

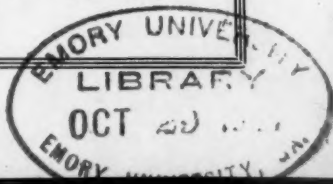
BULLETIN
OF THE
Department of Elementary
School Principals 56

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of the

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

IN THE FOURTH YEAR of its existence, the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association finds itself a vital and growing department, proving of service to its members professionally and inspirationally. It

is cause for congratulation that membership has increased so rapidly over this country. It justifies its reason for existence—that is, the response to a great need.

Previous to the establishment of our department, the individual elementary school principal was an unrecognized factor in the educational scheme. He was one without a policy, without defined functions, with no continuity of plan or matured scheme. During the last three years this situation has been thoroughly discussed and the disadvantages somewhat ameliorated, yet there is much to do.

We come to this stage of our progress with a new sense of the importance of a more satisfactory clearing up of irritations, a new realization of the urgent necessity of coöperation of each

principal, a new comprehension of the enormous responsibilities we have assumed, and a new determination to meet all the requirements of the situation.

To those devoted men and women who launched this department on uncharted seas and piloted it through its first days with such success, we owe a debt which can never be discharged. They are entitled to the veneration and honor of a grateful constituency.

It is seemly here to recall the first year's work under Leonard Power. With vigorous programs he attracted the attention of all groups of educators and especially the elementary school principals from far and near. In addition to this he secured the genius of Worth McClure to edit the First Yearbook of the Department. This book presented the subject of supervision as a science and an art, and as peculiarly the function of the principal. In fact, it proved a mine of information on the technique of supervision, and when two thousand copies had been sold there was still demand for the edition.



JESSIE M. FINK

Following the brilliant success of the first year, came President Worth McClure and Editor John L. Bracken, of the Second Yearbook. This volume discussed "The Work of the Elementary School Principal in the Light of the Testing Movement." It electrified our profession in this country and called forth praise from the London schoolmen. No such masterly presentation of this subject had ever before been evolved.

Each step of our program had been a distinct achievement and our third President, Mr. W. T. Longshore, carried on with distinction the work so well established. He induced Mr. Arthur S. Gist to become editor of the Third Yearbook.

This gifted young principal produced a volume of six hundred thirty-five pages of absorbingly interesting subject-matter. It stands unique in the number of scientific discussions of our every-day problems of supervision as well as those of organization.

So much material had Mr. Gist on hand after completing this edition, so much remained still to be said upon "The Status and Professional Activities of the Elementary School Principal," so familiar was he with the necessary procedure for obtaining further illuminations upon the subject, so fully equipped to carry on the necessary investigations begun by last year's work, so able to round out and present an authoritative statement as to the Status of the Elementary School Principal, that your President persuaded him to accept the editorship of the Fourth Yearbook, which will be ready for distribution in June, 1925.

Since the Yearbook is the final summation of the department's activities for the current year, it has been thought desirable to recall past achievements to clearly indicate "whither we are tending." With this in mind, we have a point of departure for a program for the coming year.

In the first place, your president is calling upon every member to bring in at least one new member. There are between fifty and sixty thousand principals of elementary schools in this country. With this number at hand we ought to have a membership of ten thousand by next June. We are not like the good priest and zealous Levite, so absorbed in our interest close at home that we pass by the neighbor of another country. Let us go out into the highways and byways and bring them in from "sea to shining sea." Those neighbors in the rural districts who do not know that they are eligible to our ranks; those small town principals and superintendents struggling alone with their tremendous difficulties, all belong to us. Think what this Department can bring to them.

When you recommend your department to your friends, tell them what we are able to offer. Tell them that through the help and generosity of the National Education Association we have the expert services of Joy Elmer Morgan, managing editor of *The Journal*, for all our editorial problems. We have the expert services of S. D. Shankland, executive secretary of the Department of Superintendence who acts as our executive secretary. This contribution enables us to give research and publication service that would otherwise be prohibitive. Tell them they will receive three Department Bulletins and the Yearbook, all for the sum of two dollars a year.

The Bulletins will be edited by Mr. Ide G. Sargeant, so well and favorably known to all of us through his splendid work as chairman of the Committee on Educational Progress.

The second part of this year's program has to do with the strictly professional side of our work. Right here let me urge each of you to submit any contribution or suggestion of your own or of some friend's, who may be too modest to do so. Help is constantly lost by the inability of individuals to appreciate that his successful solution of a difficulty may be of infinite assistance to some other struggling principal. Moreover, we are now an actively progressive and contributing group and upon each member devolves the responsibility for his share of coöperation.

We are at this time sufficiently agreed upon certain fundamental premises to warrant us in presenting them to those sources eager to obtain them. Schools of education are asking for suggestions as to courses of study in the preparation for the principalship of the elementary school. The public is ready to listen to our suggestions and beliefs as to the qualifications for the principalship of an elementary school. Professional publications are requesting literature upon the subject. Our own constituency is eager to have us clarify, organize our beliefs, and present them in a platform to superintendents, school boards, and professors of education in every city and State of our land.

When we are able to take a united stand upon the ability, the training, experience, and salary necessary for the adequate functioning of the elementary school principalship in the light of the demands of today, we shall have made a distinct contribution to elementary education the world over. To contribute as much as possible to these ends is the definite program of your President for the year 1924-25.

TEACHING is a fine art, and ranks among the greatest of them all. The man who can rightly assist in the growth of mind, who can lodge the right knowledge and foster the right impulses and create the right ideals in those entrusted to him, is a master among the artists. There is that same elusive quality in teaching as in the other arts; one is always seeking for the right thing to say, for the right way to say it, for just the exact touch for that noble impulse, or the exact restraint for that impetuous energy. The objects upon which he lavishes his skill vary from month to month, even from day to day; one never faces exactly the same class twice.—E. A. HARDY, in *Talks on Education*.

FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT'S VIEWPOINT—THE
PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
PRINCIPAL¹

JESSE H. NEWLON

Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado

THE TOPIC assigned me is a broad one. It is true that the superintendent of schools views the principal from a vantage point different from that occupied by anyone else. But he is interested in the principal in all of his relationships and in every phase of his work. I am faced, therefore, with the necessity of choosing between making in the brief time at my disposal a mere catalogue of some of the more important of these relationships or the selection of one phase for a more extended discussion.

We are at a turning-point in the history of American education so far as professional preparation is concerned. Within the past thirty years a sure foundation has been laid, upon which we are now erecting a superstructure—namely, a real science of education. In this significant period, the schools have made tremendous strides in enrolment, in the number of teachers employed, and in financial support. Recently there has been a decided improvement in respect of salaries paid teachers. All of this is tending to emphasize the professional character of our work. In the future, we may expect requirements of professional training for teachers much in excess of the requirements that have heretofore existed.

The birth of this Department is an indication of an aroused professional conscience on the part of the elementary school principals of this country. There is no more encouraging sign on the professional horizon. The organization of this Department grew out of a realization on the part of leading principals that theirs was a professional job, and that the technique of their work can be mastered only by study and experience. It is my judgment that this Department can perform no more important service than that of attempting to formulate a program for the guidance of the heads of schools of education and school executives in the training, appointment, and promotion of principals. I have, therefore, elected this afternoon to discuss only one phase of the subject assigned me—the professional preparation of the principal.

The principalship is always a key position. This is particularly true of the elementary school principal, because in the elementary school are laid foundations in habits and attitudes. Upon the work of the elementary school will depend in large part the ability of the child to profit to the utmost from the instruction which he receives in other schools. If the right habits and attitudes have been formed, the child is ready for the experiences of the schools that come after. If incorrect habits and attitudes have been formed, corrections must be made, if ever at all, at the expense of the individual.

¹Read before the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., July 1, 1924.

Furthermore, the elementary school is the only institution attended by the great majority of the boys and girls who enrol in our public schools. The elementary school is the great integrating factor in our public school system. To this institution come children from all conditions of life, of native and foreign-born stock, rich and poor, to be fused into a homogeneous people, spiritually and politically. The work of no school can be more important. The administration of this school, therefore, is a matter of the utmost concern to the people.

Many of the problems which the principal meets in daily work are highly technical. Others require for their solution the power gained by experience in dealing with people and in administration. The work of administering an elementary school is as highly technical and professional in character as the work of the engineer or the physician. No one is prepared for the principalship who is not familiar with the great body of professional and technical knowledge that must be drawn on constantly by effective teachers and principals. On the executive and administrative sides, a type of leadership is called for that is specialized in character and that is acquired only by experience and study.

In discussing preparation for the elementary school principalship, then, I wish to group what I have to say under the two heads that have just been indicated—professional preparation on the one hand and personal equipment on the other. One has to do with formal education, with technical and professional preparation; the other with personal qualities and professional experience.

We must look forward to the time when no one will be considered for an elementary school principalship who is not a college graduate. No one is more aware than I of the fact that the possession of a college degree is not a guarantee of a liberal education. At best it can be only a guarantee that the foundations of a liberal education have been laid and that interests and tastes have been aroused and fostered in the individual that will lead him in the course of years to become liberally educated.

Many men and women bearing the label of college graduation are not educated and never will be. There are numerous individuals in our profession who do not bear such a label, some of whom have never even trod college halls, but who are liberally educated. Some of these stand today in the forefront of constructive leadership, but these are the exceptions. It cannot be denied that one who has spent four years in a college or university maintaining high standards has gained by the experience and has laid the best possible foundation for professional study. If we believe in schools, if we have faith in our daily work, we must believe that the college is invaluable for preparing one for life's duties and an essential foundation for one's professional work.

I would set the requirement of college graduation for admission to the principalship not because it is an absolute guarantee of the culture and refinement which an elementary school principal ought to have, but because it is one of the best ways that has yet been devised for eliminating the unfit and insuring an adequate foundation for professional study.

The principal must see the problems of education in the large. He is in a peculiar sense a liaison officer between the schools and the public. He cannot perform his functions as they ought to be performed if he cannot meet the best minds in the community on their own level in discussing not only the technical problems of education but education in its relation to the social problems of the day. The principal should take his place among the intellectuals of the community.

The task of the principal is peculiarly a social one. He deals with the individual in his social relationships. He interprets public education to the public. He must have constantly in mind the relationships which the child will have to society in the years to come. The principal, then, ought to be a student of social organization. The so-called social sciences—psychology, history, politics, and economics—should form a large part of the college courses pursued by him.

I would also include the history of philosophy and intellectual development in this category. He should know what the master minds of the ages, the Platos, the Aristotles, the Bacons, the Kants, the Darwins, and the Deweys have thought about the riddle of human existence, of thought, of the conditions of human progress. And it goes without saying that a knowledge of the discoveries of modern science is indispensable.

To my way of thinking, nothing short of a preparation such as this forms the foundation upon which a sound superstructure of professional training can be reared. I would stress the fact that the chief function of the college, so far as this training is concerned, is to arouse interests that will be lifelong. The successful principal is not one who has closed on the day of graduation the books that deal with these great life problems, never to open them again.

I hear some one saying that a program such as this would shut out from promotion many of the most worthy and successful teachers now engaged in our profession. Such is true, and for that reason this requirement is not advocated as one that should be put into complete operation at this time. But the time is rapidly approaching when such a requirement may be reasonably set up. Certainly all teachers now coming into the profession should expect to meet these requirements in order to be promoted to the principalship. I see no reason why requirements for positions of great responsibility in our profession should be lower than those for engineering or medicine.

With such a general training as I have outlined there must follow a thorough professional training. The principal must have those general foundational professional courses which are essential for all members of our profession. Under this head will be listed such studies as the history of education, educational psychology, educational sociology, the philosophy of education, method, the elements of educational statistical method, school hygiene.

To this general professional training must be added a special preparation for the administration of the elementary school, which has a peculiar technique. The courses in school administration, in supervision of instruction, in educational measurements, and the use of mental tests, in more advanced

educational statistics, in the hygiene of the school and of the child—in a word, all of the knowledge that the profession has gained about the administration of elementary schools and has organized into any system must become the subject of study of one who aspires to this responsibility.

No one is qualified for principalship who has not demonstrated his worth as a teacher. I do not mean to say that a safe rule for the appointment of principals would be always to select the most brilliant teachers, many of whom have not the other qualities which fit them for executive responsibilities, but you will all agree that no one is fit for the principalship who has failed as a teacher, and, more than that, that no one is fit who has not demonstrated himself to be a superior teacher. Only a successful teacher is competent to form sound judgments on the qualities of classroom instruction. Unless one is a teacher of superior merit, he has not been able to put into operation in the classroom those principles of teaching which, as a principal, it will be his duty to promote in the school under his direction.

If a hundred superintendents were present and we could gain an expression of opinion from them on this point, I am sure that we would have an almost universal verdict that one of the most difficult tasks which the superintendent faces is that of finding those individuals who have real capacity for leadership. My final point, then, under the head of professional preparation, has to do with the experiences of the teachers that have revealed in the principal capacities for administration and leadership. I have in mind such qualities as the ability to assume responsibility, to attend to matters of business and clerical routine promptly, effectively, and neatly, to delegate responsibilities, to work cheerfully and effectively with one's associates. These qualities are essential. Those who possess such qualities are not numerous. They form only a fraction of any profession. That is the reason that in the industrial and business world executive ability commands such high salaries. One of the chief duties and opportunities of the principal is to develop such abilities in any member of the faculty who possesses them. The discovery of the individual who possesses to a high degree these abilities is not an easy task, although it is one of the most important responsibilities which the superintendent of schools has to perform.

A word now as to the personal equipment of the principal. First comes good health. Good health is essential to leadership. It is the rare individual who can maintain his poise, his enthusiasm, his vivacity, his interests, his sympathies, in the face of poor health. The tasks of the executive are strenuous. The principalship of a large elementary school, with its thousands of contacts with the community, with parents, with pupils, with teachers, and with the administration, puts a severe strain upon any individual. These contacts are social. They make a tremendous nervous drain. Many a principal goes home at the end of the day with that "tired feeling" of depression and fatigue which he ascribes to overwork, when in fact it is due to a deficiency in physical equipment for the task which he has undertaken. A good physical equipment, then, is necessary, and to keep this physical equipment in order recreation and play are also necessary. Our physical bodies can no

more be kept in order without thought, attention, and care than can a complex mechanical contrivance.

Next in importance is optimism, good cheer, the habit of looking on the bright side of things, the ability to do one's work with a minimum amount of worrying. I do not mean that foolish cheerfulness and optimism which merely ignores problems and responsibilities, but that optimism which is based on an insight into life and a faith in humanity. Such optimism must be largely intellectual in character. It must come as the result of one's observation of life and study of the history and development of humanity. If such observation and study results in a faith in humanity, in a faith in one's self, in intelligent will-power, and I think there is really no will that is not intelligent (there may be stubbornness without intelligence, but not will), then we have the sound optimism that is essential to all progress. One who possesses the optimism of which I speak is not necessarily bubbling over with a silly cheerfulness, but on the other hand is well-poised and has a grip on himself.

The individual possessing such optimism has an interest in and a deep sympathy for people, and here is another requirement for the principalship. No one should be placed in a position of leadership in public schools who does not have a genuine and abiding sympathy for humanity, both individually and collectively. Not that foolish sympathy that leads one to do foolish things for individuals and communities which in the long run are not favors at all, but a constructive and disciplined sympathy, one that is ever present. The individual who has this sympathy will be extremely human in his contacts with people.

With all of this must go a belief in public education, and one cannot have an intelligent belief and faith in public education unless one knows something of the history of education, including the history of thought that was indicated earlier in this paper, and particularly the history of the development of public schools in the United States. It must be able to appraise both the strengths and the defects of our schools as they stand today—to form sound judgments as to what the schools may attempt now and as to what they may attempt in the years to come. But there is no place in public school leadership for one who does not believe that the public schools are essential to the welfare of this Nation.

Much can be said about the qualities of leadership. The leader possesses ability to organize, to delegate, to supervise, to stimulate, and to cooperate. The successful principal will assert his leadership rather than his authority. He will work as an associate with teachers and not as their master. The day of the autocrat is past in American education—God be thanked! The day of the leader has come. One must demonstrate his leadership just as the athlete demonstrates his right to a place on the track team—by achievement.

