half years; any fraction of a half year is counted as a full half year—that is, a pupil entering for the first time in September, October, November, December, or January is counted as one year in the school; a pupil entering for the first time in February, March, April, or May is counted as one half year in school.

5. After the pupil has once entered, all the time elapsing until he graduates is charged against him. For example, one child was three years in a tuberculosis sanitarium. She was checked as requiring ten years to complete the elementary school course because ten years elapsed from her entrance until graduation. Many children enter the public schools and withdraw for a year or more to attend private or parochial schools. This time is all charged against them. Some of these pupils keep up with their grades, but often they lose time. Many children move to other cities for a year or more and then return to Kansas City. In such cases, the cumulative cards of the pupils are revived and the pupils are charged with the time while away. Some of these pupils advance a grade a year while absent; sometimes they do not do so.

6. Count each one half year of gain for each pupil and charge that gain to the proper year of the course.

7. Count each one half year of loss and charge such half year to the proper year of the course.

8. The balance between the gains and the losses of each pupil should check with the acceleration or retardation of the pupil.

9. Tabulate the results by schools so as to show the distribution of gains by grades; the distribution of losses by grades; the distribution of pupils by terms required to complete the course; the pupils making losses only; the pupils making gains only; and the pupils making gains and losses.

10. Summarize this tabulation. This will furnish data for complete analysis of the progress of children through the grades, and the length of time required to complete the course.

We believe (we do not know) that if this method of procedure is used it will be found that the Kansas City seven-year system saves one year for each pupil—a case of real economy of time in education.

For several years in Kansas City we have been studying the progress of pupils through the grades. We wish to give a brief summary of these studies before giving the details of the study of the class of 1923. As stated above, it is possible to know accurately the progress of pupils through the grades only by carefully kept cumulative cards. However, a cumulative card system has been in operation in Kansas City only ten years. Mr. I. I. Cammack, the present superintendent of schools, introduced the cumulative card system during his first year as superintendent. Superintendent Cammack and myself, in 1915, desired to know as accurately as possible the rate at which children were progressing through the grades so the questionnaire method was resorted to.

One of these questionnaires was filled by each pupil who graduated from the elementary school in June, 1915. After the questionnaires were filled by the pupils, they were checked as carefully as possible by both principal and teacher of the school. A study of these questionnaires in 1915 gave an average length of time required to complete the elementary school course as 7.65 years. A similar study was made in 1916 and an average of 7.59 years was obtained; in 1917 an average of 7.61 years. No further study was made until the class of 1921. The graduates of June, 1921, were studied from the cumulative cards. As shown by the cards, the average length of time required by

this class was 7.34 years. However, it was evident that this result was somewhat too low. Since cumulative cards were put in operation in 1914, such cards do contain the complete record of all pupils who went through the schools regularly in seven years and of all pupils who completed the course in less than seven years, but do not contain a complete record of those pupils who required more than seven years to complete the elementary school course. Those pupils who were 2B in 1914 were counted as requiring eight years to complete the course. However, it might be possible that such pupils had taken nine or more years. Since about one fourth of all our loss of time is in the first grade, we failed to secure all of the first grade loss. Likewise, children recorded as 3B in 1914 were credited with taking nine years, whereas some of these children may have taken ten or even eleven years to complete the course—having repeated first or second grade or both. Thus we did not secure all of the second grade loss. While we have had this study of the class of 1921 in our files for two years, no general publication of the 7.34 years has been made because we did not feel that the result was accurate.

The detailed study of the class of 1923 revealed the fact that the average time required is 7.47 years. The boys took 7.52 years; the girls 7.42 years. Those who did not transfer took 7.39 years; those who transferred 7.50 years. More than two thirds changed schools as they passed through the course. The shortest time was made by 424 girls who remained in the same schools through the course and completed the course on an average of 7.31 years. However, we found that the median time required to complete the course of study was far less than the average time. 56 per cent of all the pupils complete the course in seven years or less; 44 per cent require more than seven years; however, only 12 per cent require more than eight years.

TABLE 1.—PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS REQUIRING SEVEN YEARS OR LESS TO COMPLETE THE COURSE OF STUDY AND THOSE REQUIRING MORE THAN EIGHT YEARS

|             | Requiring seven<br>years or less | Requiring more than<br>seven years and not more<br>than eight years | Requiring more<br>than eight years |
|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Boys .....  | 54                               | 33                                                                  | 13                                 |
| Girls ..... | 58                               | 30                                                                  | 12                                 |
| Total ..... | 56                               | 32                                                                  | 12                                 |

The median time required to complete the course of study is 6.95 years.

TABLE 2.—TIME REQUIRED TO COMPLETE THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY

|             | Lower quartile | Median | Upper quartile |
|-------------|----------------|--------|----------------|
| Boys .....  | 6.71           | 6.97   | 7.78           |
| Girls ..... | 6.69           | 6.92   | 7.70           |
| Total ..... | 6.70           | 6.95   | 7.75           |

TABLE 3.—NUMBER OF PUPILS AND LENGTH OF TIME SPENT IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

| Years spent<br>in grades | Number of pupils | Years spent<br>in grades | Number of pupils |
|--------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|
| 5                        | 3                | 8                        | 646              |
| 5½                       | 3                | 8½                       | 46               |
| 6                        | 73               | 9                        | 227              |
| 6½                       | 38               | 9½                       | 3                |
| 7                        | 1271             | 10                       | 9                |
| 7½                       | 158              |                          |                  |

We now know that it does take more than seven years on an average for the pupils to complete the seven-year course of study in Kansas City. However, we know that the modal time is seven years, the median time is scarcely seven years, and that the average time is shown considerably above seven years for reasons which will be set forth later. We believe that were the computation in eight-year systems made in the same way that we made the computation in Kansas City that it would be shown positively that the children in Kansas City complete the elementary school course in one year shorter time than in other systems.

### Why a Loss of .47 of a Year Per Pupil?

A loss of .47 of a year as a pupil progresses through the grades seems heavy. However, the median time spent in the grades is 6.95 years. That is, more than one half of the pupils completed the elementary school course in seven years or less; however, only about 5 per cent completed in six and one half years or less; and 44 per cent required more than seven years. Hence, the number of pupils taking eight, eight and one half, and nine years increased the average to 7.47 years per pupil. This explains the fact that the modal time spent in the grades is 7 years, the median time 6.95 years and the average time 7.47 years—a difference of .52 or more than one half year between the median and the average. Why should this loss be so large? In order to understand this, it is necessary to remember that this average was obtained by counting the entire time which elapsed from the entrance of the pupil into school until his graduation. The chief causes of slow progress in school are the following: (1) absence and irregular attendance; (2) low mentality or lack of capacity; (3) errors in classification of pupils and administration of schools; (4) poor equality of teaching; and (5) transiency, wrong attitude of pupils, etc.

How important are each of these factors? (1) Absence and irregular attendance: A study of the causes of non-promotions in the Kansas City schools made seven years ago revealed the fact that teachers and principals attributed 54 per cent of the non-promotions to irregular attendance and absence. A check of the records in many schools showed that this estimate was undoubtedly conservative. This absence may be caused by sickness, lack of interest, and indifference on the part of parents and pupils, or from any other cause whatsoever. Thus it seems that more than one half of the .47 of a year loss is accounted for by absence of children from school. Absence and irregular attendance exist in an eight-year system the same as in a seven-year system. Our distribution of loss of time shows that .12 of a year out of .47, or more than one fourth of the total loss, occurred in the first grade and .05 of a year occurred in the second grade, or a total of .17 of a year, or more than one third of the entire loss, occurred in grades one and two. A comparison of the seven-year course of study in Kansas City with the eight-year course in other systems will show that the work required of pupils in grades one and two in Kansas City is practically the same as the work required in grades one and two in other systems and that the actual gain is made by condensing

grades three to eight into grades three to seven. Therefore, it is evident that this loss of .17 of a year should maintain in an eight-year system the same as in a seven-year system. It should also be noted that our study of loss of time on account of irregular attendances reveals the fact that irregular attendance was greater in the first grade than in any other grade. In Missouri, the Compulsory School Law does not apply to children under seven years of age. We have hundreds of children entered in the first grade with good intentions on the part of the parents. However, bad weather comes, children's diseases as measles and whooping cough attack the children, in many sections of the city the children have long distances to travel to school, and, as a result, they are absent so much that they are unable to finish the first grade. For that reason, our repeaters in grade one almost equal in number the repeaters in any other two grades combined. It is beyond my power of comprehension to understand how children in an eight-year system can do the same work as is done in a seven-year system in first and second grades without the same percentage of loss of time as in a seven-year system.

(2) Low mentality of lack of capacity on the part of the pupils: The same study in 1916 attributed 17 per cent of non-promotions to lack of capacity on the part of pupils to do the work. During the year 1922-23, the principals in the white elementary schools of Kansas City were asked to report to the Research Division those pupils who were three years or more retarded. An individual intelligence test, using the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Test, was given to each of these pupils. A total of 507 children were tested. These 507 children were distributed according to I. Q. as follows:

| I. Q.           | Number<br>of pupils |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| Below 60 .....  | 62                  |
| 60-69 .....     | 177                 |
| 70-79 .....     | 181                 |
| 80-89 .....     | 71                  |
| 90-99 .....     | 13                  |
| Above 100 ..... | 3                   |

An analysis of these figures shows that a total of 239, or 47 per cent, of the 507 pupils were feeble-minded or subnormal since all children below 70 I. Q. are usually ranked as subnormal, and that 36 per cent, or 181 pupils having an I. Q. from 70-79, are distinctly borderline pupils. This group comprises more than 80 per cent of the children who are three years or more retarded in the classes of the borderline or feeble-minded. This study shows the importance of low mentality as a factor in the retardation. Pupils who have an I. Q. below 85 cannot be expected to complete the elementary course on schedule whether it be an eight-year system or a seven-year system. Of these 507 children, only 16 had I. Q.'s of 90 or above. These can all be accounted for as special cases—one was a Russian only eight months in America; another was a Russian only eighteen months in America; one child had been ill and in a tuberculosis sanitarium for three years; one had very defective eyesight which made it impossible for him to do his work satisfactorily; one was a moral delinquent, cigarette fiend, and juvenile court case. One was

# KANSAS CITY, MO., PUBLIC SCHOOLS

LOW IQ AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN RETARDATION  
A STUDY OF 507 PUPILS IN THE REGULAR GRADES  
AND THREE OR MORE YEARS RETARDED-1922-23

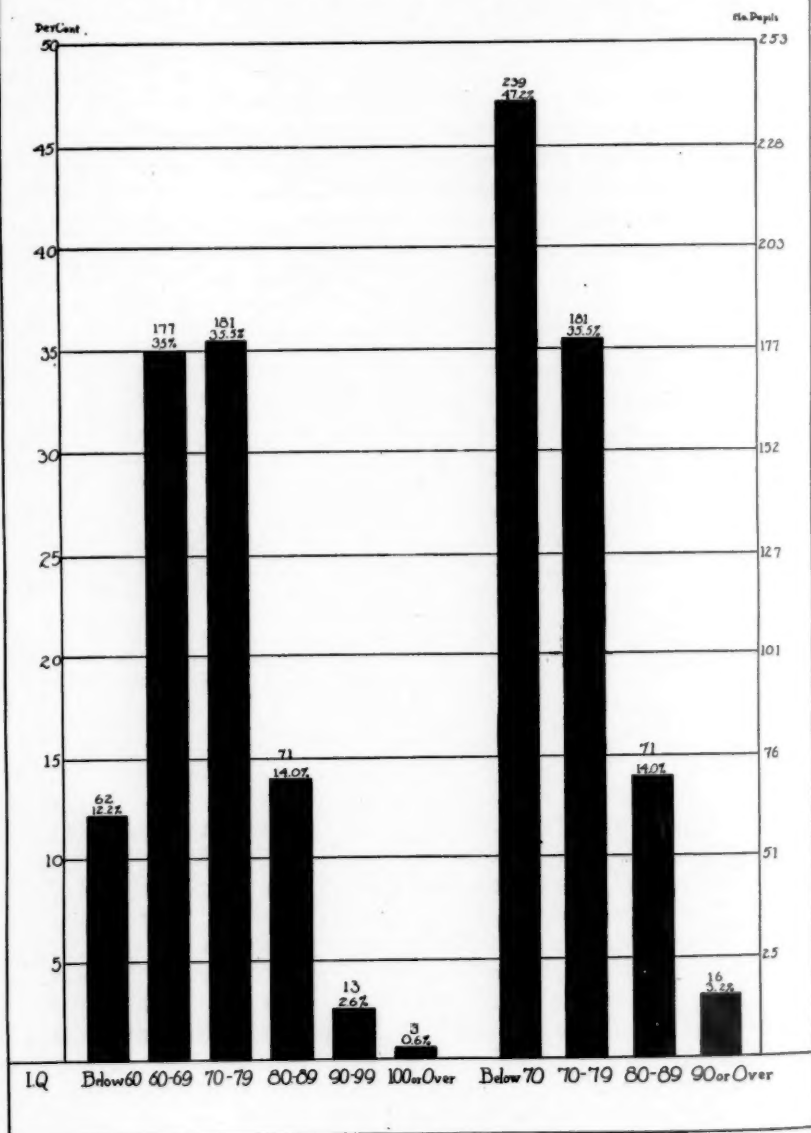


FIG. 1.—Median Scores of Number of Examples Attempted and of Number of Examples Right. All pupils in Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7 were Tested. Number Tested in Each Grade, 3500-4500.

retarded on account of sickness, had rather serious heart trouble. His mother is a nurse and moves about a good deal. The boy was for a while in a boys' hotel. Is in high school now. Reported to be a fine boy. I. Q., 106.7. Another case—bad tonsils, undernourished, later referred to social agencies to supply food, wrong kind of father. Now doing fairly well in school. I. Q., 94.3. Another case—poor health in early school life, has not had school advantages. Father and mother separated. In early life out of school. Did splendid work in Faxon School. Organized a business outside school (package delivery from merchants), and earned considerable money. Now in military school and reported doing well. I. Q., 90.6. In similar manner the causes of retardation of the remainder of the sixteen could be set forth. The amount of retardation attributed to low mentality is one sixth of the total amount, or about .08 of a year per pupil. We do not understand why this factor refuses to operate in an eight-year system though it does operate in a seven-year system.

