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School Principalship

Edited by
ARTHUR S. GIST

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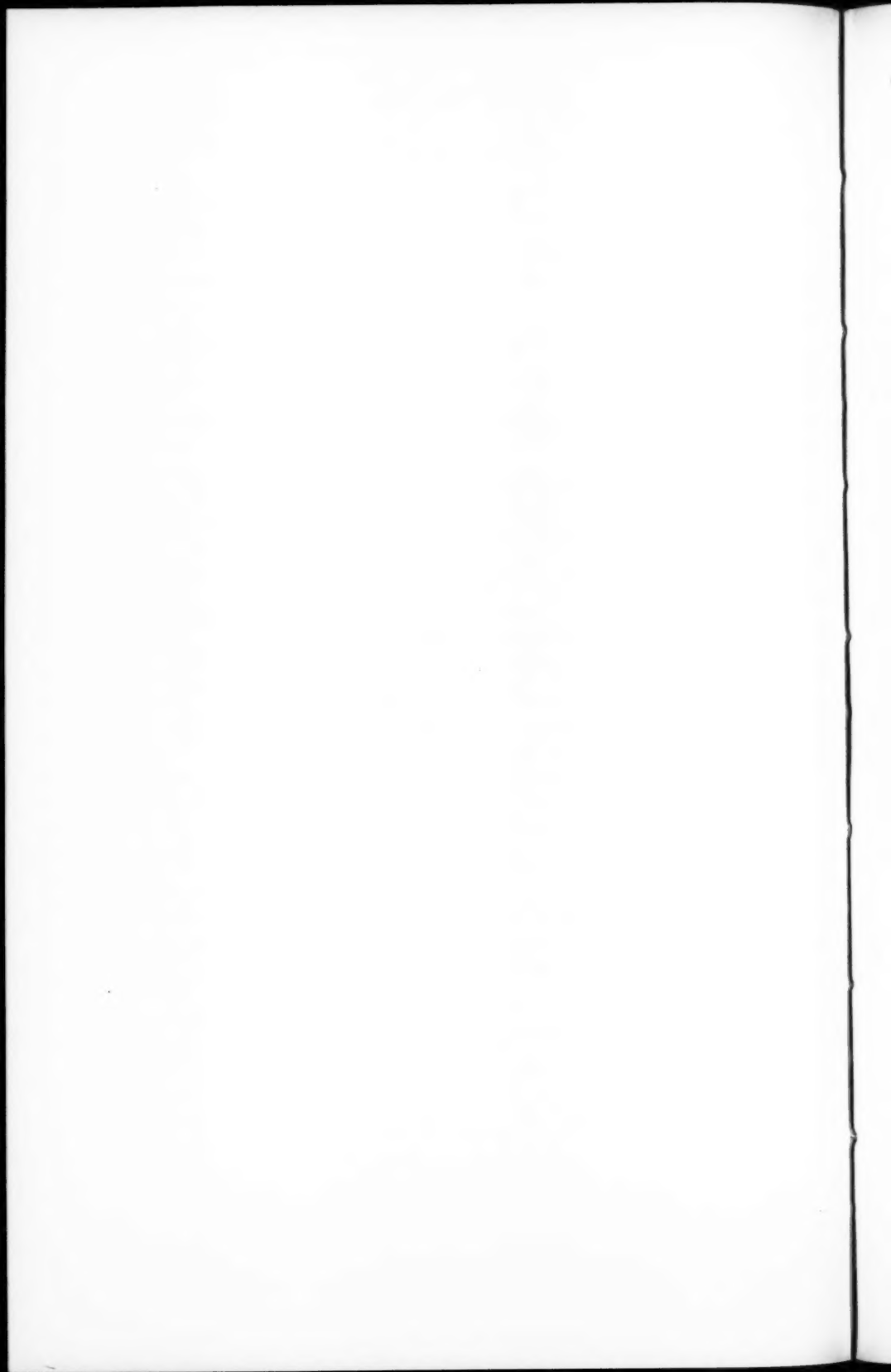
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PREFACE

THE DEPARTMENT of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association again places before the educators a yearbook containing timely and we hope valuable contributions to the rapidly growing field of educational literature.

The principals of the country are showing an increasing interest in their professional responsibilities, in scientifically prepared studies in general, and particularly in the publications of this Department. This interest, enthusiasm, and professional activity of a practical, yet scientific type is most gratifying to all educators. In fact, our editorial work now assumes the aspects of direction and selection as more material is secured than can be utilized to advantage.

It is the hope of this Department that the Fifth Yearbook will prove its worth and will have some influence upon the further development of a high type of useful, valuable, professional leadership.

Our Department is again indebted to the various members of our official staff at the headquarters of the National Educational Association for valuable assistance with many phases of our work. In this public way we wish to express our appreciation for this assistance and to recommend the services of the entire staff to the profession in general.

ARTHUR S. GIST

Editor, Fifth Yearbook

B. F. Day School, Seattle, Washington

FOREWORD

OUR FIFTH YEARBOOK! Five busy years since a little group of principals met in Atlantic City and formed the National Elementary School Principals' Association which later completed its organization at Des Moines, and became a department of the National Education Association. Our Department has come to occupy a definite place as one of the wholesome, aggressive, constructive agencies working for better things in American education. For the information of those not fully cognizant of conditions as we saw them in 1920-21, it may be well to take a glance backward to those years.

Five years ago the most observant among the elementary school principals saw in the immediate future the danger of the principal's becoming merely a glorified headclerk. This meant balkanizing the schools, the destruction of the individual school as a harmonious and effective unit of operation, and emphasis on the teaching of subjects rather than the teaching of children.

Further, a new situation confronted us. The rapid growth of industrial centers had necessitated large schools, with many activities under a single roof. Clerks were needed, but how many for a school of a given size? No one knew. With the almost numberless new activities in the school it was imperative that the principal should delegate many duties which nominally he was supposed to perform, but how many and which ones? No one knew. To meet a rapidly expanding curriculum and changing conditions in the home and community the special supervisor was evolved. But what were his duties and his limitations in the individual school? No one knew. Of books on administration and supervision that would be helpful to the principal, our libraries were almost destitute. Such books had not been written. Colleges and universities were not giving much that could be called really professional training for the principal. No one could say authoritatively what should be given in training courses. No one knew. Much of the splendid work now being done in our departments of research and measurements had hardly been begun. Most of our conclusions were based on guesswork and personal opinion unsupported by carefully sifted facts. A wofully wasteful procedure of energy and money. It was to do away with this intolerable situation that the Department was formed.

In the five years of our life as a department we have held eleven national conventions, published five yearbooks and sixteen bulletins,

besides many articles for the press, and addresses by our members at numerous conventions. This material covers every phase of our work. Our publications are used by the leading institutions offering courses in professional training for principals. Two of our members have been elevated to the presidency of the National Education Association.

We have a strong Committee on Standards and Training, working out plans to meet the requirements of the principal for the rapidly evolving modern school. The report of this committee will constitute a volume of 260 pages, when completed, and will be published as a Bulletin of this Department.

With this glance backward and brief checking up of our accomplishments, what about the future? Our publications have been a potent influence in our growth in membership and in winning respect for and an understanding of our aims. This has been brought about by the policy of selecting for editorial positions only persons eminently able to perform the task. One of our editorial positions is no place for the political adventurer, a lover of ease, or the notoriety seeker. It requires a level head, a sense of the essential and of comparative values, a spirit of devotion, a love of research, a knowledge of who is who in the land, the currents in educational thought and to cap it all, an indefatigable worker. Fortunately we have had a continuous policy from the beginning. No better evidence could be produced than the fact that during the terms of three presidents the same individual has been appointed editor of the Yearbook by the incoming president. This has given us the advantage of an experienced man, trained for the work, and knowing his field. An overplus of material in hand for one book, or material not suited to the keynote of the volume for one year, could be held over to the next. It also enabled the editor to plan with his contributors and give them a longer time for getting their material in readiness. Many of the things we need done require investigations that cannot be completed in a few months.

This raises the question, "Hasn't this Department reached a point in its growth when the editor should be appointed for a longer term?" Five years has been suggested. The further question has been raised, "Haven't we reached the point in our growth when we should make such editor a full time employee of the Department with a salary that will command the best ability, with the possibility such editor taking over the duties of the secretary." The work of the editor is too arduous to expect it to be done longer without pay. It was in consideration of this fact that the executive committee at Washington voted to pay the editor we now have one thousand dollars, if our finances would permit.

There is a tremendous amount of work to be done by our Department officials if the principals are to function as the need of our time demands. Many states lack a state association of principals. There

are cities in the land without a member of our Department among their principals. Oh, the pity of such backwardness. Think of the starved condition of schools presided over by such principals. Think of the wrong done to the children, to the community. Is it strange that buildings and equipment in such communities are obsolete? Truly there is work enough for all of us to do in organizing our forces to bring the best in education to our people.

This situation and the success of group meetings during the year in a number of our larger cities, addressed by some of our officers, raises the question: "Ought we not to do a considerable amount of field work each year by sending one of our number to speak and confer with the principals of particular sections until the entire country is made familiar with our aims?"

The publication of the findings of our Committee on Standards and Training will call for a considerable outlay of money in addition to our usual expenditures. We shall have other studies from time to time that will be invaluable to our members. These publications should be paid for by our own funds. Hasn't the time come when our annual dues should be advanced to \$3 or \$5?

Many principals in name are teaching every period of the day and doing their statistical work after school without a clerk. This backward situation should be done away with as soon as possible and our Department should do all in its power to help these principals.

The secondary school principals of New York have asked for an annual salary maximum of \$12,000, none too much. Our Department has declared for a maximum of at least \$10,000 for cities of over 100,000.

The elementary school principalship demands at least four years of the best kind of general scholastic training beyond the high school as a preparation for professional courses. This should be made the standard for new entrants. For those already in service with less than these requirements extension courses should be provided that deficiencies may be remedied as early as possible.

As you go over the various studies of this volume, may you receive new enthusiasm for the great work lying before us. It is our privilege to help bring to our people a clearer conception of the new heaven and the new earth which is to be.

IDE G. SARGEANT, *President*

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CHAPTER I

THE IDEAL PRINCIPAL

RAYMOND R. FRAZIER

President, Washington Mutual Savings Bank, Seattle, Washington

THE ideal principal must possess all the qualifications and personal attributes necessary for success in any business. He must have served an apprenticeship in the ranks of his chosen profession, just as any successful business executive must have done before he can qualify for leadership and authority over others.

He must have constructive ability; that is, ability to develop and promulgate new ideas. In business we call it *initiative*.

He must be able to look upon and penetrate all sides of a given problem. In business we call it *power of analysis*. He must be able to form judgments—quickly, sometimes, and have the confidence and courage to issue definite orders. In business we call it *executive ability*. In the business world men possessing this latter qualification become *executives*. Such men and women are the “top notchers” in business; all school principals are executives.

The ideal school principal must have a thorough knowledge of human nature and be a good judge of it in its manifold variations.

He must possess tact and be able to employ convincing English, as does the successful business man.

In character the ideal principal is the personification of courage, rugged honesty, sincerity. He should not be too serious; he should be able to play as well as work; he should heartily enter into the wholesome plans and ambitions of his workers (that is, the student body who correspond with the workers in a factory, for example) just as does the ideal business man. He should, within proper bounds, encourage school spirit by entering enthusiastically into the friendly contests of his school with other schools. I mean this as applied not only to intellectual contests such as joint debates and oratorical combats, but athletic contests which have a much more general popular appeal to school spirit: track meets, baseball, football, basketball.

But, in addition to these qualifications, the ideal principal possesses something else not necessary to success in an ordinary business undertaking, and that is a deep knowledge of human character in the *formative* period. His problem is not only to supervise instruction in the elementary subjects found in the school curriculum; it is equally incumbent upon him to constantly attend to the most impor-

tant of all constructive work of the world, namely, the work of character building. The ideal principal has, therefore, a spiritual outlook on life. The very fact of his having chosen the profession of teaching, imposes this obligation of spiritual-mindedness.

The ideal principal does not chafe under the condition of modest income which characterizes his profession; he rather glories in the knowledge that he is, day by day and year by year, participating in the "durable satisfactions of life."

The ideal principal looks upon his profession as a great opportunity, and guards jealously the conception of exalted service to humanity which his calling bestows. He is ever mindful of the truth that real success in life is not determined by the amount of property one is able to accumulate, but rather by the contribution to human happiness and contentment one makes in the journey through life.

He agrees with Jerome K. Jerome that:

Life is giving, not getting. It is the work that is the joy, not the wages; the game not the score. Life is doing, not having. It is to gain the peak the climber strives, not to possess it.

CHAPTER II

THE STATUS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

ROY A. CROUCH

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PART I—A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN THE UNITED STATES

Purpose of part I—The purpose of this part is to summarize briefly some of the essential facts concerning the evolution of the elementary-school principalship in the United States. In order to understand adequately the present status of the elementary-school principal, which is the major problem of this study, it seems imperative to review the origin and development of the duties and responsibilities that are now assigned to him. Moreover, an historical approach to a problem frequently gives a deeper insight and a keener appreciation of present-day practices than any other method of procedure.

Early public schools—According to Graves,¹ the first real system of public education in the United States was inaugurated by Massachusetts about the middle of the seventeenth century. The pioneer schools of this state appear to have contained all the seeds from which our modern public schools have sprung. With few exceptions, they represent the incipient stages of present school practices; hence these early colonial schools will always be of interest to the student of education.

In establishing schools, the colonists were somewhat influenced by their European background. The type of school was not the same in every community but, in general, the schools were loosely organized and little or no attempt was made to classify the pupils. There were no graded courses of study, and the chief subjects were reading, writing, and arithmetic. Naturally, this type of school did not demand a complex organization with highly specialized administrators, supervisors, or teachers.

During the first half of the nineteenth century, the organization of public schools in the United States was well under way. The larger centers of population, such as New York, Boston, Chicago, and St. Louis, had developed city systems which were destined to become patterns for schools elsewhere. The steady increase in population and

¹ Graves, F. P., *History of Education in Modern Times*, Macmillan, New York, 1923, p. 104.

the growing popularity of the free public school necessitated changes in organization and management. Throughout the country the people were beginning to accept the principle that education is a function of the state. In searching through the early school reports, one is impressed with the fact that in almost every instance, the stimulus that gave the necessary impetus to initiate new movements was the crowded classroom or school.

Stages of development in the principalship—The elementary-school principalship is the product of many years of experimentation in educational procedure. Needless to say, it is still undergoing many changes. From the time of its very beginning, with but few interruptions, it has grown step by step until it has now become one of the most strategic positions in our entire educational system. According to McClure,¹ the stages in its development may be designated as follows: (1) the head-teacher stage, (2) the clerical stage, (3) the managerial or administrative stage, and (4) the professional leadership stage.

In attempting to classify the significant stages of development one encounters many difficulties. In the first place, in reading the early school reports one cannot always be certain of his facts. Undoubtedly the terminology used does not always coincide in meaning with that of today. Many times the term "principal" refers to the high-school principal or to the superintendent or some other administrative head. In the second place, a cross section of elementary schools in the United States would probably show that all of these stages are to be found in the present.

There is much evidence to support McClure's classification of the steps in the development of the principalship. In offering a slightly different one the writer does so in the belief that it will fit the facts better than the other, in the light of the information he was able to gather. Inasmuch as the nomenclature used depends largely upon whether one has in mind the principalship or the principal himself, it matters little what titles are used in designating the stages of development. The following milestones seem to stand out clear in the history of the principalship:

Stage	Chief Duty
1. One-teacher	Teaching.
2. Head-teacher	Teaching.
3. Teaching principal (part-time).....	Teaching.
4. Building principal (full-time).....	Administration.
5. Supervising principal (full-time).....	Supervision.

One-teacher stage—For the incipient stage in the history of the principalship we must go back to the one-room, one-teacher type of

¹ McClure, Worth, "Professionalizing the Principalship," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 21, pp. 735-43, June, 1921.

school. In this school the one teacher gave all the instruction, kept all the records, and was held absolutely responsible for the success or failure of the school in all educational matters. This school was not wholly unlike the one-room rural school of today. The growth of schools, necessitating the employment of additional teachers, erection of new buildings, and the attempt to find new means of school support, brought about changes in the teaching corps. The most important thing was the breaking up of the one-teacher school. Tice,¹ in reviewing the minutes of one of the early school boards of St. Louis, found that on:

January 25 (1842) resolution adopted to place assistant teachers in school No. 3, salary \$200 per annum; and that teachers of said schools recommend suitable persons for said places.

In commenting on this resolution Tice makes the statement that this was the first act to authorize the employment of assistants in the St. Louis public schools. One interesting thing about this resolution, aside from the provision for employing assistants, is that it asked the teachers to recommend "suitable persons" for the positions.

Head-teacher stage—When increases in enrolment necessitated the employment of assistant teachers, a ranking system of the teaching corps was initiated. Accordingly, we find the terms head teacher, chief teacher, principal teacher, etc., in the early school reports. Teachers of subordinate rank were titled, first assistant, second assistant, or sub-master. The exact title was not the same in all schools; however, the work for these people was about the same in all schools. Our chief concern here is to show that the head teacher, by whatever name he was called, was at this time given certain specific duties to perform aside from his regular classroom teaching. For this extra work the head teacher or principal was given a higher salary, together with certain professional recognition that was denied the other teachers in the same school. A reference to another early school report will show the nature of these extra duties.

In 1859 Divoll² suggested in his annual report:

There is to be one principal to each building, all the other teachers being assistants, also but one set of registers and reports to be taken charge of by the principal. The principal is to be particularly responsible for the deportment of the pupils while they are in the yard during the recesses and intermissions; he is also to have a general supervision over the whole school while in session, in matters of discipline and instruction.

At the close of this report is given a set of the earliest school board regulations that the writer was able to find pertaining to the duties of the principal. It is worth quoting in full:

¹ Tice, John H., *First Annual (School) Report*. City of St. Louis, pp. 54-55.

² Divoll, Ira, *Fifth Annual (School) Report* (1859), City of St. Louis, p. 25.

SECTION 26. The principal teachers shall keep a register in which they shall record the name, age, birthplace, residence, and date of admission of each pupil for the first time entered in the public schools and also the name and occupation of the parent or guardian.

SECTION 27. They shall also make a daily record of the pupils admitted, present, absent or tardy, and at the close of each quarter and the close of the year furnish the superintendent with an abstract of the same according to prescribed forms.

SECTION 28. The principal shall have a general supervision of the grounds, buildings and appurtenances of the school, and shall be held responsible for any want of neatness or cleanliness on the premises; whenever any repairs are needed he shall give notice thereof to the superintendent.

SECTION 29. The principal of each school shall furnish the director of the ward in which such school is situated, the names of those pupils whose parents or guardians declare themselves unable to provide said pupils with the necessary school books, and upon satisfactory evidence of such inability, the aforesaid directors shall order such books to be furnished at the expense of the board. It shall be the duty of such principal to account to the board at the end of each quarter for all books and stationery furnished for the use of indigent children.

SECTION 30. The principal of each school shall as soon as convenient after the commencement of the first quarter furnish the superintendent with a program of the daily exercises of the different rooms.

SECTION 31. Each principal shall examine the classes of assistants as often as practicable, without neglecting the pupils under his immediate charge.

Slowly but surely the duties and responsibilities of the principalship were accumulating to such an extent that the principal had to be given teaching assistants and thus relieved from part of his work as a classroom teacher.

Teaching principal—At this time the need for relieving the teacher of part of his classroom work reached an acute stage. During the same year, 1859, that Divoll¹ outlined the extra duties of the principalship for the schools of St. Louis, Wells² recommended partial relief from classroom work for the principals of the Chicago schools. His suggestions were:

In several of the new school buildings the number of teachers and pupils is so large that a considerable portion of the principal's time is consumed in attending to matters of general oversight, and in giving such aid to the other teachers as may be necessary to secure uniformity and efficiency in all the different parts. . . . I would suggest that it may be desirable to make some special provision by which the principals of the larger schools will be relieved from the immediate charge of their own rooms during a portion of each day for the purpose of attending to the general interests of their respective schools.

It would appear that in many of the larger centers of population congested classrooms were compelling school officials to seek new methods of administration. Problems of attendance, promotion, discipline, and methods of instruction were demanding solutions. That this movement was widespread at this stage in the history of the

¹ Divoll, Ira, *op. cit.*

² Wells, W. H., *Fifth Annual Report*. Chicago City Schools, p. 43 (1859).

public school system can be shown from many sources. In New York City we find Seton¹ in 1863 advising his superintendent:

I have been reminded again of the propriety and necessity of the principal being given large opportunities for frequent visits to all the classrooms, to correct all errors of discipline and management, by counsel and practical instruction to the inexperienced. Some of the principals, by being obliged to teach a class themselves, are precluded from such useful efforts. . . . a proper attention to the school records will sometimes interfere with this more useful supervision by the principal if no aid is afforded him in keeping the books.

Thus it is seen that the opening wedge in the elementary-school principalship, as it is known today, was driven. Further developments in the new concept of the duties and responsibilities of the principal were seriously retarded by the outbreak of the Civil War, which demoralized the entire nation.

Building principal—We have designated as the next step in the evolution of the principalship the general acceptance of the principal as the chief administrative official of his school.

In the early history of the common schools there was little administrative work to do, but with the advent of large schools, with extensive office records, with much school correspondence, and with numerous other managerial duties it became imperative that the principal be relieved from all teaching in order to give his entire attention to administrative matters of the school. This was an advance step in the development of the principalship, and years of agitation were necessary before school boards began to realize the necessity of it. There are still a few school officials who are somewhat dubious about "paying people who do not teach." It is understood, of course, that even now it is only in the larger schools that principals are entirely free from regular classroom teaching. A good illustration of this new "local autonomy" that was given to these principals of larger schools is found in the following board regulation:²

RULE 41. The principal shall be permitted without interference on the part of any member of the board, or the superintendent, to arrange the details for the internal government of their schools according to their own method, provided such method is not inconsistent with the general regulations of the schools; such principals, of course, being liable to be judged as to their qualifications by the results they may produce.

One of the clearest and most helpful accounts of the duties of a modern administrative principal is that given by Cubberley³ as follows:

¹ Seton, S. W., *Annual School Report*. City of New York, 1863, p. 120.

² *Seventeenth Annual Report*. St. Louis. Appendix, p. 26, 1871.

³ Cubberley, Ellwood P., *Principal and His School*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1923, p. 39.

As an administrator the principal stands responsible to the different authorities above him for the successful administration of his unit in the school system . . . looks after all administrative details relating to janitors and their work, and the needs of the teachers, oversees the attendance and conduct and health of the pupils; orders and receives and often gives out the supplies; has charge of, and inventories and keeps up the stock room, etc.

This type of school principal is properly called the "building principal." It must not be presumed that he does no supervising. The major part of his time during a school day is given to purely managerial or administrative functions. But a new concept of the elementary-school principal is fast gaining recognition among leading educators.

Supervising principal—From the very first colonial schools some sort of school visitation has always been given. Possibly in the very earliest schools the parents themselves who collectively and voluntarily paid the teacher his salary visited the schools in order to see how well their children were being taught. But with the advent of the free public school a different sort of régime was inaugurated for this school function.