What is the function of this Association as regards the professional preparation of the principal? One of the greatest opportunities and responsibilities which you have is, first, a formulation of a program of professional training for the principal, and then a campaign of education in favor of the adoption of this program throughout the Nation. You ought to do for the

principal, so far as professional preparation is concerned, what the American Medical Association has done for the practice of medicine by the elevation of requirements of professional preparation for entrance into the profession. Tremendous strides have been taken in the professionalization of your work. Much remains to be done.

To Principals of Elementary, Junior, and Senior High Schools:

Two of the most powerful professional organizations in this country are the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Every superintendent of schools who is at all cognizant of the problems of public education and of the principles of sound administration knows that the principal occupies a most strategic position and that the success of any school program will depend in large measure upon the leadership of the principal. This condition applies equally to the success of professional teacher organizations.

The principals of the public schools of this country will be one of the most important factors in determining how rapidly the National Education Association will be enabled to expand its service to the profession and the schools as a result of an increased membership. In thousands of schools the attitude of teachers will be affected either by the vigorous support or the indifference of principals towards the Association.

The demands for service being made upon the National Education Association are so tremendous and the opportunities for service so great that it is imperative for every possible step to be taken to increase the membership. I am therefore addressing this appeal to the principals of the United States to take an active interest in the campaign to extend the membership of the National Education Association.

Secretary Crabtree stands ready at all times to give you full information regarding the program and the service of the Association to the teachers of this country. Already many a battle has been turned into victory for the forces of public education as a result of the service of the headquarters staff.

Supplies have been sent to the superintendent's office, but I am requesting the Secretary to enclose additional blanks for your use. Have your teachers feel free to use the time bank check. I advise you to make the drive at once if you have not already done so.

I make this appeal in all confidence, knowing that the principals of our schools never fail to answer a call to duty. This confidence is in part based on my own experience with splendid groups of principals in cities in which I have worked as superintendent of schools.

Sincerely yours,

JESSE H. NEWLON, *President.*

September 24, 1924.



SHORTENING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL¹

CHARLES H. JUDD

Director of the School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

THERE IS danger of a serious misinterpretation of the phrase when one speaks of economy in an educational program. The same danger appears in exaggerated form when one speaks of shortening a school period. We should be very careful, therefore, in describing any experiment in school organization which involves in any wise the economy or the shortening of a course of study to describe clearly our motives in the reform which is being undertaken.

An experiment, which has been under way for some years in the laboratory schools of the University of Chicago, has resulted in the limitation of the elementary school to a six-year period. In this sense of the word, there has been a marked shortening of the elementary curriculum and, we believe, a genuine economy in education. The methods by which this change in the program, which was in operation twelve years ago, was made will be described in some detail, but, before entering upon that description, I wish to return to the points made in the opening paragraph of this paper.

We did, indeed, make an effort to shorten the period of elementary education, but our purpose was not at all a curtailment of the opportunities offered to the pupils. On the contrary, what we were trying to accomplish was an earlier introduction of the pupils to those broader and, we believe, in many respects more interesting lines of study which traditionally have been thought of as the exclusive property of the high school. We were not trying, therefore, to economize in the sense of reducing education in amount or in quality. We were trying rather to save pupils from the unnecessary repetition of rudimentary courses.

The way in which the change was brought about can be described by saying, first, that up to the autumn of 1912 the laboratory schools of the University of Chicago conducted a regular eight-year elementary curriculum followed by a four-year high-school curriculum. It was believed that the conditions in these schools were especially favorable to an experimental reconstruction of the work. All of the teachers of a given subject who were dealing with elementary and high-school courses were organized into a single department. Thus, the people who taught English in the elementary school and in the high school were brought together in a single departmental organization. They were asked to go over the work of the two schools in detail and to discover any needless repetitions which were to be found in the English courses in the two divisions of the school. They were also asked to consider any devices which could be adopted in the lower school to prepare more effectively for the work of the high school. Conversely, they were to discover in the high-school curriculum, if possible, opportunities to review

¹Address given in Chicago before the Department of Elementary School Principals, February 26, 1924.

productively the work of the lower school. The same type of departmental organization and discussion was arranged in all of the different lines of instruction: mathematics, science, language, the practical arts, and history.

The outcome of these departmental meetings was a clear conviction on the part of all concerned that the pupils could very readily be advanced more rapidly than had been possible under the old program and with less possibilities of friction and loss. Reconstruction of the courses was undertaken with these ends in view. When all of the reconstructions were worked out, it became apparent that there was no reason why the eighth grade in its original form should continue to be administered by the elementary school, and so, in the fall of 1912 the eighth grade was dropped.

I may digress for a moment to say that, in adopting this method of procedure, we lost some of the advantages that would have attached to the immediate adoption of the name and program of a junior high school. The junior high school was just beginning to appear at this period, and a great many people were trying to find models on which to reconstruct their elementary courses. Our failure to hold to the conventional 8-4 plan was interpreted by some as a type of experiment wholly different from that which was being undertaken by junior high schools. It is my own belief that the junior high school will accomplish its true purpose only when all elementary schools do exactly what was done in the laboratory schools in 1912—that is, eliminate the wasteful repetitions which are now characteristic of most school systems in the upper grades of the elementary school.

No one can read the courses of study of the school systems of this country without finding abundant evidence that the courses laid out for the seventh and eighth grades include a large amount of needless repetition. The pupils in going over repeatedly the work in arithmetic and English lose their enthusiasm for study and, instead of gaining by the drill, are frequently taught such bad habits of lack of concentration that they go into the high school ill-prepared because of this needless repetition.

We had experienced in the laboratory schools what every school system that is critical of its products is sure to find if it studies carefully the matter of reviews. We had one especially striking illustration of the ill effects of repetitions. Nature-study had been one of the special studies emphasized in the elementary school of the University. To the astonishment of our teachers, it was found that the pupils who entered the high school from other schools where nature-study had not been stressed frequently did better work in the first year of high-school science than did our own pupils who had gone through an elaborate course. We discovered that the reason for the apparent inferiority of our own pupils was that they felt that the high-school course was so repetitious that they lost entirely their enthusiasm for the work and slighted it to an extent which was disastrous to efficiency.

Unnecessary reviews, then, are harmful from an educational point of view, and any lack of coördination between the elementary work and the high-school work is a source of waste.

Our teachers succeeded by a careful study of the whole situation in getting rid entirely of one year in the total program of the two schools. That

the elimination of the eighth grade was in no sense a detriment to the pupils was clearly demonstrated by a series of studies made in the years following 1912. It was possible to make a comparison in the freshman class of our high school between the pupils who had had only a seven-year elementary course and those who came from other schools that had the conventional eight-year course. Our high-school classes have for many years included both of these types of pupils, and a careful record of the standings of the two groups showed year after year no lack of preparation for advanced work on the part of pupils who had had only seven years of elementary training.

After a decade of careful readjustment of the program and testing of results, it has been possible for the laboratory schools of the University to proceed with a further step—namely, transferring the seventh grade from the elementary school to the high school and treating it as a subfreshman high-school year. At the same time that this was done, the high school undertook through arrangements with the University to administer at the upper end of the high-school curriculum a number of courses corresponding in content and method of work to the courses administered in the University junior colleges. Thus, courses in mathematics that are usually given only to college students were provided for high-school juniors and seniors. The same was done in languages other than English, in English, and in history. Enough work is now offered in the University High School to make it possible for a student to complete a full year of college work within the high school itself.

By bringing the seventh grade over into the jurisdiction of the high school and by providing opportunities for advanced work as just indicated, it has been possible to carry a great many students through the combined elementary- and high-school curriculums in ten years. The process of economizing a pupil's time and energy sometimes requires the combination which is described in the foregoing paragraph of high-school and college work. Instead of completing the elementary and high-school curriculums in ten years, the student is carried through the elementary- and high-school curriculums and the first year of college in eleven years. Such a procedure amounts, of course, to the same net result as that described above, when it was stated that some pupils complete the high-school curriculum in ten years.

In none of the cases under consideration is any effort made to bring the course of study of the student to an end at any point. The arrangement merely carries the student forward as rapidly as is consistent with his abilities into higher forms of work. Ample demonstration has been given in these experiments to the fact that a great many pupils are entirely competent to do mature intellectual work at a much earlier age than is assumed in the ordinary curriculum.

We may pause at this point to consider a common fallacy which frequently determines the practices of schools, the fallacy that a high degree of perfection can be secured by sheer repetition even when this repetition does not arouse on the part of the student any enthusiasm for the work which he is doing. Consider, for example, the repetitions that are constantly required in elementary arithmetic. Everywhere teachers can readily show that pupils

are not perfect in the fundamental operations; they show by the standard tests that it is possible to speed up the fundamental arithmetical operations by giving additional drill. Teachers feel that such results demonstrate the desirability of an annual review of arithmetic. The fact is, however, that exactly the same demonstration could be made at any stage of adult life with regard to the fundamental operations in arithmetic. It would be possible to speed up and make more accurate arithmetical processes even with a group of trained teachers. There is no justification, however, for undertaking to speed up each year for the simple reason that as soon as the drill is over, there is a natural relapse on the part of everyone and a consequent loss of the special skill which has been gained through the drill. A more advantageous educational process consists in finding in higher subjects repeated opportunities for review of the fundamental arithmetical operations. There is no reason why algebra and geometry should not be utilized by a skillful teacher to accomplish all of the results that are now sought by useless drills and reviews of arithmetic in the upper grades. A similar argument can be put forth for much of the refinement of instruction which is attempted in English grammar, spelling, and other subjects. Even informational subjects are in some measure subject to the same rule. For example, the facts in geography can in many instances be adequately reviewed through the study of history, and because of the vital interest which the pupils feel in the subject of history, the geography becomes a much more vital part of the pupil's experience.

The experiment which has thus been described in detail follows the lines of development which many other schools have been adopting in slightly different form in recent years. There has been such an expansion in the amount of schooling which is needed by the average pupil that some readjustment in the curriculum of the public school was inevitable. Two generations ago a pupil could go into the activities of ordinary life with a little knowledge of the three R's and could feel himself qualified by this small amount of school training for many of the activities of commerce and industry. At the present time the three R's will not suffice, and so general has come to be the recognition of this fact that both the schools and the public at large are aiming to find an opportunity in the schools for broader forms of training. These broader forms of training have been provided in part by adding to the elementary curriculum such subjects as geography, history, nature-study, and the like. But the demand for expansion continues in spite of these additions, with the result that the question has arisen very pointedly whether the work traditionally carried on in the lower grades is organized as economically as possible. As soon as this question came up, teachers began to realize that there had been an artificial conservatism in the curriculum of the elementary school. Since this school did not ordinarily include algebra and geometry among its subjects of instruction, the effort was made to expand arithmetic. The usual result was, as has been indicated, a great deal of needless reviewing which did not in reality enlarge the pupil's arithmetical ability but merely served to destroy the interest of the pupils. Like waste appeared in other departments.

The junior high-school movement arose spontaneously in a great many different centers in the country, because it furnished a new kind of solution of the difficulties encountered in the elementary schools. The very name of this institution indicates that teachers realize the importance of importing into the elementary school some of the more advanced subjects. To be sure, these subjects must be reconstructed so that they will not be mere importations of high-school work into the lower grades, but the content of most of the high-school subjects can, by a relatively slight rearrangement, be made available in part for children of the ages of twelve and thirteen. The junior high-school movement is a movement in the direction of genuine educational economy. This new institution is not intended to curtail in any wise a pupil's opportunity for training. It is intended rather to make possible a new type of instruction and a new body of instructional material.

It has sometimes been argued that the changes which are sought by the advocates of the junior high school can be introduced into the elementary school equally well by retaining the traditional form of public school organization. It is said that departmentalized instruction will serve all of the purposes that are sought by the junior high school itself. The answer to this assertion is that any elementary school in fact can accomplish all of the purposes of the junior high school if it will reconstruct its curriculum radically enough to eliminate all unnecessary review and introduce vital and interesting discussions for the older pupils. But such a complete change as is contemplated in this formula usually does not come into the school until a new name is given to the upper grades and a new motive is given for the reorganization of the curriculum.

It is also true that there must be many local variations of the experiment of modifying instruction so as to make it more economical. The methods that are suitable to urban schools may not be the best methods to be adopted in the one-room rural schools. Many observers who find that junior high schools are of many different types in various parts of the country are disturbed by this observation and feel that they must be critical of the movement because there is no standard institution to which they can point as realizing all of the motives which have led to the organization of junior high schools.

Uniformity is certainly not a characteristic to be desired at this stage of the process of reconstruction. The elementary school ought to be changed, especially in its upper grades, but the changes which are introduced should be made with full regard to the special needs of pupils and the special materials available in the locality in which the school is situated.

The one purpose of all of the reorganizations advocated in this and in other papers which are being presented on the same program is that there shall be a genuine expansion of educational opportunities for the pupils in our public schools. Economy in the sense of an education better and more broadly administered does not mean the reduction of anyone's opportunity. It means rather the very material expansion of the education which is offered through the changes advocated.

THE SHORTER ELEMENTARY COURSE¹

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IN AMERICA we have tried empirically varying lengths for the elementary school, because in our country education began locally in a small way and without professional or scientific guidance. The practice of each locality or section was made to conform to local conceits without any well-defined program. In the successive changes, however, there grew up a generally accepted length of eight years for the elementary school, the only exceptions now being a seven-year elementary school in seven Southern States—namely, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas, and a few isolated centers in other States. The most notable example of the last is Kansas City, Missouri, where the 7-4 system has been in use since 1867.

One hundred years ago there were different groupings of grades as will appear from the following list:

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS, 1820-1850

HARTFORD, CONN. Enter Elementary School at 6, High School at 12, which indicates a six-year elementary school.	
PROVIDENCE, R. I. Primary (2½), Intermediate (2½), Grammar School (4), High School (4).....	13 years
OSWEGO, N. Y. Primary 3, Junior 3, Senior 3, High 3.....	12 years
ROCHESTER, N. Y. Primary 2, Intermediate 2, Grammar 3, High 4.....	11 years
NEW YORK CITY. Primary (5), Grammar (6).....	11 years
SYRACUSE, N. Y. Primary 3, Junior 3, Senior 3, High 3.....	12 years
TROY, N. Y. Primary 3, Intermediate 3, Grammar 3, High 4.....	13 years
HARRISBURG, PA. Primary 4, Secondary 4, High 4.....	12 years
NEWARK, N. J. Primary 3, Grammar 3, High 4.....	10 years
TOLEDO, OHIO. Primary 2, Secondary 2, Intermediate 2, Grammar 2, High 3	11 years
MADISON, WIS. Primary 2, Intermediate 2, Grammar 2, Senior-Grammar 2, High 2.....	10 years

Aside from private schools the old-field school and the old-type district school then formed the dependence for popular education. These did not constitute a system of schools, but were more or less independent units, each following its own whims or notions. In the subjects of instruction they were primarily elementary schools, but included pupils of considerable maturity. The long elementary period in these schools was required to complete the fundamentals because of more or less irregular attendance, and particularly because the textbooks in arithmetic, geography, spelling, and grammar were all inclusive in subject-matter. There was a general absence of the high school as a distinctive feature. These schools, therefore, in personnel and subject-matter, were called upon to assume a function beyond the present elementary school.

¹ Address given in Chicago, February 26, 1924, before the Department of Elementary School Principals.

Cubberley¹ says: "Sometimes we found a three-year high school superimposed on anywhere from a six- to a nine-year elementary course of study, and sometimes a four-year school superimposed on schools of varying length below. In time the nine-year elementary school became general in the New England States, the seven-year elementary school in the Southern States, and the eight-year elementary school elsewhere, with a three-year and later a four-year high school course superimposed on top of each."

These old-type district schools were supplemented by the American academy, which began in 1750 and reached its maximum in the middle of the nineteenth century. The academy arose because of the inadequacy or unsuitability of the Latin grammar schools which had been theretofore the only dependence for secondary education in America. The academy movement grew apace because this institution was more democratic, and more practical in program of studies. It was particularly attractive to the rising middle class in our country. These schools, also, were not a part of a system but independent units, so that their practices as to admission and graduation were governed largely by local judgments and needs. By the time academies became fairly numerous they did not confine themselves to secondary education, but appropriated the earlier grades and superimposed their secondary school studies upon the existing program of elementary education, also, which had the effect generally of standardizing the elementary school to eight grades.