(3) Errors in classification of pupils and administration of schools: It is difficult to know what percentage of retardation is to be attributed to this factor. Though we asked principals and teachers to report their errors, it is evident that they are loth to do so and the retardations attributed to this factor are few. A study of the cumulative cards and the progress of children through the grades reveals the fact that of the 2477 children who were studies, 718 had been held one half year in order to make their work close a school grade at the end of a school year and thus eliminate beginning mid-year classes. This amounts to a total loss of .14 of a year per pupil. Were this loss of time eliminated in Kansas City, the average time per pupil would be reduced to 7.33 years. Thus it is quite evident that any loss of time in Kansas City in excess of the loss of time in eight-year systems may be avoided by the teachers and principals living up to their full opportunity in making of semi-annual promotions and holding of mid-year graduations. Under errors in classification should be placed the assigning of too many pupils to a teacher. We are unable to know how much retardation is due to the overloading of teachers with an excess of pupils. Some of our rooms in Kansas City are very heavily loaded—40 to 50 pupils per teacher.

(4) Poor quality of teaching: We are unable to estimate the amount of loss due to this cause. In general, the teachers in Kansas City are well prepared and very efficient. However, as in all systems, we occasionally have incompetent teachers. Often principals attribute the failure of a whole class, or large numbers in a class, to make a full grade in a year to poor work of the teacher either in that grade or the preceding grade.

In addition to these four principal causes, there are retardations due to various causes, such as moral delinquency, defective eyesight, defective hearing, lack of interest on the part of the pupils, change of schools, etc. However, investigation indicates that the percentage of retardation due to these causes is relatively small, except for change of schools or transiency, to which 10 to 20 per cent of the total loss should be attributed. The dis-

tribution of losses by grades will doubtless be interesting. The distribution is as follows:

| Grade   | Loss of time |
|---------|--------------|
| 1 ..... | .12          |
| 2 ..... | .05          |
| 3 ..... | .08          |
| 4 ..... | .07          |
| 5 ..... | .06          |
| 6 ..... | .05          |
| 7 ..... | .04          |

This loss represented is the net loss amounting to .47 of a year. The gross loss amounted to .56 of a year and the gross gain to .09 of a year. The gain was quite equally distributed among the five grades two to six. There was little gain of time in the first grade, or in the seventh grade.

From the above facts, it is evident that the seven-year elementary school system is better adapted to the average pupil who attends school with a reasonable degree of regularity than is the eight-year system. The eight-year system is undoubtedly better adapted to take care of the subnormal and feeble-minded children and the pupils who are in poor health and who are irregular in attendance. Would it not be wise and economical to arrange for special groups for caring for these unfortunate pupils and save time for the regular pupils? Eight-year systems may claim that they can offset the loss of time on account of low mentality, irregular attendance, errors in management and poor quality of teaching by special promotions of the average and bright pupils. If this is done it simply indicates that the eight-year system is not adapted to the average pupil but is adapted to the pupil below average. In fact, that is a serious charge made against the American public schools that they are conducted in such a way as to force all children into mediocrity.

### Standard Amount and Quality of Work Maintained

In previous sections of this study, it is shown conclusively that the Kansas City elementary school system is saving practically one year of time for each elementary school pupil. It is possible to reduce the material in a course of study and to promote pupils on low standards and thus gain time at the *expense* of the *amount* and *quality* of school work. In Kansas City in the last few years certain reductions in the course of study have been made. In accordance with the suggestions of the Committee of the National Education Association on Economy of Time in Education. These eliminations have been made chiefly in formal grammar and arithmetic. However, on the other hand, the amount of work in reading, geography, history, the social sciences, music, drawing, manual training, household arts, health and hygiene, and miscellaneous activities has been greatly increased. Also, many changes in emphasis in the various subjects have been made. It is very fortunate that standardized tests of intelligence and school achievement have been so far developed that it is possible to measure with reasonable accuracy the intelligence of school children in the different grades and also their achievement in the

various school subjects. By means of these tests and by means of the ability of pupils to do advanced work in high school, college, or university, we are able to determine whether or not the elementary school work has been well done.

*First—How do the seventh grade pupils of Kansas City score on standardized tests?*—The writer of this paper has for ten years been engaged in educational research in connection with the Kansas City Schools. During this period hundreds of thousands of achievement and intelligence tests have been given to the pupils of Kansas City. A special effort has been made to secure from other cities the results on the various standardized tests. Very careful comparison of these results has been made with the results obtained by giving the same standardized tests to the pupils of Kansas City. In making these comparisons, the seventh-grade pupils of Kansas City are always compared with the eighth-grade pupils of other cities and the sixth-grade pupils with the seventh-grade pupils of other cities. The fifth-grade pupils are expected to reach a point located a little above the mid-way point between the fifth and the sixth grade scores in other systems; the fourth-grade pupils are expected to make scores about mid-way between the fourth and fifth grade scores in other systems; the third-grade pupils somewhat below the mid-point between the third and the fourth grade scores in other systems.

In May, 1923, the Courtis Research Tests in Arithmetic, Series B, were given to all the pupils of Kansas City in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. In order that you may see the character of these results, we are reporting the scores made by the 7A pupils, that is the class which was to graduate in early June, and the scores made by the 4A pupils. Time does not permit giving other scores. The results are as follows:

#### REPORT ON COURTIS RESEARCH TESTS IN ARITHMETIC, SERIES B

| Addition:                | Kansas City<br>scores-4A | Courtis<br>standards-5A | Kansas City<br>scores-7A | Courtis<br>standards-8A |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Attempts .....           | 9.8                      | 8.0                     | 15.0                     | 12.0                    |
| Rights .....             | 7.4                      | 8.0                     | 12.8                     | 12.0                    |
| Per cent in accuracy.... | 75.9                     | 100.00                  | 85.3                     | 100.00                  |
| Subtraction:             |                          |                         |                          |                         |
| Attempts .....           | 10.2                     | 9.0                     | 15.7                     | 13.0                    |
| Rights .....             | 8.4                      | 9.0                     | 13.8                     | 13.0                    |
| Per cent in accuracy.... | 82.6                     | 100.0                   | 88.1                     | 100.0                   |
| Multiplication:          |                          |                         |                          |                         |
| Attempts .....           | 8.6                      | 8.0                     | 13.7                     | 11.0                    |
| Rights .....             | 6.6                      | 8.0                     | 11.4                     | 11.0                    |
| Per cent in accuracy.... | 76.7                     | 100.0                   | 82.9                     | 100.0                   |
| Division:                |                          |                         |                          |                         |
| Attempts .....           | 8.7                      | 6.0                     | 13.9                     | 11.0                    |
| Rights .....             | 7.8                      | 6.0                     | 13.9                     | 11.0                    |
| Per cent in accuracy.... | 89.1                     | 100.0                   | 100.0                    | 100.0                   |

An examination of this table shows that our 7A classes score above the Courtis Standards in all the operations in both Attempts and Rights. The pupils do not reach the Courtis Standards of 100 per cent in accuracy. Neither does any other system do so. We do reach the 100 per cent in accu-

racy in division. This standard is reached not only in the seventh grade but also in the fifth and sixth grades in division.

It is not to be expected that the fourth-grade pupils in a seven-year system would be equal to the fifth-grade pupils in an eighth-grade system. Only about one half of a grade would be gained at that time. However, in the fundamental operations in arithmetic, you will note that the 4A pupils of Kansas City have reached the Curtis 5A standards in speed or rate and, in division they are far above the 5A standards in both Attempts and Rights and have an accuracy of 99.1 per cent. The number of Rights in addition, subtraction, and multiplication, while averaging one half of an example below Curtis standards for fifth-grade, are more than one example higher than his standard for fourth grade, and also far above the scores made in other cities by 5A classes. In fact, we challenge the cities of 100,000 or more in America to show by means of standardized tests better work in the fundamental operations in arithmetic than is done in Kansas City, it being understood in this challenge that the tests will be given to all of the children in the four upper grades. The scores given above are the medians obtained by giving the test to all the children in all the schools in Kansas City.

In all the formal tool subjects as handwriting, spelling, reading, mechanical operations in arithmetic, including decimal and common fractions, the results in Kansas City not only compare favorably with the scores made in other cities, but they are always among the best reported, being in nearly every instance among the upper quartile.

We have made many comparisons of the results in Kansas City on thought problems in arithmetic, on geography tests and history tests with the scores made in other cities. We find on these subjects that the Kansas City scores are generally equal to or slightly above the average scores of other cities on the same test. These high scores are secured although the pupils in the Kansas City Schools are one half to one year younger than the pupils with whom they are compared.

*Second—The standard quantity and quality of the work in the elementary grades in Kansas City is shown by the records of the graduates of the elementary schools—*The pupils who graduated from these schools enter the high school and take the course in Kansas City or in any other city and do entirely satisfactory work. The high-school course in Kansas City is practically the same as the standard high-school course in other cities.

As further evidence of the splendid character of the work in the elementary schools in Kansas City, we submit the fact that our students after completing four years of high-school work, enter colleges and universities and do entirely satisfactory work. A large number of our students go to the University of Kansas and to the University of Missouri. However, many of them enter Eastern colleges and universities. The reports from these colleges and universities are gratifying indeed. We submit the following report from the University of Kansas, under date of February 16, 1924:

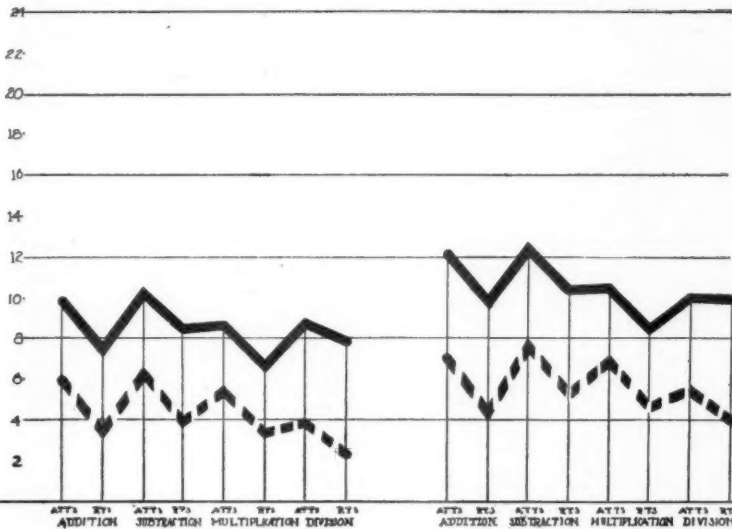
Our system of grading is "A," "B," "C," "D," "I" (incomplete), and "F" (failure). We have weighed these grades in the study as follows: A, 5; B, 4; C, 3; D, 2; I, 1; and F, 0.

## KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

COMPARISON of 1915 and 1923 SCORES on  
COURTIS RESEARCH ARITHMETIC TESTS

4th GRADE

5th GRADE



6th GRADE

7th GRADE

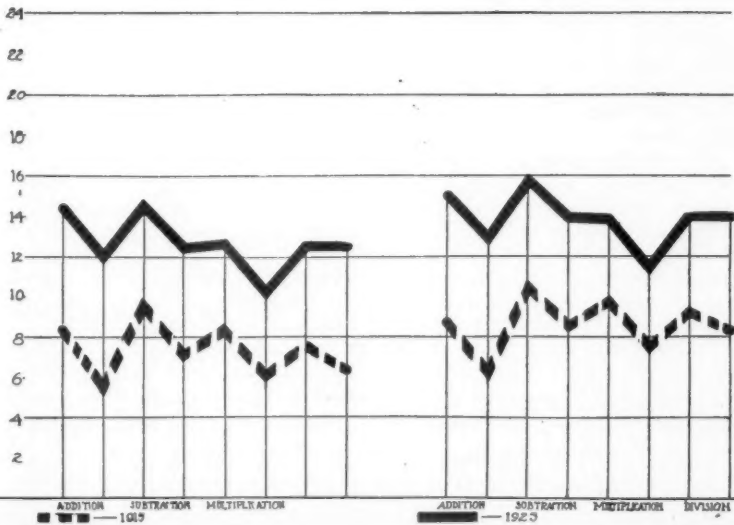


FIG. 2

Under this weighing, we find the general University average (all schools) to be 3.020, just a shade better than "C."

The average rating of the more than eighty Kansas City, Missouri, high-school graduates now in the University, who were here last year, thus affording an opportunity to compare their records, is 3.235.

The average rating of the twenty-five and more Junior College students, now enrolled for their second year here, is 3.524.

We have a similar report from the University of Illinois. The system of rating in the two universities is practically the same. The average of the Kansas City high-school graduates in the University of Illinois under the same rating as used above was 3.23; also the average of the Junior College graduates in the University of Illinois was 3.20. This shows that our students are maintaining superior standing in these universities.

In general, the reports from the universities are that the Kansas City high-school graduates rank above the average. More than one half of the high-school graduates who continue their education now enter our own Junior College at Kansas City. After two years of work in this institution which parallels the freshmen and sophomore years in the universities, these students, many of them, continue their work in other colleges and universities. In fact of the 601 students who have graduated from Junior College in the last eight years, 447—that is 74 per cent of the total number—continued their education beyond the Junior College course. Of the 601 graduates, 261 have been graduated during the past two years and have not completed their college work. Honors won as indicated below are by students of the preceding classes, totalling 340:

|                                                            |      |
|------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| Number Phi Beta Kappa                                      |      |
| University of Missouri .....                               | 6    |
| University of Kansas .....                                 | 10   |
| University of Illinois .....                               | 5    |
| University of Michigan .....                               | 2    |
| University of Wisconsin .....                              | 1    |
|                                                            | — 24 |
| Number of Tau Beta Pi                                      |      |
| University of Illinois .....                               | 5    |
| University of Missouri .....                               | 1    |
|                                                            | — 6  |
| Other Honorary Fraternities .....                          | 11   |
| Fellowship at California University .....                  | 1    |
| Fellowship at Illinois University .....                    | 1    |
| Scholarship for a year European study .....                | 1    |
| Scholarship at Massachusetts Institute of Technology ..... | 1    |
|                                                            | —    |
| Grand Total .....                                          | 45   |

To summarize these facts, we have shown you that the pupils who have taken the seven-year course at Kansas City in a median time of 6.95 years and an average time of 7.47 years make the following records: (1) Rank in the upper quartile of the large cities of the United States on school achievement tests in the formal subjects. (2) Rank in the upper one half of the large cities of the United States in school achievement tests on the content subjects. (3) That the graduates of the elementary schools at Kansas

City do average or superior high-school work in any standard high-school which they enter. (4) That the graduates of the Kansas City high schools, after seven years in the elementary schools and four years in high school, enter standard colleges and universities and do work above the average of the students in those institutions. (5) That graduates of the Kansas City high schools who enter the Kansas City Junior College and complete two additional years work enter the junior year of a standard college and university and do superior work. Thirteen per cent of the total number entering win high honors on scholarships.