In the early history of the public schools there was only cursory supervision of instruction. Much of the school visitation was mere inspection, and was done by laymen instead of by experts in educational matters. At first the superintendent of schools was held responsible for supervision, and personally visited all the schools, heard recitations, counselled with teachers relative to school matters, etc. But in the larger cities this became physically impossible. In 1858, Tice¹ reported:

I have made over 700 visits to the different schools and fully twice that number counting all the visits to all the classrooms.

In the same year, Freese² reported to his board:

I have made upwards of 400 visits to the schools during the year, not including frequent business calls, and personally examined nearly 3000 pupils with reference to their proficiency and standing.

Thirty years later, in 1888, we find Howland,³ by way of contrast, maintaining:

The real supervision of teachers and pupils and the healthful activities of the school must now, as ever, rest with the principal who alone can control and direct the daily work and become personally familiar with the progress of the pupils.

At the present time it is quite generally accepted by those who have given much thought to problems in educational administration, that the most important duty of an elementary-school principal

¹ Tice, John H., *Fourth Annual School Report*, St. Louis, p. 10.

² Freese, Andrew, *City School Report*, Cleveland, p. 9.

³ Howland, George, *Thirty-Fourth Annual School Report*, City of Chicago, p. 72.

is the supervision of instruction. McClure,¹ in a somewhat recent study, found that superintendents of schools expect their principals to devote more time to supervision than to matters of administration or clerical work. As is well known, there are many principals who are not free from endless office routine and petty details. It must be admitted, of course, that office work, the keeping of records, the answering of correspondence, etc., must be done; it would seem more economical to have much of this work done by a clerk instead of by a technically trained supervising principal. The questionnaire part of this study gives further proof of this statement.

Principals in our most modern elementary schools are more and more being relieved of purely clerical work and are giving most of their time to developing the internal government and to improving instruction in their schools. Gist² has well said:

Within the last few years, the principals of the larger schools have been relieved of all responsibility of teaching any particular room. With this responsibility lessened, and the demand for greater efficiency in teaching, the principal has been required to assume an increasing amount of the responsibility for a high type of instruction in his school. We therefore now have a new duty for this position, that of the supervision and improvement of instruction.

Summary and conclusion—It would appear, from the facts that the writer has been able to marshal together, that the steps in the evolution of the elementary-school principalship in the United States have been as follows:

1. *One-teacher stage*—In this stage the one teacher gave all the instruction, kept all the records, and, in brief, did all the work that normally goes with a one-room, one-teacher school.

2. *Head-teacher stage*—The growth of schools necessitated the employment of assistant teachers. As a result, a ranking system was introduced whereby one teacher became known as head-teacher or head master and was given certain administrative duties aside from classroom teaching.

3. *Teaching principal stage*—This stage differs from the head-teacher stage in that the principal taught only part time and gave approximately half time to matters concerning the whole school.

4. *Building principal stage*—This stage is quite common today. The statistical part of this study shows that a large percent of principals come under this head. In such schools the principal is relieved of teaching any particular room, gives most of his time to administrative duties and does some supervising of instruction. He frequently has had no training in this highly specialized work, but is simply an executive developing one unit of the school system under the direction of the superintendent.

5. *Supervising principal stage*—The chief distinction between this stage and the one given above lies in the emphasis given to supervision instead of administration. In this stage the principal is responsible for a high quality of instruction.

¹ McClure, Worth, "The Functions of the Elementary School Principal." *Elementary School Journal* 21: 500-14, March, 1921.

² Gist, Arthur S., *The Third Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, pp. 205-15, 1924.

He must assume professional leadership and train and inspire his teachers to render efficient service. Much of the office work is done by clerical help. This undoubtedly represents the practice of the most modern schools of today.

These are the stages in the evolution of the elementary-school principalship in the United States, yet all of these steps can be found at the present time. Excepting the first step, undoubtedly all of the others could be found in some of our larger cities. It would seem that the elementary-school principal is gradually emerging into a highly specialized work and that whatever our educational theories may be, or whatever our courses of study or curricula may become in the future, the one who will translate these aims and courses of study into terms that will be intelligible to the average citizen or parent, will be the elementary-school principal, for he is the key man in any school system.

PART II—INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the study—The object of this study is to make a thorough investigation of the status of the elementary-school principal in the United States. The inquiry will attempt to answer a few of the more important questions that are frequently asked concerning the principal and his work, such as:

1. What are the major duties and responsibilities of a principal?
2. What professional and academic training has he had to prepare himself for the work?
3. How does he evaluate certain professional courses from the standpoint of their usefulness to the principalship?
4. If a job analysis were made of a principal's work, what would be the time allowances for each function on an average typical day?
5. From the standpoint of salary and tenure of office, does the elementary-school principalship represent a stable professional group?
6. What evidences are there of professional growth among elementary-school principals?

In addition to the foregoing questions, others of minor importance will be given consideration.

Limitation of the study—The data used in this study were secured by means of a questionnaire. The investigation has, therefore, all the limitations that are known to exist in this means of collecting information. Extreme care was taken in the preparation of the questionnaire to make it as serviceable as possible. A complete copy is found in the appendix.

Sources of data—With the approval of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, a questionnaire was mailed on March 20, 1925, to the members of that organization who were principals of elementary schools. A total of 2140 questionnaires were sent out. Of this number 647 were filled

out and received in time to be used in the study. All of the states in the union, excepting Nevada and Mississippi, are included. There were a few returns from the District of Columbia.

Previous studies—It is not feasible to list all the studies that have been made relative to the work of the principal. Space will not allow detailed reports of the investigations selected for review.

In March, 1921, McClure,¹ published a study entitled "The Functions of the Elementary-School Principal." The purpose of the investigation, which was made by the Seattle Principals' Club, was to answer two questions: What are the functions of the elementary-school principal in theory and in practice? What is their relative importance in theory and in practice?

An elaborate questionnaire was sent to superintendents of the thirty largest cities in the United States, sixteen university professors of education, and the principals of the elementary schools of Seattle. A tabulation of the data showed that in theory the functions of the principal take the following ranks: (1) supervision of teaching, (2) community leadership, (3) professional study and growth, and (4) clerical work. In practice these functions ranked: (according to university men) (1) administration, (2) clerical work, (3) supervision, (4) community leadership or professional study. The practice of Seattle principals toward these functions was (1) administration, (2) supervision, and (3) clerical work.

In June, 1921, McClure² made an additional report from other data secured in the same questionnaire. The object of this report was "to present some of the evidence for the belief that the present tendency is toward professional ideals and standards." Some of the more important findings were: (1) higher standards of training are being required of candidates for appointment, (2) in the larger cities, principals are practically all freed from the duty of regular classroom work, (3) the tendency in city systems is toward relieving the principal of clerical and routine duties, and (4) the responsibility of the principal as an educational leader in the community is being recognized by both superintendents and principals.

In October, 1922, Gist and King³ published a study entitled "The Efficiency of the Principalship from the Standpoint of the Teacher." The purpose of the investigation was to ascertain how the principal may be of the most help to the teacher. A questionnaire was sent to

¹ McClure, Worth, *op. cit.*

² McClure, Worth, *op. cit.*

³ Gist, Arthur S., and King, William A., "The Efficiency of the Principalship from the Standpoint of the Teacher." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 23, October, 1922, pp. 120-126.

each teacher in Seattle, about 1500, and of this number 300 returns were secured. Under the main heads, professional, administrative, and personal relationships, several sub-heads are given which show the percent of teachers' judgments as to the principal's duties concerning the course of study, exceptional child, etc. This is a very valuable study.

In June, 1924, Horrall¹ reported a study entitled "The Elementary-School Principal from the Teachers' Point of View." The purpose of the investigation, as the title suggests, was to find out what classroom teachers think of elementary-school principals as a class. The cooperation of eight superintendents was secured and questionnaires were sent out to their teachers. Some of the findings were: More teachers expressed a preference for men principals than for women principals, but a majority expressed no preference at all, saying, "personality, not sex, counts." A majority of the teachers answering the questionnaire thought that tact, ability to discipline well, and an appreciation of the points of view of parents, teachers, and pupils were the chief characteristics of a good principal. The chief shortcomings of principals were listed as lack of tact and impartiality, and a failure to possess a sense of humor.

In addition to these studies, there have been several general articles written relative to the elementary-school principal and his work. Reference to many of these is made elsewhere in this study. A few of the more important ones follow in brief:

In 1918, Nutt² published an article on "The Duties of an Elementary-School Principal." The purpose of the discussion was to "describe somewhat in detail the activities that are actually performed by building principals under varying conditions of school organization and administration."

In 1918, Reavis³ wrote a report on "The Duties of the Supervising Principal." The purpose of the article was "to present the duties of the supervising principal in their entirety, rather than to consider the merits or demerits of the different types of principal; and to maintain that it is more important to the school for the principal to view his work clearly from many angles and to properly discharge all his duties than to hold a warped conception of his functions and to excel in those phases of work at the neglect of other phases."

¹Horrall, A. H., "The Elementary-School Principal from the Teachers' Point of View." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 24, June, 1924, pp. 742-746.

²Nutt, H. W., "The Duties of an Elementary-School Principal." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 19, November, 1918, pp. 174-197.

³Reavis, W. C., "The Duties of a Supervising Principal," pp. 278-284.

In 1918, Gray¹ published an article on "The Work of Elementary-School Principals." The purpose of this study was "to concentrate attention on one important phase of the principal's work, that of the supervision of teaching."

In 1923, Cubberley² published a very useful volume on *The Principal and His School*. According to the author, the book was "while designed primarily to organize the subject-matter for a new course in school administration of a very practical type, this book also contains much that principals in service will find useful."

Two years later, in 1925, Kuehny³ reported a study made by a seminar class at the University of Southern California, the purpose of which was "not to make a critical analysis of the daily activities of an elementary principal as such, but to locate, if possible, the points of greatest concentration of effort on the part of the principal in order that a further study might be productive of the development of a constructive program for the relief from the more managerial duties, and opportunity given for participation in the larger work of the school—the learning activities." According to this report it is quite apparent that the adoption of working schedules for principals will have a wholesome effect on the use and distribution of the principal's time.

In November, 1925, Bolton⁴ and Howard published an article on the "Duties of the Elementary-School Principal." The chief purpose of the report is to emphasize the supervisory duties of the principal. Among other things, the authors maintain that "the principal should teach one or two classes as one of his regular duties." It will be observed, in Part V of the present study, that this is not in accord with what the principals themselves consider as one of their regular and important duties.

Significance of this study—This study is an attempt to make an investigation of the status of the elementary-school principal in the United States. The importance of the work of the elementary-school principal is being recognized by educational leaders. In order that we may be guided wisely in suggesting measures for the improvement

¹ Gray, William S., "The Work of Elementary-School Principals," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 19, September, 1918, pp. 24-35.

² Cubberley, Ellwood P., *The Principal and His School*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1923, Preface, p. 7.

³ Kuehny, Menlo S., "The Effect on the Use and Distribution of the Elementary-School Principal's Time by the Adoption of Daily Schedules or Programs," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol. V, No. 1, October, 1925, pp. 42-51.

⁴ Bolton, Euri Belle, and Howard, Clara, "Duties of the Elementary-School Principal," *Peabody Journal of Education*, November, 1925, pp. 139-145.

of the principal, it is of vital importance that information be gathered as to what his professional status is at the present time. The Department of Elementary-School Principals of the National Education Association is launching out on a broad professional program. It is hoped that this study will help to furnish the basis upon which future plans can be built. Similar investigations have been made relative to the status of the high-school principal¹ and the superintendent of schools.² The present study attempts to do the same kind of service for the elementary-school principal.

This study differs from those reported on pages 215 to 217, inclusive, in two important aspects. First, it is much more extensive in that it covers practically every state in the union, hence is much more representative than a study including one, or a few cities, would be; and secondly, it is much more specific in covering certain phases of the principal's work that these studies did not include.

Methods of tabulating data—In tabulating the data found in this study the following methods were used: In determining the relative ranks given by elementary-school principals to education courses they had studied, and in locating the ranks given by them to certain school functions the percentile method³ was used. The formula was $P. R. = \frac{2R-1}{2N} \times 100$. Only questionnaires having complete rankings were used.

All the correlation coefficients found in this study were computed by means of the Ayres' formula. This method is best explained in *The Journal of Educational Research*, April, 1920, pp. 295-298.

Factors used in comparing data—In taking the data from the questionnaires, three factors were given consideration—namely, geographical area, population of cities, and size of school enrolment. Not all of these factors were considered with every item taken from the questionnaires, but only where the comparison was thought to be significant. Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the number and percentage of questionnaires for each group.

It was found, experimentally, that the sevenfold classification used in Table 2 gives a very suitable distribution of the data for the purpose of this investigation.

It will be seen that the steps between the enrolment groups do not progress arithmetically. The number of steps and their sizes are thought to be best suited for the purposes of this study.

¹ Koos, L. V., *The High School Principal*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1924.

² Douglass, B. C., "The Status of the Superintendent," *First Yearbook, Department of Superintendence*, 1922-1923.

³ Otis, A. S., *Statistical Method in Educational Measurement*, World Book Co., 1925.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF QUESTIONNAIRES FOR EACH GEOGRAPHICAL AREA

Area	Number	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	168	25.9
South Atlantic	36	5.6
North Central	249	38.6
South Central	37	5.7
Western	157	24.2
Total	647	100.0

GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Group I.—North Atlantic: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Vermont.

Group II.—South Atlantic: Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida.

Group III.—North Central: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas.

Group IV.—South Central: Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma and Arkansas.

Group V.—Western: Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, Idaho, Washington, Oregon and California.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF QUESTIONNAIRES FOR EACH POPULATION GROUP

Population Groups of Cities	Number	Percent of Total
Above 250,000	262	40.5
100,000 to 249,999	117	18.1
50,000 to 99,999	60	9.5
30,000 to 49,999	51	7.5
10,000 to 29,999	93	14.4
5,000 to 9,999	22	3.0
Below 5,000	42	7.0
Total	647	100.0

TABLE 3.—NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF QUESTIONNAIRES FOR EACH ENROLMENT GROUP

Enrolment Groups of Pupils	Number	Percent of Total
1-100	16	2.8
101-200	26	4.5
201-300	45	7.9
301-500	154	26.9
501-1000	232	40.5
1001-2000	94	16.4
2001-plus	6	1.0
Total	573	100.0

PART III—THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS SCHOOL

Purpose of part—The object of this part is (1) to show the distribution of elementary-school principals by sex and by age, and (2) to give somewhat detailed information concerning the organization of the elementary school.

Distribution by sex—What percent of elementary-school principals are men? What percent are women? Table 4 shows that 44.5 percent of all the principals included in this study are men, and 55.5 percent are women. Koos,¹ in his study, found that 9.7 percent of high-school principals are women. The data in the present study further show that 7.8 percent of the elementary-school principals are married women.

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SEXES BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Area	Men	Women	
		Single	Married
North Atlantic	47.6	48.8	3.6
South Atlantic	41.7	50.0	8.3
North Central	41.4	51.2	7.4
South Central	48.6	51.4	...
Western	45.6	49.8	14.6
Total	44.5	47.7	7.8

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 47.6 percent of the principals were men, 48.8 percent single women, etc.

In comparing sex by geographical sections, we find that the south central group has the largest percentage of men principals, also the largest percentage of unmarried women principals. The western section has the largest percentage of married women principals. Our data do not show any married women principals in the south central section. This fact may be due to a limited number of cases for that area.

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SEXES BY POPULATION GROUPS

Population Group	Men	Women	
		Single	Married
Under 5,000	52.4	35.7	11.9
5,000- 9,999	27.3	63.6	9.1
10,000- 29,999	22.2	72.2	5.6
30,000- 49,999	45.1	52.9	2.0
50,000- 99,999	40.6	51.6	7.8
100,000-249,999	41.8	46.4	11.8
Above 250,000	54.2	38.5	7.3
Total	44.5	47.7	7.8

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 52.4 percent of the principals were men, 35.7 percent were single women, etc.

In comparing the sexes by population groups, we find, in Table 5, the largest percentage of men principals in cities over 250,000 in population. Cities between 10,000 and 30,000 have the highest percentage of single women principals, and cities under 5000 in population have the highest percentage of married women principals.

¹ Koos, L. V., *op. cit.*, Table III, p. 10.

It is significant that in the larger cities the percentage of men increases. In checking the data from the questionnaires for this item, the writer found many marginal quotations such as "personality, not sex, counts." This statement probably contains much truth.

The age of the principal—The typical elementary-school principal of the United States is a person of maturity. The data given in Table 6 show that the median age for principals is 47.4 years. The first quartile is 39.4 years, third quartile 54.3 years with a quartile deviation of 7.4 years. The range is from 20 to 74 years.

TABLE 6.—DISTRIBUTION OF AGES OF PRINCIPALS BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Age	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
20-24.....	2	1	1	..	..	4
25-29.....	5	1	6	2	10	24
30-34.....	12	4	11	4	15	46
35-39.....	22	3	20	7	21	73
40-44.....	25	3	20	10	23	81
45-49.....	25	7	44	6	18	100
50-54.....	26	5	45	2	21	99
55-59.....	20	4	30	2	13	69
60-64.....	11	2	17	1	6	37
65-69.....	4	2	6	1	1	14
70-74.....	2	..	2	..	2	6
Total	154	32	202	35	130	553
Q ₁	39.4	38.3	43.1	36.9	36.7	39.4
Med.	47.2	47.8	49.9	42.2	44.1	47.4
Q ₃	54.6	55.0	55.7	47.7	52.5	54.3
Q	7.1	8.3	6.3	5.4	7.9	7.4

Table reads: In the North Atlantic section there were two principals between the ages 20-24 inclusive, etc.

In comparing ages by geographical sections we find that the principals of the north central group have a median age of 49.9 years, and that those of the south central group, the youngest of them all, have a median age of 42.2 years. By population groups, we find, in Table 7, the oldest principals in cities of over 250,000 population who have a median age of 50.8 years, while the principals in cities under 5000 population have a median age of 34.7 years. It is significant to note in passing that the median age for elementary-school principals is older than that shown for superintendents of schools. Douglass¹ found that the median age of the superintendent of schools was 43.15 years. Eikenberry,² in his investigation, found the median age for high-school principals was 33.4 years. Hence, it is seen that the median age for the elementary-school principal is older than that either for the superintendent of schools or the high-school principal.

¹ Douglass, B. C., *op. cit.*, Table 44, p. 105.

² Eikenberry, D. H., *The Status of the High-School Principal*. (A bulletin in process of publication by the Bureau of Education.)

The school and the community—It is widely accepted among educators that the school should play an important part in the life of a community. Many city superintendents have long since found the undesirability and impracticability of making all schools in their

TABLE 7.—DISTRIBUTION OF AGES OF PRINCIPALS BY POPULATION GROUPS

Age	Under 5,000	5,000 9,999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
20-24.....	3	..	1	..	..	..	..	4
25-29.....	7	1	1	3	4	5	3	24
30-34.....	10	1	13	6	2	5	9	46
35-39.....	4	2	15	8	7	19	18	73
40-44.....	5	7	12	8	5	14	30	81
45-49.....	3	3	15	9	11	21	38	100
50-54.....	4	2	9	6	16	12	50	99
55-59.....	2	3	13	5	4	16	26	69
60-64.....	1	..	..	4	4	2	26	37
65-69.....	..	..	1	..	3	3	7	14
70-74.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	6
Total	39	19	80	49	56	97	213	553
Q ₁	29.8	40.5	36.6	37.0	41.0	37.8	43.8	39.4
Med.	34.7	43.2	44.1	44.6	49.5	46.3	50.8	47.4
Q ₃	45.4	50.6	51.6	52.2	54.0	53.6	57.2	53.3
Q	7.8	5.0	7.5	7.6	6.5	7.4	6.7	7.4

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, there were three principals between the ages 20-24 inclusive, etc.

city exactly alike. In many senses of the word the school must adapt itself to the needs of the neighborhood. It is important that the principal should know the traits and needs of his own community and direct his unit of the educational system in light of this knowledge.

TABLE 8.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREA AND TYPES OF COMMUNITIES

Area	Agric- ultural	Indus- trial	Commer- cial	College	Resi- dential	For- eign
North Atlantic	2	39	5	1	42	11
South Atlantic	6	23	11	3	46	11
North Central	4	28	8	3	44	13
South Central	8	33	3	3	45	8
Western	15	15	10	5	48	7
Total	6	28	7	3	45	11

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 2.0 percent of the schools were in agricultural communities, etc.

In Table 8 is given a distribution of types of communities by geographical areas. The percentages for each community type follow: residential 45.0, industrial 28.0, foreign 11.0, commercial 7.0, agricultural 6.0, and college 3.0. It is recognized that there is no sharp line of demarcation between any of these types. It is believed, how-

ever, that there is a very much different problem confronting the principal in an industrial community from that confronting one in a college community. While in general the percentages for each group are quite uniform, a few notable exceptions can be found. Of the schools belonging to the north Atlantic group, 2 percent are in agricultural communities; of those belonging to the western group 15 percent are in agricultural communities. Conversely, 39 percent of the schools of the north Atlantic group are in industrial communities while only 15 percent of the western group are in industrial communities. Although the foreign types of communities are comparatively few, they are not without some significance.

The distribution of communities by enrolment groups, in Table 9, shows that the smaller schools are located chiefly in agricultural and

TABLE 9.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS BY ENROLMENT GROUPS AND TYPES OF COMMUNITIES

Enrolment Group	Agri-cultural	Indus-trial	Commer-cial	College	Resi-dential	For-eign
1- 100.....	27	33	7	..	33	..
101- 200.....	24	14	10	..	48	4
201- 300.....	11	20	7	9	39	14
301- 500.....	4	37	5	5	44	5
501-1000.....	6	30	8	2	41	13
1001-2000.....	..	23	9	1	48	19
2001-plus.....	..	43	4	..	43	..
Total	6	28	7	3	45	11

Table reads: In schools having from 1-100 pupils, 27.0 percent were in agricultural communities, etc.

residential communities. The larger schools, those of five hundred or more pupils, are located in industrial, residential, and foreign communities. Inasmuch as there is probably much overlapping in the classification used, it is highly improbable that any one school is of one single community type.

Kinds of schools—All the schools represented in this study are co-educational public schools. From the standpoint of race, 66.3 percent of the schools consist of white children only, while 33.7 percent are of both white and colored children.

Types of school organization—The organization of the elementary-school in the United States is in a period of change. The familiar traditional type of organization is in many instances being replaced by more economical and efficient types, such as the departmental, platoon, Dalton, or Winnetka. While we are at present too close to these changes to evaluate their worth, yet it seems certain that some modification of the old regular type of school organization is sure to come.

Accordingly, principals were asked to indicate the kind of organization existing in their schools. Table 10 shows such distribution by geographical areas. Reading from the totals one can see that 58 percent of the principals reported the regular type, 9 percent departmental, 7 percent platoon, and 26 percent various combinations of types. No one section of the country appears to be leading any other section from the standpoint of change.