By the middle of the nineteenth century practically every State was committed in its laws to a State system of public education, and since that time the public high school has supplanted the academy. In this process it was a natural thing for the high school to imitate the academy and base secondary school work on the existing elementary school. Since the American high school was democratic, was not confined to a class, it had little in common with the secondary school of Europe. It did not ape the *Gymnasium* of Germany, or the *Lycee* of France, institutions designed for the privileged classes of those countries. While one of its important services was to fit for college, its main function was to round out the education of the masses, received in the common elementary schools.

Until in comparatively recent times, the evolutionary process of our educational development has not proceeded under the guidance of professional advice or in accordance with a scientific spirit. Now and then we have had outstanding leaders, such as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, and after them Francis W. Parker, W. T. Harris, Charles W. Eliot, John Dewey, and others. The first two of these preceded but, to some extent, made possible, the professional leadership of more recent years, while the others rather ushered in such a period. During the last thirty years we have moved forward rapidly in building schoolhouses, training teachers, lengthening the school term, financing schools, and applying scientific thinking and planning to school organization and procedure.

¹ Cubberley, E. P. *Public education in the United States*, p. 454.

As soon as we arrived at this stage we began to have misgivings about the length of time we were taking to put our children in possession of the fundamental tool subjects. Agitation has been going on for thirty years and some changes have resulted, but custom and habit, as in all human concerns, have been powerful forces working for a continuance of the old-time situation. The thing we appropriated or evolved has had us in its grip. School systems accepting the junior high school subscribe by that act to the shorter elementary program, but correspondingly increase the secondary school as if there were something sacred in having twelve years below college.

As long ago as 1904, Dr. Seerley,¹ addressing the National Education Association said: "The time is here when it is well to investigate the adaptability of the work that is being done and ascertain whether there may not be a better way to conduct our schools and thus get earlier results that are positively in touch with modern life. The so-called grammar grades are ready for a treatment that is the more heroic and permanent. The work that is commonly assigned them is unsuited in quality and quantity for the mind development and capability of the child, and, besides, it is out of touch with modern civilization, as shown in the business and practical affairs of the world. Experiments have proved that this is the very time to take advantage of the interest and the nature of the children and adapt a plan of work in the curriculum that seems radical and extreme to those alone who have not recognized that custom has given a false and fictitious value to the so-called common-school subjects. The unprejudiced investigator will find that this condition of judgment and practice is due to the authority given the modern textbook, to the belief that thoroughness thus obtained in these elementary branches gives a remarkable power, and to the absolute faith that the American people have in their own free institutions, among which the public schools hold chief place."

Superintendent Van Sickle² in 1912 in addressing the National Education Association said: "Time would be saved by classifying the grades above the sixth as secondary instead of elementary, which would facilitate differentiation of work in the upper grades and permit pupils to make more direct preparation for business, the industries, or professional life, as they choose."

It would seem that the time is appropriate to give earnest consideration to our school organization and bring that under the same scrutiny we are prepared to apply to the curriculum, methods of teaching, the content of school subjects, the results of instruction, and the mental abilities of children. We have built up a body of scientific material and procedure and are acquiring a scientific spirit and technique in the investigations and study of school problems, and this fact encourages the belief that school organization will receive the attention its importance justifies.

The first notable expression of doubt as to the entire appropriateness of our program was uttered by President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard, in 1888 before the Department of Superintendence in a paper entitled, "Can

¹ Seerley, H. H. *Educational Review*, 27: 186-7.

² Van Sickle, James H. *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1912, p. 509.

School Progress Be Shortened and Enriched?" and in 1892 before the National Education Association on "Shortening and Enriching the Grammar-School Course." The discussion has been on since that time.

The first effect was the creation of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies in 1891, the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education in 1893, and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements in 1895. Shortening and enriching the elementary course of study then became an important topic for discussion in the professional press and in the programs of State and National educational associations, until the Herbartian movement and the era of tests and measures arrived to divide attention. Along with the test and measurement movement we have another field of study and investigation—child study, with special emphasis upon the characteristics of adolescence. These movements have divided attention with the earlier one which dealt with the curriculum and the organization of the elementary and secondary school. For two decades these have been the major themes in the scientific study of education.

It is fortunate that these movements have been concurrent for each has something to contribute to the other. Our thinking thus buttressed should lead to more valid conclusions. Tests and measures give us opportunities to secure data subject to a reasonable degree of exactness and available for investigations in fields hitherto comparatively untouched. To appreciate this fact think, for instance, of what handicaps to the scientific study of education we should suffer if deprived of everything concerned with intelligence tests. These have brought a tool of tremendous significance to problems of organization and instruction. We have because of them more than surmises, or guesses, or hypotheses in appraising mental characteristics and attainments at the different levels of development. The light shed on mental traits will be of tremendous aid in reaching right conclusions as to school organization, curricular needs, and teaching processes.

The eight- or nine-year elementary course was more defensible fifty or seventy-five years ago than today. The average amount of education in the Nation in 1850 was 450 days, or 22 months, 10 days. This today would bring a child through the first term of the third grade. In 1916 the average amount of education was 1192 days, or 59 months, 12 days, enough to complete the sixth grade and half of the seventh.

The earlier low average schooling was largely due to short terms and irregular attendance, or to non-attendance. Today the multiplication of schools, compulsory attendance laws, and truant officers together with the popular interest in education cause the almost complete enrolment and a much more punctual attendance of children. This one condition ought without loss to make possible a shorter elementary program. But there are other conditions favoring the same result.

The elementary textbooks of today are in content and organization better suited to the different levels of progress than they were then. Think of the old blue-back speller with its ten thousand words among which abounded long and unused words and words of peculiar spelling, such as incomprehensibility, immateriality, valetudinarian, mnemonics, phthisic. The more

scientific construction of our present-day speller and the improved method of handling the spelling business mean nothing if they cannot produce better spellers in a shorter time than ever before. The investigation of Mr. J. M. Rice, editor of *The Forum*, disclosed the fact that in 1890 there was no essential connection between the achievements in spelling and the amount of time put on it. Cities with an average of ten minutes a day did as well as those using forty minutes. It would be important to know how much of this condition was due to faulty texts and faulty method.

Probably no elementary-school subject has been modified in a more thoroughgoing manner than has arithmetic. From being a ponderous tome incorporating almost every use to which arithmetical computation is applicable it has been reduced and freshened and rationalized as to subject-matter and treatment. Those old arithmetics seemed designed to settle every possible number trouble, probable or hypothetical. A rather exaggerated notion of the knowledge and mental power of student or teacher was maintained if he could work all the problems in the book. The pursuit turned into a game as an end in itself.

Important as are the longer school session and the improved texts of today in making possible higher achievements in less time, there is yet another element of great significance, arguing to the same effect. I refer to the comparatively large body of well-educated and *professionally-trained teachers* we have today. Teacher-training institutions are little more than seventy-five years old in America. They have grown in number and enrolment until they have become a force of great value in the educational work of the Nation.

We should not overlook another important factor—the *trained supervisor* with his standard tests of intelligence and achievement. Not content with a longer school term, scientifically-constructed textbooks, and trained teachers, we almost everywhere are committed to professionally-trained leaders for superintendents, and to expert supervision. The intensive study and planning of the brightest people in the system is laid before the group, and she who might otherwise get the results of only a mediocre teacher is lifted to a higher level of performance.

The facts recited argue that we have a right to expect a better performance in less time, but leave us in doubt as to whether we do or do not secure it.

Assuming that we are able to do more in less time because of longer sessions, modern texts, trained teachers, supervisors and superintendents, and good buildings and equipment, the opinion may yet be held that the complex social and economic order of today calls for additional training in proportion to improved facilities—that conditions in the world all the while call for ever-increasing knowledge and skill for each successive period. That proposition will be admitted, but to us it does not validate the lengthened elementary program. On the contrary it demands the richer content and the wider view of secondary education and that this type of education should be made available to larger numbers by being taken up at the age of 12 or 13.

Numerous citations could be made in favor of the shorter elementary course, but we shall not make use of them. They would no doubt express

valuable opinion and advance sound theory. But in the language of Gradgrind, "Let us have facts," and therefore we shall devote the remainder of this paper to the presentation of some of the results of a study we made in the spring of 1923, involving the comparison of certain 7-4 schools and certain 8-4 schools. Our plan was to assemble comparable data to show whether or not and in what particulars one type of organization is superior to the other.

It is hardly tenable to say that the plans have equal merit. The presumption is that the seven-year elementary school will cost one-eighth less and save a year's time. If such is the case, however, are those results achieved at the sacrifice of education? We proposed to find answers to such questions as the following:

1. How do the achievements in high school compare as between students from seven- and eight-year elementary schools?
2. How do the achievements in college compare as between students from 7-4 and 8-4 schools?
3. How much time, if any, is saved by means of the 7-4 school?
4. How does the cost compare?
5. Which system has the greater holding power, and is therefore giving secondary education to the greatest number?

For the purpose of our investigation we secured data from one school system in Arkansas, two in Mississippi, and three in Louisiana. Arkansas and Mississippi have 8-4 schools and Louisiana 7-4 schools. There were, therefore, three 8-4 school systems and three 7-4 school systems in our study. Enrolment in the 8-4 systems was as follows: Elementary, 4136; high school, 957. Enrolment in the 7-4 systems was as follows: Elementary, 2474; high school, 1014.

The Arkansas and Mississippi school systems were selected upon the advice of the school authorities of those States after the purpose and manner of the study were explained. So far as we know, all of these schools are typical of the schools of those sizes in the respective States. Other schools might have made higher or lower scores, but we are confident the selections were made with the full intent of presenting typical school systems in a sincere effort to make possible comparative data. We realize, however, that there are incidental features affecting results which are not identical in these systems and that a certain allowance should be made on that account. Some of these incidental features are the program of studies; the adequacy of buildings and equipment; the training, experience, and tenure of teachers; the nature of supervision; the general health of the community at the time of the tests; the pupil-teacher ratio, etc.

To answer question one—namely, How do the achievements in high school compare in the two sets of systems?, we gave nationally-known standard tests in reading, spelling, arithmetic, algebra, history (U. S.), Latin, and language and grammar. In order to have a common unit and thus combine the various scores, we reduced the median achievements to per cents of the standards. One hundred per cent represents the average achievement of many thousands of pupils throughout the country. Tables 1 to 7 give the results in the different subjects by grades in all the schools and tables 8 and 9

give the final average in all subjects for each school. An 8-4 school makes the highest score, while the three next highest scores are made by 7-4 schools. The average for the 7-4 schools is 8.1 per cent above that for the 8-4 schools. The three 8-4 schools are about 9 per cent and the three 7-4 schools are about 1 per cent under the national standard.

In March, 1922,¹ we had used these tests, except the history and arithmetic tests, in the Shreveport, Louisiana, high school where there were 1250 high-school students. Shreveport has the 7-4 system. The average of the medians reduced to per cents of standard scores was 105.4 per cent. If this were averaged with the results in the other 7-4 schools, the combined result would be 100.6 per cent, or just about the recognized national standard.

It is recognized that this study did not involve a very broad base, but it should be recalled that the standard medians established for these tests have resulted from the scores made by many thousands of pupils, the vast majority of whom were in systems having eight grades in the elementary school. When we use these tests and standards in Louisiana we are in a sense making comparison between many 8-4 schools and our 7-4 schools. Two of the four Louisiana schools came slightly under 100 per cent and two went slightly over 100 per cent of the standard scores, the combined average for the four being 100.6 per cent. In view of these facts it is not unreasonable to say that results in the 7-4 schools are not inferior to those in 8-4 schools.

Results in college—College deans' reports made to the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern States² show the following data for the session 1921-1922: 3533 freshmen from 274 seven-four schools failed in 12.8 per cent of their freshman subjects, and 1828 freshmen from 244 eight-four schools failed in 12.2 per cent of their freshman subjects. A similar report for the fall term of 1922-1923 showed a margin of 3 per cent in favor of the 8-4 schools. The evidence is thus far inconclusive in claiming any particular advantage for the longer school course. We should have to secure data of this kind for a term of years before we could say with complete definiteness that there was any material difference. The evidence in hand does not indicate that marked differences will be found in the performance of the two groups in college.

Age-grade distribution—Tables 10 to 14 present data on the relative number of pupils of different age levels in the four high-school grades. They indicate whether or not the pupils in the high-school departments of 7-4 schools are or are not grade for grade younger than those in 8-4 systems. Table 10 presents the case for the first high school year. The median age in the 8-4 schools is 14 years, 8.8 months; in 7-4 schools it is 14 years. The 8-4 schools have in this grade only three 12-year olds, while the three 7-4 schools have 20. There are also more 13- and 14-year olds in the 7-4 schools. For the ages above 14, the numbers in 8-4 schools are always larger. In the

¹ Caddo (La.) Survey, 1922, State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

² Proceedings of Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of Southern States, 1922, pp. 74-87.

8-4 schools there are respectively 46, 23, and 14 pupils that are 17, 18, and 19 years old, while in the 7-4 schools the corresponding numbers are 19, 5, and 6.

The same general characteristics obtain for the other high school grades. The evidence is therefore conclusive that pupils in the high school departments of 7-4 systems are grade for grade younger than those in 8-4 systems, the amount varying from 7 months to 8.8 months.

Proportion of total enrolment pursuing secondary school work—As shown in the previous section, pupils are younger in the high school departments of 7-4 systems than in the 8-4 systems. On account of this fact it is reasonable to expect that 7-4 schools would enrol a larger proportion of high-school students. If pupils after seven years of elementary school can become identified with the high-school organization, have the privilege of a choice of subjects, including foreign language, laboratory science, and practical arts, high schools will make a greater appeal to them than if these opportunities should be postponed for another year.

Now an examination of the data shows that this is exactly what is taking place. Table 15 gives the enrolment in elementary and high-school grades and the per cent in high school for each school and for each group of schools that are made the basis of this study. In the 8.4 systems the high-school enrolment constituted respectively 19.9 per cent, 16.1 per cent, and 21.2 per cent of the total enrolment. These are smaller per cents than are found in the three 7-4 systems, which are as follows: 29.3 per cent, 29.2 per cent, and 28.3 per cent. Combining the figures of the two groups of schools separately we have for the 8-4 schools a total enrolment of 5093, with 957 in high school, or 18.8 per cent; for the 7-4 schools we have a total enrolment of 3488, with 1014 in high school, or 29.1 per cent. Out of 1000 pupils in 7-4 schools there would be 291 in high school, while in the 8-4 schools there would be 188. In these schools considered there were 54 per cent more high schools proportionately than in the 8-4 schools. This seems to us a significant finding and presents strong reasons for the earlier beginning of high-school studies and therefore a strong plea for the shorter elementary program.

Comparative costs of 7-4 and 8-4 schools—Very little need be said under this head, as there can be no question but that the seven-year elementary school will cost less in teachers' salaries, buildings, furnishings, etc., than an eight-year elementary school. It must be admitted that if Louisiana and the other States and cities now operating on a seven-year basis of elementary education should change to an eight-year program, it would involve for all purposes an outlay one-seventh greater for elementary education than is now the case.

Taking the figures of the Research Division of the National Education Association for the total annual expenditures for public education in America, \$1,045,000,000, there is spent annually \$800,000,000 for elementary education. This sum is obtained by comparing the total cost of instruction (Bulletin No. 90, 1919, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.) in the cities of the United States with the total cost of elementary instruction in those cities.

From this we determine that for the eighth grade of elementary education, the Nation is spending approximately \$100,000,000. If the figures submitted in this study are indicative of the comparative performance in high school or college of pupils from seven-year and eight-year elementary schools, there is an opportunity to effect a considerable saving in the cost of education without loss in the results.

Conclusion—A careful examination of all the data secured in comparison of the three 8-4 school systems and the three 7-4 systems warrants the following statements:

1. Pupils in these 7-4 schools are not surpassed by pupils in these 8-4 schools in educational achievement in high school.
2. Graduates of 7-4 school systems pass about the same proportion of their freshman subjects as do the graduates of 8-4 systems.
3. High-school students in 7-4 schools are younger grade for grade than in 8-4 systems, the difference being from 7 to 8-8 months. There is, therefore, the saving of approximately one year's time.
4. Seven-four schools have a greater holding power on students, the difference being very marked in the schools considered.
5. Seven-four schools would cost the Nation approximately \$100,000,000 less than the present 8-4 schools.

The facts brought out in this study indicate the importance of securing similar data on a much larger scale. The writer is seeking to make possible such a study during the coming school session.