### **Why has not the Seven-Year System been Universally Adopted?**

From the arguments thus far presented, it is evident that the causes for the seven-year elementary school system have been fully made. The experiment at Kansas City, conducted for the past fifty-six years, has been successful. Yet, comparatively few cities are adopting the seven-year course. The following are some of the reasons:

Kansas City and other cities having a seven-year system have lacked accurate statistical data. Dr. Greenwood, who supervised the schools of Kansas City for forty years, made many studies of the seven-year system and made reports from time to time as to the length of time required to complete the course. However, few city systems were at that time using cumulative record cards. The reports depended for data too much upon memory of pupils and teachers and a system of incomplete and imperfect records. For that reason, there was a tendency to doubt the accuracy of these statistics. However, our latest and most accurate statistical study, that of the class of 1923, assures us of the correctness of the general conclusions from the studies of Dr. Greenwood and also from our own earlier questionnaire studies.

Prior to 1913, in Missouri, children could not be admitted to school under six years of age. Parents who desired their children to have a kindergarten course must place their six-year-old children in kindergarten. Hence, those children would not reach the first grade until they were seven years old or more. Some cities admitted children to kindergarten at four years and to the first grade at five and one half years. In such cities the average for the first-grade group is about six years. These cities started the children in the first grade fully one year younger than the children started in first grade in Kansas City. As a result these children completed eight grades and showed about the same average age on graduation from the elementary schools as the children in Kansas City who completed seven grades because the children in Kansas City started at an older age. For example, when Dr. Greenwood made his report to the National Education Association in 1903 on the seven-year system, the median age of the children entering the first grade in Kansas City in the fall of 1902 was 7 years 8 months. For 1913 the median age of the children entering the first grade had fallen to 7 years 4 months. In 1913, the Legislature passed a law permitting children to enter the kindergarten at 5 years. This has led to a gradual reduction of the entrance age of the children in the first grade. In the fall of 1923, the median age of the entering first grade class was 6 years 6 months. No child is admitted to first grade unless he is 6 years old, chronologically, with this exception—that children who are 5 years 10 months old, chronologically, if a mental test shows them to have a mental age of six years, may enter the first grade. Comparatively few request the test so that the majority of pupils entering first grade are over six years of age. At this point, I wish to call your attention to the fact that the class of 1923 graduated at a median age of thirteen years eleven months. The median age of the 1B class, entering in 1916 was 6 years 9 months. The class graduating with a median age of 13 years 11 months would enter high school in September, 1923, with a median age of 14 years 2 months. The difference between

6 years 9 months and 14 years 2 months is 7 years 5 months. That is, computation by age-grade tables would show that the time required to complete the elementary school course in Kansas City was 7 years 5 months or 7.42 years. While this estimate is very nearly the same as the result secured by checking cumulative cards, it is untrustworthy because less than one half of the class that graduated in 1923 were in the 1B class of 1916. You will recall that we cast out 1401 of these because they entered the Kansas City Schools more than two years later than 1916. Quite a number of the slow and irregular pupils who entered in the class of 1916 have dropped to a lower class and their places have been taken by pupils who entered in 1913, 1914, and 1915.

As referred to above, in Kansas City no provision is made for graduation from the high school at mid-year. Graduation from the elementary schools is permitted at mid-year and even recommended. However, the majority of schools seem to avoid mid-year graduations. This has a tendency to retard unnecessarily the pupils passing through the grades and to increase the age of the elementary school pupils at graduation.

These three facts have operated to cause systems having eight elementary grades to feel that their work was as satisfactory as the seven-year system. Our experience in Kansas City and our study of the work of other systems has convinced us fully that the normal children who enter the first grade at the age of six years and attend school regularly will easily and satisfactorily complete a standard elementary school course in seven years. Thus a saving of one year is made for each child. In the beginning of this paper, we referred to the fact that the European boy reaches his college and professional work two years earlier than the American boy. The seven-year system provides for the saving of one of these years. We would like to remind you of the suggestions which have been made by Dr. Charles H. Judd, of the School of Education, University of Chicago, and others that an additional year may be saved. As grades three to eight have been compressed into five grades with entirely satisfactory results so grades nine to fourteen may be compressed into five grades. That is, the four-year standard high school and two years of junior college can be organized so as to be completed in five years. This will be done largely by eliminating certain useless material and avoiding duplications and overlapping in the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. When the seven-year elementary system has been universally adopted, and the four years of high school and two years of junior college have been condensed into five years, then the American boy will be able to reach the senior college or third year of the standard college in twelve years after leaving the kindergarten. This will enable him to complete his college course or professional course at the age of twenty-four or twenty-five years.

### Advantages of the Seven-Year System

*First—A greater number of pupils continue in school* (a) A greater percentage of pupils complete the elementary school course. Since in a seven-year system pupils who enter between six and seven years of age can complete the elementary school course before the age of fourteen, a higher percentage can be held until graduation from the elementary school. In Kansas City for the last few years 80 per cent of all the pupils who enter have continued in school to graduation. This count is not scientifically accurate but is an

estimate. The estimate is made by assuming that the number of children between the ages of eight and nine, nine and ten, ten and eleven, etc., are practically the same. Find the total number of children enrolled in the schools eight years old on September 1 of any year and less than nine years old. Assume that this is the number of children at each age. For example, in Kansas City, last year we graduated at the mid-year graduation and June graduation 4234 pupils. The total number of children enrolled in school in 1922-23 who were in September, 1922, eight years old and less than nine years was 5277. 4234 is 80.2 per cent of 5277. In this method of count, we are assuming that 5277 pupils represents the maximum possibility of the graduating class for the year 1923 and that we are actually graduating 80.2 per cent of the maximum possibility. We believe very few eight-grade systems can show so large a percentage of graduation from the elementary school. Fifty to sixty is the most frequent per cent in other cities.

(b) On actual count, we find that 90 per cent of the 1923 graduating class of the public elementary schools entered either the public high schools, private high schools, business colleges, or trade schools and are continuing their education beyond the elementary school course.

(c) Assuming again 5277 as the maximum possibilities of graduation from high school, including the trade schools, for the year 1923, our high schools did actually graduate 1605 pupils. That is, our high schools including the trade schools are graduating 30.4 per cent of the children who actually enter the schools and become potential graduates.

(d) Fifty-seven per cent of the pupils graduated from high school enter college. This percentage was determined by actual count on the graduates of the high schools for the last three years. Of this number about one half entered the Junior College of Kansas City.

(e) Seventy-four per cent of those who completed the two-year junior college course continue their work in other colleges or universities.

From the above figures, it is seen that Kansas City graduates about 50 per cent more of its pupils from the elementary school course than the average of the country and graduates from high school almost twice as large a per cent as the average of the country and sends almost twice as large a per cent into college. For years the school administration has believed that an important factor in this high persistence in school has been the seven-year elementary school system as it gives the children an opportunity to get into high school a year earlier, into college a year earlier, and into his life work a year earlier. It tempts the pupil to remain longer in school. The child who is able to enter high school before he is fourteen has multiplied many times his chances of completing a high-school course. When the parent sees that his child can graduate from high school before he is eighteen, from college before he is twenty-two, from his professional school before he is twenty-five, he is inclined to encourage his child to continue his school work into the higher educational institutions.

*Second—The seven-year system raises the educational level of the average pupil one year—*That is, the pupil, at a given age beyond fourteen has a year more of schooling than he would have in an eight-grade system.

*Third—The seven-year system gradually raises the educational level of the whole community a year or more—*With a seven-grade system, instead of the American Nation remaining a sixth-grade Nation, it would rapidly forge its way up to a ninth- or tenth-grade Nation. In truth, the citizenship in Kansas City which is being educated in its public schools today are entering life on the tenth grade level. In other words, one half or more of the children are continuing their education through the tenth grade, whereas in the majority of the large cities, fully one half are closing their educations at the end of the eighth grade. A seven-year system has raised the educational level of Kansas City not one grade only but at least two grades.

*Fourth—The seven-grade system reduces the cost of public education—*In Kansas City it costs about \$83 per pupil per year to conduct the elementary schools. Since we have assumed that there are 5277 children at each age, the saving of one year in the elementary school course for each of these groups at graduation means an annual saving of nearly one half million dollars in the conduct of the school system. Note that I say a saving of nearly one half million dollars in the conduct of the school system. This does not mean that schools are conducted at a half million dollars less cost to the taxpayer because these children are held in school, as we have shown above, for further educational training. Thus the one half million dollars is spent in giving the children more high-school training and more college training.

*Fifth—Children, who, on account of economic conditions, must enter the industrial world at the age of fourteen years or at the completion of their elementary school course, leave the public schools with a year more of training, with increased earning capacity, a more valuable product for society, industrially, and also with better training for citizenship.*

*Sixth—A seven-year elementary school course improves the well-being of society—*It gives us a citizenship with a more thorough education, a bigger vision, and higher ideals. In other words, it is the greatest real economy in education ever offered to the American people.

## THE RIGHT RELATION OF COÖPERATION BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERVISORS—A CASE STUDY

MARIA R. PORCHER

*Principal, Bancroft School, Minneapolis, Minnesota*

THE MINNEAPOLIS principal is recognized by the superintendent, assistant superintendents, and heads of departments as the head of his school. They realize that he is the only one who has the perspective of the whole school program and the intimate knowledge of conditions in his school; therefore he is held responsible for "coördinating all the instructional activities of the school."

In order that the principal may make this responsibility a fact and not a mere theory, he has been relieved of the routine business pertaining to his office and has been given time to attend to his main duty, that of supervision.

One of the important measures contributing to this is the giving to every principal efficient clerical help in proportion to the school enrolment. These clerks are under the direct supervision of a chief clerk and receive their training by acting as assistant clerks in the large buildings.

Another important measure is the sending from the central office to every person connected with the schools weekly bulletins containing notices and general information. This does away with the necessity of using building meetings for discussion of administrative matters.

To further protect the principal's time, a rule has been made that no agent or solicitor has the right to any interview with a principal unless he presents a certified permission from the superintendent.

At the solicitation of the principals themselves, after they had made a careful study of the distribution of their time, a schedule of office hours was adopted this year. Parents are learning to confine their visits and telephone messages to the office hours, and principals exchange calls at that time, thus leaving the principals more time for uninterrupted supervision.

The problem of time for supervision having been satisfactorily adjusted, the *Principals' Forum*, the local organization of the Minneapolis principals, has devoted the past three years to the study of supervision. It was through the agency of one of its committees that several plans were initiated which have helped to bring about the right relation between supervisor and principal.

At the invitation of the superintendent, the professional committee met with the superintendent, assistant superintendents, and supervisors, to outline a plan for increasing the efficiency of the work of the supervisors of special subjects.

They based their recommendations upon the assumption that "both principals and supervisors feel that the helping of teachers is a mutual undertaking to which each must make his contribution in harmonious coöperation with the other."

The first change suggested was in the time of holding teachers' meetings. The plan which had been followed was having meetings scattered through the first six or eight weeks of each term after school on such days as were available. There were two objections to this. In the first place, after a day's work, the teachers were too tired to get the full benefit of the instructions. In the second place, the teachers in the last group to be called had covered two months' work before receiving any assistance from the supervisors. To remedy this condition, the professional committee suggested that meetings of supervisors with teachers be held at the beginning of the terms in September and January and that all new work and outlines for the term be given at those times.

Now, during the first week of September, schools are in session in the mornings only, the afternoons being left free for meetings with supervisors and principals. At the beginning of the second term in January, meetings are held during the first two weeks, classes being dismissed an hour earlier. The teachers are unanimous in their approval of this plan which makes it possible for them to receive the help needed at the very beginning of the term before they undertake the work itself.

A second valuable suggestion made by the committee at this conference and adopted was the need of a printed schedule of supervisors' visits to be sent to the schools a month in advance. Supervisors had been in the habit of coming unannounced to buildings, and it not infrequently happened that two or more selected the same day to visit a certain school. Sometimes, in the midst of a testing program or at the beginning of an assembly, word would come that a supervisor was in the building. This meant the hasty rearrangement of teachers' and principals' programs, with no time for planning to get the maximum amount of help for all concerned.

The Minneapolis supervisors are expert teachers. Instead of spending the greater part of their time observing the teaching of others, they present the lessons themselves and discover through the reaction of the pupils the effectiveness of the methods and technique used. For this reason, it is imperative that the schedule be so planned that the principal and teachers be afforded opportunity to observe as many of the lessons as possible.

As the principal is held responsible for the results in the special subjects, it is essential that he should receive all the help possible from the visit and so he holds a conference with the supervisor on the work observed. Likewise, the supervisor, realizing that the success of her subject depends upon intelligent supervision by the principal, is eager to receive constructive criticisms and suggestions from him.

It was pointed out that a published schedule of visits would enable the principal and teachers to plan their day so as to get the most out of the visit, prevent conflicts between supervisors' visits, and facilitate a fair distribution of time.

When this plan was proposed the supervisors declared it ideal, but not practicable. However, it was tried, and now both supervisors and principals agree that no one thing has contributed more toward the effective supervision of special subjects than this definite schedule for supervisors' visits.

Each supervisor first makes out her own itinerary of visits to buildings. These itineraries are assembled by the chairman of the group who makes adjustments necessary to prevent having more than one supervisor in a building on the same day. Periods marked optional are allowed on the schedule to provide time for office work, such as the making of outlines, looking over work, and giving assistance where especially needed.

When a supervisor visits a school, she reports first to the principal's office, where she finds a tentative program for the day mapped out. The principal has previously consulted with his teachers and knows where help is most needed and just what specific help is most wanted.