Table 11, however, indicates that it is the larger schools that are deviating from the regular type of organization. It is chiefly in those

TABLE 10.—PERCENTAGE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Geographical Area	Regular	Departmental	Platoon	Combinations of Types
North Atlantic	58	6	5	31
South Atlantic	71	6	9	14
North Central	59	10	5	26
South Central	39	22	14	25
Western	57	10	9	24
Total	58	9	7	26

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 58.0 percent of the schools were of the regular type, etc.

TABLE 11.—PERCENTAGE AND ENROLMENT DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Enrolment Groups	Regular	Departmental	Platoon	Combinations of Types
1- 100	75	19	..	6
101- 200	86	4	..	10
201- 300	88	6	..	6
301- 500	69	11	1	19
501-1000	51	12	10	27
1001-2000	44	9	15	32
2001-plus	29	29	..	42
Total	60	10	7	23

Table reads: In schools having from 1 to 100 pupils, 75.0 percent were of the regular type, etc.

having over 1000 pupils enrolled that we find the evidence of change. This fact suggests that increasing attendance, with concomitant demands for building room, is one factor. It may further indicate that the larger schools are more professionally alert to try out new plans, or that the administrative authorities in the larger schools are given more freedom in directing their schools than are those in schools of smaller enrolment.

Grades under direction of principals—Since principals are being held more and more for a high quality of instruction in their schools, it is important to know what grades, and how many, are generally included in an elementary school. Manifestly, the problems of a

five-grade school are not wholly like those of a nine-grade school. With this in mind, principals were asked to indicate the number of grades in their schools. Table 12 shows distribution by geographical areas.

Of the 595 principals who reported on this item of the questionnaire, 151 indicated that their schools include the kindergarten and the first eight grades, while 134 reported the first eight grades without the kindergarten. This would suggest that the junior high school has not yet been established in these communities. The 117 cases found in schools having kindergarten and the first six grades would suggest the presence of the junior high school in those communities. Another inference that can be drawn is that at the present time there is no agreement as to what constitutes an elementary school. Of the 595 schools, 342, or 57.4 percent, report kindergartens. It will be seen

TABLE 12.—NUMBER AND KINDS OF GRADES UNDER THE DIRECTION OF PRINCIPALS

Grades	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
Kg-5	7	1	2	..	3	13
1-5	2	2	1	4	3	12
Kg-6	31	7	55	1	23	117
1-6	18	8	22	8	13	69
Kg-7	6	1	28	4	12	51
1-7	6	8	10	3	6	33
Kg-8	41	3	81	3	23	151
1-8	37	2	32	13	50	134
Kg-9	3	..	4	..	3	10
1-9	..	1	2	..	2	5
Total	151	33	237	36	138	595

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, there were seven principals who reported having kindergarten to fifth grade inclusive under their direction, etc.

there are few kindergartens reported from either the south Atlantic or south central sections. Table 13 indicates there is no great variation in this item for the different population groups.

Number pupils enrolled—Many of the schools included in this study have large enrolments. Table 3 shows that only 2.8 percent have enrolments of 100 pupils or less, while 57.9 percent have over 500 pupils enrolled. There are six schools that have over 2000 pupils each. It is not assumed that all of these children were housed in one building. Several principals stated they had charge of three or four buildings or schools. Frequently the kindergarten was in a separate building.

Length of school year—There is a growing tendency in the United States to lengthen the school year. Many educators feel that a ten-month school year is better than a nine-month year. A few have even advocated a twelve-month school. Table 14 shows that 58 percent of

the schools included in this study have ten months, or 40 weeks of school, 4 percent have 39 weeks, 22 percent 38 weeks, 1 percent 37 weeks, and 15 percent 36 weeks. The data show that the longer terms are found in the north Atlantic, north central and western groups respectively. Of the schools in the south Atlantic group, 22 percent

TABLE 13.—NUMBER AND KINDS OF GRADES UNDER THE DIRECTION OF PRINCIPALS

Grades	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
Kg-5	1	..	3	1	..	5	3	13
1-5	1	2	4	..	1	2	2	12
Kg-6	1	4	17	13	22	16	44	117
1-6	5	5	18	9	11	10	11	69
Kg-7	1	1	5	5	3	17	19	51
1-7	2	..	9	5	6	4	7	33
Kg-8	6	2	5	13	8	19	98	151
1-8	21	3	20	3	11	23	53	134
Kg-9	1	..	..	1	1	..	7	10
1-9	1	..	2	..	1	1	..	5
Total	40	17	83	50	64	97	244	595

Table reads: In cities under 5000, there was one principal who reported having kindergarten to fifth grade inclusive under his direction, etc.

have 40 weeks, while in the south central group only 8 percent have 40 weeks of school.

Hours in school day—The number of hours in the school day vary from four and a half to seven and a half. The data in Table 15 show that 3 percent of the schools have a four and a half-hour day, 45

TABLE 14.—PERCENTAGE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF LENGTH OF SCHOOL YEAR IN WEEKS

Area	Number of Weeks				
	36	37	38	39	40
North Atlantic	4	3	10	7	76
South Atlantic	44	..	34	..	22
North Central	12	1	26	1	60
South Central	72	5	5	..	8
Western	13	2	17	13	55
Total	15	1	22	4	58

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 4.0 percent of the schools had 36 weeks in their school year, etc.

percent a five-hour day, 31 percent a five and a half-hour day, 16 percent a six-hour day, 3 percent a six and half-hour day, 1 percent a seven-hour day, and 1 percent a seven and a half hour-day. In the north Atlantic group 65 percent of the schools have less than a five and a half hour-day, while in the south central section 71 percent have more than five and a half hours in a school day. Although the mode

is a five-hour school day, the large percentage given the five and a half-hour day suggests that the tendency is toward a longer day.

In Table 16 the data suggest that the schools in the larger cities tend to have the longer school day. This may indicate that supervised study periods, in these schools, have tended to lengthen the school day. A few principals stated that extra-curricular activities and organized athletics added to the length of the school day in their schools. Some of the four and a half-hour days reported are due

TABLE 15.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS IN SCHOOL DAY ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Hours	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
4½.....	7	..	..	5	2	3
5.....	58	58	45	21	35	45
5½.....	27	24	30	3	45	31
6.....	6	18	23	38	12	16
6½.....	1	..	1	18	4	3
7.....	1	..	1	12	1	1
7½.....	..	..	..	3	1	1

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 7.0 percent of the principals reported school days of 4½ hours in length, etc.

TABLE 16.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS IN SCHOOL DAY ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Hours	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
4½.....	2	4	5	4	..	7	..	3
5.....	23	22	43	47	35	40	56	45
5½.....	50	44	31	23	39	32	26	31
6.....	23	30	19	22	19	10	14	16
6½.....	2	..	2	4	2	7	2	3
7.....	..	..	..	..	3	3	1	1
7½.....	..	..	..	..	2	1	1	1

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 2.0 percent of the principals reported school days of 4½ hours in length, etc.

to double sessions, and do not represent a choice of that length of school day.

Teachers under direction of principal—According to the data shown in Table 17, the median number of teachers under the direction of one principal is 17.0. The first quartile is 11.7; the third quartile is 25.7, with a quartile deviation of 7.0. In other words, one fourth of the principals have fewer than 11.7 teachers, one half fewer than 17.0, and three fourths fewer than 25.7. The range is from two to fifty-nine.

In the geographical distribution, we find very little variation among the different sections. In Table 18, which gives the distribution by population groups, one can see that the schools in the larger cities

TABLE 17.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS UNDER THE DIRECTION OF PRINCIPALS
DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Number of Teachers	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
2.....	1	1	..	..	1	3
3.....	3	..	1	..	2	6
4.....	2	..	2	1	4	9
5.....	3	1	1	..	3	8
6.....	8	1	4	..	3	16
7.....	4	..	4	1	5	14
8.....	8	1	9	3	10	31
9.....	8	..	11	1	6	26
10.....	8	1	8	5	9	31
11.....	4	..	9	4	6	23
12.....	4	1	14	..	10	29
13.....	8	1	9	5	5	28
14.....	4	..	17	3	10	34
15.....	9	2	9	1	8	29
16.....	8	2	11	..	11	32
17.....	10	1	12	2	7	32
18.....	6	..	11	..	2	19
19.....	5	1	6	3	4	19
20.....	4	1	4	3	10	22
21.....	4	1	8	..	5	18
22.....	5	1	5	..	4	15
23.....	2	..	11	..	3	16
24.....	4	1	9	1	5	20
25.....	3	2	7	2	1	15
26.....	2	1	5	3	3	14
27.....	..	2	5	..	2	9
28.....	2	1	5	..	4	12
29.....	2	2	4	..	4	12
30.....	..	1	7	..	1	9
31.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
32.....	3	2	6	..	1	12
33.....	3	..	4	..	1	8
34.....	2	..	1	..	..	3
35.....	1	..	1	..	..	2
36.....	5	1	3	..	1	10
37.....	2	..	2	..	..	4
38.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
39.....	..	..	4	..	..	4
40.....	5	..	..	..	1	6
41 to 59.....	14	..	14	..	6	34
Total	168	29	243	38	158	636
Q ₁	10.6	15.1	12.8	10.7	10.6	11.7
Med.	17.2	21.5	18.9	13.8	15.6	17.0
Q ₃	26.5	27.1	26.1	19.2	21.5	25.7
Q	7.9	6.0	6.6	4.2	5.4	7.0

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, one principal reported having two teachers under his direction, etc.

TABLE 18.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS UNDER THE DIRECTION OF PRINCIPALS
DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Number of Teachers	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,000	30,000 49,000	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,000	Above 250,000	Total
2.....	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	3
3.....	1	..	3	1	..	..	1	6
4.....	5	1	3	..	..	..	..	9
5.....	2	..	3	..	..	1	2	8
6.....	5	2	3	1	..	1	4	16
7.....	2	2	4	..	2	2	2	14
8.....	5	2	12	3	2	2	5	31
9.....	1	3	8	5	4	1	4	26
10.....	7	2	6	3	5	3	5	31
11.....	..	1	6	..	5	14	7	23
12.....	2	3	3	6	3	2	10	29
13.....	1	1	4	3	3	7	9	28
14.....	2	..	7	3	3	4	15	34
15.....	1	..	7	1	2	10	8	29
16.....	..	1	4	2	2	12	11	32
17.....	3	..	1	4	4	8	12	32
18.....	..	..	1	4	3	4	7	19
19.....	..	1	3	..	..	4	11	19
20.....	..	..	5	1	3	6	7	22
21.....	..	..	2	..	1	4	11	18
22.....	..	1	..	2	3	3	6	15
23.....	..	..	..	..	2	3	11	16
24.....	..	..	3	2	2	5	8	20
25.....	..	..	1	..	1	2	11	15
26.....	..	..	..	..	2	3	9	14
27.....	..	..	1	..	..	1	7	9
28.....	1	..	1	..	2	1	7	12
29.....	..	..	1	1	..	4	6	12
30.....	..	..	..	..	1	2	6	9
31.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
32.....	..	..	2	2	1	3	4	12
33.....	..	..	1	1	..	1	5	8
34.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	2	3
35.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	2
36.....	..	..	1	2	1	1	5	10
37.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	3	4
38.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
39.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4
40.....	..	1	..	1	1	..	3	6
41 to 59.....	..	..	..	1	1	3	29	34
Total.....	39	22	96	51	60	118	260	636
Q ₁	6.1	7.7	8.7	10.6	11.7	13.5	15.2	11.5
Med.	8.7	10.0	12.0	14.8	16.5	17.0	21.9	16.9
Q ₃	12.1	12.2	16.7	22.1	22.0	26.2	29.8	24.5
Q.....	3.0	2.2	4.0	5.7	5.1	6.3	7.3	6.5

Table reads: In cities under 5000, one principal reported having two teachers under his direction, etc.

tend to have more teachers under the direction of each principal. This is what one would naturally expect to find.

If the principal is to be held for a high type of instruction in his school, he must give much of his time to supervision of teaching. In large schools it would be impossible to supervise adequately any great amount of teaching. To offset this condition, a number of special supervisors are frequently employed.

Subjects given part-time supervision—Principals were asked to underscore the subjects given part-time supervision in their schools. From the geographical distribution, found in Table 19, these subjects were reported as receiving part-time supervision respectively: Music 431, Art 411, Handwriting 275, Handwork 167, Reading 145, etc.

TABLE 19.—SUBJECTS GIVEN SUPERVISION BY PART-TIME SUPERVISORS
DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Subject	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
Arithmetic	17	2	34	4	19	76
Art	123	25	154	26	83	411
Geography	18	3	30	2	14	67
Handwriting	73	12	97	20	73	275
Handwork	60	4	56	8	39	167
History	12	3	32	4	14	65
Household Arts	12	3	13	3	8	39
Manual Arts	8	1	14	1	8	32
Music	125	25	170	26	85	431
Phys. Educ.	50	12	45	9	29	145
Reading	19	4	32	6	20	81
Spelling	15	3	32	4	12	66
Total	532	97	709	113	404	1855

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 17 principals reported part-time supervision in arithmetic, etc.

From the standpoint of geographical distribution, there is not much variation in the amount given to any one study in comparison with that allotted other studies.

In comparing the amount of supervision given to the various studies by enrolment groups, it is seen, in Table 20, that the smaller schools do not have many part-time supervisors. The same is true for the larger schools. In the first instance, it is possible that the principal does most of the supervising; in the second case the supposition is that the school employs a full-time supervisor for each subject.

Provision made for administrative assistants—With the tremendous growth in enrolment of schools and the modern demand for highly specialized service, there have developed many types of school assistants that were unknown in times past. It is no longer possible or desirable that the principal should do all the administrative work

connected with the larger schools. He must surround himself with a corps of highly trained helpers, each of whom is given charge of a particular type of service. Table 21 shows the extent of this help.

TABLE 20.—SUBJECTS GIVEN SUPERVISION BY PART-TIME SUPERVISORS
DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO ENROLMENT GROUPS

Subjects	1- 100	101- 200	201- 300	301- 500	501- 1000	1001- 2000	201 plus	Total
Arithmetic	1	3	3	22	34	12	1	76
Art	9	10	30	108	170	76	8	411
Geography	1	..	1	20	34	11	..	67
Handwriting	8	11	21	68	122	43	2	275
Handwork	2	3	10	36	75	34	7	167
History	1	..	1	22	27	14	..	65
Household Arts	1	..	2	7	18	10	1	39
Manual Arts	1	1	5	6	15	4	..	32
Music	12	19	34	111	170	78	7	431
Phys. Educ.	2	3	12	37	67	24	..	145
Reading	1	..	4	24	40	11	1	81
Spelling	1	..	2	17	33	12	1	66
Total	40	50	125	478	805	329	28	1855

Table reads: In schools having from 1 to 100 pupils enrolled, one principal reported a part-time supervisor in arithmetic, etc.

The school nurse—According to our data 10 percent of the principals reported that their schools employed a nurse for full-time, and 79 percent for part-time. Only 11 percent of the principals indicated

TABLE 21.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE AMOUNT OF PROVISION MADE FOR
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS

Assistant	Full-time	Part-time	No Provision
School Nurse	10	79	11
Director Educ. Tests.....	2	28	70
Custodian	41	7	52
Study Coach	3	3	94
School Physician	2	67	31
Stenographer	9	7	84
Curriculum Director	1	4	95
Substitute Teacher	4	27	69
Clerk	21	11	68
Physical Director	17	47	36
Librarian	5	11	84
Assistant Principal	14	5	81

Table reads: 10.0 percent of all the principals reported their schools employed a nurse for full-time, etc. (Percentages based on 647 cases.)

that their schools made no provision for a school nurse. These percentages are encouraging, and are indicative of the growing belief that a pupil can do better school work if he is in good physical condition.

Director of educational tests—The use of educational tests as a means of improvement of instruction is being accepted by most modern

schools. Our data show that 2 percent of the schools employ a director of educational tests for full-time, 28 percent for part-time, while 70 percent make no provision at all for such work. Although these percentages are small, yet, considering the newness of the testing movement, they are very suggestive of the rôle which standardized tests will play in the future. These percentages do not cover any use of tests that principals or classroom teachers may make in their schools.

Custodian of building—In tabulating the returns for this item on the questionnaire, it was not always possible to differentiate the terms "janitor" and "custodian." Table 21 shows that 41 percent of the schools employ a custodian for full-time, 7 percent for part-time, while 52 percent make no provision. In the smaller school the janitor does much of the work which is done by the custodian in the larger schools.

Study coach—The data show that only 3 percent of the schools employ a study coach for full-time, and 3 percent for part-time. Unfortunately 94 percent of the schools make no provision for this item. On account of the many possible meanings of this term, the returns on this item are considered of little value.

School physician—The data seem to indicate that a thorough physical examination for all school children may some day be realized. Two percent of the schools employ a physician for full-time, and 67 percent for part-time, while 31 percent make no provision for this service.

Stenographer—Only 9 percent of the schools employ a stenographer for full-time, and 7 percent for part-time. It will be noticed that 84 percent make no provision at all for stenographic help.

Curriculum director—The data for this item are quite conclusive in showing that only a few such positions are to be found in our schools. One percent of the schools employ such assistants for full-time, 4 percent for part-time, while 95 percent do not employ such an assistant.

Substitute teacher—Many of the principals in answering this item of the questionnaire, stated that all substitute teachers were sent out from the central office when needed. However, many of the larger systems employ an extra teacher or more for one school. Our data show that 4 percent of the schools employ a substitute teacher for full-time, 27 percent for part-time and 69 percent have no regularly employed substitute teacher.

Clerk—The information secured from the data sheets shows that 21 percent of the principals have clerks for full-time, and 11 percent for part-time, while 68 percent do not have the service of any clerical help.

Physical director—In the smaller schools, this administrative assistant is frequently called the playground supervisor. According to our data 17 percent of the schools employ a physical director for full-time,

while 47 percent employ a director for part-time. Unfortunately 36 percent do not employ anyone for the sole purpose of direct physical education.

Librarian—The use of projects and other modern methods of teaching necessitates good school libraries. This study shows that 5 percent of the schools employ a librarian for full-time, 11 percent for part-time, while 84 percent make no provision for this work.

Assistant principal—Only 14 percent of the schools included in this study employ an assistant principal for full-time, while 5 percent do for part-time. The data show that 81 percent of the schools employ no one for this position.

Frequency of teachers' meetings—Table 22 gives the frequency of teachers' meetings by geographical areas. The data indicate that there is no agreement among principals as to the frequency of teachers' meetings. There is a slight preference for the weekly meeting; especially is this true in the south central section. Table 23 shows there is very little agreement among population groups on this item.

TABLE 22.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS
ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Frequency of Meetings	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
Daily	..	..	1	..	4	1
Weekly	12	20	28	67	35	27
Semi-monthly	17	25	25	14	33	24
Monthly	35	22	19	16	12	22
Called	36	33	27	3	16	26

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 12.0 percent of the principals reported weekly teachers' meetings, etc.

TABLE 23.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS
ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Frequency of Meetings	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
Daily	2	..	1	..	4	..	1	1
Weekly	15	27	22	21	32	36	27	27
Semi-monthly	23	9	27	17	19	30	25	24
Monthly	15	18	18	31	23	16	25	22
Called	45	46	32	31	22	18	22	26

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 2.0 percent of the principals reported daily teachers' meetings, etc.

TABLE 24.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE VISITS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT
ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Frequency of Visit	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
Daily	..	..	1	8	2	2
Weekly	9	3	9	11	7	8
Monthly	25	13	24	30	15	22
Irregularly	32	27	21	11	20	23
By request	20	23	22	16	22	21
Semi-annually	5	10	6	8	17	9
Annually	1	10	3	8	13	6
Never	9	14	14	8	4	9

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 9.0 percent of the principals reported weekly visits by the superintendent, etc.

TABLE 25.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE VISITS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Frequency of Visits	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
Daily	9	5	2	..	..	1	1	2
Weekly	17	25	28	14	3	1	2	8
Monthly	15	15	27	32	21	20	19	22
Irregularly	26	20	24	34	21	26	19	32
By request	15	35	12	18	35	23	20	21
Semi-annually	9	..	5	2	10	9	13	9
Annually	9	..	1	..	2	3	12	6
Never	..	..	1	..	8	17	14	9

Table reads: In cities under 5000, 9.0 percent of the principals reported daily visits by the superintendent, etc.

TABLE 26.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF KINDS OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Kinds	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
Lecture	..	..	1	..	1	..	1	1
Lecture and Routine....	..	..	2	..	1	3	2	2
Conference	60	33	38	30	32	35	37	37
Conference and Routine.	12	37	33	44	32	32	32	32
Routine	14	17	11	7	10	7	6	8
Miscellaneous	14	13	15	19	24	23	22	20

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 60.0 percent of the principals reported their teachers' meetings as of the conference type, etc.

Kinds of teachers' meetings—The data for this item indicate there is no uniformity among principals as to how the teachers' meeting should be conducted. Reading from the percentages for the total column, in Table 26, we find that 1 percent of the principals use the lecture method, 2 percent lecture and routine, 37 percent the conference, 32 percent conference and routine, 8 percent routine matters, and 20 percent miscellaneous types. Some of the principals, in schools known for their progressiveness, hold conferences, have demonstration lessons, and occasionally bring in outside speakers. In the interest of economy, many of the routine matters should undoubtedly be handled by the use of bulletin boards or typewritten directions to the teachers.

Frequency of superintendent's visits—In checking this item of the questionnaire we find, in Table 24, that 2 percent of the principals reported that their superintendent visited their schools daily, 8 percent weekly, 22 percent monthly, 23 percent irregularly, 21 percent by request, 9 percent semi-annually, and 6 percent annually. A few of the principals, 9 percent, indicated that the superintendent had never visited their schools during their tenures.

PART IV.—THE TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH
OF THE PRINCIPAL

Purpose of part—The purpose of this part is of a twofold nature; (1) What academic and professional training has the elementary-school principal had for his work, (2) What evidence is there of professional growth among elementary-school principals.

Tabulation of data—In the preparation of the questionnaire, upon which this study is based, care was taken to so word the instructions relative to the training of the principal, that not the least possible error would creep in. Unfortunately, the terminology used by the different colleges and universities of the United States, concerning quantity and quality of credit is not uniform. Courses of varying length taken during summer sessions, and courses taken by correspondence, make the problem of the evaluation of credit more difficult. All doubtful data contained in the questionnaires were discarded. Most of the data concerning the training and professional growth of the principal were distributed according to geographical areas and population groups.

Preparation beyond elementary school—It is not significant, considering the personnel of principals to whom this questionnaire was sent, to find that all the principals reporting are high-school graduates. In a few cases principals indicated that they had completed their secondary training in normal schools, or other institutions of learning, but in every case the equivalent of high-school graduation was reported.

Preparation beyond high school—Not only is every principal included in this study a high-school graduate, but from Table 27 it can be shown that over one half of the principals have college degrees or the equivalent. To be more exact, this table shows that the median number of years' training the elementary-school principal has received beyond the high school is 4.2. The first quartile is 3.0 years and the third quartile is 5.4 years. The quartile deviation is 1.2 years. These data indicate, therefore, that one fourth of the principals have had less than 3.0 years preparation beyond the high school; that one half of the principals have had less than 4.2 years, and that one fourth of the principals have had more than 5.4 years preparation beyond the high school. It will be observed that those above the third quartile group have had more than one year's graduate work, or its equivalent.