RESULTS IN ACHIEVEMENT TESTS IN CERTAIN 7-4 AND 8-4 SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN ARKANSAS, LOUISIANA AND MISSISSIPPI, 1923¹

TABLE 1.—AYRFS SPELLING SCALE, BUCKINGHAM REVISION. TWENTY WORDS FROM THE Y COLUMN

(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools	1st yr.	2d yr.	3d yr.	4th yr.	Average
Van Buren, Ark.	77.6	68.5	83.3	87.0	79.1
Laurel, Miss.	94.8	89.0	83.3	81.5	87.2
McComb, Miss.	86.2	82.2	71.4	76.1	79.0
7-4 Schools					
Alexandria, La.	86.2	82.2	89.3	92.4	87.5
Homer, La.	94.8	82.2	89.3	97.8	91.0
Mansfield, La.	77.6	61.6	67.9	92.4	74.9

¹ Bulletin of State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1923.

TABLE 2.—HENMON LATIN TEST NO. 1
(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools	Second year			Third year		
	Voc.	Sen.	Average	Voc.	Sen.	Average
Van Buren, Ark.	74.7	72.5	73.6	72.2	32.0	52.1
Laurel, Miss.	108.7	122.5	115.6	No report		
McComb, Miss.	72.9	74.2	73.5	84.1	58.5	71.3
7-4 Schools						
Alexandria, La.	95.6	83.3	89.4	98.2	59.0	78.6
Homer, La.	86.5	74.2	80.5	No report		
Mansfield, La.	97.9	111.7	104.8	102.8	97.5	101.1

AVERAGE OF TWO GRADES FROM EACH SCHOOL (LATIN)

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	62.8	Alexandria, La.	84.0
Laurel, Miss.	115.6	Homer, La.	80.3
McComb, Miss.	72.4	Mansfield, La.	102.4

TABLE 3.—BARR'S DIAGNOSTIC TEST IN AMERICAN HISTORY
(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	68.4	Alexandria, La.	92.9
Laurel, Miss.	89.1	Homer, La.	83.3
McComb, Miss.	110.7	Mansfield, La.	135.3

TABLE 4.—BUCKINGHAM'S SCALE FOR PROBLEMS IN ARITHMETIC, THIRD DIVISION,
FORM 1

(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	92.9	Alexandria, La.	91.4
Laurel, Miss.	105.9	Homer, La.	95.8
McComb, Miss.	98.1	Mansfield, La.	90.8

TABLE 5.—CHARTER'S DIAGNOSTIC LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR TEST, PRONOUNS,
FORM 1

(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools	Language	Grammar	Average
Van Buren, Ark.	87.9	107.7	97.3
Laurel, Miss.	104.5	177.7	141.1
McComb, Miss.	No report		
7-4 Schools			
Alexandria, La.	104.5	169.2	136.8
Homer, La.	110.6	179.2	144.9
Mansfield, La.	103.0	157.7	130.3

TABLE 6.—MONROE'S STANDARDIZED SILENT READING, TEST III, FORM 1
(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools	First year			Second year		
	Rate	Com.	Average	Rate	Com.	Average
Van Buren, Ark.	92.8	95.7	94.2	90.6	110.2	100.4
Laurel, Miss.	103.6	108.7	106.1	143.2	141.7	142.4
McComb, Miss.	131.9	130.4	131.1	128.2	133.9	130.0
7-4 Schools						
Alexandria, La.	103.6	108.7	106.1	101.2	122.0	111.6
Homer, La.	131.3	121.7	126.5	65.9	114.2	90.0
Mansfield, La.	103.6	100.0	101.8	101.2	86.6	93.9
8-4 Schools	Third year			Fourth year		
	Rate	Com.	Average	Rate	Com.	Average
Van Buren, Ark.	85.6	95.6	90.6	84.4	93.3	88.8
Laurel, Miss.	95.6	102.9	99.2	89.6	113.3	100.4
McComb, Miss.	122.2	106.6	114.4	114.6	76.7	95.6
7-4 Schools						
Alexandria, La.	107.8	117.6	112.7	89.6	113.3	101.4
Homer, La.	96.7	128.7	112.7	71.9	100.0	85.4
Mansfield, La.	107.8	102.9	105.3	113.5	113.3	113.4

FINAL AVERAGE OF THE FOUR GRADES FROM EACH SCHOOL (READING)

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	93.5	Alexandria, La.	107.9
Laurel, Miss.	112.2	Homer, La.	103.6
McComb, Miss.	118.0	Mansfield, La.	103.6

TABLE 7.—HOTZ'S FIRST YEAR ALGEBRA SCALE, EQUATION AND FORMULA
(Per Cent of Standard Scores)

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	59.2	Alexandria, La.	73.2
Laurel, Miss.	83.1	Homer, La.	98.6
McComb, Miss.	53.5	Mansfield, La.	70.4

TABLE 8.—GENERAL SUMMARY AND AVERAGE OF THE SEVEN TESTS

8-4 Schools	Spell- ing	Read- ing	Latin	Hist.	Arith.	Alg.	Eng.	Aver.
Van Buren, Ark.	79.1	93.5	62.8	68.4	92.9	59.2	97.3	79.0
Laurel, Miss.	87.2	112.2	115.6	89.1	105.9	83.1	141.1	104.9
McComb, Miss.	79.0	118.0	72.4	110.7	98.1	53.5		88.6
7-4 Schools								
Alexandria, La.	87.5	107.9	84.0	92.9	91.4	73.2	136.8	96.2
Homer, La.	91.0	103.6	80.3	83.3	95.8	98.6	144.9	99.6
Mansfield, La.	74.9	103.6	102.4	135.3	90.8	70.4	130.3	101.1

TABLE 9.—FINAL AVERAGE FOR ALL SUBJECTS

8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools	
Van Buren, Ark.	79.0	Alexandria, La.	96.2
Laurel, Miss.	104.9	Homer, La.	99.6
McComb, Miss.	88.6	Mansfield, La.	101.1
Average for 8-4 Schools.....		Average for 7-4 Schools.....	98.9

TABLE 10.—AGE AND GRADE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, FIRST HIGH SCHOOL YEAR

8-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Van Buren, Ark. . . .		3	8	29	24	3	2	..	1	70
Laurel, Miss.	3	13	34	32	35	32	20	13	..	182
McComb, Miss. . . .		23	35	42	20	11	1	1	..	133
Total	3	39	77	103	79	46	23	14	1	385

Median Age: 14 years, 8.8 months.

7-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Alexandria, La. . . .	18	33	65	47	39	10	2	3	..	217
Homer, La.	1	12	20	12	8	3	2	3	..	61
Mansfield, La. . . .	1	4	16	22	12	6	1	..	..	62
Total	20	49	101	81	59	19	5	6	..	340

Median Age: 14 years, 0 months.

TABLE 11.—AGE AND GRADE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, SECOND HIGH SCHOOL YEAR

8-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Van Buren, Ark. . . .	..	..	7	23	16	7	1	..	..	54
Laurel, Miss.	1	7	20	22	21	17	12	..	..	100
McComb, Miss. . . .	..	6	25	29	16	7	4	..	..	87
Total	1	13	52	74	53	31	17	..	..	241

Median Age: 15 years, 9 months.

7-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Alexandria, La. . . .	4	31	33	34	27	12	7	..	..	148
Homer, La.	4	4	14	7	5	2	..	..	..	36
Mansfield, La. . . .	1	3	12	12	12	2	..	..	..	42
Total	9	38	59	53	44	16	7	..	..	226

Median Age: 15 years, 1 month.

TABLE 12.—AGE AND GRADE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, THIRD HIGH SCHOOL YEAR

8-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Van Buren, Ark. . . .	..	..	..	8	26	14	7	..	..	55
Laurel, Miss.	..	..	2	9	19	12	9	..	..	51
McComb, Miss. . . .	..	1	8	17	26	14	3	..	..	69
Total	..	1	10	34	71	42	19	..	..	177

Median Age: 16 years, 7 months.

7-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Alexandria, La. . . .	..	2	25	46	36	23	16	..	..	138
Homer, La.	..	1	6	16	7	11	1	..	..	42
Mansfield, La. . . .	..	..	4	11	15	5	4	..	..	39
Total	..	3	35	73	58	39	21	..	..	219

Median Age: 16 years, 0 months.

TABLE 13.—AGE AND GRADE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, FOURTH HIGH SCHOOL YEAR

8-4 Schools	Age 12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Total
Van Buren, Ark.	..	..	..	..	..	6	19	9	4	38
Laurel, Miss.	..	..	..	..	1	9	12	11	..	33
McComb, Miss.	..	..	..	1	4	22	20	12	..	59
Total	..	..	..	1	5	37	51	32	4	130

Median Age: 17 years, 5 months.

7-4 Schools										
Alexandria, La.	..	..	..	2	9	33	23	18	..	85
Homer, La.	..	..	..	2	5	8	4	2	..	21
Mansfield, La.	..	..	..	1	5	8	10	1	..	25
Total	..	..	..	5	19	49	37	21	..	131

Median Age: 16 years, 10 months.

TABLE 14.—MEDIAN AGE OF STUDENTS IN EACH HIGH SCHOOL YEAR BY GROUPS—
8-4 AND 7-4 SCHOOLS

	8-4 Schools		7-4 Schools.	
	Yrs.	Mos.	Yrs.	Mos.
1st High School Year	14	8.8	14	0
2d High School Year	15	9.0	15	1
3d High School Year	16	7.0	16	0
4th High School Year	17	5.0	16	10

TABLE 15.—ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT

8-4 Schools	Elementary	High school	Total	Per cent in high school
Van Buren, Ark.	1048	260	1308	19.9
Laurel, Miss.	1739	333	2072	16.1
McComb, Miss.	1349	364	1713	21.2
Total	4136	957	5093	18.8
7-4 schools				
Alexandria, La.	1505	623	2128	29.3
Homer, La.	475	196	671	29.2
Mansfield, La.	494	195	689	28.3
Total	2474	1014	3488	29.1

THE First Yearbook is out of print. There remain in stock a few copies of the Second Yearbook, "The Problem of the Elementary School Principal in the Light of the Testing Movement," and of the Third Yearbook, "The Status of the Elementary School Principal." 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.

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT¹

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THE MANAGEMENT of a modern school system is a grave responsibility. No school program is complete nor approximates completeness unless it provides for the education of all the children of the community through the period of youth, giving them approximately a high school education or the equivalent in citizenship training through the high school age. To do this requires a gigantic and complex piece of machinery. That the management of this piece of machinery is a public function and must operate in a political setting adds to the weight of the responsibility of management very greatly. The central office of such a system must be able to carry on simultaneously and with expeditiousness and efficiency a large number of complex and highly developed operations and activities, each of which in itself constitutes a large problem. Some of the major operations which the central office of a school system must carry on are as follows:

1. A plan and policy for financing an ever-increasing budget of current expenses.
2. An organization which will carry out the mechanical functions of school operation in an effective and economical manner.
3. A system and policy of securing an able, experienced and well-trained body of professional workers.
4. A scheme for developing a system of instruction, including curriculum development, supervision of methods, and proper classification of children according to abilities.
5. An effective operating plan for the erection of new buildings necessitated by the rapidly widening scope of the educational field and the increased American interest in education.
6. An effective publicity system.

All of these are essential parts of an effective school system. Each one of them is in itself a heavy managerial task. The superintendent's office is responsible for the coördination and successful operation of all of these subdivisions as a single system. Where a right kind of school organization exists, the board of education holds the superintendent responsible for all of these functions. The public looks to him for results and holds him accountable if they are not forthcoming.

But the central offices are not the school system. All of the above important functions go on to make possible what the teacher actually does in school and classroom. As a whole, the most important executive officer of the system is the one who, actually in the forefront of the work of the school system, directs what goes on in the field and on the firing line. In school parlance he is called the principal. Budgets, administrative systems, plans for selecting teachers, building programs, publicity plans—all exist to make the work of the school possible and the work of the school is the work of its classrooms and its institutional educative contacts with the children. The

¹ Address given in Chicago, February 27, 1924, before the Department of Elementary School Principals.

school is accordingly the operating unit of the system and its head and chief is its principal. The purpose of this discussion is to present this institutional chief or leader in some of his major capacities.

How should the principal regard himself? How responsible is he in the light of the great work of the school system as a whole? First of all, he should regard himself as a representative of the school system as a whole, as a shaper of policy, as an adviser of the central office and as its direct representative in the institution in which he is to carry on. A principal who has only a four-wall conception of his job, and whose chief claim to distinction is a feeling of ownership of the institution which he manages, never becomes a real administrator. The first asset of the large, commanding, growing principal is a conception of the school system as a whole. He will be able to define the place of his institution in it if he has a conception of the entire school program. He is responsible with his fellow principals and with his superintendent not only for the welfare of his school and for its success, but for the welfare of the public schools of the city and for their success. The superintendent must rely upon him and make constant use of his firing-line advice. He must regard him as a member of his cabinet and advisory staff. If there is a relation of mutual confidence between principal and superintendent, this is inevitable. It is likewise imperative for the best interests of the school system.

Superintendents who are wise establish as an administrative medium principals' groups for this purpose. In a city school system with a considerable number of principals there should be two or three administrative group organizations of them. If there is more than one high school, there should be a high school principals' conference with an assistant superintendent as an ex-officio member. This conference should meet regularly on school time say once or twice a month, should make its proceedings a matter of record and should report directly to the office of the superintendent. There should be such mutual confidence between the superintendent's office and the principals that this sort of group would not hesitate to advise the superintendent as to policy, and vice versa, the superintendent would not hesitate to refer all matters concerning the technical administration of high schools to this group. If a system of junior high schools is operated, there should be a similar conference of junior high school principals. There should also be a body of elementary school principals with this same administrative relationship. In addition, there should be an independent principals' club, operating partially as a social body, but also as a professional organization, with its own officers and its own program. Upon these organizations the superintendent should constantly rely for advice and counsel. He should also make frequent administrative use of these organizations in carrying out the established policy of the school system.

The most elemental rôle in which the principal should see himself is that of administrator-in-chief of his school. This does not mean that he is to be in his own opinion a sort of absolutory czar with a first mortgage on all authority, property rights, and professional inheritance of the school in which he works. But it does mean that he should regard himself as responsible for

an operating program—a piece of machinery which will work; for an institutional spirit; for a cohesive working program. A very necessary part of this institutional program is its economic aspect and the principal is the budget officer of the school system for his school. Locally the funds of the district are in his hands. If he is wise, he will be progressive without being extravagant. He will have a program that moves forward always, but that can be carried out with the money resources properly at his disposal. He will hold the administration of the physical plant well within his own hands, and without burdening himself with detail he will dominate and control it. He will have a plan for its operation and administration; also a plan for its future development and for the development and equipment of the playground space. As institutional head he will hold himself responsible for ALL instruction in his school and for all extra-curricular activities realizing their great educational value. He will assume responsibility for the technique of instruction, for the application of the curriculum, for the development of methods and for final results. This does not mean that he will lord it over his teachers or that he will assume that no supervisor of special subjects can have anything to offer in his school. If he is wise and professional, he will know that he can learn much from both his teachers and supervisors, and will use both to full advantage.

The real genius of being a principal, however, doesn't manifest itself primarily in the management of the details of administration. It is in the rôle of a leader and developer of teachers that a principal really comes into his own. The true principal and organizer may have administrative and executive ability to create a smooth running piece of school machinery, but he can't truly accomplish the ends of public education in this democracy unless he is a real leader of teachers. Too many principals worship at the shrine of the idol of detail and expect their robe of authority to do the rest. The true principal is never jealous of his prerogatives and never shows authority except in case of emergency and where great administrative stress is placed upon him, but establishes himself as the strong man of the group because of the confidence he begets in his fellow workers. He can neither bluff nor use the iron rod of authority if he wishes to be the real leader of teachers which every principal should become. He must first have a large human sympathy, be able to put himself in the teacher's place, be as good a listener as he is a talker, accept the word of the other fellow as being as sincere and as good as his own, never be jealous of the credit that should go to others, and see to it many times that some one else gets credit that may be due him. He will always be just and fair and sincere without ostentation and with an emphasis upon the real values of character and life. He will have a professional growth program for himself and for his teachers, but he will never force a program upon them. He will have them all engaged in it because they will enthusiastically follow his lead. He will be continually capitalizing the best that is in all teachers, and the especially good teachers will naturally spread their methods and originality throughout his corps. He will seek to capitalize the ability of teachers to contribute to the school and to the school system, remembering that *participation* and *self-*

realization are the mightiest forces in welding human beings together for cooperative action. He will assume responsibility for the development of the weaker members of his corps, knowing full well that more teacher training goes on in a live wire up-to-date group of teachers at work on the job than in any teacher-training institution in the country. Withal, he will be a teacher among teachers, but the biggest one of them all, not by virtue of the authority of the school system which resides in him, but because of his own habits and qualities of character and mind.