Now that the teacher knows that the supervisor is coming to her room, there is no unusual excitement. Under this new system, the supervisor is welcome for the teacher has had time to think over the difficulties that have arisen since the last visit and to formulate questions and ask for suggestions. She has her work ready for inspection and can give her undivided attention to all criticisms. If she needs additional help, she has planned her program so that she can observe lessons that are given in other rooms. Teachers have often been heard to exclaim, "I am so glad that Miss —— is coming next

week. I am just ready to take up the divided beat and want to see how she will present the lesson," or "Miss —— had a very fine writing lesson in my room. She got so much more out of my children than I have ever been able to get that I am inspired to work harder." These remarks show that between teacher and supervisor there is a relationship marked by cordiality, helpfulness, and mutual confidence.

A supervisor new to the Minneapolis system has expressed herself strongly in favor of this plan because, when she visits a school, she finds that careful preparations have been made for her work and that the principal is ready to accompany her instead of being told, "Just make yourself at home," and then left to work alone.

A discussion of supervision in the Minneapolis Schools would be incomplete without mention of two outstanding features in the plan which contribute greatly toward the coördination of the work of principals and supervisors. One of these is the provision that is made for the supervision of new teachers. There are two supervisors of academic work, one for the primary and one for the intermediate grades. The special function of these supervisors is to acquaint the new teachers with Minneapolis standards as early as possible in order that the efficiency of the schools may not be lowered. They are free to give definite constructive help at the beginning of the year and the term when the time of assistant superintendents and principals must be occupied with organization problems. They hold Saturday morning classes in methods, visit the teachers in their rooms, give model lessons, and help the teachers to adjust themselves to new conditions.

All new teachers are considered on probation for a period of three years. During the first year principal and supervisor share the responsibility of fitting the new teacher into the system.

The other feature, even more important than the one just explained, is the work of the assistant superintendent of elementary instruction. She has, in addition to her many other duties, assumed the responsibility of helping the supervisors secure "economy of effort and unity of purpose" in their work so that the special subjects contribute toward the "well rounded and well balanced education" of the child. She holds conferences with the supervisors. Their outlines are submitted to her for criticism before they are printed for distribution to the teachers. This prevents conflicts between the objectives of the special subjects and those of the academic and assures proper balance by not allowing undue emphasis to be given to any one subject.

The supervisors work in close harmony with one another. Last spring the assistant superintendent and supervisors of art and penmanship held a series of meetings with the primary teachers to discuss the subject of seat work. An exhibit of different types of seat work demonstrated how the work in drawing and writing was being closely correlated with that of silent reading and arithmetic.

When important changes are to be made in the courses of study, the supervisors are given an opportunity to present them to the principals before meetings are held with the teachers.

It is the policy of the assistant superintendent to appoint committees of principals to study all proposed changes in the courses of study in the academic subjects and to assist in the making of all new courses.

This study has been confined almost entirely to the relation between the principal and supervisors of special subjects as there are no supervisors of academic work in Minneapolis, except those working with new teachers. The assistant superintendents exercise a general supervision in this field. "Unity which promotes growth," and not uniformity, is the aim of the administration. At the principals' meetings the latest outstanding educational methods are presented for study. It is left to each principal to investigate and evaluate these and decide for himself how and when to introduce them into his school.

Through the published schedule of supervisors' visits, the plan of special supervision of new teachers, the expert teaching by supervisors of special subjects resulting in democracy in supervision, and the clearing-house methods of the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary instruction, have come "unification and coördination of the efforts of every individual engaged in the different processes within the big complex."

### THE RIGHT RELATIONSHIP OF COÖPERATION BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISORS

GEORGE BIRKHAM

*District Principal, Detroit, Michigan*

**I**T IS QUITE generally agreed in educational circles that the elementary school principal has three main functions—namely, that of an administrator, of a community leader, and of a supervisor.

The first of these implies primarily on the part of the principal's good judgment and a general professional background; the second certain social qualities and a general background; while the third should imply not only the qualifications found in an administrator and a community leader but in addition most careful specific training.

This emphasis upon training in relationship to the third function of the principal seems the more necessary in that supervision clearly stands out as the most complicated and professional aspect of his work. Dealing as it does directly with the emotions and mental processes of pupil and teacher on the one hand and course of study material and social demands on the other, it is evident that not even splendid individual natural ability is of much avail unless fortified by a type of training which is at least as thorough-going and specific as that found necessary in other fields of professional endeavor.

In spite, however, of the increasing realization during the last few years of the importance of the supervisory work of the principal, it will be found that educational institutions generally have done comparatively little to train men and women in a specific way for this important work. Even the literature upon the subject is of the most meager sort and, with a few notable exceptions, of such a general character that one may well classify it as being, on the whole, vague and unsatisfactory.

True, some advances can be noted here and there but these have usually been made through the initiative of some individual principal. Such instances of progress, however, have invariably been of a local character, and have not been such as to affect current practices generally.

It seems evident that for the purposes of successful supervision by the principal two things are necessary: (1) That the recitation and study periods be scientifically analyzed and certain objective standards for judging the quality of instruction be set up; and (2) that the principal be trained in the recognition and judgment of these standards and in the application of remedial measures, where necessary.

To illustrate, there has gathered together in this room today a group that probably in both professional training and ability represents a rather high cross-section of the elementary principals of the United States. It would seem that at least in our appraisal of ordinary classroom situations, there should be something like a common judgment among us. Since we enter the classroom as professional experts for the purpose of improving instruction, it would not be at all unreasonable on the part of the teacher to expect that we agree pretty well among ourselves as to just when a type of instruction is right and when it is wrong.

The teacher knows for instance that when she is seriously sick, it bodes ill for her if one physician diagnoses her ailment as a case of gout, another thinks it is a gastric disturbance, while a third one called into consultation pronounces it a case of pulmonary affection. In similar fashion her confidence is shaken in the schoolroom unless she finds among supervisory experts something that resembles a consistent method of diagnosis.

Let me now transport you in imagination this morning to an actual classroom situation. Let us say it is a recitation in spelling in the second grade and let me there ask you to exercise your function as supervisors. The class has been equipped with the necessary material for working and I ask you, "How shall this class begin operations?" "What is the first thing it shall do?"

From actual experimental work with other principals, I know that even in such a simple procedure as this, we would find nothing like unanimity among ourselves but rather all shades of personal opinions and ideas. These would range from that of the principal on the one hand who has no opinion whatever on the subject to that of the principal who holds that it makes no particular difference how the work starts, that this perhaps ought to be left to the originality of the teacher.

However, I happen to know that if we as a group could counsel together today and really begin to think this matter through and to examine it in the light of our common experience and of the best educational thought bearing upon the subject and then to test our conclusions out in the classroom under varying conditions, we would be able to determine just what this procedure should be. In fact it has been determined that there is really one method of beginning a spelling recitation, which in the light of our present pedagogical knowledge is superior to all others and which furthermore is the only one, that we as educators can completely defend.

It is a type of supervisory work similar in method to this that the elementary principals and supervisors in Detroit have together been attempting to work out during the last few years, the work being stimulated by two main agencies: (1) The rapid growth of the city and (2) the organization of district principals.

Formerly the work of the principal in relation to the instruction given in his building was, for the most part, of rather a nominal sort. A multitude of other matters of a routine, or administrative, nature continually tended to crowd out much of whatever good intentions might exist, and visits of a purely supervisory character were as a rule all too rare. Furthermore, if the principal were at all inclined to be conscientious and introspective, he had to acknowledge to himself that his professional training, irrespective of the university from which he had graduated or the degree he could legally write after his name, hardly qualified him to supervise the work, as he might well imagine that it should be supervised. Consequently on his visits he was forced to build up his constructive criticisms almost entirely from his own stock of actual experiences in classrooms and to match his personal opinion against that of the teacher, the one being frequently as good or as bad as the other.

And so it happened, as it has happened in other cities, that the supervisory visits of the principal tended to partake largely of the nature of a tour of inspection in which the general condition of things were noted, suggestions of a general nature were offered, and occasionally a device or method observed elsewhere was passed along, while the actual improvement of instruction was by mutual consent turned over in large part to the supervisors of the various subjects.

With the recent phenomenal growth of the city, however, it became increasingly evident that this condition of affairs could not continue to endure. New school buildings began to spring up everywhere, course of study material and methods of a complicated and scientific nature began to appear, the teaching force increased by leaps and bounds, and with the tremendous shifting of teachers within the ranks, it became gradually an impossibility for the supervisor to make the rounds and do anything but a most superficial piece of work. And so the idea began to gradually take shape that the time had come when each principal must literally be made responsible for all instruction within his building. With this in mind the administration proceeded to formulate plans to develop a set of objective standards in each subject whereby the quality of instruction might be judged and through the medium of the district principals to train the elementary principals of the city in the use of these standards.

The organization of district principals in Detroit, it might be explained here, embodies an idea unique in education. Under this plan the elementary schools of the city are divided into districts and each district for both supervisory and administrative purposes is placed in charge of a principal, who is at the same time principal of one of the buildings within the district. Full responsibility for his district is intrusted to him, his power within his own district being defined as "that of an assistant superintendent."

The initiative in the development of the technique of supervision in each case has been taken by the supervisor. She assembles those definite factors which seem to her to make for the success or failure of a recitation in her particular subject. She attempts at all times to avoid vague intangible terms and presents only those items which are definite and observable.

She avoids the mere listing of pet pedagogical stock phrases, phrases which we pedagogues use glibly and often all too hazily, such as apperception, project, correlation, self-control, etc., and directs attention to certain definite observable activities, whereby the fundamental things in education may be revealed and evaluated. In penmanship for instance, she does not ask us to draw upon our imagination to search out and capture that most elusive character in the realm of pedagogy, "Self-appraisal," but she points out certain eye movements, which tell us a volume concerning this important factor in education.

After the supervisor has completed her "Items for Observation," she presents the material to the sixteen district principals, who after careful study and experimentation in their own building, suggest such changes, eliminations, or additions as seem advisable. The items are then revised to meet the criticisms offered and a series of observation lessons are planned at which the entire group of district principals under the supervisor and the head of the department of supervision apply the items to actual classroom situations. Following each lesson a meeting is immediately held in which the various points are considered, and an attempt is made to harmonize the judgments of the various members of the group relative to the evaluation of each item in the lesson.

This harmonizing of judgments has invariably been secured only through the most persistent effort. Experience in this type of training has shown us that the most difficult thing to accomplish is to train people to see things as they are. A check up on the judgments of the group upon almost any definite item before the course in training has been given will show a surprising range of opinions, this range frequently extending from "excellent" to "poor" with most of the intermediate shades of value represented. And yet how self-evident it is that, if education is to arrive, there must be a complete businesslike understanding, unbiased by personal opinion or personal prejudice, among supervisors and between supervisors and teachers as to just what constitutes merit in any type of instruction.

After the district principal has been trained by the supervisor in the technique of supervision, he in turn trains the principals of his district in the supervision of the particular piece of material on hand and later by cross-sectioning his district he makes certain that the principals have thoroughly trained their teachers.

The advantages in training the principal in the science of supervision and in centralizing supervisory responsibility in him are apparent. (1) He is the most permanent factor in any school system. Teachers come and go and shift from grade to grade but the principal remains as a principal and any educational acquisition made by him has an enduring value for the school. (2) Through daily contact with teachers and the teaching process, he is in a

LIBRARY  
MAY 13 1924

position to give assistance to the teachers in his building immediately and not weeks or even months after the need develops. (3) He can give to the teacher that is either new or weak in her work the constant attention and follow up which no supervisor can supply.

Nor does this arrangement as worked out in Detroit detract from the dignity of the position of supervisor. It rather enables her to use her time more economically and to better advantage. She remains the expert in her field with a knowledge and a grasp of her specialty that the principal cannot hope to have. Instead, however, of making the rounds from building to building and from teacher to teacher and instead of spending her time in rooms where she is not needed, she is now called in as the specialist to work only in that place or places where problems have arisen which are beyond the technical knowledge of the principal. By this saving of her time she is given the opportunity to apply herself to the larger phases of her work—namely, experimental research in methods and course of study material.

The net accomplishment to date of this coöperative piece of supervisory work in Detroit has been the development of "Items for Observation" in handwriting, spelling, reading, health, library boys' construction work, sewing, and composition; the training of all the principals of the city in the supervision of handwriting and of spelling in the first and second grades; and the partial training of the district principals in all the others. The work remaining to be done is of course stupendous, but the progress made thus far gives assurance of ultimate success.

In conclusion, we may say that as the possibilities involved in this type of work and in the administration of the modern platoon school are more and more apparent, it is evident that the future will see men and women of greater ability entering the ranks of principals in ever-increasing numbers, for the challenge to brains which the principalship is beginning to offer can scarcely be matched in any other field of endeavor. It seems certain that the time has about passed, in the elementary school at any rate, when the principal can be just anybody.

## THE FIGHT TO REDUCE SCHOOL PRIVILEGES

J. W. CRABTREE

*Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.*

MISS JONES in her address before the Department of Superintendence spoke on the subject: "Watchman tell us of the night." In this outstanding address, she cautioned teachers to be on their guard against nefarious political influences working secretly under cover of night to the injury of the schools.

A Congressman told me in Washington the other day, that he thought the fate of a certain bill would be determined after midnight that night. His prediction came true. The majority of Congressmen didn't know how it happened. People generally didn't know. Most good people are asleep at that hour of night. It is about time, however, that teachers remain awake for a few nights to see what is going on during the wee small hours, to handicap the work of the schools and to reduce school privileges.

The present economic and political situation seems to have oiled the machinery for the night run.

The message which I have decided upon for this occasion is the one which I prepared to give in Chicago as a radio message. I am not giving it over the radio because it is not entirely satisfactory. It contains a slight reflection on Dr. Pritchett's annual report.

I am, therefore, asking you to listen to a message which is a bit too personal for the general public, yet one which I hope will appeal to you as being important enough for consideration during the day, even though it cannot be broadcasted at night.

The real enemies of the public schools, and those who want reduced taxes at any price have again joined hands. In colonial days, there were many who opposed, violently, the expenditure of any public money for education, but as time went on their numbers gradually diminished. About the middle of the nineteenth century, the opposition had eased up on the question of support for the common schools, but became most bitter against the creation of State Departments of Education in the various States. Early in the twentieth century, the same opposition was directed against the adoption of compulsory education laws whose object was to guarantee to every child a minimum of education. This opposition also finally quieted down. Just as soon as we began to feel that our public school system was thoroughly established on a permanent basis, and hence that democratic institutions in this country were safeguarded for all future time, all at once, like a thunderbolt out of a clear sky, comes the ugliest opposition which has manifested itself in a quarter of a century. This time the fight is not only against the new step which is about to be taken to establish a National department of education, with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet, but it is more particularly directed against the adequate support of the schools.