According to Douglass¹ the median number of years that superintendents of schools have attended college is 4.3. This is but one tenth year more training than our data show for the elementary-school principal.

¹ *Op. cit.*, Table 3, p. 24.

There is very little difference in the medians given above for the five geographical areas. However, in Table 28, it is very noticeable that the amount of training increases in the larger population groups.

TABLE 27.—PREPARATION BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Years	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
0-.99.....	4	3	14	1	9	31
1-1.99.....	11	1	13	..	8	33
2-2.99.....	21	3	37	8	19	88
3-3.99.....	24	4	57	8	19	112
4-4.99.....	28	3	67	11	44	153
5-5.99.....	13	2	33	6	32	86
6-6.99.....	11	6	15	2	20	54
7-7.99.....	9	..	5	1	1	16
8-plus.....	20	1	3	..	5	29
Total	141	23	244	37	157	602
Q ₁	3.0	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.0
Med.	4.4	4.2	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.2
Q ₃	6.4	6.2	4.9	4.9	5.6	5.4
Q	1.7	1.8	1.0	.9	1.2	1.2

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, four principals reported having had less than one year's preparation beyond high school, etc.

TABLE 28.—PREPARATION BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Years	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
0-.99.....	3	3	7	2	1	2	13	31
1-1.99.....	3	2	2	3	4	7	12	33
2-2.99.....	6	4	22	12	6	13	25	88
3-3.99.....	9	6	22	9	16	21	29	112
4-4.99.....	11	3	23	13	12	22	69	153
5-5.99.....	3	1	7	6	6	20	43	86
6-6.99.....	2	1	3	1	9	12	26	54
7-7.99.....	..	..	1	1	2	2	10	16
8-plus.....	..	..	1	1	2	2	23	29
Total.....	37	20	88	48	58	101	250	602
Q ₁	2.5	2.0	2.6	2.6	3.2	3.1	3.4	3.0
Med.	3.7	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.3	4.7	4.2
Q ₃	4.6	4.0	4.6	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.9	5.4
Q	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, three principals reported having had less than one year's preparation beyond high school, etc.

The data seem to indicate that the larger the community and the larger the school, the greater the emphasis laid upon advanced training for candidates for these principalships. Judging from the amount of training the principals have in these larger cities, it seems likely that in the near future, a year of graduate study will be the minimum for the elementary-school principalship.

Summer sessions attended—One of the most hopeful signs of progress among teachers in the United States is the increasing number who

TABLE 29.—SUMMER SESSIONS ATTENDED DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Number	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
1.....	28	6	26	4	14	78
2.....	26	1	29	2	27	85
3.....	6	6	28	6	17	63
4.....	16	2	19	3	15	55
5.....	8	1	15	5	10	39
6.....	3	4	17	2	13	39
7.....	5	..	..	1	1	7
8.....	..	1	6	5	6	18
9.....	..	..	1	..	..	1
10.....	2	1	7	1	1	12
10 plus.....	1	1	3	1	1	7
Total.....	95	23	151	30	105	404
Q ₁	1.8	1.9	2.4	3.2	2.8	2.2
Med.	2.7	3.7	3.7	5.0	3.6	3.6
Q ₃	4.7	6.3	5.6	7.5	5.5	5.5
Q	1.4	2.2	1.6	2.1	1.3	1.7

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, there were 28 principals who reported having attended one summer session, etc.

TABLE 30.—SUMMER SESSIONS ATTENDED DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Number	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
1.....	5	1	11	3	9	19	30	78
2.....	14	3	15	7	8	14	24	85
3.....	4	3	8	5	9	12	22	63
4.....	3	1	6	4	3	7	31	55
5.....	4	2	5	4	3	13	8	39
6.....	4	2	7	2	6	2	16	39
7.....	..	..	3	..	..	2	2	7
8.....	..	..	3	1	3	4	7	18
9.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
10.....	2	1	1	..	2	4	2	12
Over 10.....	1	..	..	1	2	..	3	7
Total.....	37	13	59	27	45	77	146	404
Q ₁	2.3	2.9	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.2
Med.	2.9	3.8	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.8	3.6
Q ₃	5.4	5.8	5.8	5.3	6.2	5.4	5.3	5.5
Q	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.6

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, there were five principals who reported having attended one summer session, etc.

take advantage of the summer sessions offered by many colleges and universities. Changes in educational theory and practice have undoubtedly made many teachers feel the necessity for additional train-

ing. The elementary-school principal, with the changing concept of his chief duties from mere office routine to expert supervision, has also felt this need. The summer school affords this opportunity without loss of position or salary.

In tabulating the data concerning the summer sessions, it was found impossible to compute quantitatively the amount of work done by principals. The summer school in the United States varies from five to twelve weeks in length. Our data merely show the median number of summer sessions attended by principals.

It will be seen in Table 19, that the median number of summer schools attended by principals is 3.6. The first quartile is 2.2, and the third quartile is 5.5. These data indicate to what extent the professional courses offered in the summer sessions of colleges and universities contribute to the training of elementary-school principals.

In comparing medians for the geographical areas with those of the population groups, it will be noticed that there is very little difference. The inference is that principals in all sections and in all cities are about equally taking advantage of the summer session. This indicates how extensive the summer school movement has been.

Graduate work status—In analyzing the data pertaining to graduate work, it was thought advisable to show (1) the number and percentage of principals for each group who had done graduate work, and (2) to show the amount of graduate training that principals have received.

In reading from Table 31, it will be seen that the percentage of principals who have done some graduate work is 27.2. However, it is a trifle larger than Douglass¹ found for the superintendent of schools. It is highly probable that the present study is based upon a more select group of elementary-school principals than the Douglass study was of city superintendents. The two studies agree in that they find the higher percentages of graduate work in the larger cities. The absence of any graduate work shown for principals in cities having a population between 5000 and 10,000, in Table 32, is likely due to an insufficient number of principals reporting in that group.

Amount of graduate work done by principals—Principals were asked to indicate the number of years and fractions of years they had spent in graduate schools. In the main, this does not include any summer work. In most cases it represents continuous graduate work.

From Table 33, it can be seen that the median number of years of graduate work, for principals reporting on this item, is 1.7. The first quartile is 1.2 years, and the third quartile is 2.6 years. It will be

¹ *Op. cit.*, Table 4C, p. 27.

observed that the median number of years is larger than that ordinarily required for the master's degree.

Courses taken prior to present principalship—In addition to finding out how much collegiate training the principal has received to prepare himself for his work, it would be of interest to know what professional courses he has studied before accepting his present principalship.

TABLE 31.—PERCENTAGE AND GRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE DONE GRADUATE WORK

Area	Having Done Graduate Work	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	53	31.5
South Atlantic	11	30.5
North Central	62	24.8
South Central	11	29.7
Western	39	24.8
Total	176	27.2

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 53 principals, or 31.5 percent of that group, reported having done graduate work, etc.

TABLE 32.—PERCENTAGE AND POPULATION DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE DONE GRADUATE WORK

Population Group	Having Done Graduate Work	Percent of Total
Under 5,000	6	14.2
5,000- 9,999	0	0.
10,000- 29,999	10	10.7
30,000- 49,999	7	13.7
50,000- 99,999	21	35.0
100,000-249,999	33	28.2
Above 250,000	99	37.7
Total	176	27.2

Table reads: In cities under 5000, six principals, or 14.2 percent of that group, reported having done graduate work, etc.

To secure information on this point, principals were asked to indicate the courses they had so taken, and to give the number of college hours earned in each subject. In tabulating the data, it was found that principals had indicated what courses they had studied, but had failed, on account of their inability to remember, to state the number of college hours earned in each subject. Those who did attempt to answer this part of the questionnaire wrote on the margins such qualifying adjectives as credit hours, college units, etc., matters which it was impossible to evaluate.

In Table 35 is found a percentage distribution of professional courses taken by principals prior to their present principalships. It will be seen that the courses reported as taken most frequently are

educational psychology, principles of teaching, history of education, etc. A careful analysis of the percentages for the various subjects for each geographical area shows that the range in percentages for each study are not great. It is significant that no study was reported as taken by 50 percent of the principals. The percentages given for the

TABLE 33.—YEARS OF GRADUATE WORK DONE BY PRINCIPALS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Years	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
0-1.....	7	..	9	4	3	23
1-2.....	21	6	34	4	25	90
2-3.....	9	4	11	3	4	31
3-4.....	7	1	4	..	4	16
4-5.....	5	..	2	..	3	10
5 plus.....	4	..	2	..	..	6
Total.....	53	11	62	11	39	176
Q_1	1.2	1.4	1.1	.6	1.2	1.2
Med.	1.9	1.9	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.7
Q_3	3.3	2.5	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.6
Q	1.0	.5	.6	.7	.5	.7

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, there were seven principals who reported less than one year's graduate work, etc.

TABLE 34.—YEARS OF GRADUATE WORK DONE BY PRINCIPALS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Years	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
0-1.....	2	..	1	2	4	8	6	23
1-2.....	4	..	5	3	10	13	55	90
2-3.....	..	1	2	1	4	8	15	31
3-4.....	..	..	1	..	1	2	12	16
4-5.....	..	..	..	1	1	1	7	10
5 plus.....	..	..	..	..	1	1	4	6
Total.....	6	1	9	7	21	33	99	176
Q_1	.75	*	1.2	.8	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2
Med.	1.2	..	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7
Q_3	1.6	..	2.3	2.2	2.6	2.4	2.8	2.6
Q	.4	..	.5	.7	.7	.6	.7	.7

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, there were two principals who reported less than one year's graduate work, etc.

* Insufficient data.

various courses, in the distribution by population groups, do not vary materially from the ones just given. Any variation in percentages found between geographical areas and population groups is due to the fact that in a few returns the population of cities could not be learned, as the names of the cities were not given in the questionnaire; hence data for these do not occur in the population groups. It will be noted that in many institutions the courses having the larger

percentages are the required courses. From the standpoint of the supervising principal it is unfortunate that school supervision and observation of teaching do not rank higher. The data suggest that many principals are holding their positions without an adequate amount of professional training. Viewing the situation from the negative side, there were 368, or 56 percent of the principals who did not indicate that they had taken a course in educational psychology, etc.

TABLE 35.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF PRINCIPALS TAKING CERTAIN EDUCATION COURSES PRIOR TO PRESENT PRINCIPALSHIP

Course	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
A.....	42	42	45	51	41	43
B.....	24	36	31	35	38	32
C.....	14	19	15	19	15	15
D.....	28	36	40	41	41	37
E.....	10	17	16	16	22	16
F.....	40	31	35	51	36	37
G.....	27	19	28	19	23	25
H.....	34	33	33	35	38	34
I.....	31	36	37	35	41	36
J.....	33	42	36	46	34	36
K.....	40	25	40	51	34	38
L.....	26	28	33	30	31	31
M.....	21	25	24	24	23	23
N.....	18	11	24	16	29	23
O.....	12	11	21	19	24	19
P.....	13	19	21	16	13	17

Legend:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Educational Psychology | I. School Administration |
| B. Child Psychology | J. School Supervision |
| C. Experimental Psychology | K. Principles of Teaching |
| D. Educational Tests | L. Meth. in Teaching Spec. Sub. |
| E. Educational Statistics | M. Observation of Teaching |
| F. History of Education | N. Practice Teaching |
| G. Philosophy of Education | O. Educational Sociology |
| H. School Management | P. Technique of Teaching |

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 42.0 percent of the principals reported having studied course "A" prior to accepting present principalship, etc.

Courses taken after present principalship—Possibly many students enrol in college with little thought of their future life's work. They take the courses prescribed by the faculty and do not have much chance to deviate from these required courses. But after a student has served as an elementary-school principal, it would be interesting to know what courses he would select, if he re-entered college. To throw light on this problem, principals were asked to check the course they had taken since accepting their present positions. Table 37 gives the names of these courses, with percentages for each.

In reading from this geographical distribution table, it will be seen that the leading courses take the following percentages: Educational

Tests 36; School Administration 31; School Supervision 30; Educational Psychology 21; etc. The indicated preference for the first three courses is not a surprise to one familiar with present-day tendencies in education.

Value of certain courses to the principalship—Finally, how does the elementary-school principal evaluate the usual education courses offered by colleges and universities, from the standpoint of the princi-

TABLE 36.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY POPULATION GROUPS OF PRINCIPALS TAKING CERTAIN EDUCATION COURSES PRIOR TO PRESENT PRINCIPALSHIP

Course	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
A.....	50	55	51	51	42	36	45	43
B.....	21	41	40	35	40	23	32	32
C.....	14	18	12	24	13	15	16	15
D.....	36	41	33	43	47	31	36	36
E.....	7	14	9	29	17	13	19	16
F.....	43	41	47	57	45	31	37	40
G.....	14	27	28	29	32	24	24	25
H.....	40	23	42	43	38	27	32	34
I.....	33	23	40	39	52	26	37	36
J.....	29	18	38	45	47	27	37	36
K.....	33	32	49	41	47	30	32	35
L.....	14	23	43	37	43	22	28	30
M.....	24	23	33	25	27	18	21	23
N.....	26	27	34	31	28	20	16	23
O.....	21	14	35	16	17	16	16	19
P.....	19	5	14	8	27	17	19	17

Legend:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Educational Psychology | I. School Administration |
| B. Child Psychology | J. School Supervision |
| C. Experimental Psychology | K. Principles of Teaching |
| D. Educational Tests | L. Meth. in Teaching Spec. Sub. |
| E. Educational Statistics | M. Observation of Teaching |
| F. History of Education | N. Practice Teaching |
| G. Philosophy of Education | O. Educational Sociology |
| H. School Management | P. Technique of Teaching |

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 50.0 percent of the principals reported having studied course "A" prior to accepting present principalship, etc.

palship? Each principal was asked to rank the education courses he had taken, from the standpoint of their importance to the principalship. Table 39 gives the percentile rank for each course. It will be seen that school supervision ranks first, child psychology second, principles of teaching third, etc. Educational statistics ranks last according to our data.

Evaluation of courses taken at different stages of training—For easy reference and comparison, we have arranged, in Table 40, the professional courses taken by principals at different stages of training. Apparently, the required courses are not always identical with those

which the experienced principal thinks he needs for his work. This table should offer some very fruitful suggestions to those administrative officers who determine the curricula for schools of education. At the present time, there are but few colleges or universities that offer education courses designed primarily for the work of the elementary-school principal. Gist¹ published a very interesting table which shows

TABLE 37.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE HAD CERTAIN EDUCATION COURSES SINCE ACCEPTING PRESENT PRINCIPALSHIP

Course	North Atlantic Percent	South Atlantic Percent	North Central Percent	South Central Percent	Western Percent	Total Percent
A.....	23	22	22	27	18	21
B.....	14	14	15	22	17	15
C.....	8	22	10	19	8	10
D.....	32	36	33	43	42	36
E.....	7	8	14	14	14	10
F.....	13	8	10	5	12	11
G.....	8	..	12	14	11	10
H.....	13	31	16	16	14	16
I.....	29	36	30	22	37	31
J.....	26	42	31	33	31	30
K.....	15	14	12	14	16	14
L.....	19	14	18	16	16	17
M.....	8	17	6	22	6	8
N.....	3	8	5	3	6	5
O.....	12	8	14	16	15	15
P.....	6	8	12	11	8	9

Legend:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Educational Psychology | I. School Administration |
| B. Child Psychology | J. School Supervision |
| C. Experimental Psychology | K. Principles of Teaching |
| D. Educational Tests | L. Meth. in Teaching Spec. Sub. |
| E. Educational Statistics | M. Observation of Teaching |
| F. History of Education | N. Practice Teaching |
| G. Philosophy of Education | O. Educational Sociology |
| H. School Management | P. Technique of Teaching |

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 23.0 percent of the principals reported having taken Educational Psychology since accepting present principalship, etc.

the number of such courses offered in five institutions for the past ten years. The outlook for the future, in this respect, however, is very hopeful for the elementary-school principal.

Teaching experience of the principal—The principal is called upon daily to evaluate different methods of teaching. It is of vital importance that he shall have had considerable successful experience as a classroom teacher. In Table 41, we find the median number of years that principals have taught is 25.7. The first quartile is 17.8 years,

¹ Gist, Arthur S., "The Evolution of the Principalship," *Third Yearbook. Department of Elementary School Principals*, Table 4, p. 207.

TABLE 38.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY POPULATION GROUP OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE HAD CERTAIN EDUCATION COURSES SINCE ACCEPTING PRESENT PRINCIPALSHIP

Course	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
A.....	21	27	18	31	18	20	23	22
B.....	7	9	14	12	25	16	16	15
C.....	7	..	10	12	15	10	8	9
D.....	38	45	39	35	45	33	30	34
E.....	10	..	4	14	10	9	14	11
F.....	14	23	13	12	7	8	10	10
G.....	10	9	9	10	7	12	9	9
H.....	17	14	11	20	20	19	15	16
I.....	26	27	24	43	40	31	30	40
J.....	26	23	30	39	38	23	29	29
K.....	11	27	18	10	15	16	11	14
L.....	7	5	18	20	23	20	11	15
M.....	11	..	12	12	15	8	4	8
N.....	5	..	8	4	7	6	3	5
O.....	10	23	11	6	13	13	12	12
P.....	5	..	8	12	15	9	8	9

Legend:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Educational Psychology | I. School Administration |
| B. Child Psychology | J. School Supervision |
| C. Experimental Psychology | K. Principles of Teaching |
| D. Educational Tests | L. Meth. in Teaching Spec. Sub. |
| E. Educational Statistics | M. Observation of Teaching |
| F. History of Education | N. Practice Teaching |
| G. Philosophy of Education | O. Educational Sociology |
| H. School Management | P. Technique of Teaching |

Table reads: In cities under 5000, 21.0 percent of the principals reported having studied Educational Psychology since accepting present principalship, etc.

TABLE 39.—PERCENTILE RANKS GIVEN BY ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO EDUCATION COURSES THEY HAVE TAKEN

Course	Percentile Rank
1. School Supervision	72.0
2. Child Psychology	70.9
3. Principles of Teaching.....	68.5
4. Educational Psychology	68.2
5. School Administration	63.4
6. School Management	62.0
7. History of Education.....	51.0
8. Technique of Teaching.....	50.1
9. Observation of Teaching.....	48.9
10. Educational Tests	44.3
11. Practice Teaching	44.1
12. Philosophy of Education.....	42.5
13. Methods in Teaching Special Subjects.....	40.0
14. Experimental Psychology	39.7
15. Educational Sociology	33.3
16. Educational Statistics	20.4

Table reads: The function "School Supervision" exceeds all other functions by 72.0 percent, etc.

and the third quartile is 32.9 years. The range is 3 to 54 years. It will be seen there is a slight tendency for principals in the north central and north Atlantic sections, as well as for the larger population groups, to have had the longer teaching experience. Table 41 shows that the median for principals in cities having a population over 250,000, is 29.3 years.

TABLE 40.—COMPARISON OF RANK OF EDUCATION COURSES TAKEN BY PRINCIPALS AT DIFFERENT STAGES OF TRAINING WITH THE RANK GIVEN THE SAME COURSES FROM THE STANDPOINT OF IMPORTANCE TO THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Frequency Rank of Courses Taken Prior Present Position	Frequency Rank of Courses Taken Since Accepting Present Position	Percentile Rank of Courses from Standpoint of Usefulness to Principal
1. Educational Psychology	1. Educational Tests	1. School Supervision
2. Principles of Teaching	2. School Administration	2. Child Psychology
*3½. History of Education	3. School Supervision	3. Principles of Teaching
3½. Educational Tests	4. Educational Psychology	4. Educational Psychology
5. School Administration	5. Methods of Teaching Spec. Subjects	5. School Administration
6. School Supervision	6. School Management	6. School Management
7. School Management	7½. Child Psychology	7. History of Education
8. Child Psychology	7½. Educational Sociology	8. Technique of Teaching
9. Methods of Teach. Spec. Subjects	9. Principles of Teaching	9. Observation of Teaching
10. Philosophy of Education	10. History of Education	10. Educational Tests
11. Observation of Teaching	11½. Philosophy of Education	11. Practice Teaching
12. Practice Teaching	11½. Experimental Psychology	12. Philosophy of Education
13. Educational Sociology	13. Educational Statistics	13. Methods of Teach. Special Subjects
14. Technique of Teaching	14. Technique of Teaching	14. Experimental Psychology
15. Educational Statistics	15. Observation of Teaching	15. Educational Sociology
16. Experimental Psychology	16. Practice Teaching	16. Educational Statistics

Table reads: Educational Psychology ranks first in frequency of the courses taken before the principal accepted his present position, Educational Tests ranks first in frequency of the courses taken since accepting present position, School Supervision ranks first according to principals from the standpoint of importance to the work of the principal, etc.

* Fraction due to like percentages.

Experience as elementary-school teacher—What percent of elementary-school principals have been elementary-school teachers? According to our data, as shown in Tables 43 and 44, 87.1 percent of the principals have taught in the elementary school. There is no wide variation in comparing the different geographical sections or population groups. The data seem to indicate that the first essential considered by school authorities in selecting a principal is that the candidate shall have had successful teaching experience in the elementary school.

TABLE 41.—TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Years	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
3.....	3	..	1	..	..	..	..	4
4.....	2	..	..	1	2	..	..	5
5.....	1	1	3	1	3	2	1	12
6.....	2	..	2	2	1	3	..	10
7.....	2	..	1	..	1	..	2	6
8.....	1	..	1	..	..	2	1	5
9.....	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	3
10.....	2	..	5	1	1	3	3	15
11.....	3	..	4	..	2	2	1	12
12.....	2	1	1	1	..	1	1	7
12.....	2	1	1	1	..	1	1	7
13.....	1	..	5	..	2	1	6	15
14.....	1	1	2	1	1	2	5	13
15.....	2	..	4	..	..	3	5	14
16.....	1	1	2	3	2	4	4	17
17.....	..	2	2	4	2	4	6	20
18.....	2	1	4	..	1	2	9	19
19.....	1	1	1	4	2	4	1	14
20.....	1	3	2	1	2	5	9	23
21.....	1	..	1	1	1	2	11	17
22.....	2	..	5	1	2	3	3	16
23.....	2	..	3	2	1	4	10	22
24.....	1	2	2	4	3	2	9	23
25.....	..	1	5	1	1	6	18	32
26.....	..	..	2	1	1	8	7	19
27.....	..	1	3	2	3	2	5	16
28.....	..	1	4	2	5	2	7	21
29.....	1	1	3	2	2	3	15	27
30.....	..	..	3	1	5	4	16	29
31.....	..	1	2	1	2	4	9	19
32.....	1	1	4	1	1	5	10	23
33.....	2	1	3	2	2	5	11	26
34.....	..	1	2	3	1	1	6	14
35.....	..	..	3	1	2	3	12	21
36.....	..	..	2	1	2	2	4	11
37.....	..	..	1	..	4	..	10	15
38.....	..	..	2	1	..	1	8	12
39.....	1	..	1	1	1	2	1	7
40.....	1	..	..	2	1	1	6	11
41-54.....	..	..	..	3	3	7	26	39
Total.....	40	21	91	53	65	106	258	634
Q ₁	8.0	17.6	13.9	17.5	17.6	17.6	21.9	18.2
Med.	14.0	20.8	22.9	24.6	27.5	25.5	29.3	25.7
Q ₃	22.5	28.7	30.8	33.3	32.7	32.1	35.2	32.8
Q.....	7.2	5.5	8.4	7.9	7.5	7.2	6.6	7.3

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, three principals reported three years' teaching experience, etc.