The most difficult rôle which the principal is called upon to assume is that of manager of special supervisors working in his building. A school system organized upon right lines places the authority of the local school under a single headship—that of the principal. All supervisors and special officers of instruction should come to the local school as technical experts in their respective lines. They are the functionaries of the superintendent's office in highly specialized fields. However, unless clothed by special order from the superintendent's office with executive and administrative authority, they have none in the local school. They are sent to become the supervisory experts under the direction of the principal while within his school. The principal is held finally responsible for the type of instruction in his school. He is expected to make full use of the technical experts provided by the school system in lines in which he is not so expert. It is the business of the supervisors upon going to his school to report to his office, and it is his fault or the fault of the relationship between himself and the superintendent if they do not. From that moment they are at his disposal to help in the development of curriculum methods and technique of instruction among his teachers and in the classrooms. At his suggestion they will make frequent use of demonstration lessons. Like the principal himself they will relieve themselves of the cloak of authority except in case of emergency. They will undertake the same rôle of natural leadership that the principal himself assumes. The principal should regard them as his best advisers along all technical lines represented by them. The superintendent so regards them. A large part of the success of the school in its use of the very highly specialized curriculum which modern education has developed will depend upon the way in which the principal thus manages his special supervisory force.

In the same way in which the principal is a natural leader of his teachers and supervisors he should be the natural leader and exemplary idol of his student body. As he wishes them to be in character, manhood and citizenship, so he himself should shape his own life and habits of action. He must remember to keep his youth and youthful viewpoint, and he must so understand the social environment of his community and of his country that he will properly interpret life to his student body through the institutional activities of his school and through the curricular and classroom instruction. To do this he must have the proper avenue of approach to his student following. He must be interested and show an interest in the things in which they are interested to make them regard him as being upon their own plane of living. Without sacrificing the necessary authority of a principalship in requiring obedience and respect for the authority of the school, their personal

approach to him should be of the most natural and friendly order. They should hold him as the prophet of their Bible of good citizenship; and, except in cases of incorrigibility and with the unusual type of pupil, his word should be law because of their confidence in him and not because of his authority as principal.

In his rôle as leader of the public, the principal will play one of his most important parts. He will have a plan for selling the school program and the activities of the school to his patrons and to the community. He will participate himself in the community activities, belonging to civic and luncheon clubs and other organizations which will give him direct contact with the life external to his school. He will have an active, vigorous, working parent-teacher association, one not concerned primarily with the detail of the school, but one with a program and with a forward look as to the work of the school system and the work of his particular school. It is true that the idea of public education in general does not need to be sold to the American public, but it is also true that the conceptions of public education which have developed since many of the American public were youthful and since many of them came to America do have to be sold to them. American life changes with kaleidoscopic rapidity. The public's conception of education, unless they are otherwise informed, is the conception of education they had when they were children; hence, the harking back to the good old times. There would be little harking back to good old times if all the American public knew all the time what the schools are doing; if they were taken into the confidence of the principals, teachers, and school officers as to the school program. Hence, as a leader in the local community, the principal must keep his school and his public in constant contact. American Education Week should bring armies of the public to the school in an organized invasion. I know of one principal who during the recent American Education Week had 450 adult representatives out of his approximately 500 families visit the school, not attending entertainments and exhibits but visiting the regular classroom work. If principals and teachers would go to a bit of trouble to arrange classroom work so patrons can see it and use the proper expediences to bring the parents to school, the parents would be even more interested in classroom work than in any entertainment provided. I have seen groups of middle-class parents sit with wide-eyed astonishment at the processes of an ordinary recitation carried on in their presence in a program arranged for this purpose. The principal will do well always to have in mind that the safety of the school program depends upon a knowledge on the part of the American public of what the schools are doing.

I am not attempting to present all the rôles in which the principal operates as an administrator and as an officer of the public school system, but my list of some of the most important ones would be far from complete if I did not include the principal as a contributor to the curriculum and to the institutional traditions of the school system. A principal who has a well-organized coöperative faculty hard at work on a program of public education because they are interested in it, will have much of new and original material to contribute to the general curriculum and general methods and

practices of his school system. The principal will establish contacts, undertake experiments, make special studies; in fact he will have in operation constantly a group of activities which will be somewhat pioneer in character—this, of course, with the full knowledge and consent of the central offices. Many of these undertakings and experiments will be made general use of and will become a part of the work of the system as a whole. The principal will have an opportunity in this capacity to realize in a permanent fashion one of the ideals which should lead him to become and to continue a principal. This will be an answer to his human instinct for self-realization and participation. If his superintendent is a sensible human being living within the shadow of the golden rule, credit will always be forthcoming to the real contributor and his work will be to the end that the children not only of his own school, but of the whole system may become more efficient and better trained citizens.

In what I have just said I have tried to set up a desultory sketch of the principal as a man or woman above the station of machine detail officer working under the central control of the school system. I believe properly conceived, he is a forceful professional, contributing factor in the development of public education. I have not exaggerated in suggesting that he may be all of these things: adviser and cabinet officer of the superintendent, administrator-in-chief in the local school of which he is the head, a natural leader and developer of teachers, a manager of special supervisors, an example and idol of pupils, a creator of public opinion, and a permanent contributor to the materials of education. When our educational system will use its staff of principals in this fashion, and get men and women who are capable of carrying responsibility of this sort—and these only—then the public school program of America will be approximating the work expected of it.

WHILE it is true that the educational budget has increased more rapidly than the population, it is not true that it has increased more rapidly than the wealth of the community. On the contrary, it may be affirmed, with little fear of contradiction, that from the economist's point of view the growth of prosperity in the United States as a whole has been so enormous as to make the proportion of educational expenditures to the real wealth of the community actually smaller than it was in past decades.—EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN, Columbia University, New York City.

THE RIGHT RELATIONSHIP OF COÖPERATION BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISORS—A CASE STUDY¹

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THE SEATTLE school system has taken every recognition of the rapid evolution of the elementary school principal to a position of real leadership, one whose functions include supervisory as well as administrative jurisdiction over his school. It also assumes that this recognition of the principal in no way detracts from the worth or the dignity of the position of special supervisor.

Somewhat parallel to this we have the very noticeable and meritorious tendency on the part of the classroom teacher to continue her professional studies after entering the service. That she takes advantage of extension courses and normal school and college summer sessions to increase her powers in no way detracts from but rather enlarges the scope and adds to the worth and the dignity of both the principals' and the supervisors' positions. It results, in part, in making the qualifications for each more exacting.

If as Dr. Hosic maintains, "The principal and supervisor are pivotal, the immediate future of teaching is largely in their hands," the situation possibly calls for a new alignment. The two positions are too essential that either should feel handicapped through fear of trespassing. Jealousies and indifferences must not arise. Confusion must not exist. There possibly could be no greater handicap to real educational progress in any community than the failure of principals and supervisors to get together, working in generous sympathy, to solve the status of each on the question of seeming overlapping, supervisory functions.

The classroom teacher demands a solution. She stands today an unselfish, unbiased, yet energetic factor in a great educational system. She yearns for assistance. She covets advice. She longs to be relieved from petty annoyances. She wants, above all, that the indefiniteness of authority be settled. Many of the larger centers are today desperately in earnest in their efforts to settle this question.

The particular method of approach has possibly distinguished Seattle from other centers in this solution. What has brought about the splendid harmonious coöperative spirit now existing there? What has caused the practical elimination of dissatisfaction among teachers over the question of jurisdiction?

Our system concedes that the special supervisors owe their election to the fact that they are experts in their special department of school work. The questions of technique as applied to the special subject; the ferreting out of

¹ Address given in Chicago, February 27, 1924, before the Department of Elementary School Principals.

the best in use in their particular line as has been possible to successfully administer in other systems; bringing to the teacher inspiration and helpful suggestions as to best methods of presenting instruction; reviewing and carefully selecting from among the many, the best of recent books or current educational articles as special aids for the teacher, are a few of the special functions recognized as falling within their scope.

The principal, on the other hand, is credited with being an expert in the general management of a school. To guide and to advise in a supervisory capacity of a more general nature; to unify the work of his school, harmonizing instruction throughout the grades; to insure the teachers the devotion of her time and interest to the unhindered business of instruction, in fact, to make good teaching possible. While it is not presumed that he be an expert along all or any of the special lines, he is credited with having the ability of being a judge of reactions. The supervisor has a right to expect this of him and to receive suggestions accordingly.

In my fourteen years in Seattle as an elementary-school principal, I do not recall a single notice or bulletin having been issued which in any way related to the relative jurisdiction of these positions. Yet somehow it is understood.

Two factors stand out prominently, among others, in bringing about with us what seems to approach the ideal in the relations which should exist between the special supervisor and the principal—the regular bi-weekly principals' meetings called by the superintendent, and the regular monthly professional meeting as maintained by the Seattle Principals' Association.

For many years the superintendent has found it beneficial to have present at his meeting, besides the principal, the various supervisors in the corps. These meetings not only present an opportunity to connect the affairs of the superintendent's office and those of the Board of Education up with the various schools, but also have become a sort of clearing-house between the principals and supervisors. Advice of a general nature is sought by one group from the other. If discussion is aroused on a proposed change or installation, the best plan is adopted. It is here that each knows first-hand the problems of the other. It is a matter for note that each year finds a falling off of initiative measures that are not worth a permanent place in the program or curriculum.

This illustration will show the desire on the part of one group to know the purposes of the other. The superintendent a few months ago called some special meetings, the attendance at these being optional. These meetings were scheduled as a result of replies received from a questionnaire sent to principals and teachers as to means of improving methods of instructions in the Seattle schools.

Each supervisor had a meeting of her own at which she was to sell the work she is supervising to the principals. Outlines and charts were presented. The talks were exceedingly interesting and enlightening. The supervisors claim their profit was as much as, if not in excess of, that gained by the principals. It resulted in their getting their work better organized and gaining confidence in themselves in being able to defend it.

An outstanding feature of these meetings was the high percentage of attendance on the part of the principals. In many cases where a principal could not be present, he sent a building representative.

It was but natural that when the Seattle Principals' Association was re-organized some five years ago with the idea of putting it upon a real functioning basis professionally, the articles referring to membership were made to read:

Section I. Principals and vice-principals shall become active members upon payment of dues.

Section II. Superintendents, supervisors, and other members of administrative staff shall be considered associate members. No dues.

Section III. Honorary members may be elected by a majority vote of the association.

We are proud of our organization. That it is functioning is evident by the one hundred per cent paid up membership and by the very large average attendance of our combined membership at our regular monthly professional meetings. The researches, investigations, and reports are such that few feel they can stay away. Our superintendent recently stated that he would deem it a severe loss to him if he were deprived of the privilege to attend any one of these meetings. We note among others present at each meeting, one or more members of the Board. Three of the five members were present at our last meeting. Representatives of other school and civic organizations of our own and neighboring cities frequently ask the privilege of attending.

At these meetings the supervisors meet us on common grounds. They are assigned places on programs. They as well as superintendents enter freely into all our discussions. They gain a true perspective of school problems, local, State, and National. They can know just what place their special subject should occupy in the local school curriculum. How much time should be allotted each to insure a well-balanced program.

The overzealous supervisor is here restrained. It is here that every principal knows personally as well as professionally every supervisor. He comes to realize more completely the problems of the supervisor, appreciating more fully the importance of the rôles played by them. He loses the narrowness that is apt to be his if this opportunity of change of ideas is not provided. He is also more apt to give a supervisor a more respectable hearing on matters pertaining to his own building. It is this intimate acquaintance, this sympathetic and generous feeling toward each other that makes it possible to solve those overlapping functions in a manner quite generally satisfactory.

Taking advantage of this coöperative feeling, I recently addressed a request to our supervisors and principals that they have a part in this paper. The responses were most generous. In a large measure they reflect existing conditions. Space limits me to quote from them as extensively as I should like to do. Each commented freely upon the splendid spirit existing and seeming lack of any friction, due largely to methods already mentioned. These statements came from the supervisors:

"The principal is the leader of his building. If a subject is down he must expect to stand the blame, so long as he has at his disposal supervisors so

willing to assist. Teachers need much help, but this should be given in such a way that pupils do not lose faith in their teacher's ability."

"This getting together has given us an insight into the problems of the principal and makes it possible to better place the physical education program in the school. The principals' viewpoint, not only of our own special subject but on the curriculum as a whole, is our need if programs are to be carried on without friction. The program should be worked out carefully by supervisor and principal in conference. It is then the principal's responsibility to see that this program is carried out in detail. We expect the principal to be able to direct the work of the supervisor toward bringing best results in his building. On the other hand the supervisor should tell the principal frankly before leaving, what his impressions of the work witnessed has been."

"We do not feel any lack of interest or coöperation on the part of the majority of our principals. Our most serious problem is the musically unfit teacher. All we lack is a plan for special music teachers in our buildings to make our work ideally satisfactory."

"The supervisor must be familiar with educational experiments in both private and public schools in this country and in Europe. They should give help in the diagnosis of the source of seeming failures of teachers in satisfying the ideals of the principals with whom they are working, to aid in any special study initiated by the principal, to freely advise principals of needs as observed in conferences or visitations with teachers."

"In regard to the relationship between principals and supervisors in our system I would say that it comes near being ideal. I have found principals always interested, sympathetic and helpful toward my department and my teachers. They certainly have made it possible for each of my teachers to feel herself a real member of the building corps, which means a great deal. In many cities the teachers of special subjects are not so considered."

"The supervisors' chief worry is with the principal who is perfectly willing that the supervisor shoulders all the responsibility of the special subject."

"The relation between the principal and the supervisor should be one of mutual helpfulness. There are so many ways in which their spheres of influence overlap that any attempt to draw a sharp line of demarcation between their respective responsibilities would result in the loss of much that would be helpful to the schools. I believe that the present spirit of coöperation that prevails in the Seattle schools is the best answer to the question."

The following quotations are taken from replies made by the principals:

"The principal's scope should be such that he can carry to, if not explain to, the supervisor the teacher's problems. As also to explain to the teacher something of the problem of the supervisor. This state would in time break down or prevent the antagonism which prevails to a minor or greater extent in any school system."

"If the principal is capable of being the real head of his school, as the times are demanding that he shall be, the supervisor should so recognize it and at no time embarrass the teacher by giving her directions or orders which may confuse her as to the proper one from whom to receive directions."

"The job of supervising the special work of any teacher is a partnership affair. Each should try to endorse the work of the other and work together in their helpfulness to the teacher."

"In many cases the technique of the special subject is a matter for the supervisor's decision, but when it comes to the adaptation of the courses, to the needs in the individual schools, the principal is the one who should decide upon these adaptations."

"The supervisors should consult with the principal before giving directions to avoid any which may conflict with the general program of the building. The principal should have such an attitude toward the supervisor that will cause the teacher to welcome the visit of the supervisor and be eager for it."

"The principal cannot function as an expert in the specific special subjects of his school. This is the function of the supervisor. They must, however, work together in harmonious teamwork as architect and builder."

"If I thought any supervisor did not enjoy working in my building, I would consider myself to blame and would immediately examine myself upon wherein I failed."

Mr. W. H. Ellert, principal of the Webster School, Seattle, submits the following outline form as typical with his conference with supervisors:

I. Before visit of supervisor to room.

- A. Talk over condition of rooms of new teachers as to
 - 1. Character of pupils.
 - 2. Preparation for work by their former teacher.
 - 3. The teacher's personal problem.
 - 4. Ability to adjust herself to new situations.
 - 5. Her strong points—as her vantage ground.

II. After supervisor's visit to rooms.

- A. The new teacher's ability to carry on work.
- B. What she has yet to accomplish.
- C. How may I assist her.
- D. Improvement of older teachers since last visit.
- E. How does allotment of time suit different teachers.
 - Is it sufficient or more than necessary to attain satisfactory results.

F. Conditions of work in building as a whole.

Seattle may not be the discoverer nor does it claim a copyright on the method under which it is working. It has all been but a gradual development under the guidance of far-seeing schoolmasters, and as progress demanded that the principalship should assume more and more supervisory function it was done without the loss of identity on the part of any other factor.