These old-time enemies of the schools seem never to die off. They are always glad to weaken the schools by any method, and the few big business interests who have joined hands with them do not care where the cut is made, just so it is made. This is a powerful combination, and though small, it is one which might easily win out before the public is aware of what is going on. It has already won in a few of the preliminary skirmishes. One of the chief contributing factors in this contest is the influence of the last annual report of the Carnegie Foundation. The report expressed amazement at the expansion of the public school program. It sounds alarm over the increased high-school enrolment. It contends that the country cannot afford to give all children an education at present per capita costs. This report was prepared by the president of the Foundation, Dr. Henry C. Pritchett, who fears that the mounting costs of education will soon bankrupt the States.

Now, who is this Dr. Pritchett who aspires to shape public school policies? Let "Who's Who in America" give the answer. You will find nothing in this record prepared by himself, to show that he has ever had any connection with the public schools as pupil, teacher, or administrator. All of his connections as shown in "Who's Who" have been with private agencies. He has never exhibited any interest in the enrichment of the American School program. His attitude towards the schools is most natural for one who looks at them through glasses colored by aristocratic ideals. I understand that he has the effrontery to put out a report for this year slightly milder in tone than that of last year, but equally obnoxious to the friends of the schools. The report will have influence. The laity does not know his life history in its relation to the public schools.

Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, whose life record is more or less similar to that of Dr. Pritchett, is also widely quoted to discredit the work of the public schools. In an address before the Ohio Bar Association, he made the following statement: "It would surprise a great many excellent persons to be told that the schools upon whose maintenance they are pouring out almost unlimited sums raised by public tax were doing all that they reasonably could to implant a spirit of lawlessness in those who come under their influence." "And yet," says Dr. Butler, "that is the sober truth."

This address was read into the Congressional Record by a Massachusetts Congressman, and it is now being mailed out to all parts of the country under his frank. The fact that Dr. Butler's statement is erroneous and the fact that he is not recognized as a spokesman for the public schools by those who represent the schools, will not prevent laymen from being influenced and misled by it. Whether this address is widely distributed for the purpose of injuring the public schools, or for the purpose of disseminating Dr. Butler's views against the prohibition amendment—also a feature of the address—it is certain, his holding the schools responsible for the conditions of lawlessness throughout the country, is receiving the attention of both the enemies and friends of public education, and whether Dr. Pritchett and Dr. Butler are actively promoting the organized effort to reduce school privileges or not, they have provided about the only material which the opposition can use effectively.

These opponents of the public school are good tacticians. They realize that it pays to kill off the captains, colonels, and generals. It is apparent that there is a well-defined movement, having as its objective to weaken the educational leadership in cities and States. Wherever exceptionally strong leaders have succeeded in obtaining increased support for the schools, they have found themselves under fire.

You are familiar with the unsuccessful attacks made on the leadership of the Denver schools last year. You know of the equally unsuccessful attack made on the leadership in Oakland, California, and on the educational leadership in the State of California. You know what happened in Pennsylvania. You know of the attacks made on other leaders, some of them successful and some unsuccessful. There is scarcely a constructive leader in the States or in the cities who does not feel the pressure which has every appearance of being of organized origin. Besides the tooth marks of organized effort in the attacks which have been made on educational leaders and on their policies, it stands to reason that men of affairs who desire to reduce school costs would readily see the advantage of crippling or getting rid of the superintendent so as to be unhampered in reducing teachers' salaries and in cutting out supervisors and members of the teaching staff.

All business men do not hold to the Pritchett-Butler view. Only a noisy few and the money-hearted belong to that group.

A leading business man recently made the statement before the United States Senate Committee on Education that the outlay for education should be greatly increased and pointed out that if as a merchant, interested in enterprises which sell over \$300,000,000 worth of goods annually, he could have the increased sales that result from education in a State, he would gladly pay the State's bill for increased educational opportunities. There are business men of this type in every community who will join in the defense of the schools, as they realize the need of their assistance.

The stock arguments for reducing school appropriations are easily answered. When attention is called to increased appropriations, simply ask whether there is not a corresponding reduction in the purchasing power of the dollar. Industry everywhere demands double price for a particular service or commodity. The same inexorable economic laws which make this necessary have also increased school costs.

It does cost to have good schools. It cost about \$1,500,000,000 last year. It will cost a good deal more than that amount annually to provide for every boy and girl in the land to have a well-qualified teacher for at least six months each year. But how small the amount when compared with other items. Only \$1,500,000,000 for education when \$2,111,000,000 is paid annually for tobacco alone. Only \$1,500,000,000 for education when \$1,800,000,000 is paid annually for candy, soft drinks and ice cream. Only \$1,500,000,000 for education when over \$3,000,000,000 is paid annually for joy riding, pleasure at resorts and races.

Ladies and gentlemen, the fight is on. It is up to every one who has faith in the public schools of this country to take part in it. The enemy is small in numbers but it has a loud voice. Shame on the men and women who would

take funds for paying the war debt out of the allowances for the education of the children of the land! Shame on the big tax payers who are so hungry for additional millions that they would deprive the children of school privileges and a fair chance in life! Unless the friends of the schools are aroused, the schools will receive a set-back and a loss of ground during the present year which will take a decade to recover. May I not put the question straight at you, and may you not in turn put it straight at your teachers and other friends of the schools—Will you do your part?

### A CHALLENGE TO THE PRINCIPALS

OLIVE M. JONES

*Principal, Public School No. 120, New York City*

**M**Y CHALLENGE is really plural. It is presented with an urgent hope that this Department of Principals will settle, not only discuss, but really settle some vexatious problems interfering with a right and happy fulfillment of the functions of principals.

Some of the studies made by our department concerning the status of the principal are very informing, and my own discoveries this year in traveling around the country have been even more informing to me, as to the respect and opportunity granted the principal. The widest variation exists and the result is harmful, not only to the principal, but to the teacher and to the proper organization of schools. There are three directions in which a clash is possible and frequently occurs: With the superintendent, with the director or supervisor, with the teacher. In the past six months, I have listened to scores of stories of such clashes. It is my belief that absolutely every one can be traced to the indefiniteness of the position of the principal.

I call the need to clarify this situation the first part of the challenge to the principal. It must be cleared up, and it is the duty of the principal to insist upon it. To bring about any clarification, however, the principal cannot work alone. Even a group of principals in any one place cannot clear it up alone. It is a matter for this department to handle, and I consider it a more important professional problem, organization problem, than the study of methods of teaching or of classification of pupils.

Let us examine into some of the conditions that exist, even at the cost of repetition of what some of you have already read in the Yearbook.

The word principal is a shortening of the phrase "principal-teacher," which indicates the way in which the office came into existence. The number of pupils, and consequently teachers, in a given school grew until it became necessary to have some to supervise the work somewhat, to care for records, and make reports to the committee, director, board of education, or other authority. Sometimes this principal-teacher was given a small additional sum, supposedly to compensate for the additional labor outside of school hours; sometimes he was allowed to employ a pupil-teacher or a minister or some other form of assistance to take charge of a class at certain periods while he attended to these other duties. In either case he was required to teach his own class. His supervisory duties consisted almost exclusively of discipline

problems and his additional duties were clerical. He had no power, except that of his own tact and personality, to secure gradation of studies, to organize the work of the school systematically, or to train teachers.

Such conditions might work fairly well when gradation was determined by the number of pages in a reader or an arithmetic and when the teacher's work consisted of hearing lessons previously assigned. But with the advent of a new point of view towards teaching, the scientific study of method, such conditions became impossible. No teacher can get results under the use of modern methods and have a class under the care of a monitor during any lesson period. Hence, every bit of the principal-teacher's extra duties must be done outside of school hours, and even that is an interference with his proper preparation for the next day's duties with his class.

As these difficulties developed and as schools grew in size, a new practice began and with it a wide variation in practice in different places. We have the title of principal applied to persons in charge of schools ranging in size from six classes to 150. We find the term supervising principal in use, meaning sometimes a person doing some teaching in one school and supervising as well a group of schools. In other places it means a person in charge of a group of schools each with its own principal or principal-teacher, a position which corresponds to what in still other places is called district superintendent. In New York, for instance, a retrograde step has recently been taken of withholding the title of principal from persons in charge of less than 25 classes, while in Rochester the title of principal is given to every one who is in charge of a school, no matter what the size, and the differentiation in salary and rank is made to appear in the school, not the principal, by calling them schools of the first to the fourth order.

These variations have resulted, could not but result, in injury and injustice. My personal belief is that in every system of schools, the schools should be ranked according to size and type and grade. Schools of the smallest size and fewest problems might be called a school of the first order, and so on, using a different number to designate the gradation of difficulty in administration of the school. But whatever the gradation in rank or salary, the title of the person held responsible for the conduct of that school should be principal and he should be the pedagogic and administrative head of that school, be it large or small. The term, supervising principal, is a misnomer. It implies that all principals are not supervisors, and that's what's made much of the trouble. If it means that he supervises principals, then he is a superintendent. Call him so—district, assistant, associate, or whatever other differentiation the needs of the system demand.

This is a frank statement of my personal judgment after a year of observation and study. My solution of the problem may not be right, but there is a problem, it is your problem particularly, and the challenge to solve it is clearly shown.

The second part of my plural challenge is really a consequence of the insufficient recognition of the principal's position and has already been spoken of as the clash which occurs with directors or supervisors. It is not so much clash, either, as it is usurpation of functions, which should be exercised by

## MY WISHES FOR YOU

WALT FILKIN

I'M WISHING that your cup of joy will overflow and more;  
I'm wishing that Good Luck will come and stand before your  
door;

I'd like to see Dame Honor smile and take you by the hand,  
And lead you to some lofty seat she has about the land.

I'd like to see Good Fortune come and on your shoulder lay  
Her hand and after greeting you, I'd like to hear her say,  
"You've been a worthy, loyal child, I have some work to do,"  
I'd have her crown you with success the moment you were through.

I'd like to see you round by round climb up Fame's ladder tall,  
And, too, I would that you'd be strong and never have a fall;  
The fact is, that my heart's so full of wishes kind and true,  
'Twould take about a hundred years to wish them all for you.

By courtesy of *The Journal Post*, Kansas City, Mo.

principals only, by directors after they are appointed, and the appointment of directors for subjects of study and matters of administration wherein no principal truly fitted for his work can possibly need outside aid. Dr. Corson said the director and supervisor are counsellors called in to advise on matters requiring expert knowledge, that all their communications with teachers should be subject to the principal's judgment, and that they should not be permitted to exercise any administrative functions. It is two years since Dr. Corson said that to us, but I cannot see that the situation is much improved.

The problem is peculiarly and distinctly ours. We are the aggrieved persons, as they say in law. Crying and complaining won't solve it, but concerted action will. Letters officially sent from this department to superintendents will make the difficulty clear to them. Articles in State and National school journals should explain the issues involved so that teachers will read and help with their protests. Copies of such letters and articles should go to persons who make school surveys, to prevent their increasing the difficulty by their recommendation of additional supervisors to remedy evils they find, instead of demanding reforms to be made by principals themselves after their attention is called to them in the survey.

Let us meet these two problems promptly and decisively. Once let these two difficulties be removed and the major causes of clashing between principal and teacher will have ceased to exist.

The third challenge is one which involves the whole question of leadership. I hardly know how to phrase it or how to explain my thought of it without seeming to be incisive and overpositive in my declaration of principle, faults of expression which have often brought me friendly chiding from my dear old friend, Dr. Winship. But, I am proud of this Department of

Elementary School Principals, and I want its influence to become nationally what some of our local associations of principals already are in their communities, leaders of teachers, a bulwark of support to a courageous and high-minded superintendent, and an expression in the community of the best thought of the teaching body. That means leadership. It means that the principal takes his rightful place as leader of the teachers in his school and holds it by their voluntary grant of leadership to him because he has earned their confidence in his truth and justice. It means that there must be those among us whom we recognize as the individuals through whom our group can voice its united hopes and aims.

The challenge to leadership is therefore two-fold. In one sense, no single principal can avoid it, although he can not claim it by virtue of his office, as some have tried to do at times, rousing antagonism among teachers rather than a willingness to follow his guidance. In the other sense, the selfishly ambitious principal always evades leadership. He does not want to be the individual voice by which his group expresses itself for fear he may lose favor with those on whom his hopes of further advancement must rest. In the one case, he must have the characteristic of impartial justice; and in the other, a self-forgetfulness, which may carry with it self-sacrifice. In both he must have a single view, a single aim, to do that which will be for the best interests, not of teachers, not of principals, but of the cause of American education.

I am possibly induced to voice this challenge to principals because I have recently sorrowfully watched a once trusted leader fall away from his high rank among us and endeavor to use his former influence among us to carry out the behests of his master, an outside boss. Browning's "Lost Leader" has been often quoted in that group of late and the whole story makes me urge this challenge of leadership upon you. I cannot view leadership as anything but the peculiar and specific duty of the principal. Teachers are looking for guidance in the personal and general difficulties of their profession as much as in their problems of instruction and discipline. Superintendents, consciously and unconsciously, rest upon their principals to exemplify and maintain the higher aims of education and of professional spirit. We must meet the challenge, whatever the cost.

My fourth challenge is the problem of tenure of office for the teacher. Undoubtedly to my mind, this is the fundamental one of the four great problems affecting teachers personally if high professional standards are to be achieved and maintained. Those four problems are training, salaries, pensions, and tenure. It is impossible for me to see how the first three can be adequately granted to, claimed, or demanded by teachers unless the question of tenure is settled. For this reason, I appointed a Committee of 100 in Tenure and I must not anticipate or prejudice Mr. Hunter's report by expressing my own views now. I send out the challenge of this question to you principals now because there are signs in the air that great forces are contemplating an attack upon tenure in those few places where teachers enjoy it and are rallying to defeat it in places where efforts are made to secure it. That can but presage an attack upon one or more of the other great

problems which must be satisfactorily adjusted before the highest hopes of our profession can be attained.