TABLE 42.—TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Years	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
3.....	1	..	2	..	1	4
4.....	2	1	1	1	..	5
5.....	2	2	1	1	6	12
6.....	6	..	..	1	2	9
7.....	..	1	2	..	4	7
8.....	3	..	..	1	1	5
9.....	..	1	..	..	2	3
10.....	2	1	3	1	8	15
11.....	3	1	2	1	5	12
12.....	2	..	3	1	1	7
13.....	1	..	8	1	5	15
14.....	2	3	4	2	2	13
15.....	5	1	5	..	4	15
16.....	5	..	7	2	3	17
17.....	5	..	4	4	7	20
18.....	9	..	2	2	6	19
19.....	6	..	4	1	3	14
20.....	5	1	7	3	7	23
21.....	4	..	4	1	7	16
22.....	3	1	5	1	7	17
23.....	6	2	8	2	4	22
24.....	2	1	11	2	7	23
25.....	6	2	16	..	8	32
26.....	2	..	13	1	3	19
27.....	4	1	9	..	2	16
28.....	5	..	11	1	4	21
29.....	8	2	10	1	6	27
30.....	9	2	15	..	3	29
31.....	9	1	7	1	1	19
32.....	6	..	8	1	8	23
33.....	11	1	8	..	6	26
34.....	4	..	9	..	1	14
35.....	9	1	6	2	3	21
36.....	3	..	7	..	1	11
37.....	1	1	10	1	2	15
38.....	2	..	4	..	6	12
39.....	1	2	4	..	..	7
40.....	2	1	6	..	2	11
41-54.....	11	4	17	2	5	39
Total	167	34	243	38	153	635
Q ₁	18.3	14.5	22.3	14.7	15.2	17.8
Med.	27.3	25.5	28.4	20.0	22.2	25.7
Q ₃	33.2	35.5	34.2	26.5	30.0	32.9
Q	7.4	10.5	5.9	5.9	7.4	7.5

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, one principal reported three years' teaching experience, etc.

Professional articles written—Assuming that contributing professional articles for publications is an evidence of professional growth, we find, in Table 45, that 17.3 percent of the principals included in this study have written acceptable articles for publication. The highest percentages are found in the north Atlantic section and in the population group of cities above 250,000. Conversely, the south central section and the population group under 5000 have the lowest percentages.

TABLE 43.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY POPULATION GROUPS OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE BEEN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Population Group	Number	Percent of Total
Under 5,000.....	30	71.4
5,000 to 9,999.....	21	95.4
10,000 to 29,999.....	89	95.7
30,000 to 49,999.....	51	100.0
50,000 to 99,999.....	48	80.0
100,000 to 249,999.....	94	80.0
Above 250,000	231	88.1
Total	564	87.1

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 71.4 percent of the principals have been elementary-school teachers, etc.

TABLE 44.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE BEEN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Geographical Area	Number	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	137	81.4
South Atlantic	32	88.8
North Central	226	90.7
South Central	32	86.4
Western	137	87.2
Total	564	87.1

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 137, or 81.4 percent, of the principals have been elementary-school teachers, etc.

Membership in professional organizations—It is to be expected that many professional groups, having common interests, will unite themselves into organizations for social and professional betterment. Elementary-school principals are taking advantage of the opportunities offered them to raise the standards of their profession through such organizations.

All the principals included in this study are members of the National Education Association, as the questionnaire upon which this study is based, was sent only to members of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

The data, in Table 47, show that 95.0 percent of the principals included in this study are members of their own local state teachers'

association. This speaks well for the principal. It will be seen that 30.0 percent of the principals are members of state principals' departments and that 12.0 percent are members of city principals' clubs.

TABLE 45.—PERCENTAGE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE WRITTEN PROFESSIONAL ARTICLES FOR PUBLICATION

Area	Number Having Written Articles	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	40	23.6
South Atlantic	5	14.7
North Central	36	14.4
South Central	3	7.8
Western	28	17.8
Total	112	17.3

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 40 principals, or 23.6 percent of that group, reported having written professional articles for publication, etc.

TABLE 46.—PERCENTAGE AND POPULATION DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE WRITTEN PROFESSIONAL ARTICLES FOR PUBLICATION

Population Group	Number Having Written Articles	Percent of Total
Under 5,000	3	7.3
5,000- 9,999	3	13.0
10,000- 29,999	10	10.9
30,000- 49,999	9	16.6
50,000- 99,999	12	19.0
100,000-249,999	18	16.8
Above 250,000	57	21.2
Total	112	17.3

Table reads: In cities under 5000, three principals, or 7.3 percent of that group, reported having written professional articles for publication, etc.

TABLE 47.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Geographical Area	State Teachers' Association	State Principals' Department	City Principals' Club
North Atlantic	92	30	7
South Atlantic	80	16	8
North Central	97	31	11
South Central	100	54	16
Western	99	28	16
Total	95	30	12

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 92 percent of the principals report membership in their own state teachers' association, etc.

The small percentage given for city principals' clubs is probably due to the absence of such organizations in many cities.

Professional magazines read regularly—Finally, as contributing evidence of professional growth, it may be of interest to know what professional magazines elementary-school principals read regularly.

Table 49 shows that 74.0 percent of the principals read the *Elementary School Journal*; 44.4 percent read the *Journal of Educational Method*, etc. The high percentage given to the *Journal of the National Education Association* is explained in part by the fact that this magazine is sent to all members of the National Education Association. Undoubtedly, many principals read other professional magazines that are not included in our list.

TABLE 48.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS BY POPULATION GROUPS

Population Group	State Teachers' Association	State Principals' Department	City Principals' Club
Under 5,000	90	21	..
5,000- 9,999.....	100	13	4
10,000- 29,999.....	96	22	3
30,000- 49,999.....	100	45	8
50,000- 99,999.....	100	25	13
100,000-249,999.....	89	24	5
Above 250,000.....	100	34	26
Total	95	30	12

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, 90 percent of the principals reported membership in their own state teachers' association, etc.

TABLE 49.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS WHO READ CERTAIN PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES REGULARLY

Magazine or Publication	Percent of Total
<i>School and Society</i>	13.0
<i>Elementary School Journal</i>	74.0
<i>Journal of Educational Research</i>	34.4
<i>Journal of National Education Association</i>	94.2
Yearbooks (Nat. Soc. for Study of Educ.).....	58.1
<i>Journal of Educational Method</i>	44.4
<i>Journal of Education</i>	3.0
<i>Teachers College Record</i>	2.0
All others	4.5

Table reads: Of the principals included in this study, 13.0 percent reported they read *School and Society* regularly, etc.

PART V—A JOB-ANALYSIS OF THE WORK OF THE PRINCIPAL

Purpose of part—The purpose of this part is (1) to show what the duties of the principal are, and (2) to find what his status is in connection with certain administrative functions that are more or less controlled by the office of the superintendent of schools.

Job-analysis of the principal's day—Accordingly, principals were asked to check a list of functions that are commonly performed by them, and to indicate in the proper place the number of minutes given to each function on an average typical day. While the returns on this part of the questionnaire were not complete, they were large

enough to offer some very interesting suggestions. In reading from Table 50, we find that the median number of minutes given by principals to certain school functions per day is as follows: supervision 87 minutes, office work 57 minutes, teaching classes 38 minutes, conferences with teachers 34 minutes, conferences with pupils 27 minutes, supervising play 26 minutes, committee work, community work, and school discipline each 23 minutes, meeting visitors 21 minutes, school correspondence, planning programs and administering tests 20

TABLE 50.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF MINUTES SPENT PER TYPICAL DAY ON CERTAIN FUNCTIONS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Function	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Med.* T. D.
1.....	41	56	34	24	35	36
2.....	84	87	112	80	74	82
3.....	22	27	30	32	28	27
4.....	31	38	39	27	36	32
5.....	54	48	60	60	63	56
6.....	20	30	21	26	20	21
7.....	20	26	18	21	18	19
8.....	19	25	21	22	21	19
9.....	16	20	17	20	17	19
10.....	17	28	18	21	18	18
11.....	18	20	21	41	31	22
12.....	20	23	18	16	23	22
13.....	19	29	22	27	19	21
14.....	19	27	21	28	19	20
Total time	400	484	452	445	422	414

Legend:

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Teaching Classes | 8. Meeting Visitors |
| 2. Supervision | 9. Inspecting Building |
| 3. Conference—Pupil | 10. Planning Programs |
| 4. Conference—Teacher | 11. Supervising Play |
| 5. Office Work | 12. Administering Tests |
| 6. Discipline | 13. Committee Work |
| 7. School Correspondence | 14. Community Work |

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, the median number of minutes spent per typical day by principals in teaching classes is 41, etc.

* Median of total distribution.

minutes, and inspecting building 18 minutes. By regrouping these functions it can be shown that about 50 percent of the principal's time is given to administrative duties and about 50 percent to the direct improvement of instruction. It is to be understood that not all of the individual functions listed are performed daily by principals, or that all of the functions are necessarily performed by any one principal in his school. The list furnishes the means by which a principal may compare his own school day with that of other principals. It will give him an approximate idea of the worth of certain school functions and may assist him in distributing his time.

Functions ranked by principals—Furthermore, it was deemed worthwhile to have the principals rank these same functions in the order of their importance to the principalship. Table 52 gives the percentile rank of these functions. It will be seen that "supervision" exceeds every other function in score by 94.9 percent, "conference with teacher" is second, with a percentile rank of 83.3, and "conference with pupil" is third, with a percentile rank of 70.9 percent. The lowest rank is given to "committee work," which has a percentile rank

TABLE 51.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF MINUTES SPENT PER TYPICAL DAY ON CERTAIN FUNCTIONS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Function	Under 5000	5000 5099	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Med.* T. D.
1.....	150	195	87	56	20	24	31	36
2.....	58	40	76	101	88	105	110	82
3.....	25	19	30	28	30	30	26	27
4.....	26	11	36	36	38	41	36	32
5.....	41	43	53	75	52	67	60	56
6.....	20	18	24	20	18	22	22	21
7.....	24	15	16	20	19	19	20	19
8.....	15	17	18	20	20	23	22	19
9.....	15	14	17	19	18	19	28	19
10.....	24	18	17	17	15	19	18	18
11.....	25	16	27	22	20	25	21	22
12.....	20	21	22	19	23	26	20	22
13.....	20	23	21	21	20	24	20	21
14.....	20	30	20	18	21	24	20	20
Total time	483	480	464	472	402	468	454	414

Legend:

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Teaching Classes | 8. Meeting Visitors |
| 2. Supervision | 9. Inspecting Building |
| 3. Conference—Pupil | 10. Planning Programs |
| 4. Conference—Teacher | 11. Supervising Play |
| 5. Office Work | 12. Administering Tests |
| 6. Discipline | 13. Committee Work |
| 7. School Correspondence | 14. Community Work |

Table reads: In cities below 5000, the median number of minutes spent per typical day by principals in teaching classes is 150, etc.

* Median of total distribution.

of only 24.8 percent. This table indicates rather strongly that the principal himself considers the improvement of instruction through supervision to be his most important professional duty.

The teaching principal—Although Table 52 does not include the item of teaching classes, Table 53 shows that it is one of the main duties of many elementary-school principals. According to our data 32.7 percent of all the principals included in this study have regular classroom teaching. This does not include occasional demonstration lessons.

In comparing data by geographical areas we find there is very little difference in the percentages for each section. The western group has the highest percent (35.6) of its principals teaching, and the

TABLE 52.—PERCENTILE RANKS OF CERTAIN SCHOOL FUNCTIONS PERFORMED BY PRINCIPALS

Function	Percentile Rank
1. Supervision	94.9
2. Conference—Teacher	83.3
3. Conference—Pupil	70.9
4. Discipline	57.8
5. Planning Programs	51.7
6. Teaching Classes	51.4
7. Administering Tests	46.7
8. Meeting Visitors	45.3
9. Office Work	41.9
10. Community Work	38.8
11. Supervising Play	38.1
12. Inspecting Buildings	35.0
13. School Correspondence	27.1
14. Committee Work	24.8

Table reads: Supervision of instruction exceeded all other functions in score by 94.9 percent, etc.

north central section has the lowest percentage (30.1) In Table 54, which gives the distribution by population groups, we find that 82.9 percent of the principals in cities under 5000 in population teach

TABLE 53.—GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION BY NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PRINCIPALS WHO TEACH REGULARLY

Area	Number Teaching Regularly	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	58	34.3
South Atlantic	11	32.3
North Central	75	30.1
South Central	12	31.5
Western	56	35.6
Total	212	32.7

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, there were 58 principals, or 34.3 percent, who reported teaching regularly, etc.

regularly, while only 17.7 percent of the principals in cities between 100,000 and 250,000 teach regularly.

From data supplied by the superintendents in thirty-nine cities, Pollich¹ found:

From the reports received, it appears that elementary-school principals in large cities are no longer expected to teach classes. None of the cities from which questionnaires were received require classroom teaching of principals of schools with eight or more teachers. In many cases the number of teachers necessary to allow principals full-time supervision is even less than eight.

¹ Pollich, R. E., "Superintendents' Standards and Policies in the Selection, Appointment, and Promotion of Elementary-School Principals," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXVI, October, 1925, pp. 107-111.

In contrast to this, we find Bolton and Howard¹ maintaining:

The principal should teach one or two classes as one of his regular duties.

The meeting of class situations daily will keep him in close touch with teaching problems, and will cause him to have a more sympathetic attitude toward the work of his teachers. The daily classroom association with the pupils will enable him to know their interests and problems better than he could possibly know them if he did not teach.

Status of principal relative to certain administrative functions—

In the history of the growth and development of the elementary-school principalship, there has never been a sharp differentiation between the work of the principal and the superintendent of schools. Our data show there is a wide variation among city schools in the amount of freedom given to the principal to develop his own unit in the system.

TABLE 54.—POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PRINCIPALS WHO TEACH REGULARLY

Group	Number Teaching Regularly	Percent of Total
Under 5,000	34	82.9
5,000- 9,999.....	13	65.5
10,000- 29,999.....	48	52.7
30,000- 49,999.....	26	48.1
50,000- 99,999.....	17	26.9
100,000-249,999.....	19	17.7
Above 250,000.....	55	20.5
Total	212	34.3

Table reads: In cities under 5000, there were 34 principals, or 82.9 percent, who reported as teaching regularly, etc.

In order to throw light on this problem, principals were asked to indicate their status in relation to certain administrative functions. In Table 55, is found a list of these functions, with the percentages given for each. The terms "initiate," "assist" and "final authority" are self-explanatory. The column designated, "no status," consists of all the answers not definitely checked in any of the other three columns.

It does not seem necessary to discuss in detail each of the functions given in Table 55. The data speak for themselves. However, there were many marginal notations, on some of the questionnaires, which indicate that little or no opportunity is given to some principals in the matter of initiating any important school matter. In other school systems, the principals are encouraged to take a part in planning the policies for their own schools.

It may be well to point out that in matters concerning merely the principal's own school, such as inspecting building, classifying pupils,

¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 144.

etc., the principal is usually given considerable authority. In certain other matters, such as keeping school records, dispensing school books and supplies, etc., the principal is held rather rigidly to detailed directions and regulations from the central office. This procedure leads to uniform school accounting and makes it possible for the superintendent to compare schools within the system, as well as to compare his schools with those of other systems. Needless to say, no professionally alert principal would object to filling out forms and

TABLE 55.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE STATUS OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWARD CERTAIN ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

Function	Initiates	Assists	Final Authority	No Status
Making Daily Schedule.....	8	49	18	25
Keeping School Records.....	11	32	41	16
Handling Tardiness	8	37	41	14
Handling Absences	8	42	37	13
Handling Discipline	4	31	51	14
Inspecting Building	18	33	42	7
Supervising Janitors	15	34	41	10
Selecting Teachers	6	41	3	50
Interviewing Candidates	4	19	4	73
Rating Teachers	10	30	20	40
Promoting Teachers	6	44	7	43
Discharging Teachers	13	40	2	45
Supervising Instruction	16	44	31	9
Conducting Teachers' Meetings.....	25	16	48	11
Selecting Textbooks	4	50	7	39
Making Courses of Study.....	2	70	1	27
Selecting Library Books.....	6	49	15	30
Selecting School Equipment.....	7	55	6	32
Directing Educational Tests.....	10	58	14	18
Control of Athletics.....	9	42	29	20
Control of Publications.....	4	17	21	58
Providing School Publicity.....	10	37	23	30
Dispensing School Books.....	11	31	33	25
Securing Substitute Teacher.....	14	35	19	32
Classifying Pupils	11	23	55	11
Promoting Pupils	8	26	56	10

Table reads: In the function of making daily schedules, 8.0 percent of the principals initiate, 49.0 percent have final authority, and 25.0 percent have nothing to do with it, etc.

making monthly or annual reports, provided he was furnished the sufficient clerical help to prevent this work from interfering with the more important duties of the principalship.

There is another class of functions which is more or less under direct control of the office of the superintendent. We refer to the employment, promotion, and discharge of teachers. While our data show, in Table 55, that the principal has some voice in these matters, generally limited to recommendations, he has very little real authority. It is not our purpose to discuss the merits or demerits of this condition. To the unbiased it does not seem fair to hold the principal of

an elementary school for a high type of instruction in his school unless he is given some control over the selection or dismissal of the teaching corps. The data show that more responsibility is given to the principal in the matter of rating teachers in service than in the matter of employing teachers.

Training in service—Although the principal may or may not be given any voice in the selection, promotion, or dismissal of teachers in his own school, he has, however, a great opportunity and responsibility

TABLE 56.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF SCHOOLS USING TEACHER-RATING FORMS

Area	Number	Percent of Total
North Atlantic	72	51.0
South Atlantic	13	41.9
North Central	122	58.6
South Central	13	50.0
Western	59	47.2
Total	279	52.5

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, 72, or 51.0 percent, of the principals reported their schools use teacher-rating forms, etc.

TABLE 57.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY POPULATION GROUPS OF SCHOOLS USING TEACHER-RATING FORMS

Population Group	Number	Percent of Total
Under 5,000	7	21.2
5,000 to 9,999	4	23.5
10,000 to 29,999	22	30.1
30,000 to 49,999	21	51.2
50,000 to 99,999	38	80.3
100,000 to 249,999	49	59.7
Above 250,000	136	59.3
Total	277	51.6

Table reads: In cities under 5000, seven, or 21.2 percent, of the principals reported their schools use teacher-rating forms, etc.

in training teachers in service. Adams,¹ in his article on "The Principal's Program of Professional Activities," has well said:

"To the principal of the school must be delegated to no small degree the problem of training teachers in service. Such training presupposes, on the part of the principal, ability and skill to direct teachers along professional lines. The school must be the laboratory in which, in the fires of experience, the real teacher is tried and developed. This experience must be gained at a minimum cost to the children in the school.

Many marginal notes on the questionnaires bear testimony to this statement. It would seem as if the high quality of instruction, which the principal is trying to secure for his school, will have to be reached by making good teachers out of those assigned to him from the central office.

¹ Adams, Edwin W., "The Principal's Program of Professional Activities," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXIII, June, 1923, pp. 733-741.

The rating of teachers—In the questionnaire principals were asked to indicate whether or not any kind of a rating system of teachers was used in their schools. Table 56 shows that 52.5 percent of the schools employ some objective method of evaluating the qualities of their teachers. There is very little variation in this item among geographical sections, but in comparing population groups we find that the smaller cities have fewer rating systems than the larger cities. Cities having a population between fifty and one hundred thousand have the largest percentage. The hundred or more teacher-rating forms sent to the writer indicate plainly that there is no agreement as yet among educators as to what the qualities of a good teacher are, or as to how these qualities can be so weighed as to give a reliable index of a teacher's ability.

PART VI.—THE SALARY AND TENURE OF THE PRINCIPAL

The first part of this study indicates that the elementary-school principalship is in a state of transition. From a purely professional standpoint, salary and tenure of office are important factors in stabilizing the principalship.

Purpose of part—It is the purpose of this part (1) to present the data secured from the questionnaire, pertaining to salaries of elementary-school principals for the years 1923-1924, and 1924-1925, and (2) to show, in the latter part, the results bearing on the problem of tenure.

The professional unrest found among some elementary-school principals is due to a general feeling of uncertainty of salary. This situation leads to the following inquiries:

1. What inducements does the elementary-school principalship offer to professionally trained men and women who contemplate entering this field of educational service?
2. Are the salaries paid to elementary-school principals commensurate with the training, responsibility, and type of service demanded of them?
3. Is the principalship a stepping stone to something better, or is it a position worthy of a life's service?

No claim is made in this study to have found the final answers to these questions.

The subsequent tables show the distribution of salaries for elementary-school principals in the United States for the school years 1923-1924 and 1924-1925. In order to show the salary situation clearly, the salaries were distributed according to geographical areas, population, and enrolment groups. Wherever there is lack of agreement in the total number of cases tabulated, the difference is due to incomplete questionnaires.