Knowing the generous, coöperative spirit now existing which must be evident to you by the quotations I have here given, we have no other method to advocate toward bringing about an ideal relationship between supervisors and principals than our own.

MAKE THE PRINCIPALSHIP RESPECTABLE¹

IDE G. SARGEANT

Principal, Public School No. 10, Paterson, New Jersey

THE THINKERS in education have been aroused to a new valuation of the principalship largely through the fact that with all our boasted progress the world suddenly went on a debauch of war to be followed by a period of rudderless drifting in a slough of despond, doubt, selfishness, and crime that has endangered civilization. We see that to train the intellect alone without training the higher spiritual nature as a guiding, restraining force to control the intellect is worse than folly. It is destruction. On the premise that the old régime will continue, we hear talk of the "next war" which would mean the destruction of civilization itself. Our only hope lies in our ability to train the coming generation to view life from a different angle. There are no insolvable problems in education. The trouble has been and is, the puny intellects in charge of education. For nearly half a century the Union Pacific Railroad was a losing proposition, but the brain of Edward Harriman made it pay. France sunk millions at Panama without results, but Dr. Gorgas and General Goethals connected the oceans. The same situation confronts us in education—put into school positions men and women big enough to do the work and it will be done.

Am I wrong in calling some of these principals puny? To my personal knowledge teachers who were desirous to come to this convention, paying their own expenses and losing their salary while here, were denied permission to do so by their principal on the plea that he wanted them at school, when he could easily have obtained substitutes. In fact, if we were not puny, no summer schools would be in session during the week of this great National convention on education. Are principals puny? Look at our membership lists—thousands too small in their professional thinking to pay their two-dollar fee for membership in this Department or to attend its meetings. How are we going to change these conditions? Simple enough. Pay the price that will buy foursquare men and women for school positions. College professors seem to think professional courses will remedy the difficulty. It won't. All the training in the world won't make a high-powered Cadillac out of a four-cylinder Ford, and all the professional courses which can be given will not make an educational leader out of a third-rate man.

Recently a famous English writer, speaking of school officials, said: "A lot of them seem to be unconscious of the amount and range of their functions." The truth of this criticism was driven home to me as I read the replies of fifteen city superintendents to Editor Gist's questionnaire in the Principals' Yearbook for 1924. In reply to his query as to the probable range of salaries for principals, their reply was from three thousand to five thousand a year instead of from five thousand to ten thousand as it should

¹ This address was given at a dinner of the Department of Elementary School Principals at the Raleigh Hotel, Washington, D. C., July 2, 1924.

be for a large city school in the light of present conditions and the work to be done. Think of expecting to go out into the markets of *men* with the dream of inducing college-trained men and women of first-grade ability to become principals for such money! And only men and women of first-grade ability should be considered for principalships. These replies from some of our foremost superintendents show why we hear so many complaints about the inefficiency of the schools. Of course they are inefficient and they will always be inefficient so long as school boards and superintendents expect to hire those who manage the schools and train the teachers for the schools for three thousand to five thousand a year. It is this cheap notion of our value that has filled principalships with principals who in their leisure hours are boring their acquaintances with importunities to invest in fake stock promotions, peddling insurance of various kinds, or canvassing for books and magazines, instead of devoting their time to study, recreation, and travel.

Recently the President of the United States, so we are told, found it impossible to fill some of the Federal judgeships at ten thousand dollars a year with men of first-grade ability. As a reason for these not accepting a judgeship, it was said, "A great rich country can't expect brilliant men to undergo mean living to serve it." An absolute truth! But if brilliant men won't undergo mean living to serve as judges, brilliant men won't undergo mean living to serve as principals. If we insist on low salaries for judges we shall have corrupt courts and defeat justice. If we insist on low salaries for principals, we shall have a continuance of the present instability, lack of respect and reverence for things holy, and the mad chase after every new ism.

England's sons who have given her a grip on India and other parts of the colonial world that nothing can loose were trained in the great public schools of Rugby and Harrow, the principals of which are paid salaries on par with those of her judges.

Thomas Jefferson in urging courts of the highest order said: "Render the judiciary respectable by every possible means—firm tenure in office and competent salaries." That is what we ask: "Render the principalship respectable by every possible means—firm tenure in office and competent salaries." But three thousand to five thousand dollars are not competent salaries at this period in human history.

Jefferson further informs us that "Men of high learning and ability are few in every country; and by taking in those who are not so the able have their hands tied by the unable." Today the able in the schools have their hands tied by the unable.

Another piece of bunk which stands in the way of progress in the schools is the caste system in promotion. If teachers or principals begin in an elementary school they are ineligible to teach in the high school. Just as though there were some mystery, sanctity, or halo surrounding the tenth grade, not found in the eighth grade, and requiring a special novitiate. Educational qualifications being equal, the way should be open to both teacher and principal for promotion to the high school as freely as is now the case from the fifth grade to the seventh.

Lord Bryce once gave as the cause of the high efficiency of the English courts the fact that: "For some centuries Englishmen have associated the ideas of power, dignity, and intellectual eminence with the judicial office."

This comprises our plea for the principalship. By firm tenure and competent salaries draw to the principalship the best ability of the Nation. Make it respectable by doing away with the necessity for mean living and associate with the position the ideas of power, dignity, and intellectual eminence. Do this and we will give this Nation a corps of teachers who will bring to us the better life of which men have dreamed through all the ages.

SOME HELPFUL TYPES OF EXAMPLE FOR DIAGNOSIS AND REMEDIAL WORK IN ARITHMETIC

W. H. ELLERT

Principal, Webster School, Seattle, Washington

ONE OF THE chief problems of the elementary school teacher is to find arithmetic examples arranged according to difficulty. Many of the troubles which children experience in learning the arithmetic of any grade are due to the fact that the work is not often presented according to step of difficulty. Often a teacher will develop a lesson with an easy type of example, then follow the assignment with examples that are more difficult and of a different type. This confuses the pupil and prevents him from seeing the examples through for himself.

For instance, a teacher explains one type of long division example containing small numbers in the divisor and small numbers in the quotient. Her assignment may then be very likely about as follows: "Take the first six examples on page so and so." Unless she has studied them carefully, these examples may represent several different types of difficulty which she has *not* explained. Their solution may possibly involve zeros in the quotient, or there may be remainders with neither of which she has shown the children how to deal. The teacher is likely, under such conditions, to be very much discouraged because the class fails to come up to her expectations, and the children are likely to conclude that long division is a hopeless puzzle. This unhappy situation can be avoided by careful classification of demonstration and practice material.

For diagnosis work also, material should be so arranged that it takes in all the different steps involved as well as the degrees of difficulty. The type of example that causes difficulty may then be located, and a series of examples made and used for remedial work, both for the class or individual help. Mental solution of types of examples may be used as a sure test of comprehension by the pupil.

Material arranged in this way may be used likewise as a guide by the teacher in presenting her work to the class. It provides a method of presentation for her, fixes a standard for her to accomplish, and provides material for individual improvement.

Following is a list of material used in Grades III through Grade V, some of which may be very profitably used in other grades. This material

TABLE 2.—REMEDIAL WORK IN ADDITION FOR GRADES III, IV, AND V, OCTOBER, 1923.
MORE DIFFICULT COMBINATIONS FROM ONE DECADE TO ANOTHER

9	7	9	8	6	9	8	4	8	10	4	9	7	6	10	2	5
34	55	56	76	65	71	45	48	47	84	46	37	56	36	35	49	35
8	5	9	7	3	7	9	10	10	9	4	8	9	4	3	8	7
48	68	43	67	38	53	58	53	62	45	57	62	69	49	39	33	39
55	6	7	8	6	7	5	8	5	6	5	6	3	8	9	2	20
48	59	54	59	57	48	66	44	65	59	57	78	57	44	42	68	25
19	11	12	15	13	13	17	19	15	16	99	16	14	15	14	16	16
22	15	15	23	17	35	18	21	55	16	19	64	28	16	25	27	19

SINGLE COLUMNS BEGINNING WITH A DECADE AND GOING THROUGH ONE OR TWO DECADES

9	7	6	9	5	7	5	8	7	5	6	6
4	8	4	5	4	9	4	8	6	9	8	5
7	3	8	5	7	4	7	5	3	2	4	2
5	4	3	6	8	7	6	6	5	3	7	6
15	16	17	14	12	13	25	26	27	28	24	23
5	7	8	6	7	7	7	5	6	8	7	7
6	6	5	5	4	6	6	9	4	6	8	6
4	5	7	8	7	4	4	7	6	5	9	5
8	6	4	5	8	9	6	5	9	8	8	7
25	27	29	26	24	23	37	39	34	33	35	36
9	6	9	6	6	6	8	7	7	9	9	8
7	5	4	5	5	5	4	6	9	8	5	5
3	8	5	7	8	7	7	5	8	4	7	6
8	7	8	6	5	8	9	8	9	7	5	7
45	47	56	48	49	44	43	42	46	55	58	57
5	8	6	5	7	9	7	5	7	6	9	7
6	5	7	9	4	9	5	7	9	7	8	5
7	6	8	7	8	8	5	9	5	4	6	4
8	9	9	8	9	7	9	7	9	9	6	8
69	58	47	68	46	59	39	48	55	66	37	89
7	7	5	6	8	6	7	9	8	9	6	9
8	5	6	9	6	7	6	5	9	6	4	0
6	6	8	8	7	8	5	7	2	3	5	5
4	9	5	6	9	5	8	6	6	5	7	8
5	7	9	7	6	6	7	8	4	6	5	5
9	8	5	5	7	9	9	9	3	7	9	9
33	44	56	29	38	24	18	27	48	35	17	16

TABLE 3.—ADDITION OR SUBTRACTION IN GRADE III, NOVEMBER, 1923
 * ARRANGED FOR ADDITION OR SUBTRACTION, INVOLVING CARRYING IN SEVERAL PLACES, ALSO
 SUBTRACTING OF NUMBERS INVOLVING ZEROS AND NUMBERS IN SUBTRAHEND
 LARGER THAN IN THE MINUEND

7463	5280	6503	5216	7819	5678	6083	3476	5000	6008
2518	3824	2791	4325	3564	1987	4295	1698	2345	3527
9315	1728	3207	8194	7010	8641	3141	5261	8146	5181
6832	1296	1626	2356	3406	5207	1727	1840	3270	4936
7210	8641	3141	5261	3000	6000	8090	6040	7201	9215
1658	5207	7727	1840	1579	2503	6428	2565	5863	3692
3081	1492	1776	5280	3895	1608	4000	6203	9876	
1693	1208	1492	1765	1697	1192	1357	2471	6789	
8000	9000	10000	6000	7000	9600	8400	7500	8700	9300
2634	2783	2685	1542	1340	1834	3692	1638	1962	8296
9603	8402	8501	8707	9603	6003	7004	8005	5001	7005
2836	1735	1962	4858	8975	4865	5386	6739	2834	6839
8007	7001	5900	6500	7035	8034	9072	3806	2807	3206
7968	6892	3690	2840	5296	6785	7684	1957	1986	2845

ADDITION INVOLVING BROKEN COLUMNS

246	963	879	922	368	37	862	19	684	306	483	634
398	487	631	138	91	269	129	864	721	897	361	86
56	329	47	467	476	342	37	57	63	56	493	198
271	86	232	83	87	183	640	261	48	380		
					162	28	73	54	49		
96	365	967	346	863	37	543	684	434	643		
108	810	84	934	397	390	357	733	281	71		
969	74	377	83	19	846	96	309	79	386		
87	138	232	298	675	382						
46	264	95	743	84	847						
387	93	86	54	47	86						
962	167	342	117	598	281						
59	84	861	938	264	96						

TABLE 4.—EASY MULTIPLICATION TABLES

2×9	5×7	2×9	5×10	6×2
3×7	2×6	9×2	10×5	4×2
5×6	3×3	3×7	2×8	2×4
4×9	4×2	7×3	3×4	3×5
2×2	5×5	5×6	8×2	5×3
3×10	2×4	6×5	4×3	4×10
4×4	3×5	4×9	4×8	10×4
5×1	4×10	9×4	8×4	5×3
2×5	5×3	2×2	5×7	3×5
3×1	3×2	3×10	3×2	10×2
4×3	2×10	10×3	7×5	2×10
5×10	3×2	4×4	2×3	4×1
2×8	4×1	5×1	6×3	1×4
3×4	5×4	1×5	3×6	2×7
4×8	2×7	2×5	4×5	7×2
5×7	2×6	5×2	5×4	3×9
2×3	4×6	1×3	5×7	9×3
3×6	3×9	3×4	7×5	4×6
4×5	5×9	6×4	5×9	9×5

TABLE 5.—MORE DIFFICULT MULTIPLICATION TABLES

7×7	8×9	8×6
6×7	9×8	6×8
9×6	8×7	8×8
6×9	7×8	9×9
9×12	10×10	12×12
8×11	8×12	7×12
9×10	11×11	12×10
12×11	9×11	8×11
6×6	6×10	6×11
7×10	11×11	12×10
9×7	7×9	8×10
10×11	7×11	6×12

TABLE 6.—ADDITIONAL DRILL IN SUBTRACTION AND ADDITION

SIMPLE SUBTRACTION EXAMPLES

19 6 —	32 7 —	14 2 —	32 3 —	12 2 —	23 9 —	35 7 —	13 1 —	31 4 —	15 5 —
17 2 —	33 7 —	19 8 —	30 2 —	27 7 —	16 2 —	26 7 —	26 5 —	21 8 —	37 9 —
12 1 —	29 5 —	25 9 —	28 1 —	18 3 —	27 6 —	26 8 —	29 9 —	18 5 —	31 6 —
20 9 —	32 6 —	14 4 —	17 3 —	37 8 —	24 7 —	13 2 —	38 8 —	31 7 —	27 5 —
21 5 —	19 1 —	24 5 —	14 3 —	30 3 —	21 2 —	33 8 —	20 1 —	29 3 —	32 4 —
15 4 —	26 6 —	30 6 —	18 2 —	28 9 —	14 1 —	29 4 —	11 1 —	32 9 —	23 6 —

SIMPLE MULTIPLICATION EXAMPLES TO TEST ALL THE TABLES

40 7 —	91 2 —	46 1 —	50 6 —	41 4 —	80 5 —	62 3 —	71 9 —	30 8 —	11 5 —
60 4 —	95 1 —	51 3 —	80 9 —	41 6 —	63 2 —	50 8 —	71 7 —	90 8 —	51 7 —
12 4 —	80 2 —	81 3 —	60 5 —	51 9 —	72 4 —	30 6 —	81 4 —	80 3 —	37 1 —
61 6 —	60 9 —	61 8 —	73 3 —	80 7 —	10 6 —	21 4 —	72 2 —	40 9 —	31 5 —
28 1 —	60 7 —	41 8 —	51 5 —	70 6 —	92 2 —	31 7 —	10 8 —	19 1 —	11 7 —
20 5 —	90 6 —	52 4 —	31 9 —	40 1 —	21 8 —	40 5 —	54 2 —	21 6 —	91 5 —

TABLE 7.—TYPE EXAMPLES FOR SHORT DIVISION WITH THE DIVISOR 3, NOVEMBER, 1923

$3 \overline{)693}$	$3 \overline{)2016}$	$3 \overline{)1806}$	$3 \overline{)2722}$
$3 \overline{)675}$	$3 \overline{)2319}$	$3 \overline{)1740}$	$3 \overline{)2411}$
$3 \overline{)984}$	$3 \overline{)2943}$	$3 \overline{)3045}$	$3 \overline{)21086}$
$3 \overline{)456}$	$3 \overline{)468}$	$3 \overline{)2001}$	$3 \overline{)819}$
$3 \overline{)654}$	$3 \overline{)795}$	$3 \overline{)1524}$	$3 \overline{)2367}$
$3 \overline{)759}$	$3 \overline{)1004}$	$3 \overline{)2115}$	$3 \overline{)811}$
$3 \overline{)1056}$	$3 \overline{)1398}$	$3 \overline{)6018}$	$3 \overline{)1146}$
$3 \overline{)1986}$	$3 \overline{)1677}$	$3 \overline{)1915}$	$3 \overline{)1614}$
$3 \overline{)1629}$	$3 \overline{)2961}$	$3 \overline{)767}$	$3 \overline{)1802}$
$3 \overline{)2586}$	$3 \overline{)1728}$	$3 \overline{)802}$	$3 \overline{)1473}$
$3 \overline{)2859}$	$3 \overline{)1464}$	$3 \overline{)752}$	$3 \overline{)621}$