I shall just barely refer to publicity as my fifth challenge, for I wrote so much about it in the last bulletin of this department and have talked about it so much all over the country that I fear I may bore you by a repetition of what you have already read. But I have no intention of letting you forget that the challenge is there, publicity for the work of the schools, and that it is a problem shared about equally by superintendents and principals.

You may not take me seriously when I give you my sixth challenge. You may laugh if you want to, but I mean it in all seriousness, nevertheless. It is the demand that individually and collectively as principals we study and acquire and develop a strong sense of humor. I once wrote an article about humor, but I gave it to a friend to read and she said it was a *sermon* on humor. That discouraged me and I never published it, although I had put some of my best stories into it. But notwithstanding her failure to appreciate my sermon on humor, I am here again with the same point to make today.

I don't mean wit and I don't mean the ability to tell a story. The first is often too caustic and the second can be well done by people who have absolutely no sense of humor. I mean that very much more delicate and intangible quality which makes it possible to see the funny side in the midst of annoyance and even in defeat. It is the ability to laugh at ourselves. It is the check that holds us back from arrogance, from an overweening pride of position, from what is vulgarly known as "swelled head." It is the ability to see things in their ultimate proportions so that present successes cannot blind us to possible errors and defeats and so that present discouragements do not become final tragedies.

No rank in the whole profession needs this saving grace of humor quite so much as we do. Teachers are often saved from errors when they lack it, because they stand between us and the less merciful children, both of us ready to "take the conceit out of them." We principals become little monarchs in our small realms unless we have that saving grace of humor, or we become bitter through loss of merited recognition.

Among the things I cherish as souvenirs of this wonderful year of being President of the National Education Association are some selections and quotations which different people have sent me or which I have heard used at meetings. Among them is one I heard read at a North Dakota State Teachers meeting at Grand Forks. It voices the seventh and last challenge the cause of education is making to principals today, for among our teachers, every bit as much as among the children, are those who are like the Great-Heart of the poem. The challenge to us is to give them the right guidance, the right direction for the high ideals of their youth, and the noble ambitions of their later experience.

#### WHERE ARE YOU GOING, GREAT-HEART?

Where are you going, Great-Heart?  
With your eager face and your fiery grace?  
Where are you going, Great-Heart?

"To fight with all my might  
For Truth and Justice, God and Right,  
To grace all Life with His fair Light."  
Then God go with you, Great-Heart!

Where are you going, Great-Heart?  
"To end the rule of knavery;  
To break the yoke of slavery;  
To give the world delivery."  
Then God go with you, Great-Heart!

Where are you going, Great-Heart?  
"To lift Today above the Past;  
To make Tomorrow sure and fast;  
To nail God's colors to the mast."  
Then God go with you, Great-Heart!

## THE VALUE OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

DON C. ROGERS

*Special Secretary, Chicago Principals' Club, Chicago, Illinois*

IN COLONIAL days of America and long after, the head of a school was a schoolmaster, the term "master" coming from the Latin "Ludi Magister," or head of a Roman elementary school. At first he was simply a teacher, but by gradual evolution he became head or principal teacher, teaching principal (at the head of his assistants or monitors), and finally principal as we know him today—administrative and supervisory head of a school.

An historical sketch of the life and the work of the schoolmaster or principal is a highly interesting chapter in the development of our American school system. From Ezekiel Cheever, Adam Roelandson, and Nathan Hale, up through the struggles of a young country to a world power, the schoolmaster has pioneered—a willing worker, a self-denying citizen, and a teacher of ideals. Difficulties abounded in the early days, work was hard and varied, pay was meager, and it was frequently given "in kind," that is to say, in produce rather than in currency. The New England schoolmaster often had to supplement his income by such work as grave-digging and janitorial services at school and church. Adam Roelandson, first Dutch schoolmaster at New Amsterdam, is said to have taken in washings outside of school hours.

The difficulties in the way of these men can be read between the lines in the tax controversies of the day, by the aversion to co-education by the obstacles to non-sectarian teaching, in the expressions of such men as Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, who is said to have deplored that the time might ever come when there would be free schools for all the children of that colony, and in the wrathful exclamation of the Attorney to the Crown in England when asked to grant a charter to establish a college (William and Mary) in Colonial Virginia for the purpose of saving souls. His response was, "Damn their souls! Make tobacco!"

Through trials and discouragements, these pioneer educators persisted. The patriot Nathan Hale, confronted with the social objections of the day

to permitting boys and girls to associate together in the schoolroom, used to hold special classes at four o'clock in the morning for the little girls in order that they might not be denied an education. Ezekiel Cheever, the "dean" of American educators, pupil at St. Paul's cathedral school, London, classmate of John Milton, and teacher for seventy years, died "in harness" at ninety-four years of age at the close of forty years' service as Master of the Boston Latin Grammar School. A long, faithful, hard-working life of service. These men were sturdy pioneers, but they were not leaders, and they are not generally known today. Yet the American Nation can be thankful that its children have been under the guidance of such kindly and worthy men of the past.

The pay given these early educators was not only small but was scanty even for the times. Perhaps that is one reason why they were not leaders. The schoolmaster was outstripped in the development of the professions. In mediæval times, teaching was as honorable and remunerative as the practice of medicine, law, or dentistry. In fact, medicine and dentistry were once practiced as part of a barber's trade; they amounted merely to pulling out teeth, and to applying leeches externally and herb trees internally to sick persons. Now both are lucrative professions furnishing community leaders. The schoolmaster is better off today, but not relatively. The popular cartoonist still depicts him as a sort of Ichabod Crane. Even though the children in his school respect him personally, yet they do not respect his position enough to want to emulate him. Who has ever heard a boy admit to other boys that he hoped to be a school principal some day? It is indeed unfortunate that men and women of such high caliber as the present-day public school principals should have their position stand out in such unfavorable light.

The question is how to better this position, how to attract and develop within the profession high types of educators, men and women from whose numbers the Nation will be glad to recruit its leaders. One concrete step in the right direction is to provide adequate compensation. In the long run, salary will be a rough but suggestive indication of the regard and esteem in which one is held by his employers. Studies in Indiana and elsewhere have shown considerable correlation between success and amount of salary. In the eyes of the community, size of salary is an important index of worth and success.

Yet here is the place where the principal usually shows up most unfavorably. This is seen in the data of Table 1, where the median salaries of

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF THE MEDIAN SALARY INCREASES AND THE PERCENTAGES THEREOF, FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS, HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE STATE OF IOWA

|                              | 1913-14       |                 | 1922-23       |                 | Per cent of gross increase |
|------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|----------------------------|
|                              | Median salary | Number of cases | Median salary | Number of cases |                            |
| City superintendents .....   | \$1009        | 682             | \$2254        | 774             | 125                        |
| High-School principals ..... | 818           | 257             | 1534          | 714             | 87                         |
| High-School teachers .....   | 632           | 1239            | 1384          | 3121            | 118                        |

high-school teachers, high-school principals, and city superintendents in the State of Iowa, both in 1913-14 and in 1922-23, are shown for comparison.<sup>1</sup> From a State-wide salary study in which several hundred teacher-positions were included for each year, it was found that in the ten years from 1913-14 to 1922-23, Iowa city superintendents' salaries had averaged a 125 per cent increase, high-school teachers' salaries a 118 per cent increase, but high-school principals' salaries had gone up only 87 per cent. Figs. 1 and 2 show how the 1913-14 ratios between (1) high-school principals

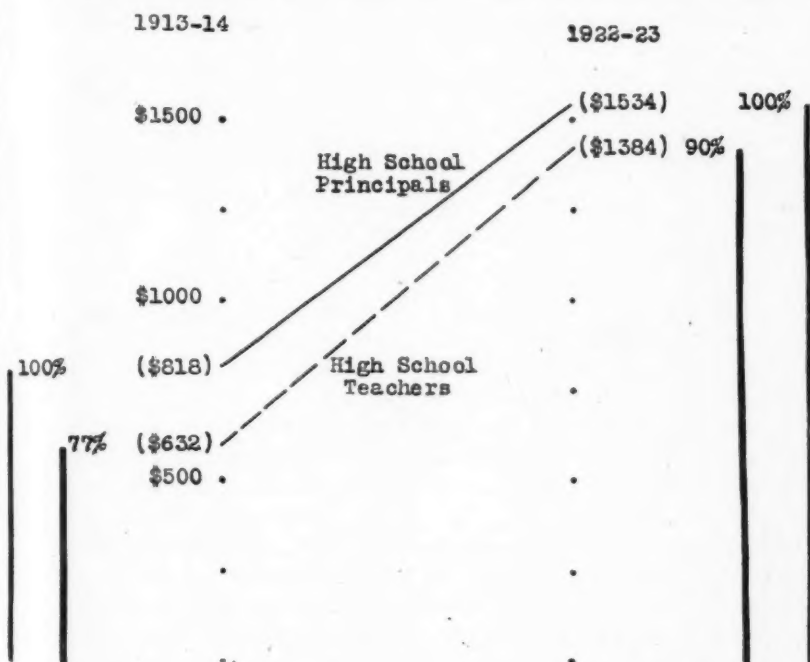


FIG. 1.—Comparison of the Median Salary Increases and the Ratio Thereof, for High-School Teachers and High-School Principals in the State of Iowa for the Years 1913-14 and 1922-23.

and high-school teachers and between (2) high-school principals and city superintendents have been altered. Fig. 1 shows that in 1913-14 a high-school principal was apparently worth about one third more in salary to the school system than a high-school teacher. This conclusion had been arrived at only after a long period of time, and in the days when there were no extraordinary financial pressures of circumstances to affect the ratio. Nine years later, according to the salary increases, the high-school principal was worth just one tenth more than the high-school teacher. Due to war-time upheavals and stressed economic pressures, the carefully worked-out pre-war ratio had been distorted. The principal lost out, relatively. This is true when

<sup>1</sup>Don C. Rogers, *Trend of Teachers' Salaries*, Extension Bulletin No. 88, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. Data on elementary principals not available.

the principal is compared with the city superintendent, too. Fig. 2 shows that in 1913-14 the high-school principal received four fifths as much salary as the city superintendent, but nine years later he was getting only three fifths as much. These figures reveal a State-wide situation, and reflect an injustice which the high-school principal has had to bear; evidence would seem to indicate that the elementary principal has suffered an even more acute injustice than the high-school principal. The principals' interests have not been taken care of sufficiently well in the various communities, and young men and women in college are asking themselves seriously whether the dis-

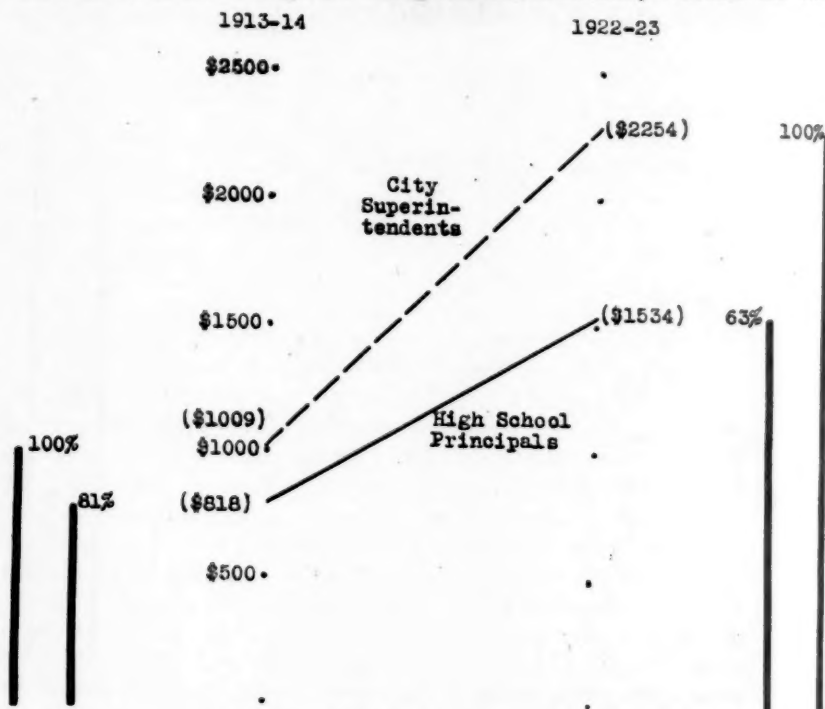


FIG. 2.—Comparison of the Median Salary Increases and the Ratio Thereof, for High-School Principals and City Superintendents in the State of Iowa for the Years 1913-14 and 1922-23.

tinctive field of the principalship offers enough financial encouragement to warrant them continuing the long period of special training necessary to equip themselves for it.

Table 1 shows that the per cent of gross salary increase received by the high-school principal was not nearly so great as that received by the high-school teacher and the city superintendents.

Fig. 1 shows that increases in salary for high-school principals have not kept pace with increases in salary for high-school teachers. Ten years ago a high-school principal received about one third more pay than a high-school teacher but now he receives only one tenth more salary.

Fig. 2 shows that increases in salary for high-school principals have not kept pace with increases in salary for city superintendents. Ten years ago a high-school principal received about four fifths as much pay as a city superintendent, but now he receives only three fifths as much salary.

During this past ten-year period the position of principal did not diminish in importance nor in amount of work. In fact, the duties and responsibilities became more arduous and exacting. Data could not be collected on the Iowa situation, but from about three hundred principals in the Chicago school system, definite figures have been obtained. Table 2 shows that the number of

TABLE 2.—INCREASE IN THE PRINCIPALS' RESPONSIBILITY, ON THE BASIS OF SEPTEMBER ENROLMENT GROWTH OF THE PAST TEN YEARS

| Year       | Elementary schools   |                  |                      | High schools         |                  |                      |
|------------|----------------------|------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|----------------------|
|            | Number of principals | Number of pupils | Pupils per principal | Number of principals | Number of pupils | Pupils per principal |
| 1913 ..... | 262                  | 264,190          | 1008                 | 22                   | 21,150           | 961                  |
| 1918 ..... | 260                  | 296,203          | 1130                 | 24                   | 32,422           | 1351                 |
| 1923 ..... | 267                  | 347,184          | 1300                 | 24                   | 57,489           | 2395                 |

students per principal in Chicago has increased enormously in the last ten years. Furthermore, the elementary principal has had an average of nearly seven more teachers to supervise, and the high-school principal has had approximately thirty to thirty-five additional teachers toward whom he has had to assume increased responsibilities of direction and guidance. It has been said that during this period of approximately ten years, twenty-one new activities have been added to the schools, for the supervision of which the principal is held accountable.