TABLE 58.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1923-1924 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO GRAPHICAL AREAS

Salary	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
1000.....	1	1	2	..	..	4
1100.....	2	1	1	..	..	4
1200.....	..	2	3	..	1	6
1300.....	3	2	5	1	1	12
1400.....	3	..	4	1	..	8
1500.....	8	2	4	3	..	17
1600.....	3	..	5	..	2	10
1700.....	5	1	4	..	2	12
1800.....	1	3	7	2	12	25
1900.....	7	1	3	2	9	22
2000.....	9	..	8	8	6	31
2100.....	6	1	12	2	5	26
2200.....	11	..	9	1	10	31
2300.....	8	1	10	..	5	24
2400.....	4	3	11	1	5	24
2500.....	11	1	22	2	15	51
2600.....	3	3	7	1	7	21
2700.....	5	1	10	6	6	28
2800.....	5	7	8	4	9	33
2900.....	3	1	8	1	3	16
3000.....	5	2	10	2	15	34
3100.....	3	..	5	..	11	19
3200.....	2	..	3	..	14	19
3300.....	3	..	3	..	6	12
3400.....	3	..	13	..	3	19
3500.....	8	..	9	..	1	18
3600.....	2	..	7	..	2	11
3700.....	2	..	1	..	..	3
3800.....	1	..	1	..	1	3
3900.....	1	..	1	..	..	2
4000.....	17	..	6	..	..	23
4100.....	2	..	..	..	..	2
4200.....	1	..	3	..	..	4
4400.....	1	..	5	..	..	6
4500.....	2	..	..	..	..	2
4600.....	..	..	5	..	..	5
4700.....	9	..	2	..	..	11
4800.....	..	..	15	..	..	15
4900.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
5000.....	2	..	..	..	..	2
5400.....	..	..	2	..	..	2
Total	163	33	234	37	151	618
Q ₁	\$2083	\$1725	\$2205	\$2003	\$2195	\$2110
Med.	2595	2450	2700	2175	2635	2609
Q ₃	3612	2825	3488	2762	3102	3230
Q	764	550	641	379	453	560

TABLE 59.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1923-1924 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Salary	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
1000.....	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	4
1100.....	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
1200.....	2	2	2	..	..	..	..	6
1300.....	2	3	4	..	..	..	1	10
1400.....	2	1	5	..	..	..	1	9
1500.....	3	2	5	2	2	1	..	15
1600.....	1	4	4	..	..	..	..	9
1700.....	..	1	6	3	..	..	..	10
1800.....	4	3	8	2	4	..	3	24
1900.....	1	1	7	3	2	1	6	21
2000.....	2	2	9	7	6	6	3	35
2100.....	..	1	5	3	2	8	1	20
2200.....	4	1	4	1	3	7	11	31
2300.....	2	1	4	2	7	5	3	24
2400.....	..	..	3	4	3	9	6	25
2500.....	3	..	3	7	6	15	16	50
2600.....	1	..	1	2	5	1	2	12
2700.....	2	1	1	2	2	9	12	29
2800.....	..	..	2	3	5	11	12	33
2900.....	..	..	3	1	..	5	7	16
3000.....	1	..	1	2	3	6	2	15
3100.....	..	..	..	2	2	3	11	18
3200.....	..	..	..	..	..	2	16	18
3300.....	..	..	1	1	3	2	7	14
3400.....	..	..	..	..	1	3	14	18
3500.....	1	..	..	1	1	2	13	18
3600.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	9	10
3700.....	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2
3800.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	3
3900.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	2
4000.....	..	1	..	1	1	..	20	23
4100.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	2
4200.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4
4400.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	5	6
4500.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	6
4600.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	5
4700.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	10
4800.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	14	14
5000.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
5400.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	2
Total	33	25	81	51	60	98	228	576
Q ₁	\$1508	\$1425	\$1631	\$2039	\$2150	\$2330	\$2733	\$2095
Med.	1950	1687	1944	2462	2516	2580	3314	2512
Q ₃	2360	2037	2269	2808	2860	2910	4055	3277
Q	426	306	319	384	355	390	661	591

TABLE 60.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1923-1924 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO ENROLMENT GROUPS

Salary	1-100	101-200	201-300	301-500	501-1000	1001-2000	Above 2001	Total
1000.....	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	4
1100.....	..	1	3	..	..	..	..	4
1200.....	1	2	2	1	..	..	..	6
1300.....	1	..	2	6	1	1	..	11
1400.....	..	..	..	6	..	1	..	7
1500.....	4	..	2	7	4	..	..	17
1600.....	..	2	1	6	1	..	..	10
1700.....	1	2	6	2	1	..	..	12
1800.....	..	4	5	9	5	..	..	23
1900.....	1	2	1	12	3	1	..	20
2000.....	2	2	3	16	9	..	..	32
2100.....	..	1	6	9	9	..	..	25
2200.....	..	2	3	10	7	2	..	24
2300.....	..	1	2	9	9	3	..	24
2400.....	..	..	2	10	13	1	..	26
2500.....	3	1	2	22	20	1	..	49
2600.....	..	1	..	3	10	3	..	17
2700.....	..	3	1	8	13	1	..	26
2800.....	..	..	..	5	18	9	..	32
2900.....	..	..	..	3	8	4	..	15
3000.....	..	..	2	4	20	5	..	31
3100.....	..	..	..	2	9	5	..	16
3200.....	..	..	..	..	14	1	..	15
3300.....	..	..	..	2	9	..	..	11
3400.....	1	..	..	1	10	6	..	18
3500.....	1	1	..	..	15	1	..	18
3600.....	..	..	..	..	5	3	..	8
3700.....	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	2
3800.....	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	3
3900.....	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	2
4000.....	..	..	..	..	9	10	..	19
4100.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
4200.....	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	4
4400.....	..	..	..	..	2	3	..	5
4500.....	..	..	..	..	1	3	..	4
4600.....	..	..	..	..	1	3	..	4
4700.....	..	..	..	1	2	3	4	10
4800.....	..	..	..	..	..	14	1	15
5000.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
5400.....	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2
Total.....	16	26	45	154	232	94	6	573
Q ₁	\$1525	\$1725	\$1625	\$1912	\$2469	\$2912	\$4737	\$2088
Med.	1850	1950	1890	2230	2861	3666	4775	2582
Q ₃	2533	2350	2225	2556	3300	4550	4850	3280
Q.....	504	312	300	322	415	819	56	596

Salary for 1923-1924—The median salary for elementary-school principals for the school year, 1923-1924, according to Table 58 is \$2609. The first quartile is \$2110, and the third quartile is \$3230. The quartile deviation is \$560. These figures indicate that one fourth of the principals received less than \$2110, one half less than \$2609, and three-fourths less than \$3230. The range is from \$1000 to \$5400.

In comparing the geographical areas, it will be seen that the north central group has the highest median salary, \$2700, and that the south central group has the lowest median salary, \$2175. The large centers of population in the north central group, which afford better salaries than do smaller cities, aided materially in making the median salary high for this section.

In reading from Table 59, it will be noticed that the median salary, \$3314, is highest for the population group of cities over 250,000. The lowest median salary, \$1687, is found for the population group between 5000 and 10,000. It will be observed that there is a steady increase in salary in progressing from the smaller to the larger cities. A notable exception is found in the group of cities under 5000 in population, where the median salary is higher than that for the next population group above. It is probable that the exception is explained in part by the paucity of cases in this group.

In Table 60 is given the distribution of salaries by enrolment groups. It will be seen that the highest median salary, \$4775, is found for principals of schools having over 2000 pupils enrolled. The lowest median salary, \$1850, is shown for principals in schools having between 1 and 100 pupils enrolled. There is a marked tendency for schools having large enrolments to pay higher salaries than those of smaller enrolments. The exception found in the 101 to 200 enrolment group is probably due to an insufficient number of cases.

Salary for 1924-1925—For the school year, 1924-1925, the median salary for these same elementary-school principals is \$2706 (see Table 61). The first quartile is \$2183, and the third quartile is \$3283. The quartile deviation is \$550, and the range is \$1000 to \$7000. It will be observed that the median salary for 1924-1925 is \$97 higher than that for the year 1923-1924. This difference does not indicate higher salaries for elementary-school principals in general for the year 1924-1925; it is possibly explained in part by the fact that many of the principals included in this study are on definite salary schedules and get small increases each year until a certain maximum in salary is reached.

In comparing the salaries shown for the different geographical areas, in Table 61, we find that the western group is first, with a median salary of \$2773, and that the south central group is last, with a median salary of \$2300.

TABLE 61.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1924-1925 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Salary	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
1000.....	1	1	1	..	..	3
1100.....	1	1	..	..	..	2
1200.....	1	2	3	..	..	6
1300.....	..	2	7	..	1	10
1400.....	2	..	1	1	..	4
1500.....	6	2	4	3	..	15
1600.....	5	..	4	..	2	11
1700.....	4	1	5	..	2	12
1800.....	4	2	6	..	8	20
1900.....	3	..	2	3	7	15
2000.....	10	..	8	7	4	29
2100.....	9	2	10	2	8	31
2200.....	6	..	7	2	5	20
2300.....	8	..	9	1	8	26
2400.....	11	2	9	..	8	30
2500.....	8	1	23	2	12	46
2600.....	5	4	13	..	2	24
2700.....	6	3	8	4	11	32
2800.....	4	6	8	6	10	34
2900.....	1	1	7	1	3	13
3000.....	5	3	15	4	12	39
3100.....	4	..	3	..	14	21
3200.....	2	..	3	..	14	19
3300.....	4	..	1	..	7	12
3400.....	1	..	10	..	4	15
3500.....	6	..	13	..	4	23
3600.....	4	..	6	..	1	11
3700.....	1	..	3	..	..	4
3800.....	1	..	2	..	3	6
3900.....	1	..	1	..	..	2
4000.....	18	..	4	..	..	22
4100.....	3	..	..	..	..	3
4200.....	2	..	4	..	..	6
4400.....	..	..	8	..	..	8
4500.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
4600.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
4700.....	6	..	1	..	..	7
4800.....	..	..	18	..	..	18
4900.....	1	..	1	..	..	2
5000.....	5	..	..	..	..	5
5400.....	1	..	2	..	..	3
7000.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
Total	163	33	230	36	150	612
Q ₁	\$2142	\$1725	\$2293	\$2029	\$2306	\$2183
Med.	2650	2612	2737	2300	2773	2706
Q ₃	3825	2829	3542	2833	3168	3283
Q	841	552	624	402	431	550

TABLE 62.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1924-1925 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Salary	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
1000.....	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	3
1100.....	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
1200.....	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	4
1300.....	3	2	3	..	..	..	1	9
1400.....	..	..	1	..	1	..	1	3
1500.....	1	3	8	2	1	..	..	15
1600.....	2	2	3	..	..	1	..	8
1700.....	1	2	6	3	..	..	..	12
1800.....	5	3	8	1	2	..	..	19
1900.....	..	1	5	2	1	..	5	14
2000.....	4	1	7	7	5	1	4	29
2100.....	..	2	9	4	6	6	2	29
2200.....	1	1	3	1	2	7	4	19
2300.....	3	2	5	1	2	2	5	20
2400.....	..	..	5	3	6	9	9	32
2500.....	2	..	5	2	6	15	15	45
2600.....	..	..	1	7	5	7	5	25
2700.....	2	..	2	3	4	9	12	32
2800.....	2	..	1	2	6	8	15	34
2900.....	..	..	1	..	2	4	6	13
3000.....	..	1	2	2	3	12	19	39
3100.....	..	..	1	2	1	2	18	23
3200.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	15	16
3300.....	..	..	..	..	2	4	6	12
3400.....	..	..	..	..	1	2	11	14
3500.....	..	..	1	3	2	1	15	22
3600.....	1	..	..	..	..	3	8	12
3700.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	4	5
3800.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	3	4
3900.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	2
4000.....	1	..	..	3	..	..	18	22
4100.....	..	1	..	1	..	..	2	4
4200.....	..	..	..	..	2	..	4	6
4400.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	8
4500.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
4600.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
4700.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	5
4800.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	20	20
4900.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
5000.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4
5400.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	3
7000.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Total	31	23	81	49	61	97	251	592
Q ₁	\$1637	\$1558	\$1721	\$2061	\$2187	\$2480	\$2798	\$2205
Med.	2012	1816	2036	2525	2575	2705	3230	2725
Q ₃	2512	2162	2375	2837	2879	3029	4023	3291
Q	437	302	327	388	346	274	612	543

TABLE 63.—SALARIES OF PRINCIPALS FOR THE YEAR 1924-1925 DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO ENROLMENT GROUPS

Salary	1-100	101-200	201-300	301-500	501-1000	1001-2000	Above 2001	Total
1000.....	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	3
1100.....	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	2
1200.....	1	2	2	1	..	..	..	6
1300.....	1	1	3	3	1	1	..	10
1400.....	..	..	..	3	..	1	..	4
1500.....	2	..	2	8	3	..	..	15
1600.....	1	2	5	4	1	..	..	13
1700.....	2	3	5	3	..	..	..	13
1800.....	..	3	5	6	5	..	..	19
1900.....	1	1	1	8	2	..	..	13
2000.....	2	3	2	15	5	..	..	27
2100.....	..	2	6	11	8	..	..	27
2200.....	..	3	6	4	4	2	..	19
2300.....	..	1	2	7	9	1	..	20
2400.....	..	1	3	13	13	2	..	32
2500.....	2	..	3	19	19	2	..	45
2600.....	..	2	..	6	16	1	..	25
2700.....	1	..	1	12	16	2	..	32
2800.....	..	1	..	8	14	5	..	28
2900.....	..	..	..	2	7	3	..	12
3000.....	..	1	..	5	18	8	..	32
3100.....	..	..	..	3	14	1	..	18
3200.....	..	..	1	2	16	1	..	20
3300.....	..	..	..	..	9	2	..	11
3400.....	1	..	..	3	5	3	..	12
3500.....	..	..	..	..	15	5	..	20
3600.....	..	..	..	..	7	4	..	11
3700.....	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	5
3800.....	..	..	..	..	1	3	..	4
3900.....	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	2
4000.....	..	1	..	..	5	10	..	16
4100.....	..	1	..	..	3	..	..	3
4200.....	..	..	..	..	2	3	..	5
4400.....	..	..	..	..	2	5	..	7
4500.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
4600.....	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	2
4700.....	..	..	..	..	..	6	..	6
4800.....	..	..	..	..	2	11	1	14
4900.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
5000.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	3	4
5400.....	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	3
7000.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
Total	15	28	50	147	231	86	6	564
Q ₁	\$1537	\$1733	\$1650	\$2005	\$2535	\$3019	\$4950	\$2188
Med.	1775	2033	1900	2404	2897	3675	5033	2648
Q ₃	2512	2300	2258	2687	3325	4490	5083	3235
Q	487	283	304	341	395	735	66	523

By population groups, it will be seen, in Table 62, that again the highest median salary is found in cities over 250,000 in population. The lowest median salary, \$1816, is found for the population group between 5000 and 10,000. The data for enrolment groups show the median salary, \$5033, is highest for schools having over 2000 pupils enrolled, and lowest, \$1775, for schools having from 1 to 100 pupils enrolled.

The foregoing data seem to indicate that the elementary-school principalship pays reasonably well in the larger schools of the larger population centers. The salaries for elementary-school principals in general, however, are probably too low to secure the type of principal the work demands.

Sargeant,¹ in his report, states:

Salary is for service, not to please employees; salaries should be fixed at such figures as will encourage people now in service as well as prospective candidates to a high degree of professional preparation. To accomplish this, salaries for educational positions must be made competitively attractive in comparison with the other most desirable and remunerative occupations of mankind.

Moreover, it will be recalled that the median salary, \$2706, we show for the elementary-school principal for 1924-1925 is considerably higher than the salary, \$1591, reported in a recent research bulletin² of the National Education Association. The present study consists chiefly of principals of schools in the larger cities. If the study had been predominantly of principals in the smaller schools and cities, the median salary would undoubtedly have been considerably lower. Again, this study probably contains a much higher percentage of supervising principals, hence higher salaries, than that made by the National Education Association.

Tenure of office—The stability of the principalship rests in a large measure upon the length of the principal's term of office. Most principals would agree with Kandel³ in his statement that:

Undoubtedly the teacher cannot be expected to do her most efficient work, if she is to be obsessed annually with anxiety as to her reappointment. . . . A satisfactory system of tenure must be just to both sides—the teacher and the public; it should relieve the good teacher of anxiety for the future; it should promote contentment and stability; it should protect the efficient teacher and weed out the incompetent;

This statement could well apply to elementary-school principals.

¹ Sargeant, Ide G., "Report of Committee on Salaries," *Bulletin of Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol. V, No. 1, October, 1925, p. 37.

² *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, Vol. 3, Nos. 1 and 2, Table VI, p. 16.

³ Kandel, I. L., "Tenure of Service of Teachers." *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 26, No. 2, October, 1924, pp. 135-136.

There are three items, from the questionnaire used in this study, that throw light on the problem of tenure. In question form they are:

1. What was the principal's professional status before entering the present principalship?
2. How many different school positions has he held in his lifetime?
3. What is the length of his present term of office as principal?

Principal's status before entering present position—Table 64 shows the status of the principal before entering his present position. It will be seen that 24.8 percent of the 556 principals reporting this item were elementary-school principals in the same school system before accepting their present position, that 23.9 percent were elementary-school teachers in the same school system, and that 8.3 percent were elementary-school principals in other school systems before accepting the present principalship. The percents for other items are small. These data suggest that only people with considerable teaching experience are appointed to principalships.

Different positions held by principals—Table 65 shows that the median number of different positions held by elementary-school principals is 4.8. The first quartile is 3.5, and the third quartile is 6.4, with a quartile deviation of 1.4. The range in number of positions is from 1 to 19. The accompanying tables show there is very little deviation among geographical areas or population groups for this item.

Length of present tenures—The median number of years elementary-school principals have been in their present terms of office is 6.9. According to the geographical distribution, in Table 67, the first quartile is 3.7, and the third quartile is 12.9, with a quartile deviation of 4.6. These figures indicate that one fourth of the principals have been less than 3.7 years in their present position, one half less than 6.9 years, and three fourths less than 12.9. One fourth of the principals have been more than 12.9 years in their present positions.

By comparing the different geographical sections, we find that the longest tenure is 7.8 years for the north central group; and the south Atlantic group fifth with the shortest tenure of 5.7 years. The range is one to forty-four years.

According to the distribution of tenures by population, in Table 68, the median tenure is 6.8 years, the first quartile 3.6, and the third quartile 12.7 years. The quartile deviation is 4.5 years. If we compare population groups, the data will show that the longest tenure is 7.6 years in the group above 250,000, and that the shortest (4.6) is in cities under 5000 in population. There is a noticeable tendency for tenures to be longer in the larger population groups.

Correlations made with salary—In any statistical study of a more or less complex nature, certain related elements are likely to occur.

TABLE 64.—PRINCIPAL'S STATUS BEFORE ENTERING PRESENT POSITION

Status	Number	Percent of Total
A. Undergraduate Student:		
(1) With teaching experience.....	10	1.8
(2) Without teaching experience.....	..	..
B. With A. B. Degree or Equivalent:		
(1) With teaching experience.....	35	6.4
(2) Without teaching experience.....	1	.2
C. Graduate Student:		
(1) With teaching experience.....	23	4.1
(2) Without teaching experience.....	2	.4
D. Elementary School Teacher:		
(1) In same school system.....	133	23.9
(2) In other school system.....	18	3.2
E. Junior High School Teacher:		
(1) In same school system.....	16	2.9
(2) In other school system.....	3	.5
F. Senior High School Teacher:		
(1) In same school system.....	23	4.1
(2) In other school system.....	10	1.8
G. Elementary School Supervisor:		
(1) In same school system.....	8	1.4
(2) In other school system.....	4	.7
H. Elementary School Principal:		
(1) In same school system.....	138	24.8
(2) In other school system.....	46	8.3
I. Junior High School Principal:		
(1) In same school system.....	3	.5
(2) In other school system.....	8	1.4
J. Asst. Principal Elem. School:		
(1) In same school system.....	44	7.9
(2) In other school system.....	2	.4
K. Asst. Supt. of Schools:		
(1) In same school system.....	2	.4
(2) In other school system.....	..	..
L. Superintendent of Schools:		
(1) In same school system.....	3	.5
(2) In other school system.....	22	4.0
M. Non-School Work:		
(1) With teaching experience.....	1	.2
(2) Without teaching experience.....	1	.2
Total	556	100.0

Table reads: Ten, or 1.8 percent, of the principals reported that their status before entering their present positions was that of an undergraduate student, with teaching experience, etc.

TABLE 65.—DIFFERENT POSITIONS HELD BY PRINCIPALS DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Number of Positions	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
1.....	3	1	6	..	3	13
2.....	16	5	26	2	12	61
3.....	31	5	41	10	29	116
4.....	29	9	42	4	25	109
5.....	25	7	41	10	24	107
6.....	15	3	22	2	16	58
7.....	11	1	13	1	9	35
8.....	12	2	11	3	9	37
9.....	7	..	7	2	1	17
10.....	4	..	4	1	4	13
11.....	1	..	1	..	1	3
12.....	1	..	2	..	..	3
13.....	..	..	1	..	1	2
14.....	..	..	1	..	..	1
15.....	1	..	1	..	1	3
19.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
Total	157	33	219	35	135	579
Q ₁	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5
Med.	4.9	4.6	4.8	5.1	4.9	4.8
Q ₃	6.9	5.7	6.3	6.1	6.5	6.4
Q	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4

Table reads: In the North Atlantic group, three principals reported they had held but one position, etc.

TABLE 66.—DIFFERENT POSITIONS HELD BY PRINCIPALS DISTRIBUTED
ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Number of Positions	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
1.....	1	1	3	..	2	..	6	13
2.....	9	2	12	2	4	12	20	61
3.....	10	7	14	13	12	17	42	116
4.....	3	5	17	9	13	18	43	109
5.....	5	2	17	9	7	23	44	107
6.....	6	1	7	5	10	8	21	58
7.....	2	..	5	3	2	5	18	35
8.....	2	3	1	3	4	8	16	37
9.....	..	..	2	2	3	4	6	17
10.....	..	1	1	1	1	2	7	13
11.....	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	3
12.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	3
13.....	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
14.....	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
15.....	1	..	..	..	..	..	2	3
19.....	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Total	40	22	82	47	59	98	229	579
Q ₁	3.0	3.3	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.5
Med.	4.0	4.2	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	5.0	4.8
Q ₃	6.0	5.7	5.8	6.9	6.6	6.4	6.9	6.4
Q	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.4

Table reads: In cities under 5000 in population, there was one principal who reported having held one position, etc.

TABLE 67.—YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Years in Present Position	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western	Total
1.....	11	4	18	1	16	50
2.....	12	3	18	3	22	58
3.....	17	1	19	4	15	56
4.....	19	4	12	3	10	48
5.....	8	5	19	2	8	42
6.....	10	4	10	4	13	41
7.....	7	..	19	5	8	39
8.....	7	1	11	..	5	24
9.....	9	..	7	3	7	26
10.....	4	1	9	..	7	21
11.....	8	1	5	1	2	17
12.....	7	..	11	1	3	22
13.....	4	1	6	1	1	13
14.....	3	1	5	..	4	13
15.....	1	1	8	1	3	14
16.....	7	..	8	..	2	18
17.....	5	2	3	..	1	11
18.....	2	..	2	..	2	6
19.....	..	..	4	..	2	6
20.....	2	..	6	..	1	9
21.....	..	..	2	..	2	4
22.....	..	..	3	..	..	3
23.....	1	1	2	1	1	6
24.....	..	1	..	..	..	1
25.....	2	..	6	..	..	8
26.....	..	..	1	..	1	2
27.....	1	..	..	..	1	2
28.....	2	..	1	..	..	3
29.....	1	..	2	..	..	3
30.....	3	..	..	..	1	4
31.....	..	..	1	..	1	2
32.....	1	..	1	1	1	4
33.....	1	..	2	..	1	4
34.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
35.....	..	..	1	..	1	2
37.....	1	..	1	..	..	2
40.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
43.....	1	..	..	..	..	1
44.....	..	..	1	..	..	1
Total	159	31	224	31	142	588
Q ₁	3.9	3.7	4.1	3.9	2.9	3.7
Med.	7.3	5.7	7.8	6.6	6.0	6.9
Q ₃	13.6	11.2	14.8	9.4	10.3	12.9
Q	4.8	3.7	5.3	2.7	3.7	4.6

TABLE 68.—YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUPS

Years in Present Position	Under 5000	5000 9999	10,000 29,999	30,000 49,999	50,000 99,999	100,000 249,999	Above 250,000	Total
1.....	1	3	4	3	4	9	19	43
2.....	8	3	6	4	8	6	21	56
3.....	4	2	11	4	4	9	20	54
4.....	5	1	7	4	4	5	15	41
5.....	3	2	4	6	2	7	13	37
6.....	4	1	4	6	6	6	15	42
7.....	1	2	4	3	2	7	15	34
8.....	3	1	3	1	1	3	12	24
9.....	..	1	6	..	4	5	9	25
10.....	..	1	1	3	1	1	10	17
11.....	1	..	2	..	..	5	7	15
12.....	1	..	1	2	1	5	8	18
13.....	..	..	4	1	1	..	7	13
14.....	..	..	2	..	2	1	7	12
15.....	..	1	1	..	2	1	6	11
16.....	..	..	2	3	4	1	7	17
17.....	..	3	1	2	..	2	3	11
18.....	..	..	3	..	1	..	2	6
19.....	..	..	1	..	..	1	3	5
20.....	..	..	1	1	1	2	3	8
21.....	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	3
22.....	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	3
23.....	..	..	1	..	..	2	3	6
24.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
25.....	..	..	1	..	3	..	1	5
26.....	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
27.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	2
28.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	3
29.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	2
30.....	..	..	..	1	1	..	2	4
31.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
32.....	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	4
33.....	..	..	..	..	1	..	3	4
34.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
35.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
37.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
40.....	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
43.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
44.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Total	32	21	72	48	55	82	234	534
Q ₁	2.8	2.7	3.7	4.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.6
Med.	4.6	5.7	7.0	6.5	6.9	6.8	7.6	6.8
Q ₃	6.7	9.7	13.2	13.0	15.4	11.7	13.6	12.7
Q	1.9	3.5	4.7	4.4	6.0	4.0	4.9	4.5

To what extent these interrelations exist is always a matter of interest, if not of educational value. For the purposes of this study, four coefficients of correlation were found with reference to the salary of the principal. The formula and method of treatment of data have been referred to in part 2, page 218, of this study.