TABLE 8.—TYPE EXAMPLES FOR SHORT DIVISION WITH THE DIVISOR 7,
NOVEMBER, 1923¹

$7 \overline{)861}$	$7 \overline{)6853}$	$7 \overline{)3052}$	$7 \overline{)6329}$
$7 \overline{)1638}$	$7 \overline{)4503}$	$7 \overline{)3948}$	$7 \overline{)49038}$
$7 \overline{)2464}$	$7 \overline{)5619}$	$7 \overline{)4711}$	$7 \overline{)3504}$

TABLE 9.—LONG DIVISION TESTS

TEST NO. 1²

111 $23 \overline{)2553}$	114 $23 \overline{)2622}$	143 $23 \overline{)3289}$	18 $35 \overline{)630}$
227 $35 \overline{)7945}$	25 $42 \overline{)1050}$	102 $42 \overline{)4284}$	104 $42 \overline{)4368}$
1005 $53 \overline{)53265}$	10008 $53 \overline{)530424}$	465 $68 \overline{)31620}$	69 $98 \overline{)6762}$

TEST NO. 2³

111 $56 \overline{)6216}$	114 $32 \overline{)3648}$	143 $45 \overline{)6435}$
17 $57 \overline{)969}$	214 $43 \overline{)9202}$	332 $65 \overline{)21580}$
203 $37 \overline{)7511}$	307 $23 \overline{)7061}$	1006 $59 \overline{)59354}$
54 $85 \overline{)4590}$		

TEST NO. 3⁴

$527-40/63$ $63 \overline{)33250}$	$847-32/57$ $57 \overline{)48311}$	6075 $49 \overline{)297675}$
$590-19/38$ $38 \overline{)22439}$	$5004-9/28$ $28 \overline{)140121}$	$183-15/76$ $76 \overline{)13923}$
8.13 $35 \overline{)8284.55}$		

¹ After the class has gone through tables 1-9 of short division, this test may be given to test comprehension and accuracy. The divisor 7 was chosen because it generally causes difficulty, and a review of tables of 7 may be necessary.² Given when the class has just covered all the types. The figures in the quotients are small numbers or zeros.³ Contains more difficult numbers in the divisor. The figures in the quotients are about the same as Test No. 1.⁴ Contains more difficult situations. All the tables are involved so that it will not be difficult to see where remedial work is necessary.

TEST NO. 4¹

$\begin{array}{r} 357 \\ 12 \overline{)4284} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 426-4/13 \\ 13 \overline{)5542} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 608-7/14 \\ 14 \overline{)8519} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 830-6/15 \\ 15 \overline{)12456} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 539 \\ 16 \overline{)8624} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 423-5/17 \\ 17 \overline{)7196} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 2030-3/18 \\ 18 \overline{)36543} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 1007-8/19 \\ 19 \overline{)19141} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 3006 \\ 15 \overline{)45090} \end{array}$

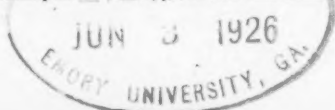
TABLE 10.—LONG DIVISION EXAMPLES INVOLVING ZEROS IN THE QUOTIENT,
NOVEMBER, 1923²

$36 \overline{)18288}$	$65 \overline{)247455}$	$73 \overline{)49676}$	$27 \overline{)5508}$
$26 \overline{)7540}$	$84 \overline{)49607}$	$43 \overline{)26187}$	$45 \overline{)26100}$
$38 \overline{)11590}$	$78 \overline{)187668}$	$38 \overline{)26900}$	$46 \overline{)186300}$
$52 \overline{)314704}$	$29 \overline{)29447}$	$94 \overline{)66552}$	$37 \overline{)29841}$
$63 \overline{)50803}$	$89 \overline{)62906}$	$46 \overline{)34066}$	$49 \overline{)24860}$
$69 \overline{)62445}$	$87 \overline{)85309}$	$58 \overline{)348507}$	$24 \overline{)124872}$
$79 \overline{)63753}$	$35 \overline{)26607}$	$58 \overline{)174324}$	$49 \overline{)98125}$
$93 \overline{)47444}$	$53 \overline{)44557}$	$65 \overline{)260396}$	$57 \overline{)51528}$
$34 \overline{)137224}$	$67 \overline{)39573}$	$48 \overline{)144346}$	$36 \overline{)110047}$
$58 \overline{)40744}$	$29 \overline{)203725}$	$49 \overline{)24890}$	$28 \overline{)84236}$

The following contains work in fractions that has proved to be very helpful. The time element may be used when solving any of these combinations.

¹ Teachers often make a mistake when developing long division to use as divisors numbers 12 to 19 inclusive. This makes it exceedingly difficult for the pupil. The tables of these numbers are not known. Finding the trial divisor is a most difficult and discouraging task. It should be the last type of long division taken up, and much emphasis need not be placed upon it in the fourth grade.

² These examples are not arranged according to difficulty. Teachers report there are not enough examples of this type in the textbooks, a type of example needing much drill.



45344

A GOOD TEST ON TABLES, AS WELL AS ON FRACTIONS
REDUCE TO LOWER TERMS. GIVE RESULTS MENTALLY

$\frac{3}{6}$	$\frac{3}{9}$	$\frac{2}{8}$	$\frac{2}{10}$	$\frac{4}{8}$	$\frac{4}{6}$	$\frac{3}{12}$	$\frac{3}{15}$	$\frac{2}{6}$	$\frac{6}{8}$	$\frac{4}{10}$	$\frac{6}{9}$
$\frac{6}{15}$	$\frac{5}{10}$	$\frac{4}{12}$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{4}{16}$	$\frac{5}{15}$	$\frac{4}{20}$	$\frac{12}{18}$	$\frac{10}{25}$	$\frac{6}{12}$	$\frac{10}{15}$	$\frac{5}{20}$
$\frac{12}{30}$	$\frac{6}{12}$	$\frac{6}{24}$	$\frac{12}{16}$	$\frac{5}{25}$	$\frac{8}{20}$	$\frac{7}{14}$	$\frac{18}{24}$	$\frac{15}{20}$	$\frac{6}{30}$	$\frac{8}{16}$	$\frac{16}{24}$
$\frac{7}{28}$	$\frac{7}{35}$	$\frac{12}{20}$	$\frac{9}{27}$	$\frac{7}{28}$	$\frac{8}{40}$	$\frac{10}{20}$	$\frac{8}{24}$	$\frac{14}{21}$	$\frac{8}{32}$	$\frac{21}{28}$	$\frac{6}{8}$
$\frac{9}{18}$	$\frac{20}{30}$	$\frac{27}{36}$	$\frac{10}{40}$	$\frac{10}{30}$	$\frac{18}{27}$	$\frac{12}{24}$	$\frac{10}{30}$	$\frac{24}{36}$	$\frac{9}{45}$	$\frac{9}{36}$	$\frac{2}{12}$

REDUCE TO COMMON DENOMINATORS

$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	
$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	
$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{12}$
$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
					$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{4}$
$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	
$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	
$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{18}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	

A GOOD TEST FOR COMPREHENSION

FIND RESULTS MENTALLY

1	2	1	5	1	1	3	1	1	5	1	3	3	1
3	3	3	6	2	2	4	2	4	6	4	8	4	3
1	1	1	1	5	3	1	5	3	2	1	3	3	1
2	2	6	3	6	4	8	8	8	3	16	16	16	4
2	1	3	2	3									
3	3	5	3	5									
3	1	4	4	1									
4	5	15	9	2									

ADDITION OF FRACTIONS

WHOLE NUMBERS PUT IN WITH FRACTIONS TO REVIEW SOME OF THE MORE DIFFICULT COMBINATIONS

$25\frac{1}{2}$	$37\frac{1}{3}$	$19\frac{2}{5}$	$23\frac{3}{7}$	$32\frac{2}{11}$	$46\frac{1}{2}$	$33\frac{2}{3}$	
$42\frac{1}{5}$	$26\frac{1}{8}$	$32\frac{1}{2}$	$38\frac{1}{2}$	$29\frac{3}{8}$	$28\frac{4}{5}$	$18\frac{3}{4}$	
$38\frac{2}{5}$	$29\frac{3}{7}$	$54\frac{5}{12}$	$28\frac{5}{6}$	$9\frac{3}{10}$	$7\frac{2}{3}$	$5\frac{4}{10}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
$15\frac{1}{10}$	$35\frac{1}{2}$	$37\frac{3}{4}$	$29\frac{5}{12}$	$7\frac{3}{8}$	$3\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{2}{5}$	$4\frac{5}{10}$
				$4\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{3}{9}$	$17\frac{1}{2}$	$29\frac{1}{4}$

SUBTRACTION OF FRACTIONS, DECEMBER, 1923

$\frac{8}{8} - \frac{2}{8}$	$15\frac{7}{8} - 9\frac{3}{4}$	$16\frac{1}{10} - 7\frac{1}{4}$	$17\frac{1}{2} - \frac{5}{8}$
$\frac{3}{4} - \frac{2}{4}$	$17\frac{3}{4} - 8\frac{3}{5}$	$11\frac{1}{3} - 6\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{3} - \frac{7}{9}$
$\frac{7}{16} - \frac{1}{4}$	$16\frac{1}{2} - 7\frac{2}{5}$	$20\frac{1}{3} - 7\frac{5}{9}$	$12\frac{3}{8} - \frac{3}{4}$
$\frac{8}{9} - \frac{2}{9}$	$15\frac{1}{4} - 8\frac{2}{6}$	$30\frac{1}{2} - 14\frac{5}{6}$	$8 - 4\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{11}{12} - \frac{1}{6}$	$9\frac{1}{4} - 5\frac{1}{2}$	$50\frac{5}{12} - 23\frac{3}{4}$	$11 - 6\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{13}{15} - \frac{1}{5}$	$8\frac{1}{4} - 3\frac{3}{8}$	$7\frac{1}{2} - 4$	$13 - 9\frac{1}{4}$
$7\frac{1}{4} - 3\frac{1}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{8} - 8\frac{3}{4}$	$8\frac{2}{3} - 5$	$15 - 8\frac{2}{3}$
$9\frac{2}{3} - 5\frac{1}{6}$	$18\frac{3}{10} - 9\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{6} - \frac{5}{6}$	$16 - 8\frac{5}{6}$
$8\frac{5}{6} - 3\frac{1}{4}$	$17\frac{1}{4} - 6\frac{2}{3}$	$13\frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4}$	

A GOOD TEST FOR SPEED AND TABLES

WORK MENTALLY

$\frac{1}{2} \times 6$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 9$	$\frac{1}{4} \times 36$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 28$
$\frac{1}{3} \times 9$	$\frac{1}{4} \times 20$	$\frac{1}{2} \times 12$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 35$
$\frac{1}{4} \times 8$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 25$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 20$	$\frac{1}{4} \times 28$
$\frac{1}{5} \times 10$	$\frac{1}{2} \times 16$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 24$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 15$
$\frac{2}{3} \times 12$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 18$	$\frac{1}{4} \times 32$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 20$
$\frac{3}{4} \times 16$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 12$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 30$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 25$
$\frac{2}{5} \times 15$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 35$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 27$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 15$
$\frac{1}{2} \times 10$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 27$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 35$	$\frac{1}{4} \times 12$
$\frac{1}{4} \times 16$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 30$	$\frac{2}{3} \times 18$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 15$
$\frac{2}{3} \times 21$	$\frac{1}{2} \times 20$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 24$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 20$
$\frac{2}{5} \times 10$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 40$	$\frac{1}{2} \times 8$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 15$
$\frac{1}{3} \times 24$	$\frac{2}{4} \times 36$	$\frac{1}{5} \times 20$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 12$
$\frac{2}{5} \times 10$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 40$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 32$	$\frac{1}{6} \times 18$
$\frac{3}{4} \times 8$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 24$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 42$	$\frac{4}{5} \times 10$
$\frac{1}{2} \times 18$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 25$	$\frac{1}{3} \times 21$	

MULTIPLICATION OF MIXED NUMBERS, NOVEMBER, 1923

A TYPE OF EXAMPLE THAT MAY BE CANCELLED, BUT FINALLY REDUCED TO A MIXED NUMBER

$\frac{5}{8} \times 6 = 3\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{12}{15} \times 9 = 3\frac{6}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5} \times 12 = 2\frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 7 = 5\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{5} \times 8 = 4\frac{8}{5}$
$\frac{2}{3} \times 7 = 4\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{5}{6} \times 4 = 3\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{12}{7} \times 5 = 2\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{5}{9} \times 6 = 3\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{7}{8} \times 5 = 4\frac{5}{8}$
$\frac{3}{5} \times 1\frac{1}{2} = 1$	$\frac{4}{5} \times 7\frac{1}{2} = 6$	$\frac{7}{8} \times 5\frac{1}{2} = 4\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{2} = 4\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{5}{6} \times 3\frac{1}{2} = 2\frac{5}{6}$

$\begin{array}{r} 324 \\ 46\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 15066 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 405 \\ 35\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 14310 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 516 \\ 24\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 12513 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 204 \\ 53\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 10948 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 308 \\ 42\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 13167 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 640 \\ 56\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 36096 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 125 \\ 67\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 8437\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 374 \\ 58\frac{1}{3} \\ \hline 21816\frac{2}{3} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 265 \\ 47\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 12521\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 305 \\ 38\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 11793\frac{1}{3} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 275 \\ 29\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 8181\frac{1}{3} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 189 \\ 64\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 12209\frac{2}{3} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 235\frac{1}{2} \\ 25 \\ \hline 5887\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 367\frac{1}{2} \\ 50 \\ \hline 18366\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 458\frac{1}{2} \\ 37 \\ \hline 16955\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 256\frac{2}{3} \\ 20 \\ \hline 5133\frac{1}{3} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 346\frac{2}{3} \\ 19 \\ \hline 6588\frac{1}{3} \end{array}$	

VARIOUS TYPES OF DIVISION OF FRACTIONS

$$\begin{array}{lllll}
 24 \div \frac{3}{4} = 32 & 36 \div \frac{4}{5} = 81 & 45 \div \frac{5}{7} = 63 & \frac{3}{8} \div 4 = \frac{3}{32} & \frac{3}{5} \div 3 = \frac{1}{5} \\
 \frac{5}{12} \div 7 = \frac{5}{84} & \frac{8}{9} \div 6 = \frac{4}{27} & \frac{15}{17} \div 5 = \frac{3}{17} & \frac{13}{19} \div 6 = \frac{13}{114} & \frac{7}{8} \div \frac{2}{3} = \frac{21}{16} \\
 \frac{5}{6} \div \frac{3}{4} = \frac{10}{9} & \frac{9}{11} \div \frac{3}{8} = \frac{48}{11} & 2\frac{1}{2} \div 4 = \frac{5}{8} & 10\frac{2}{3} \div 8 = \frac{17}{12} & 5\frac{1}{3} \div 3 = \frac{16}{9} \\
 4\frac{1}{2} \div 3\frac{2}{3} = \frac{27}{10} & 6\frac{1}{2} \div 8\frac{2}{3} = \frac{3}{4} & 8\frac{1}{4} \div 5\frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}
 \end{array}$$

ONE EXAMPLE FOR EVERY TYPE OF FRACTION, NOVEMBER, 1923

MAY BE USED FOR REFERENCE BY ALL TEACHERS ABOVE THE FIFTH GRADE

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| 1. $\frac{1}{2} \& \frac{1}{2}$ | 2. $\frac{1}{2} \& \frac{1}{3}$ | 3. $\frac{1}{2} \& \frac{1}{3} \& \frac{1}{4}$ |
| 4. $\frac{1}{24}$ Reduce | 5. $\frac{22}{35}$ Reduce | 6. $\frac{4}{5} \& \frac{2}{3}$ |
| 7. $3\frac{3}{4} \& 6\frac{2}{3}$ | 8. $\frac{7}{8} - \frac{3}{4}$ | 9. $5\frac{5}{6} - 2\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 10. $8 - 3\frac{1}{3}$ | 11. $7\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$ | 12. $4\frac{3}{4} - 1$ |
| 13. $23\frac{1}{4} - 17\frac{5}{6}$ | 14. $7 \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ | 15. $\frac{3}{4} \times 28$ |
| 16. $4\frac{1}{3} \times 12$ | 17. $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$ | 18. $\frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{7}$ |
| 19. $\frac{8}{15} \times \frac{1}{10}$ | 20. $4\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{5}{7}$ | 21. $6\frac{3}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 22. $3\frac{3}{4} \times \$1.60$ | 23. $4 \div \frac{2}{3}$ | 24. $10 \div 1\frac{2}{3}$ |
| 25. $13 \div 3\frac{2}{3}$ | 26. $\frac{3}{8} \div 4$ | 27. $\frac{3}{7} \div \frac{4}{5}$ |
| 28. $4\frac{2}{3} \div \frac{2}{3}$ | 29. $5\frac{1}{4} \div 4\frac{2}{3}$ | 30. $5\frac{3}{8} \div 7$ |
| 31. $18 \div 2\frac{1}{3}$ | 32. $\frac{1}{3} \div \frac{1}{3}$ | 33. 8 to 12 Ratio |
| 34. 10 to 6 Ratio | 35. $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 Ratio | 36. $5\frac{1}{3}$ to 8 Ratio |
| 37. $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ Ratio | 38. $5\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{7}$ Ratio | 39. $1 \div \frac{1}{4}$ |

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ASSEMBLY

COURTLAND V. DAVIS

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

THE ASSEMBLY program of an elementary school is not an easy matter to arrange, or so we have found it at Stuart. However, being favored with an auditorium we have kept up a running experiment by the simple method of trial and error with many kinds of programs.