In the face of the facts of growing responsibilities and increasing labors, a sense of justice would expect that the principal be well paid. But the salary of the Chicago elementary principal is less today than it was ten years ago. The only valid measure of a salary is to consider it in terms of what it will buy. Gross amount of money is not a true criterion of increased pay. A better index of increase is the purchasing power of the salary. Although the gross salary of the Chicago principal has been increased considerably in the last few years, his salary has depreciated in terms of purchasing power. In 1913 the elementary principal's gross average salary was \$2958, and today it is \$4603. Yet, on the basis of its 1913 worth, the present salary has depreciated 8 per cent in purchasing power and amounts to only \$2715. (See Tables 3 and 4.) All during the war the salary situation was much worse

TABLE 3.—PURCHASING POWER OF CHICAGO ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SALARIES

| Year       | Index of Chicago cost of living increases | Principals' average salaries |                      |                               |
|------------|-------------------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
|            |                                           | Gross salary                 | Its purchasing power | Index of its purchasing power |
| 1913 ..... | 100.                                      | \$2958                       | \$2958               | 100                           |
| 1918 ..... | 172.2                                     | 3430                         | 1992                 | 67                            |
| 1923 ..... | 169.6                                     | 4603                         | 2715                 | 92                            |

TABLE 4.—CHANGES IN CHICAGO PRINCIPALS' SALARIES FROM 1913 TO 1923

|                                             | 1913         |                  | 1923         |                  |
|---------------------------------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|
|                                             | Gross amount | Purchasing power | Gross amount | Purchasing power |
| Average salary of the elementary principal. | \$2958       | \$2958           | \$4603       | \$2715           |

*Note:*—Principals' salary data secured from office of Secretary of Chicago School Board. These Chicago cost of living data were obtained from the August, 1923 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

even than now, for the cost of living leaped so high, and the salary increases lagged so far behind, that the situation would have shown up as deplorable at any other time than in the stress and strain of war days. (See Fig. 3.)

Table 2 shows that while the number of principals has remained practically constant during the last ten years, the total pupil enrolment has greatly increased. There has been an increase of 72,994 in the elementary schools, or 292 more pupils per principal—an increase of 29 per cent; there has been an increase of 36,339 in the high school or 1434 more pupils per principal—an increase of 149 per cent.

The data in Table 4 permit the following computations:

The purchasing power of the dollar in Chicago in June, 1923, in terms of its pre-war value, was 59 cents—that is,  $100 \div 169.6 = .59$ . Applying this factor to the present average salary of the Chicago elementary school principal, it reduces from the gross amount of \$4603 to the purchasing value of only \$2715—that is,  $4603 \times .59 = 2715$ .

Table 4 shows that in 1923 the salary is worth less than it was ten years ago.

A loss or decline in the value of principals' salaries growing out of the war is much more endurable when similar sacrifices have been made generally among all professions and trades, so that a particular group is not called to bear the brunt alone. Investigation shows that such has not been the case. For example, artisans have frequently profited decidedly by the changed conditions. Certain groups in the building trades now enjoy a prosperity that is actual and real, and not simply a fancied one. Plasterers and lathers have not only had magnified gross increases in wages, but in purchasing power of their wages they have made great strides forward. Data gathered in Chicago from the Employing Plasterers' Association, the Plasterers' Union, the Building Construction Employing Association, and from the Landis Award headquarters, show that plasterers have had their pay increased from about \$6 a day before the war to approximately \$18 a day now, with their wages mounting still higher at the present time. It should be borne in mind, too, that their work is not seasonal but continuous. Plasterers' wages in Chicago have trebled in gross amount in the past ten years, and even in terms of purchasing power they have jumped fully 75 per cent above pre-war levels. Contrast this condition with the situation of the Chicago school principals. Instead of a trebled gross annual wage, the principal has had his salary increased a little more than one half; instead of a 75 per cent gain in purchasing power of his wage, the principal has suffered an 8 per cent loss.

Fig. 3 shows that in Chicago, the wages of the artisan and the unskilled laborer have made gains greater than the cost of living increases, but that the salary of the school principal has not only lagged during the war but is still below the cost of living increases.

In order not to be unfair by choosing a particular trade with which to compare principals' salary increases, recourse was had to Federal statistics regarding all the trades. Fig. 3 and Table 5 show the situation when the average wage increases of the twenty-four Chicago trades listed in the Index

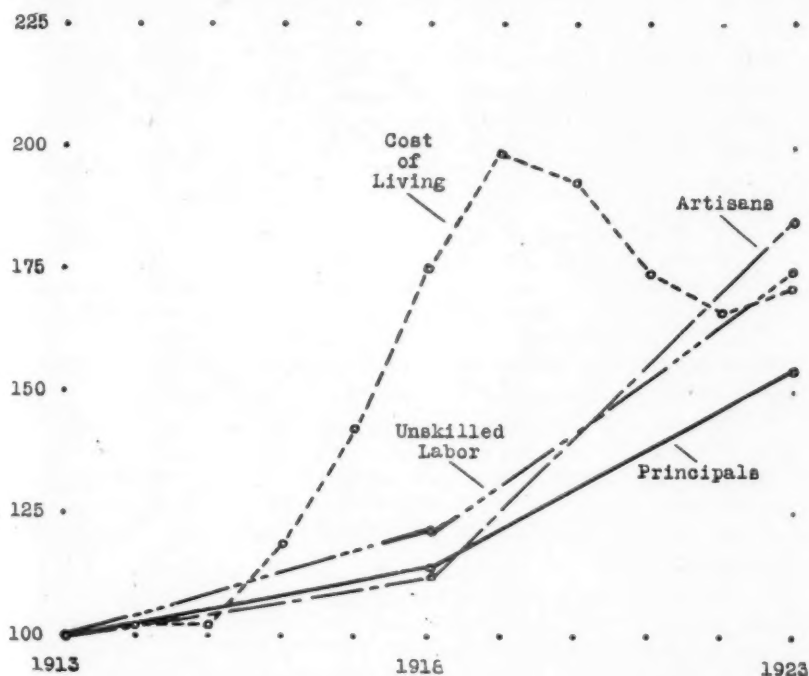


FIG. 3.—Cost of Living, Unskilled Laborers' Wages, Artisans' Wages, and the Salaries of Elementary School Principals Compared as to Increases During the Past Ten Years in Chicago.

*Monthly Labor Review* are compared with the average increases received by the Chicago elementary principals. Skilled and unskilled labor have maintained the 1913 purchasing power of their wages, whereas the principals have not; in effect, the latter have suffered a "cut" of 8 per cent. What is true in Chicago in this respect is undoubtedly true in the State of Iowa and is probably true generally.

There is another phase to this contrast that is important but difficult of definite measurement. Although the principal theoretically has about two months' vacation in the summer time, this period is rarely his own, but must be devoted to projects for which he is almost by necessity drafted. The prin-

principal must continue his training, his professional reading, must attend educational gatherings, travel and support civic, religious, and educational undertakings in a way oftentimes nearly compulsory. His practices, habits, dress, and tastes must conform to a more expensive standard than the artisan's. The public requires a principal to deport himself in such a way that the economies of overalls, dinner pail luncheons, and the like are taboo, should he desire to accept those standards. This social mandate by the public is as compulsory in effect as if it were a statute or city ordinance. The principal deserves and needs a cultural wage.

Table 5 shows that all three groups have made gross gains in pay, but in

TABLE 5.—CERTAIN WAGE AND SALARY CHANGES IN CHICAGO FROM 1913 TO 1923

Based on the hourly union wage scale figures of twenty-two trades in Chicago, as reported in the September, 1923, *Monthly Labor Review*, and on data at the office of the Secretary of the Chicago Board of Education.

| Group                 | Changes in salary in Chicago<br>from 1913 to 1923 |                                                |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
|                       | Per cent gained<br>in gross amount                | Per cent gained or lost<br>in purchasing power |
| Artisans .....        | 86.8                                              | Gain of 10                                     |
| Unskilled labor ..... | 74.7                                              | Gain of 3                                      |
| Principals .....      | 55.6                                              | Loss of 8                                      |

purchasing power the artisans and unskilled laborers have made gains while the elementary school principals have suffered an actual loss.

All these facts simply bear out the hypothesis made earlier. We must have virile men and vigorous high-minded women guiding the welfare of our children. They must be leaders. To attract and develop leadership within the profession, return for a life devoted to this service, even financial return, must be commensurate with the responsibilities, needs, and obligations of the position.

In closing, it is appropriate to hark back to a story told eighty years ago by the great American educator, Horace Mann, while he was addressing a Boston audience on behalf of better salaries. "It is related of a certain king, that, when embarked on a voyage, attended by some of his courtiers, a storm arose, which made it necessary to lighten the ship—whereupon he commanded his courtiers to be thrown overboard, but saved his money. How is it with parents, who are embarked with fortune and family on this voyage of life—when they need a better schoolhouse to save their children from ill health, or a better teacher to save them from immorality and ignorance; or even a slate or shilling's worth of paper to save them from idleness—have we any parents amongst us, or have we not, who, under the circumstances, will fling the child overboard, and save the shilling?" Parents, school boards, communities, the Nation even, cannot delude themselves with the thought that penury may be practiced on the school ledger without its reflection in the school classroom, without its reflection on their own children. Financial economies may be effected, but will not the children be flung overboard?

## ROSTER OF PRINCIPALS' CLUB OFFICERS<sup>1</sup>

### Baltimore, Maryland—Principals' Association

President, Hiram Shamberger, 1654 N. Appleton Street

Vice-President, M. Blanch Reindollar, Homewood Apartments, Charles and 21st Streets

Treasurer, Emma E. Mitchell, 2817 N. Calvert Street

Secretary, George W. Ebaugh, 2312 Arunah Avenue

### Battle Creek, Michigan—Elementary School Principals' Club

President, Mrs. Lenora McBain

Vice-President, Margaret Stannard

Secretary, Mrs. Frances K. Martin

Treasurer, Mrs. Winifred A. Kirschman

### Boston, Massachusetts—Principals' Association

President, Wallace C. Boyden, Boston Normal School

Vice-President, Archer M. Nickerson, F. V. Thompson, Intermediate School

Secretary, E. Gertrude Dudley, John Marshall School

Treasurer, Theobald A. Lynch, F. W. Lincoln School

### Head Masters' Association

Chairman, Herbert S. Weaver, High School of Practical Arts

Secretary, Bertram C. Richardson, East Boston High School

### Boston Intermediate Masters' Association

President, James A. Crowley, John A. Winthrop School

Vice-President, Alvin P. Wagg, Oliver Wendell Holmes School

Secretary, Chester H. Wilbar, Ulysses S. Grant School

Treasurer, Josephine A. Powers, Gaston School

### Boston Elementary Principals' Association

President, Leonard M. Patton, Edward Everett School

Vice-President, John F. McGrath, Eliot School

Secretary, Mary E. Keyes, William Lloyd Garrison School

Treasurer, James A. Crowley, John Winthrop School

### Dallas, Texas—Principals' and Supervisors' Association

President, L. V. Stockard, 5315 Fremont Street

Vice-President, Mamie Boone, 132 E. 12th Street

Secretary, Stella Buckmaster, 4924 Bryan Street

Treasurer, John M. Fouts, 123 N. Rosemont Street

### El Paso, Texas—El Paso Elementary School Principals' Association

President, Catherine Gorbitt, Aoy School

Vice-President, Alicia Swann, Crockett School

Secretary-Treasurer, Robert C. Jackson, Bowie School

### Fall River, Massachusetts—Principals' Club

President, Mary S. Connell, Samuel Longfellow School

Vice-President, Margaret G. Brennan

Secretary, Annie G. Sullivan

Treasurer, Julia Harrington

### Jersey City, New Jersey—The Male Principals' Club of Jersey City

President, A. Moncrief, School No. 25, Zabriskie Street

Vice-President, N. Chance, School No. 28, Hancock Avenue

Treasurer, H. Normandeau, School No. 6, Central Avenue

Secretary, C. A. Sheppard, School No. 12, Crescent Avenue

### Los Angeles, California—Principals' Club of Los Angeles Elementary Schools

President, Charles J. Fox

Secretary, Mrs. Ethelda Drake

Treasurer, Orval B. Heacock

<sup>1</sup> Compiled by Don C. Rogers, special secretary of the Chicago Principals' Club.

- Oakland, California—Oakland Principals' Club**  
 President, Howard O. Welty, Oakland Technical High School  
 Secretary, Ida C. Hammond, Manzanita School, Oakland
- St. Paul, Minnesota—The Saint Paul Principals' Club**  
 President, Elmer N. Bonnel, 1668 Princeton Avenue  
 Vice-President, Katherine E. Gibbons, 1177 Portland Avenue  
 Secretary, A. W. Kirk, 204 Virginia Avenue  
 Treasurer, Josephine L. Driscoll, 1185 Hague Avenue
- San Antonio, Texas—San Antonio Elementary Principals' Association**  
 President, Flora McNeil, Briscoe School  
 Vice-President, Herman Hirsch, Crockett School  
 Recording Secretary, Mary B. McKensie, Johnson School  
 Corresponding Secretary, Laura Steele, School No. 5  
 Treasurer, C. A. Arnold, Esq., Austin School
- San Diego, California—Principals' Club**  
 President, C. H. Shellbach, 1653 Sixth Street  
 Vice-President, Adele M. Outcalt, 3738 Tenth Street  
 Secretary-Treasurer, Frank Y. Van Valin, 4354 Witherby Street
- Sioux City, Iowa—Sioux City Administration Club**  
 President, E. E. Briggs, Smith School  
 Vice-President, June Connor  
 Secretary, Dora M. Finley, City Building  
 Treasurer, M. H. White
- Washington, D. C.—Administrative Principals' Group of Washington, D. C., Public Schools**  
 Chairman, Miss M. G. Young, Peabody School  
 Secretary-Treasurer, Charles A. Johnson, H. D. Cooke School
- Principals' Association of the Graded White Schools of Washington, D. C.**  
 President, M. Florence Gore, Corcoran School  
 Vice-President, Helen G. Nichols, Brightwood School  
 Financial Secretary, R. A. Dugan, Pierce School  
 Treasurer, Mary Lackey, Dennison School  
 Recording Secretary, Viola Offutt, Eaton School

## THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION

CHARLES J. FOX

*President, Principals Club, Los Angeles, California*

AS A FACTOR in the education system of many of our larger cities there exists a Principals Association or Club. A widely different interpretation as to the sphere of such an organization is placed upon it in various cities, so may I suggest that an exchange of ideas as to what organized principals may have as aims may prove of mutual interest during this year of study on the status of the elementary principal. Shall the club be purely social and recreative holding an occasional dinner meeting for enjoyment? Shall the club maintain its own headquarters, its various committees, carry on independent research work on problems of supervision and administration, and present its findings to the superintendent of schools and board of education? Shall the Club meetings be an integral part of the superintendent's meetings and be held in a school auditorium?