Relationship between age and salary—Although the principals in the larger cities have greater maturity than those of smaller cities, the relationship existing between age and salary, as shown by the coefficient of correlation, is only .269. While this correlation is low, it is positive, and suggests a slight relationship between these elements.

Relationship between teaching experience and salary—Our data have shown that the elementary-school principal is a teacher of many years of experience. Many teachers probably feel that many years of experience should add materially to their salaries. The coefficient of correlation between teaching experience and salary is only .268.

Relationship between present tenures and salary—The coefficient of correlation between the length of the present tenures of elementary-school principals and salary is only .261. This coefficient is somewhat higher than that which Douglass found for these two elements in his study of the superintendent of schools. His correlation was .053. This difference is probably influenced by the longer tenures of the elementary-school principal.

Relationship between training and salary—There is a positive correlation, amounting to .306, between the principal's training and his salary. This is encouraging although somewhat low. It suggests that the better trained principals are receiving the higher salaries. It will be seen that this correlation is the highest of the four shown in this study. In general, these correlations are in keeping with those that have been found by many students of education.

PART VII.—SUMMARY

As stated in the introductory part of this study, the primary purpose of this investigation was to find out the status of the elementary-school principal. The study was based on 647 questionnaires, which included every state in the union excepting Mississippi and Nevada. All the returns, with two exceptions, were received from members of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association. Over 50 percent of the principals included in this study were in schools having over 500 pupils enrolled, and in cities having over 100,000 inhabitants.

The findings in this investigation can best be summarized by recapitulating the main points in each part.

Personal—1. The data show that 44.5 percent of the elementary-school principals in this study are men, and 55.5 percent are women.

2. The median age for principals is 47.4 years. The range is from 20 to 74 years. The middle 50 percent are from 39.4 to 54.3 years of age.

The principal's school—1. Exactly 45 percent of the schools are located in residential communities, and 28 percent are in industrial communities. The remaining percents are distributed among foreign, commercial, college, and agricultural communities.

2. Over one half of the schools, 58 percent, have the regular type of school organization; 9 percent the departmental type, 7 percent the platoon, and 26 percent have combinations of types of school organization.

3. More of the elementary schools reported in this study have kindergarten and the first eight grades, inclusive, than any other combination of grades.

4. Over one half of the schools, 58 percent, have school years 40 weeks in length.

5. About 45 percent of the schools have 5 hours in a school day; 31 percent 5½ hours, and 16 percent have 6 hours in a school day.

6. The median number of teachers under the direction of each principal is 17.0. The range is from 2 to 59.

7. The chief subjects given part-time supervision are music, art, handwriting, and handwork, respectively.

8. a. The three administrative assistants that are most frequently employed for full-time are:

1. Custodian of building
2. Clerk
3. Assistant principal

b. The three administrative assistants that are most frequently employed for part-time are:

1. School nurse
2. School physician
3. Physical director

c. The three administrative assistants for which there is, most frequently, no provision made, are:

1. Curriculum director
2. Librarian
3. Stenographer

9. About 87 percent of elementary-school principals have been elementary-school teachers.

10. Exactly 17.3 percent of the principals have written professional articles for publication.

11. About 95 percent of the principals are members of their local state teachers' associations; 30 percent are members of state principals' departments; and 12 percent of city principals' clubs.

12. The three most commonly read professional magazines are: *The Journal of the National Education Association*, *Elementary School Journal*, and *The Journal of Educational Method*, respectively.

The principal's duties—1. A job-analysis of the principal's day shows that the five functions that demand most of the principal's time are, in terms of median number of minutes spent daily, supervision 82 minutes, office work 56 minutes, teaching classes 36 minutes, conferences with teachers 32 minutes, and conferences with pupils 27 minutes.

2. Principals consider their five most important functions to be (in order of rank) supervision of instruction, conference with teachers, conference with pupils, discipline, and planning programs.

3. About 32.7 percent of all the principals included in this study teach regularly.

4. The five functions of school administration that the principal most commonly initiates are:

- a. Conducting teachers' meetings
- b. Inspecting building
- c. Supervising instruction
- d. Supervising janitors
- e. Securing substitute teachers

5. The five functions in which principals most frequently assist are:

- a. Making courses of study
- b. Directing educational tests
- c. Selecting school equipment
- d. Selecting textbooks
- e. Making daily schedule

6. The five functions in which principals most frequently have final authority, are:

- a. Promoting pupils
- b. Classifying pupils
- c. Handling discipline
- d. Conducting teachers' meetings
- e. Inspecting buildings

7. The five functions in which principals most frequently have no status, are:

- a. Interviewing candidates for teaching positions
- b. Control of publications
- c. Selecting teachers
- d. Discharging teachers
- e. Promoting teachers

8. About 52.5 percent of the principals use teacher-rating forms in their schools.

9. About 27 percent of the principals hold weekly teachers' meetings; 26 percent "called" meetings; 24 percent semi-monthly meetings; and 22 percent monthly meetings.

10. Approximately 37 percent of the principals designated their teachers' meetings as of the "conference" type, while 32 percent use the "conference and routine" type.

11. About one fourth of the principals, 23 percent, reported their superintendent visited their schools "irregularly."

The training and professional growth of the principal—1. The median number of years' preparation the principal has made beyond the high school is 4.2. The middle 50 percent have had from 3.0 to 5.4 years training.

2. The median number of summer sessions attended by principals is 3.6.

3. About 27.2 percent of all the principals have been regularly enrolled in graduate schools.

4. The median number of years of graduate work done by principals is 1.7.

5. The five professional courses most commonly taken by principals before entering their present work, are: educational psychology, principles of teaching, history of education, educational tests, and school administration, respectively.

6. The five professional courses most commonly taken by principals since accepting their present positions are, respectively, educational tests, school administration, school supervision, educational psychology, and methods in teaching special subjects.

7. The five professional courses receiving the highest ranks by principals, from the standpoint of usefulness to the principal, are respectively: school supervision, child psychology, principles of teaching, educational psychology, and school administration.

8. The median number of years of teaching experience for principals is 25.7. The range is from 3 to 54 years.

Salary and tenure of the principal—1. For the school year, 1923-1924, the median salary for elementary-school principals was \$2609. The middle 50 percent of principals received from \$2110 to \$3230. The range was from \$1000 to \$5400.

2. For the school year, 1924-1925, the median salary was \$2706. The middle 50 percent received from \$2183 to \$3283. The range was from \$1000 to \$7000.

3. The higher salaries were received by principals of the larger schools in the larger population centers.

4. The four kinds of positions most commonly held by principals, before accepting their present principalship, are:

- a. Elementary-school principal in the same school system
- b. Elementary-school teacher in the same school system
- c. Elementary-school principal in some other school system
- d. Assistant elementary-school principal in the same school system

5. The median number of different positions held by principals is 4.8. The range is from 1 to 19.

6. The median number of years that principals have been in their present positions is 6.9. The middle 50 percent have been in their present positions from 3.7 to 12.9 years. The range is from 1 to 44 years.

7. The following coefficients of correlation were found between the following elements:

a. Age and salary.....	.269
b. Teaching experience and salary.....	.268
c. Present tenure and salary.....	.261
d. Training and salary.....	.306

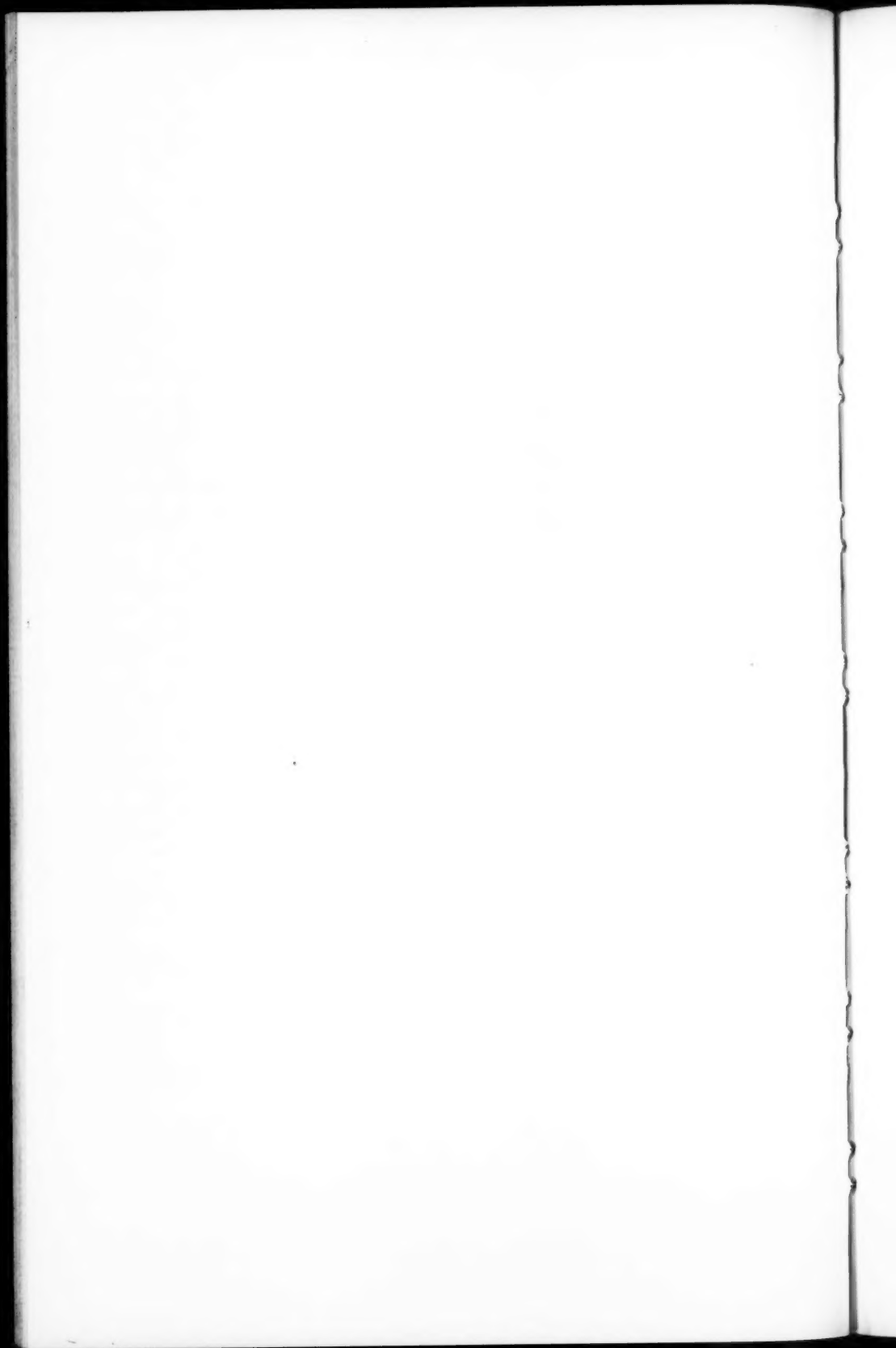
In conclusion, the writer believes that the elementary-school principalship represents a fairly stable professional group, and that it occupies a strategic place in our educational system. It is doubtful if there is any other position in our public schools that offers greater opportunities for service and leadership than that of the elementary-school principal. Moreover, the changing concept of the principal's chief duties from administration to supervision of instruction, will call for more highly specialized training in the future. The minimum training will probably be no less than one year of graduate study. With the adoption of adequate salary schedules, with the tenure of office certain, and with the opportunity for leadership which the position affords, no one should look askance at an elementary-school principalship.

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SECTION II
THE ACTIVITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL



CHAPTER III

THE VALUE OF A DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL

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WHAT is a good teacher? How can a good teacher be produced? These questions are not easy to answer. In fact they involve a large number of problems which must be solved before our schools can progress. We can say that a teacher should possess certain qualifications, such as physical fitness, moral stability, attractive personality, knowledge of subject-matter, knowledge of educational psychology and methods, and ability to translate his knowledge into appropriate action. Some of these attributes can be acquired by the teacher through a proper course of training, others are an inherent part of the entire make-up of the individual. They are difficult of exact determination and still more difficult to impart through formal schooling.

We have learned, however, that many of the qualifications of a good teacher can be acquired only by means of definite training looking to that definite purpose. Consequently, we note an increasing demand for trained teachers and an increasing tendency to lengthen the period of training. In some states we are approaching the ideal of a normal-school diploma for every elementary-school teacher.

We have learned, in the second place, that a teacher's training does not end when he steps out of a normal school into a classroom. As a matter of fact it has just begun. In normal school the prospective teacher has been given certain definite subject-matter. Nor should this phase of his training be neglected. It ought to be perfectly evident that a teacher who has not a foundation of sound scholarship will not be a success no matter how glibly he may be able to talk on child psychology and teaching methods.

The prospective teacher has also had courses in child study, method, school management, etc. Knowledge of the best theory and practice in this phase is necessary. He has also had an opportunity to observe education in action in the classroom. Finally, he has done a certain amount of practice teaching either in a school connected with a normal school or in a cooperating school. All of these various phases of teacher training have been, as a rule, crowded into two short years although there is a growing tendency to lengthen the course to three or even four years.

Armed with his slender equipment the teacher at nineteen or twenty years of age goes out to face a classroom of from thirty five to fifty active youngsters.

Now the most important thing necessary for the teacher's success is a recognition on the part of the school system and on his own part that his training has just begun. Such an attitude will cause a school system to organize itself to promote teacher growth and improvement. It will cause the teacher to realize the need for continued study and will impel him to take advantage of all opportunities offered. It is not our function to discuss all of the various means by which this result may be achieved. What we are to consider is the value of one aspect of this program; namely, the demonstration school.

By a demonstration school we mean a school which is demonstrating in actual classroom practice the principles and procedures of good teaching. Why is such a school a valuable part of a program for the improvement of teachers in service? How should it be organized and managed? What specific benefits should arise from its operation?

The first question can be answered from the standpoint of theory. The others may well be treated from the standpoint of actual practice in school systems.

Why a demonstration school is valuable—Our normal schools and other teacher training institutions have already recognized the value of demonstration in the process of the teacher's preparation. It is not sufficient for the teacher to have knowledge of subject-matter. He must have knowledge of technique. Much of the latter type of knowledge cannot be gained from books. Certain general principles can be set down in print but the actual working out of these principles must be learned in the classroom. For example, suppose we agree on the general principle that work should be fitted to individual capacities and needs. The organization of procedure to reach that result is a complicated matter that cannot be grasped from mere reading. A prospective teacher should have, therefore, opportunities to watch education in action to see how theories are translated into procedures.

Imitation is one of the most common ways of learning. It might be unfortunate for young teachers to imitate others without knowing the reasons for certain methods. But learning by imitation is not to be condemned outright. It is rather to be used as a short cut to desirable technique. Good standards may safely be copied provided care is taken to stimulate the young teacher to develop an inquiring attitude and to wish to understand and to improve what he sees.

If observation of good practices is valuable as a part of the training of the prospective teacher, it is valuable to the teacher in service. The observation obtained in a normal school course is not sufficient.

Usually the demonstration school of the normal school is also used for practice. This complicates the situation and creates conditions which are not similar to those which will be met outside. Sometimes the normal demonstration school has small classes or other features which do not give the students an opportunity to see things going on as they proceed in an average public school. Sometimes the type of pupil is altogether different from that which the teacher meets in his first classroom. Consequently, the beginning teacher needs to have further opportunities to continue his observation and to learn by watching those who have had successful experience.

School systems have recognized this need by granting visiting days to the teachers. As a rule these visiting days are taken in a haphazard manner. Teachers visit other teachers and other school systems with no clear idea of what they wish to secure from the visit. They often arrive unannounced and find that some change has been made in the usual program so that they are unable to see what they need most. They usually go without the company of principal or supervisor so that no mutual discussion of the relation of what they see to their own work is possible. Such visiting is rather fruitless.

Some school systems have attempted to provide this kind of opportunity by staging "demonstrations" of a particular phase of work to which a number of teachers are invited. This method is sometimes valuable in showing how a particular method should be developed. On the whole, however, we are obliged to admit that the situation is usually an artificial one, somewhat regulated for the occasion. It does not give the visiting teachers an opportunity to see the actual classroom conditions as they are worked out during an entire day. He can get no picture of the attitudes and habits which pupils are acquiring by means of a teacher's philosophy of education which is developed into a coherent school program.

The necessity of a demonstration school—So far then, our argument runs that observation of good practices is one way of learning teaching technique, that observation needs to be continued after a teacher leaves normal school and that sporadic visiting or isolated "demonstrations" do not afford the opportunities desired.

It is maintained, therefore, that the best way to accomplish the results aimed at is to organize one of the regular schools of a city as a demonstration school. The purpose of such a school should be to carry into action the courses of study including methods and procedures adapted by the school system. The equipment and organization of the school should be comparable to what is found in other schools of the city. In other words, the school will not be a model in the sense that the building, equipment, supplies, etc., are all that can be desired. Rather,

it will be organized to show the teachers of the city what can be accomplished by means of the efficient handling of pupils by the methods advocated by the school officials of the city. Nor is the purpose of such a school to do much experimenting except as any school ought to have an experimental spirit. If a school system wishes to try out absolutely new ideas it might do so in other schools, leaving its demonstration school as a control school illustrating the accepted organization and methods.

Such a plan as that outlined above would make the demonstration school the central agency of teacher training in service. Mention has been made of the need exhibited by the young teacher for further observation and training. This need is not confined to the beginner. Experience in a classroom does not *ipso facto* cause improvement in a teacher's technique. A teacher who has developed a wrong philosophy of education or undesirable habits does not improve by mere experience. On the contrary, the very laws of habit make it difficult for him to change the viewpoint and the actions which have been followed for years. If any transformation is to be effected it is necessary for him to see what can be accomplished with the new ideas. Reading leaves him skeptical or scornful. Demonstration alone will convince him that improvement is possible. Thus the demonstration school should be an agency of teacher self-criticism and development. It should stimulate objective judgment and build up a habit of scientific study.

Status of city demonstration schools—It is impossible to make a complete survey of all the school systems in the country to ascertain how many have demonstration schools. An investigation has been made, however, of the cities having a population of 100,000 and over. These cities because of their size and resources are expected to lead the procession. Consequently, a study of their practice in this matter should give us an idea of the opinion of educators concerning the benefits of such a step.

There are sixty-eight cities in the United States with a population of 100,000 and over. A questionnaire was sent to the superintendent of schools in these cities. The following five questions were asked:

1. Do you maintain a demonstration school for the training of teachers in service?
2. How long has such a school been operated?
3. Do teachers in the school receive any extra compensation for service in the school?
4. What procedure has been used to make the school an agency for the improvement of teaching?
5. What specific advantages or disadvantages have you discovered in operating a demonstration school?

The letter accompanying this questionnaire explained that the writer was not interested in demonstration schools used *only* in connection with training or prospective teachers in a city normal or training school. If such a school is also used for the training of teachers in service request was made that information regarding it be included.

Of the sixty-eight cities in this classification replies were received from fifty-three. Of this number fourteen are operating a demonstration school for the improvement of teachers in service either in connection with a city training school or as a distinct educational agency where no city training school exists. The following six cities report a demonstration school in connection with the city training school:

	When Organized
Boston, Massachusetts	
Cleveland, Ohio	1910
Dayton, Ohio	1925
Kansas City, Kansas	1913
Kansas City, Missouri.....	
St. Louis, Missouri.....	1910

The following eight cities report a demonstration school independent of a city training school:

	When Organized
Akron, Ohio (Cooperates with Akron University).....	1923
Houston, Texas	1922
Los Angeles, California (Cooperates with University of California)	1925
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	1924
Minneapolis, Minnesota (Two schools).....	1924
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	1924
Trenton, New Jersey.....	1923
Washington, D. C.	1925

The following four cities report variations of the demonstration school idea which ought to be mentioned:

Baltimore, Maryland, inaugurated in October, 1925, after-school demonstration courses in centers in various places over the city. The demonstrations are planned by the assistant superintendent and the grade supervisors and follow teaching methods to be found in the courses of study. About 60 percent of the teachers have registered for this demonstration work with the expectation that credit will be received towards salary increases.

Denver, Colorado, has a "curriculum school" run cooperatively by the city and the University of Denver. The purpose is "to carry on a program of experimentation in all matters appertaining to the development of courses of study in the elementary field." Teachers are placed in this school for periods of from one to three years and then sent to other schools in order to spread the influence of the work.

Grand Rapids, Michigan, reports an "experimental school" just organized (1925) which teachers are to visit.

Newark, New Jersey, organized a demonstration school in February, 1925, "for the purpose of illustrating the method and results desired in penmanship work" as a part of the work of a regular school. Teachers are invited to visit this school "not alone to see writing lessons, but also the application of penmanship in the regular school work."

Recency of demonstration schools—An examination of the dates given for the organization of the fourteen regular demonstration schools reported shows that most of these schools are of recent origin. In fact all eight of the communities that have organized schools independent of a city training school have done so since 1922. Two cities that have city normal schools have organized demonstration schools in 1925, while the others have had such schools for a longer period. It has already been pointed out that the demonstration school was recognized as a necessary part of the training of teachers by teacher training institutions long before it was recognized as a necessary part of teacher training in service.

Payment of teachers—Of the fourteen cities reporting demonstration schools, the following seven, or fifty percent, have provisions for giving extra compensation to teachers in the demonstration school:

City	Compensation Provision
Los Angeles	\$50 per month beyond regular schedule.
Milwaukee	\$10, \$20 or \$30 per month extra.
Minneapolis	\$100 per year extra.
Philadelphia	\$800 more when maximum is reached.
Trenton	\$100 per year extra.
Cleveland	\$200 per year extra.
Dayton	\$100 per year extra.