One thing that has been repeatedly impressed upon us is that once interest has been lost the best thing to do with six hundred wriggling youngsters is to dismiss them as quickly as possible. We have found many contributory causes of such lack of interest and have tried to eliminate or avoid them as they have made their character known.

Long-winded announcements calculated to impress the minds of the pupils by manifold repetition we have found to be an important factor in demoralizing an elementary school assembly. So clearly was this fact brought out that it has seemed wise to eliminate announcements at assembly time entirely. For these we have substituted classroom announcements made by the teacher and conveyed to her by the medium of the office bulletin board. It must be admitted that all of the teachers do not read the bulletins every day, but by a daily change of notices we have secured a high percentage of regular readers and our notices get over much more effectively than they did before.

Assembly singing is a part of our regular program. For a while the music teacher tried teaching new songs at the assembly hour, but soon found it an unsuccessful procedure. Now the new songs are announced on the bulletin board, taught at the music hour in the classrooms, and only the finished product brought to the assembly. Under these conditions singing has become one of the most profitable and enjoyable parts of the assembly period.

We have found that our programs must be smoothly organized and carefully timed. There must be no hitches. Children are less patient with stage waits and delays than are adults. Even-running, carefully planned program schedules are essential.

Very few adults have mastered the art of talking to children in large groups; outside of the profession almost none. We have struggled often and bravely with outside speakers of many types, most of whom have succeeded only in starting up the wriggling process that means the end of all good in assembly for that day. Occasionally we have had for our speaker that common pest, the man who tries to be funny. He finds it a bit difficult to get the laughter started, but once that end is attained the road to demoralization is wide open and in most instances speedily traveled.

Performances by individual pupils are often found to be as detrimental to assembly morale as the average adult speaker. Such things as piano "pieces," recitations, essays, and the like, have, in consequence, been largely banned.

What, then, can be done in an assembly program? What can be used that will be of value to the youngsters and at the same time keep them sufficiently interested to absorb it? Our problem is different from that of the platoon school where the group is more homogeneous in age, outlook, and stage of advancement, and where trained instructors devote all or a major portion of their time to it. Our work must be suited to a widely varied group, generally running through about four grades. Our auditorium seats only about eight hundred and hence it is necessary to have two assembly sessions to accommodate all our classes. Although this cuts down the variation very much, the group is still sufficiently varied to make the problem difficult. Again, our programs must be of a type the preparation for which will not be too great a drain upon the time and energies of teachers whose primary duties lie in other fields.

The morning's program at Stuart is begun by the reading of a selection from the Bible followed by the Lord's Prayer. The Bible reading is short and generally selected from the poetic sections of the Scriptures. The reading of the Lord's Prayer is by the assembly in concert. Following these readings comes a period of assembly singing and then the program of the day. This program most frequently consists of the presentation of work actually being done in the classroom. Such things as the dramatization of reading materials immediately come to mind as lending themselves readily to such presentation, but one wonders what else in classroom work might be offered. We have found many phases of the work of the classes which may be easily adapted to stage presentation, the health games one class has played have interested other classes. Folk dances and athletic stunts from the physical education hour have been deservedly popular. Choruses from the music period have been well received.

Even the drill subjects have their possibilities. Flash card and other forms of oral arithmetic drill are always of interest and most especially so when given by one of the younger classes. Spelling classes have recited upon the Stuart platform to the evident delight and to the seeming profit of every one concerned.

Occasionally small playlets have been especially prepared for assembly. These are always of much interest to the audience and the training afforded by their presentation is valuable to those who participate.

Unusual work done by any class is frequently placed on exhibition in the auditorium. An incentive to do more than the expected is thus provided, not only for those whose work is exhibited, but also for those who see the exhibits. These are never allowed to get old but are changed or removed each week.

A class will occasionally take upon itself the responsibility for the decoration of the auditorium for assembly. These decorations are of necessity inexpensive but are frequently marvels of ingenuity. Here is an opportunity for the presentation and the working out of problems which arise in connection with decoration. Many of these are the problems of the art lessons in design and proportion.

We have never allowed visitors to mingle with the pupils at assembly. Each class has its own allotted section of seats. A section is given to visitors and here all who are not a part of our regular organization are required to sit. This section is in the rear of the auditorium; first, because this is the pupils' own assembly and the choice seats should be theirs; second, because the visitors are unacquainted with school rules, they are inclined to laugh at the wrong places, or whisper about the "cunning" youngsters who are performing; and, third, because the aisles and exits must not be stopped by those unacquainted with the fire drill procedure.

Taken altogether we have found the regular school assembly conducted by our own members and with programs furnished by our own efforts to be most stimulating, both in school work and school spirit. Every program presented along the lines here suggested has reacted favorably upon the entire school. Our assembly has become a part of us. We could not get along without it.

A NEW importance is attaching to the cause of education. A new realization of its urgent necessity is taking hold of the Nation. A new comprehension that the problem is only beginning to be solved is upon the people. A new determination to meet the requirements of the situation is everywhere apparent. The economic and moral waste of ignorance will little longer be tolerated. This awakening is one of the most significant developments of the times. It indicates that our National spirit is reasserting itself. It is a most reassuring evidence that the country is recovering from the natural exhaustion of the war, and that it is rising to a new life and starting on a new course. It is intent, as never before, upon listening to the word of the teacher, whether it comes from the platform, the schoolhouse, or the pulpit. The power of evil is being broken. The power of the truth is reasserting itself.—CALVIN COOLIDGE, *"America's Need for Education,"* an address before the National Education Association, July 4, 1924.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

WASHINGTON MEETING

Thursday afternoon, July 3, the business meeting of the Department of Elementary School Principals was held. It was called to order by President W. T. Longshore, who with the consent of the members assembled, omitted the reading of the minutes of the last meeting, since they had been previously published in the October Bulletin of 1923.

The report of the treasurer, Courtland V. Davis, showed a balance on hand of \$907. A motion was made by Mr. Williams, of Birmingham, Alabama, that the report of the treasurer be adopted. Motion carried.

Mr. Williams, chairman of the Resolutions Committee, presented a number of resolutions. Ide G. Sargeant moved the adoption of these resolutions. Carried.

In the absence of Helen B. Shove, chairman of the Nominating Committee, Mrs. Marsh presented the report of this committee and moved its adoption: *President*, Jessie M. Fink, Grand Rapids, Mich.; *Secretary*, Ide G. Sargeant, Paterson, N. J.; *Treasurer*, Courtland V. Davis, Norfolk, Va.; *First Vice-President*, Sara L. Rhodes, New York City; *Second Vice-President*, John Merrill, Detroit, Mich.; *Third Vice-President*, H. B. Norton, Birmingham, Ala. *Member of the Executive Committee*, W. T. Longshore, Kansas City, Mo.

Miss Ruth Pyrtle, of Nebraska, made a motion that the secretary cast the ballot for the nominees for all offices as read. Carried.

The officers for 1924-25 are as follows: *President*, Jessie M. Fink (Mrs. C. E.), Grand Rapids, Mich.; *First Vice-President*, Sara L. Rhodes, New York City; *Second Vice-President*, John Merrill, Detroit, Mich.; *Third Vice-President*, H. B. Norton, Birmingham, Ala.; *Secretary*, Ide G. Sargeant, School No. 10, Paterson, N. J.; *Treasurer*, Courtland V. Davis, Prin. Stuart School, Norfolk, Va.; *Executive Committee*: 1925, Mary McSkimmon, Brookline, Mass.; 1926, Anna Laura Force, Denver, Colo.; 1927, Luise Krauss, San Francisco, Calif.; and 1928, W. T. Longshore, Kansas City, Mo.

A motion was made that a vote of thanks be given our retiring president for his able and efficient service. Carried. A similar motion was made thanking Mr. Gist, editor of the Yearbook for his valuable contribution to our Department. Carried. Retiring President Longshore thanked the officers and editors of the Yearbook for their loyal and untiring cooperation.

The newly elected President, Mrs. Fink, was then called to the chair and spoke of her deep sense of responsibility as this year's pilot of the Department. She bespoke the cooperation of every individual member, realizing it would be required to carry them to successful issue the numerous activities devolving upon this Department for the coming year.

THE FIFTY-FIFTH annual convention of the Department of Superintendence is to be held in Cincinnati, Ohio, February 22-26, 1925. Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, president of the Department of Elementary School Principals, has completed arrangements to hold meetings on the afternoons of Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday. These sessions will be in the Cincinnati Music Hall, thus affording comfortable seats for all who attend. Program details and dinner announcements will appear in the December issue of this *Bulletin* and in the January issue of *The Journal*.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Washington Meeting—The name of no other city arouses in the American just the feelings stirred by the word "Washington." It makes no difference whether we are thinking of the great constructive genius who guided the Nation's course during its infancy or of the triumphs and tragedies which have taken place in the Capital City since his day. The name and the place has a magic all its own.

President Jones gave us a great program. The weather and the meeting place were ideal. The attendance was large and every teacher present came away with new enthusiasm at the better organization and brighter outlook for educational forces.

It means much for the increased prestige of education when the President of the United States is on our program and speaks as frankly and whole-heartedly in support of sound educational policies as did President Coolidge on the morning of July 4th, to that great meeting in the stadium of the Central High School. There was no pussy-footing, squinting construction, or evasion in what the President had to say.

The Association, and school workers everywhere, are to be congratulated on the choice of Jesse H. Newlon, of Denver, for president to succeed Miss Jones. President Newlon, has courage, thinks for himself, and is a strong supporter of progressive ideals in American education. Success to his policy.

Too much cannot be said in praise of the efficiency of the official force in charge of the home office of the National Education Association in Washington. The rank and file of our profession, who have not met them personally, cannot know how much better the outlook for the teacher is due to the untiring efforts, the alert and intelligent organizing ability of such men as J. W. Crabtree, Joy E. Morgan, S. D. Shankland, and John K. Norton, men who are everlastingly on the job.

President W. T. Longshore, of our Department, conducted the meetings and met all visitors with his kindly humor, tact, and all-round efficiency. The work under his administration has been of a high order and it is fortunate for the Department that he is to continue as a member of the Executive Committee. Too frequently educational associations fail to capitalize the experience of able officials by continuing them in service.

The right step was taken in promoting our genial and hard-working secretary for 1923-24, Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, to the presidency of the Department for 1924-25. We look to see the work greatly advance during her term.

What is in a name? Certainly one of the most talked about men in Washington during the Convention was Editor Arthur S. Gist, of the Third Yearbook. By many this is pronounced the most practical and helpful professional publication of the year. Here again the gods smiled upon us when President Fink was able to induce Principal Gist to undertake the task of editing the Fourth Yearbook. In another place, Editor Gist has a word for us as to its scope.

A brief review of the articles of the Third Yearbook; of the papers, addresses, and discussions at the various meetings of the Department, will be found in the January number of the *Bulletin*.

We are planning to make the Cincinnati meeting the greatest in our history. Make your hotel reservations early and come prepared to make each meeting a success.

This year should show a large increase in our membership. The principals of the Nation need the help of the Department and the Department needs the support of the many not yet members of our organization.

One great need in education is better organizing sense among school workers. Why should be have two organizations of principals? Elementary and Secondary? Is there any more need for the division than there is for the Superintendents of cities having 10,000 having a separate organization from superintendents of cities having 500,000? Our problems are much the same and in union there is strength. Let us get together.

The Secretary will greatly appreciate it, if the principals' clubs of the country will send their official title, list of officers, and any news which will be helpful.

THE FOURTH YEARBOOK

ARTHUR S. GIST, EDITOR

B. F. Day School, Seattle, Washington

IT IS planned to have both the professional and administrative phases of the elementary-school principalship studied and reported upon for our Fourth Yearbook without duplicating any of the professional functions treated in our Third Yearbook. It is hoped that the tentative outline will be studied carefully and that suggestions may be freely made to the editor concerning the Yearbook or its title, "Some Professional and Administrative Aspects of the Elementary-School Principalship."

Members are also urged to write to the editor concerning possible contributors who may be prevailed upon to assist us with the topics listed or kindred problems. The topics tentatively assigned should also receive attention, as these contributors may wish some collaboration in their studies. Some clerical and research assistance can be supplied to those making extended investigations.

The editor is hopeful that the same spirit of helpfulness extended to him in preparing the Third Yearbook, will again be in evidence.

TENTATIVE OUTLINE FOR PRINCIPALS' FOURTH YEARBOOK¹

A. THE PROFESSIONAL SIDE

- I. *The Principal and his professional training—a study of desirable courses.
- II. *The rating of principals in service.
- III. The principal and the improvement of instruction.
 1. *Local geography.
 2. History.
 3. *Spelling.
 4. *Literature in the grades.
 5. *Outside reading of pupils—an experiment.
 6. Natural science in the elementary grades.
 - a. A general outline covering a desirable and practical course.
 - b. *The teaching of agriculture.
 - c. The study of local birds.
 - d. The study of local flora.
 - e. The study of local animals.
 - f. *The school garden.
- (One topic to a contributor.)
7. *The school assembly as an aid to the academic subjects.
8. *The librarian in the elementary school.
- IV. The principal and the pupil.
 1. *The principal and the delinquent boy.
 2. Work with the slow pupils.
 3. The bright pupil—an enriched course in place of special advancement.
 4. *The crippled child.
 5. Home study—an investigation of conditions.
 6. *The education of pupils with defective vision.

¹ Topics starred are tentatively assigned.

V. General.

1. Visual education.
2. Thrift education.
3. *The school and the public museum.
4. The scientific selection of texts.
5. The principal's health.

B. THE ADMINISTRATIVE SIDE

1. The principal and his community.
2. The principal and the administrative office.
3. The principal and the selection, transfer, and dismissal of his teachers.
4. The principal and the janitorial service.
5. The principal and his remuneration—a study.
6. The principal and extra-curricular activities.
7. The principal and his office equipment and assistance.
8. The principal and the business management of his school.
9. *The principal and the use of educational experts.
10. The principal and his physical plant.

REMITTANCE FOR MEMBERSHIP

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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 1924-25. One dollar of this fee is for a year's subscription to the Department Bulletin.

Kindly send all publications, including the Fourth Yearbook, to be issued in June, 1925, to me at the address given below.

Name
(Typewrite or print)

Mailing address
(School or street)

.....
(City and State)

My present position is

THE REAL business of every man and woman in the country is education. Everything else is a side line. One hundred years from now the most amazing thing in our present form of government will be that we had a Secretary of War, a Secretary of the Navy, but no Secretary of Education. If there is any one thing in which Federal aid is justified, it is education.—*Frank Crane.*

THE GROWTH of the professional consciousness has been largely the result of the growth of the scientific spirit in education, together with the development of local and National organizations, working, not for selfish, personal interests, but for the betterment of public education in the interests of the child.

Progress in this direction since 1910 has been great, but the future holds forth even greater opportunity for the teaching profession if its members will continue their group activities upon the same plane.—Frank Cody in *The Detroit Educational Bulletin*, September, 1923.