Principals who work among the teachers, children, and the district conditions each day discover problems and opportunities that are definite factors in the education status of that city. An organized and continuous study of

the work of the principal in any city, be that work ever so varied in different parts of that city, will result in progress. The sphere of a Principals' Association may involve these functions:

1. As a clearing-house for problems and progressive ideas amongst principals themselves.

2. As a fearless independent body to present to the superintendent's office and the Board of Education results and suggestive solutions from research work from those most intimate with the actual workings of schools. This is to be done in a definite, constructive, and advisory way.

3. As an organized force to carry out policies of the superintendent and others—such as bond and other financial issues, city playgrounds, city beautification, thrift and economy, health, etc.

4. To study and make reports on certain questions assigned by the superintendent's office and others, such as distribution of clerical help, duties of vice-principals, form of report cards, and other blanks, etc.

5. To maintain an office and needed equipment.

6. To maintain a regular publication.

7. To participate through special representatives in the plans of the National Education Association and California Teachers Association, etc.

8. To have representatives in touch with city, county, State, and National legislation and to urge well-advised laws.

9. To keep in touch with retired members. To visit members in sickness or in need.

10. To affiliate with the Chamber of Commerce, Federated Women's Clubs, etc., in our ever-occurring local and National movements.

11. To affiliate with Principals Clubs of other cities and exchange publications.

12. To furnish entertainment and relaxation, and to foster good fellowship amongst club members. Also to furnish means of maintaining a working relationship with all other local teaching bodies.

13. Principals Association Committees may be appointed to care for the following subjects: Research, university courses, professional reading, entertainment, program, visiting and fraternity, legislation, National Education Association and State associations, membership, supplies and equipment, salaries, federation of women's clubs, member on Superintendents Advisory Committee, assistant editor for Principals' Association publication, clerical forms and methods, supervision of special subjects, artistic schoolrooms, beautification of school grounds, school lunches, and nutrition.

**A** FEW COPIES of the Second Yearbook, *The Problem of the Elementary School Principal in the Light of the Testing Movement*, remain in stock. The price is \$1.50 each. Make check payable to Courtland V. Davis, Treasurer, and address envelope to 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

## SECRETARY'S MINUTES

### CHICAGO MEETING

**T**IME again has rung down the curtain upon a most successful meeting. Chicago surpassed herself upon this occasion. From every standpoint it was a great meeting.

The largest number in years of noted educators in all fields of education were in attendance. The general spirit of the convention was marvelous in its harmony and constructiveness. The Smith-Jones combination effected an hitherto unapproached achievement in peace and prosperity. Each zealously determining to magnify the service of the other, these two great leaders set the pace for professional courtesy and genuine expression of appreciation.

The programs of our Department were splendidly presented and caused much favorable discussion. The attendance at every meeting was record breaking.

#### The Second Annual Dinner

The Department of Elementary School Principals met in their second annual dinner in the Ball Room of the La Salle Hotel, at six-thirty o'clock, Tuesday evening, February twenty-sixth. Five hundred sat down to a feast to delight the most fastidious, and to regale the most blasé intellectual of the intelligencia.

Seated at the speakers table were: President W. T. Longshore, toastmaster, Dr. Edward J. Broome, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia; Mr. Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Oakland, California; Olive M. Jones, president of the National Education Association; Charles H. Judd, of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago; Miss Rose A. Pesta, president of the Chicago Principals' Club; Dr. A. E. Winship, of Boston, Massachusetts; Charl O. Williams, legislative secretary of the National Education Association; Mrs. Jessie M. Fink; John L. Bracken; Dr. William B. Owen; J. W. Crabtree; S. D. Shankland; Arthur S. Gist; George A. Beers; Mary McSkimmon; Anna Laura Force; J. D. Williams; Miss Margaret McCooley; Mrs. Fred Hunter; and Mrs. W. B. Owen.

The qualifications of the Chicago principals make them a select group. Each must be a university graduate and in addition must successfully pass a special examination for the principalship.

Thus Chicago assures itself the best in way of preparation and scholarship. That this highly specialized group has formed a professional association for the advancement of the principalship and the adequate recognition of its responsibilities and possibilities is an outstanding accomplishment. The eyes of all the sister clubs of this country are upon it and are rejoicing in its successes.

Don C. Rogers has demonstrated his efficiency in the report appearing in this issue of the *Bulletin*. It will serve as a pattern for many a smaller club and undoubtedly be the means of effectively answering some of the stupid laymen who beset our budgets and who are actually incapable of analyzing a situation or properly interpreting a scientific analysis when presented.

The hospitality extended by the Chicago Clubs will long be among our most pleasant memories. The Chicago Principals' Club gave a charming reception to this Department at the Chicago Art Institute, Monday evening, February 25.

The Ella Flagg Young Club is an organization of women principals in Chicago. Miss Isabel Dolton is the president. The Ella Flagg Young Club entertained thirty-five delegates with a ride over the boulevards of Chicago and a most charming tea at The Edgewater Beach Hotel. Saturday afternoon at Mandel's Ivory Room at a beautifully appointed luncheon, the Club again entertained Miss Olive M. Jones, president of the National Education Association, Miss Sara Rhodes, president of the New York Principals' Club, and Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, secretary of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

A constant flow of wit, humor, and wisdom for three hours kept the large assemblage in a state of delight. Every section of the country was represented and brilliantly did the delegates acquit themselves. Not a stock story nor a stupid thing was enunciated; everything was alive and up to the minute. There was a radiance of brightness that was truly refreshing. Peace and brotherly love abounded. The custom has been established to make these events annual, and certainly nothing can do more to bring us to a greater understanding of our individual and collective aims than these discussions under such auspicious circumstances.

### The Officers' Luncheon

The officers of the Department met at a luncheon at the Hotel La Salle Tuesday noon. Present at this luncheon were President W. T. Longshore, Secretary Jessie M. Fink, Executive Committee members Anna Laura Force and Mary McSkimmon; First Vice-President J. D. Williams; Third Vice-President George A. Beers, and Editor of the current Yearbook Arthur B. Gist.

The subject of the Fourth Yearbook came in for discussion and suggestions were in order. The advisability of an Editorial Council for the *Bulletin* was presented by the Secretary and favorably considered by the Board.

It was moved and seconded that an organization of a Department of Elementary School Principals be organized in every State association on the same basis as is organized the Department of Elementary School Principals in the National Education Association. Carried.

Our Department has had a phenomenal growth. It is now nearly four thousand strong. It has been doing constant work in the matter of the status of the principal. This meeting brought out the fact that several cities of the country have solved the vexed question of supervisors. Chicago, Detroit, Minneapolis, Oakland, Seattle, Duluth, and others gave evidence of their satisfaction. That the principal in these cities is unhampered in supervision and adequately recognized, is a step in the ultimate adjustment of the less favored localities. That superintendents the country over are agreeing with our point of view is a thing in itself for congratulation.

It only goes to show that when our premises are sound and then effectively presented a way for their incorporation into a policy is immediately opened up.

The Chicago Principals' Club, of which Miss Rose Pesta is president, is unique. This Club is a National inspiration. When we can so believe in a cause as to pay thirty dollars for annual membership dues in it, we may hope to stand for some of the things that does the Chicago Principals' Club.

Don C. Rogers is the special secretary of this organization. His is the research and statistical work. Retained for his services he is alive to the activities of all similar organizations and keeps this BULLETIN in constant touch with the field of his endeavors.

This Club has principals of all departments in its membership—that is, elementary, junior high, and senior high school.

A pace was set us by Payson Smith and Olive M. Jones that will keep us stepping right along for the next few months and possibly years. Every time either of them enunciated a syllable it was one of inspiration, of virility, ennobling, quickening our faith in our vocation and filling our hearts with a deep sense of gratitude for the opportunity which is ours to serve.

Our own President, W. T. Longshore, provided our Department with a program unsurpassed, if ever equalled, and to him we owe a debt of appreciation. Upon every program he represented us not only in our sessions, but also in those of the various activities.

At every great dinner we (vicariously) sat at the tables of the great. Our Department is at the front line of active service. It is growing daily in importance and numbers. New avenues of endeavor are constantly opening up to us and we must be ready to respond to every call. Community singing was led by Mr. John Beattie, supervisor of music in the schools of Grand Rapids, Michigan.

ENDORSEMENT BY THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY  
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE EDUCATION  
BILL AT CHICAGO, FEBRUARY 27, 1924

**T**HE ELEMENTARY School Principals of America have had borne in upon them the great and unjust inequalities in educational opportunity afforded in America to the children of the country as compared with the children of the city, to the children of our poorer sections as compared with the children of the richer sections of our land.

The democratic and just spirit of America has always demanded a square deal for every citizen and especially for our future citizens, the children.

Many sections of our land are burdened with great and unusual tasks of citizen-training, occasioned either by centuries of negro slavery on this continent or by the great and continuous immigration of foreigners to our shores. The responsibility for training the enfranchised negro and the unassimilated foreigner and their children for American citizenship, is a National, more than a State or sectional responsibility.

Moreover, the free and continuous intercommunication of the people of the various States, makes the problems of one the problems of all and turns the weakness or misfortune of any State or section into a National weakness or menace. The handicaps of ignorance, of traditions of slavery, and of unassimilated foreign populations, and the resultant poverty which accompanies all these conditions, seriously hinder, if they do not incapacitate, the State or section suffering from these evils from effecting their cure.

A well-conceived measure for the removal of these conditions has been before Congress for four years. Every year of delay in coming to the assistance of the children means many thousands more of poorly trained American men and women who will be entitled to the suffrage. This Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association does, therefore, vigorously endorse the provisions of the Education Bill, the Sterling-Reed Bill now before Congress.

We express our conviction that the expansion of education is of such vital importance to the Nation as to demand the undivided attention of the proposed Secretary of Education in the President's Cabinet.

We heartily approve the wisdom and fairness of the proposed voluntary and equal coöperation of State and Nation in providing increased revenues for teacher training, for the training of illiterates, for the Americanization of foreigners, for health education, and for the equalization of educational opportunity of children.

We approve of the carefully drawn provisions of this bill insuring to the educational authorities of the States full control of the administration of their schools.

We approve also the contemplated formation, under the provisions of this bill, of a National council of education, under the chairmanship of the proposed Secretary of Education, to consist of the superintendents of public instruction of the various States and of fifty other educators and laymen of prominence, which Council would serve as a National clearing-house for educational ideas.

We vigorously oppose any compromise to this measure by loading down the proposed Department of Education with other responsibilities which would tend to slow up the momentum which must be given to educational expansion.

We are deeply sensible of the strength of the support of our President, Calvin Coolidge, to the formation of this Department of Education.

We pledge ourselves as a Department to the National Education Association and as individual principals and citizens to urge upon our representatives in the Senate and in the House of Representatives the prompt and whole-hearted consideration of this bill and its passage at this session of Congress.

Report submitted by

AMBROSE CORT, *Chairman*, Brooklyn, New York  
JESSIE M. FINK, Grand Rapids, Michigan  
ELLA M. PROBST, Minneapolis, Minnesota  
W. T. LONGSHORE, Kansas City, Missouri

[190]

## THE THIRD YEARBOOK



ARTHUR S. GIST

THE THEME of the Third Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals is the status of the principal. The book has been prepared under the editorship of Mr. Arthur S. Gist, principal of the B. F. Day School, Seattle, Washington, and will be ready for distribution before June 1.

Section I is devoted to the Evolution of the Principalship. Section II, on the Professional Aspect of the Principal, is divided into five parts—The Principal Himself, The Principal and the Teacher, The Principal and the Pupil, The Principal and Educational Accessories, and Miscellaneous—in turn each part is divided into chapters, each of which is the result of years of experience and study on the part of the individual principals who have written them. Altogether the book is a contribution not only to the professional growth of the principal but to the entire teaching profession.

As in the previous Yearbooks there will be a list of members of the Department of Elementary School Principals. It will also contain a revised roster of principals' clubs.

## THE WASHINGTON MEETING

ONE OF THE great programs of the National Education Association to be held in Washington will be the general meeting, Tuesday, July 1, 1924, under the joint direction of the Department of Superintendence, Department of Elementary School Principals, Department of Classroom Teachers, and the great public as represented by the National Parent-Teacher Association.

The President of the National Education Association, Miss Olive M. Jones, will introduce the President of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Mr. W. T. Longshore, who will introduce the representative of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Miss Mary McSkimmon, of the Pierce School, Brookline, Mass. Miss Ida Christine Iverson, president of the Department of Classroom Teachers, Mr. William McAndrew, president of the Department of Superintendence, and Mrs. A. H. Reeve, president of the National Parent-Teacher Association, will represent their organizations.

## DEFINITION OF MEMBERSHIP YEAR

**T**HE membership year in the Department of Elementary School Principals corresponds with the school year. Article Eight of the By-laws states specifically that the fiscal year begins July 1 and ends June 30. Members receive Bulletins for October, January, and April, together with the Yearbook, which is published in June. The cost of publishing the Yearbook is over one dollar a copy, hence back numbers or duplicates cannot be furnished free.

## REMITTANCE FOR MEMBERSHIP

MR. COURTLAND V. DAVIS, *Treasurer*  
1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest  
Washington, D. C.

*My dear Mr. Davis:*

I am a member of the National Education Association. I inclose my fee of \$2.00 for membership in the Department of Elementary School Principals during the year 1923-24. One dollar of this fee is for a year's subscription to the Department Bulletin.

Kindly send all publications, including the Third Yearbook, to be issued in June, 1924, to me at the address given below.

Name .....

(Typewrite or print)

Mailing address .....

(School or street)

.....  
(City and State)

My present position is .....