In the four cities reporting variations of demonstration schools, Baltimore pays demonstration teachers \$100 per year extra; the University of Denver pays \$150 extra to the "curriculum school" teachers, while Grand Rapids and Newark appear to have no arrangement for extra compensation.

Thus of the eighteen cities in the entire list nine, or fifty percent, have provision for extra compensation.

Procedure—It is evident from the answers to the questionnaire that several of the demonstration schools are too young to have worked out definite procedures for visiting which have been tested by experience. Some cities, especially those that use a teacher training demonstration school for the teachers in service, simply report that teachers are granted visiting days for such observation. Three cities, namely, Akron, Cleveland, and Minneapolis, conduct the demonstration school on Saturday forenoon so that other teachers may visit when their own schools are not in session. In these cities a regular schedule is prepared for visiting teachers so that they can see exactly what kind of an exercise is being conducted in each room. In Akron, an interesting deviation from the usual practice has been tried. This consists of having teachers from other buildings take charge of demonstration classes, thus affording an opportunity to recognize a meritorious piece of work wherever discovered.

In Philadelphia teachers are allowed one visit each term without loss of salary. A card of application is sent to the demonstration school and approved by the principal. The school received about 3000 visitors during its first year.

In Trenton teachers are assigned to visit by the director of elementary schools either after the recommendation of a supervisor or a principal or by request of the teacher. New teachers are sent early in the school year. Definite conferences are held after visitation at which the visitors for a certain period, demonstration teachers and supervisors, are present. Visitors are encouraged to ask questions and to criticize in order that objective discussion may develop.

Houston reports that teachers are selected by groups by supervisors. The supervisors visit with the teachers and participate in the conference held after the visit.

If the demonstration school is to accomplish the purposes of its existence the technique of its use will have to be thought out carefully. Mere visiting by teachers of a city will probably do some good but more than this must be done to secure the results that are possible. The demonstration school must be articulated with the supervisory force of the city so that there will be a unity of purpose. It must be an integral part of the whole scheme for improvement of teacher service. Visiting should be controlled in order that definite ends may be accomplished.

Visiting should be followed up by conferences or other means to see that the things seen are thoroughly understood. Visiting teachers should be encouraged to criticize and ask questions to the end that the demonstration school may become the means of fostering a scientific attitude towards education. A scientific attitude does not accept truth because of its age or its origin. It demands proof and is always ready to change when something is discovered which proves to be better than the old.

Results—All of the cities that have had demonstration schools long enough to warrant a sound judgment claim that much benefit has come from the operation of such a school. Some of the definite advantages mentioned by the city superintendents answering the questionnaire are as follows:

1. It serves as a clearing-house for the good principles of instruction used by the teachers of the city.
2. It helps the new teacher to get in step with the system.
3. It has proven valuable in helping teachers to overcome personal weakness and in stimulating resourcefulness and an attitude of appreciation for originality, initiative and excellent service.
4. We are now able to guarantee that teachers on their visiting day may see worthwhile work.
5. It gives definite, concrete illustrations of what the supervisors wish to get across.

6. Has aroused wide interest in classroom problems on part of entire elementary system.

7. We regard the observation school as a necessity in our program—just as a laboratory would be a necessity in a science course. Large numbers of teachers come for regular observation and many more for special observations. There are many difficulties connected with this program. Under ordinary circumstances the staff changes rapidly, as teachers grow in this stimulating environment. Demonstration must be progressive enough to be stimulating, and conservative enough to be welcomed by the majority. One difficulty is that of understanding the significance of any given unit of work. Discussion under the guidance of competent teachers is hard to get time for, but is enormously fruitful.

Conclusion—From the standpoint of theory the writer has attempted to prove:

1. That a teacher's training needs to be continued after he begins to teach.
2. That the teacher needs to see approved practices in action.
3. That desultory visiting will not bring about the desired results.
4. That better results will be secured if the school system can organize a demonstration school in which such observation can be properly directed.

From the standpoint of practice a questionnaire sent to sixty-eight cities with a population of 100,000 and over shows:

1. That six cities use a demonstration school administered by a city teachers' training school for training of teachers in service.
2. That eight cities have demonstration schools separate from teacher training institutions.
3. That four other cities have partial demonstration plans.
4. That the demonstration school idea has been growing recently, all eight of the cities in Item 2 above having organized their schools since 1922.
5. That 50 percent of the cities give extra compensation to demonstration school teachers.
6. That procedure varies. Some have visiting by request, others have selected visiting. Some have Saturday morning classes. The need for a follow-up conference is emphasized.
7. That cities feel that the results justify the claim that such schools are agencies of teacher stimulation and improvement.

CHAPTER IV

WEEK-DAY RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

A DISCUSSION OF ITS HISTORY, CURRENT PRACTICES AND A BIBLIOGRAPHY,¹ FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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I. HISTORY AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT

THE first quarter of the twentieth century witnessed a renewed interest in the problems of religion and religious education. On every hand are many evidences of this religious renaissance. The agnosticism of the last half of the nineteenth century had been gradually replaced by an attitude of inquiry and investigation. The products of the public schools were criticised for their lack of reverence, morality, and religious experience. To meet the positive wave of religion and the negative wave of criticism, schoolmen began to inquire into the current practices of the home and church for training children in religion and imparting the moral standards of religious teachings. It had been generally conceded that their practices were inefficient and ineffective.

In all probability the first and most outstanding attempt to overcome these deficiencies, which had been discovered, was the Gary, Indiana, plan for week-day religious education.

In the fall of 1913, Mr. Wirt offered to release pupils to the churches for religious instruction. The pastors promptly accepted this offer and in the fall of 1914 week-day religious education was initiated. (9: 35.)

This plan was made possible because of the unique school organization which Superintendent Wirt was enabled to work out in the new and rapidly growing city of Gary. Statistics from the Gary schools from 1917 to date indicate a healthy growth in attendance and point conclusively to the fact that the program is functioning in a large way. It is, of course, understood that attendance is voluntary. The following figures show the steady growth in enrolment in the Gary school:

Year	Schools	Total Enrolment
1917-1918.....	3	800
1918-1919.....	7	2100
1919-1920.....	8	3100
1920-1921.....	8	3750
1921-1922.....	8	3100
1922-1923.....	8	3500
1923-1924.....	8	4300
1924-1925.....	7	4550
1925-1926.....	7	4800

¹ Numbers in parentheses after quotation or reference refer to number of book as listed in bibliography and page on which reference appears.

In 1917-1918 the ministerial association of Van Wert, Ohio, investigated the problem of providing week-day religious instruction for the children of that city. The laws of Ohio permit the schoolrooms to be used for religious instruction. The ministerial association provided teachers for three of the four elementary schools to teach week-day religious education. School time was used and the school enrolled about a thousand pupils. (13.)

A third plan was used in Batavia, Illinois. (15: 625-629.) This plan differed materially from the other two plans. In Gary the pupils were excused to go to a convenient center where a community effort provided religious instruction. In Van Wert the school buildings were used during school time. In Batavia the pupils were excused on Thursday afternoon to attend the church of their choice. Arrangements were made with the school authorities to have those pupils dismissed who desired such instruction.

There are 725 children in eight schools of Batavia, and of these all but 15 now have chosen some church and receive religious instruction on Thursday. (9: 38.)

From these humble beginnings the work has advanced by leaps and bounds until schools are now established in practically every state in the union. In 1922 Shaver reported on 324 schools. (27: 84-142.) A later survey seems to indicate that there are about a thousand week-day schools in operation in the United States.

The type of school for religious instruction varies according to the needs and problems of the locality. The community school is organized on the basis of the community needs and facilities. Centers may be established and interdenominational efforts enlisted to carry the program through. In Batavia and other similar centers the denominational plan is used and each denomination is made responsible for the religious instruction of its own contingency. A modification of this last form is found in those cities where denominational centers are established on a community basis. In this type of administration each denomination acts independently in determining the administration of religious instruction for their own adherents.

Because religious instruction has been prohibited as a part of secular education by constitutional provisions, by statutory prohibition, and by court decisions these three well developed plans have been inaugurated to care for the religious training of the youth. The first step in any plan is have the pupils excused from school at stated periods so as to enable them to attend classes in religious instruction in some neighboring church or community center. The second type, where state laws or prejudices do not exist, permits religious instructors to come into the school during school time and to give instructions

to those pupils desiring the work. A third plan, worked out in New York City and elsewhere, provides religious instruction outside of school hours.

II. THE AIMS OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

In these days of the scientific study of education the innovator must set up very definite objectives. Lewis and Munro state:

The real aim therefore may be stated thus: To assist the child in organizing the experiences of his growing life and in developing habits of conduct in accordance with Christian ideals, and in undergirding this conduct with Christian motives. (8: 12.)

After studying carefully the objectives of week-day religious education Lotz summarizes the findings of his survey in the following words:

A wide variety of objectives characterize the week-day church schools. These objectives indicate no general agreement as to what the week-day church schools might be expected to accomplish. They do agree, however, on the subject-matter to be taught the child. There is a general feeling that the Bible should constitute the major part of the course of study. A few objectives are definite, but the great majority are too general to guide educational procedure in planning and executing the program and for purposes of measuring results. Too many objectives, and even more programs, are book or material-centered instead of pupil-centered. In no case has the attempt been made to classify objectives according to immediate and ultimate objectives. A large number of objectives would serve their purpose better if they were broken up into smaller sections. The need for something better in religious education is increasingly felt and this need is making itself vocal in the objectives of the week-day church schools. An honest attempt by teachers, pastors, directors, and supervisors to redefine and restate clearly and definitely the objectives of the week-day church schools and to carefully relate them to the programs of the schools would contribute much to the success of the schools and to the satisfaction of all concerned. (8: 76-77.)

Betts discusses the problem of aims from the standpoint of the scientific investigator and the practical administrator and enumerates nine fundamental aims as follows:

1. To meet the universal need and increasing demand for dynamic religion to act against the widespread immorality and deterioration of ethical standards characteristic of the present.
2. To give religion its rightful place in the whole scheme of the child's development and education and so insure its presence as a working principle in later life and character.
3. To secure the time and frequency necessary for lodging the religious information, for training the religious attitudes, and for establishing the religious habits and skills required to vivify and spiritualize the ethical virtues by religious motives.
4. To secure for the teaching of religion such educational standards as will command the respect of the pupil and place the religious aspect of his education on a par with other phases.

5. To bring under the influence of religious instruction many who are at present untouched by the agencies of the church.

6. To build into our national life and ideals the basic biblical and ethical concepts underlying Christianity and commonly accepted by all denominations as the foundation of Christian character and good citizenship.

7. To unite the churches in a great common task, thereby helping to break down the barriers of extreme denominationalism and disunity which now interfere with religious work and progress.

8. To help the church to see that if it is to fulfill its destiny it must change its emphasis and become a teaching instead of a preaching church.

9. To join hands with all other educational agencies of the church, seeking to correlate aims and activities at every point possible to the end that, though the agencies may be many, the program of religious instruction offered the child by the church shall in the end be one. (23: 11-15.)

These statements indicate widely divergent tendencies. In the first place there is a tendency to use the hour of week-day religious education to further traditions and standards set up by the old Sunday school organization. On the other hand there is a desire for scientific investigation and modern religious teachers to set up objective aims in the light of the more recent studies in child psychology and scientific education. These latter are described by the report of Dr. Betts. The former can be seen in Dr. Lotz's survey.

III. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The first step in the organization of a program of week-day religious education is to get the community or some group in the community vitally interested in the project. There must be a force behind the movement to carry it to a successful conclusion. In some places the ministerial association can be interested. The religious leaders may be grouped along denominational lines. There may be an inter-denominational leadership. The type of organization will be largely determined by the nature of the community and the interest aroused.

The plan must be thoroughly reviewed by the superintendent of schools and the board of education should be consulted. Their action is required if school time is to be used. In either case it is always well to discuss the program fully with the community leaders and one's superiors.

The program may be initiated by a local church in the neighborhood of a ward school building. (1: 87.) This type of school generally reaches the adherents of that church. In some cases denominational Sunday school boards have assisted in organizing and maintaining the work. (7: 4.) The close affiliation with the denomination has made denominational literature of value in this type of school. This close connection with the church may have the added disadvantage of widening denominational differences. (1: 89.)

The second type that is used is that which is organized and devoted to the interests of one denomination in the city. It is the denominational community type. This organization is for the children of a given denomination in a city. It involves more than one center, has more than one teacher, and has the added advantages of larger financial backing. (1: 97-98.)

The third and most promising type is the community type of inter-denominational school. Such a school provides a uniform course with uniform supervision for the children of the city. There is no denominational basis for each group. The financial backing is the strongest in this type.

Lewis and Munro call attention to eight advantages of this type of organization.

1. All churches contribute to adequacy, adaptation and accessibility.
2. Grading of school can be identical with public school grading.
3. Fewer and better trained teachers can be employed.
4. Financial outlay is less per pupil enrolled.
5. Religious forces in the community welded into a unit for this work.
6. Standardized work.
7. Parallel work and administration usually enlists aid from public school staff.
8. Enlists larger financial support. (Adapted from 8: 16-18.)

They further call attention to three disadvantages of this plan. These are:

1. Where sectarian consciousness is very pronounced, support is hard to obtain.
2. Produces lack of educational unity in the individual church.
3. Does not promote local church loyalty and participation in the local church program. (8: 18.)

This type of organization is usually managed by a board of religious education. (1: 144, 4: 21, 12: 10, 13: 5, 9: chap. 7.) This board is elected or selected according to some plan worked out on the local field. It is made up of representatives of the various organizations involved, according to a scheme. This board of religious education has various powers and functions. Among those most often mentioned we have:

1. Determine policy of school (7: 10)
2. Vested with final authority (*ibid.*)
3. Employ teachers and director (*ibid.*)
4. Arrange curriculum
5. Raise, budget, and expend money
6. Provide materials and equipment

The board should meet regularly, transact business in an orderly manner and act as the directing agency of the school.

IV. TEACHERS

There are five possible sources which contribute to the teaching staff: volunteers, pastors, directors of religious education, trained professional teachers employed part time, and trained professional teachers employed full time. (8:25.)

In Lotz's survey he determined the occupations of teaching in week-day church schools.

Sixty-three schools report concerning the occupations for their teachers. Thirty-four schools report for all their teachers, twenty for part of their teachers only. Two hundred twenty-three teachers report their occupations; one teacher reports he has no occupation; four hundred eighty-seven teachers do not report.

Occupation of Teachers	Number of Teachers
Housekeeper	99
Pastor	35
Student	28
Public school teacher.....	19
Pastor's wife	9
Teacher in week-day church school.....	9
Director of religious education (Local church).....	7
Director of week-day church schools.....	5
Deaconess	5
Secretary Sunday school association.....	3
Social worker	3
Music teacher	1
Superintendent deaconess home.....	1
Public school superintendent.....	1
Editor Sunday school publications.....	1
Superintendent of women's work.....	1
Total	223

(From 9:300)

Pastors and volunteer workers are in the majority. They are so well represented because they are volunteer workers and these reduce the operating expenses of the school. The pastors are often unable to do the most efficient work because of the many interruptions in their time. (8:25.) Volunteer workers are often poorly trained for the work they have to do. Where the school must rely largely or entirely on volunteer teachers definite schedules must be made out and all possible precautions must be taken to have the teachers follow these schedules.

In many cases it is possible for the school to pay the teachers for part-time service. (1:132.) The investigation of Lotz indicates the salaries paid to teachers in week-day church schools.

One hundred two schools report concerning teachers' salaries. In 66 schools teachers receive no salaries. Ten schools report the salaries by the month, 7 by the year, and 19 by the hour.

SECTION I

Monthly Salary	TEACHERS' SALARIES PER MONTH	Number of Schools
\$50.....		2
75.....		2
100.....		2
115.....		1
200.....		1
25-80 (salary schedule).....		1
60-166 (salary schedule).....		1
Total.....		10

SECTION II

Annual Salary	TEACHERS' SALARIES PER YEAR	Number of Schools
\$ 25.....		1
100.....		1
200.....		1
450.....		1
1000.....		1
1500.....		1
1800.....		1
Total.....		7

SECTION III

Hourly Salary	TEACHERS' SALARIES PER HOUR	Number of Schools
\$.50.....		2
.75.....		1
1.00.....		6
1.25.....		2
1.50.....		2
2.00.....		3
.75 to 1.00 (salary schedule).....		1
1.50 to 3.50 (salary schedule).....		1
2.00 to 5.00 (salary schedule).....		1
Total.....		19

(9: 257-258)

These figures are valuable in designating salaries and in making up budgets.

The study further indicates that the professional training required to teach in the week-day schools varies from none whatever to graduation from recognized schools. In a bulletin issued recently by Mary Elizabeth Abernathy of the Gary school we find the following lucid statement about requirements for teachers in that city:

1. Normal or college training or their equivalent
2. Special religious training
3. Public school teaching experience
4. Sufficient musical ability to conduct the music for the classes
5. Those personal characteristics which make the teacher attractive to children
6. A genuine religious experience

Such an ideally qualified staff is only possible where there are sufficient funds to make a position in the week-day school desirable

as a vocation. It should be a goal. With newly organized schools and where sufficient funds are not available most, if not all, of the teachers must be volunteers and their training will be manifestly inadequate for a progressive program of religious education.

Some communities attempt to remedy the deficiencies of training by instituting community training schools. (12: 8.) These schools give courses in materials and methods of instruction. They are generally organized to meet the requirements of the community and to prepare for leadership in many lines of religious education. Where seminary students or teachers in religious training institutions are available they make valuable additions to the staff. (4: 8.) The problem of training is largely solved in this case.

V. ROOMS AND EQUIPMENT

The recent development of the whole religious education program in our churches and the even more recent development of this phase of that program find the physical equipment of the church building very inadequate. The problem that confronts the organizer of the week-day school is to find a meeting place that is entirely satisfactory. The following meeting places are described in the readings:

1. Schoolrooms and equipment are used in Ohio (13: 6, 3: 4)
2. Community Religious Education Building (1: 37)
3. Pastor's study (1: 135)
4. Church buildings (1: 135, 5: 26, 4: 6, 11: 17)
5. Y. M. C. A. or Y. W. C. A. (1: 135)
6. Rented halls (1: 135, 11: 17)
7. Settlement houses (1: 135, 11: 17)

The investigation of Lotz shows the same results. In his table of "Buildings Used" (11: 110.) he shows that churches are used by ninety-three schools, public schools by nineteen, parish and community houses by twenty-one with a scattering of frequencies for other accommodations.

The equipment needed closely parallels that used by the public school. (8: 27 ff.) The Abingdon Press made out the following list of necessary supplies. The quantities will depend upon the enrolment. Light airy room, wall pictures, map of Palestine, desks, screens to separate classes where more than one meets in a room, blackboards, sand tables, teacher's desks, cabinets for supplies, book covers, paper, pens, ink, plastelline, crayolas, construction paper, blunt-tipped scissors, a moulding clay, duplicator, penny pictures, model of tabernacle, set of maps, stars and round-topped fasteners, rulers, teacher's records, administrative blanks, paste, reference library, etc.

Most of the schools find it best to furnish all supplies including the texts. The budget should be made with this in mind. The arguments

for this should be apparent to the school man. Evidence points clearly to the fact that best results follow when supplies and texts are furnished. (9: 96-97.)

One of the greatest obstacles Lotz found in his investigation was the poor records. His discussion of records and record blanks should be read by anyone who is contemplating the organization of a week-day school. (9: 220 ff.) Forms used in the Gary school are found in reference eleven.

In keeping with the religious tone needed for the successful pursuit of the program of week-day religious education our most recent investigators are paying particular attention to the pictures on the walls, the musical instruments, the quality of the music used in the class, the seating facilities, and the heating and lighting arrangements. School men are already conversant with these problems and they need but scanty attention here. Suffice it to say that art and melody of the highest grade should be used, and that the child's physical well-being should never be neglected.

VI. RELATION TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

The problem of hours of meetings, days of meeting, dismissal from school and allotment of time are community problems. With the Gary plan or a platoon plan, arrangements can be made with some facility. The traditional school day admits of less flexibility. It is the practice to give one or two hours a week for this work. The amount of time given and the hours of the day will depend upon the action of the school board and the arrangement that can be made with the local churches or the religious board of education to handle the children.

The usual procedure is to get the community interested in the problem. The financial backing is scientifically determined and the facilities are canvassed. The program is worked out in detail. The matter is laid before the superintendent and the board of education. Their action will furnish the cue for further modifications and for the program. One or two hours are given per week. (2: 11.) The attendance is optional.

Certain concessions are usually sought from the school board, particularly the release of the children during school time. . . . Usually, however, the public school schedule is so arranged that pupils who attend the church school classes miss only a play period, a free study period, or an assembly period. (8: 22.)

In some cases where statutory or constitutional provisions prevent, the class meets before school (2: 1), after school (2: 11), or on

Saturday (1:137). The remainder meet during school time. The following plans are now in use:

1. The Gary school meets two hours a week during school time. The play periods are given up for those who elect religious education. (11:14.)
2. The Kansas City school meets two hours a week during school hours. (14:4.)
3. The Van Wert school meets two hours a week in the public school during school time. (13:6.)
4. The Rochester school meets once a week during school time. (15:2.)
5. The Batavia school meets every Thursday afternoon during the public school sessions. (1:95-96.)

In practically all cases the public school authorities require the parents to make written application for the dismissal of the children. In some cases there is no further relation between the week-day school and the public school than this request. Some school authorities require attendance reports. (14:9.) (11:23.) In other instances the superintendent requires a monthly report of work, attendance, and deportment. (11:20.) This inter-relation must be worked out on the field and will be subject to such provisions as are made between the two boards and their rules regulating religious education.

In some states—notably North Dakota, Iowa, Colorado, and Indiana—credit may be given for approved Bible study. The details of these plans are subject to state statutes or regulations and must be given careful study by administrators in such states, when they want a correlated program.

Attendance, regularity, punctuality, home study, and such administrative questions are bound to arise. Wise leadership, the thorough education of the constituency, the close cooperation of home, school, and week-day school will exercise the wisest leadership and the most diplomatic procedure. These questions must be worked out for the community. They can be solved best where the community is sold to the week-day school idea. The hardest struggle will come where antagonism assails every move and thwarts every plan.

VII. THE CURRICULUM

The academic student attempts to set up a curriculum in terms of the scientific study of the child and of aims and objectives. Since week-day religious education is so new a venture the current practice has been to take ready made materials and adapt these to the instruction process. Little attention has been paid to the grading, adaptability, or suitability of these materials for achieving definite and well worked-out aims. In the survey made by Shaver the following are the data reported from 314 schools:

Name of Course	Number of Schools Using this Course Only	Number of Schools Using this Course Along with Others
Bible	21	27
Gary leaflets	27	10
Abingdon	41	37
Scribner's	2	21
University of Chicago.....	9	16
Westminster	13	7
Keystone	3	1
Lutheran	10	6
Christian nurture	12	4
Roman Catholic	1	0
Other Sunday school literature.....	5	4
Protestant Teachers' Association.....	13	0
Latter Day Saints.....	27	0
Brooklyn Sunday School Ass'n.....	3	0
Graded Bible Stories (Mutch).....	4	0
Toledo course	24	0
Lansing syllabus	1	0
Oklahoma City syllabus.....	1	0

This table clearly indicates that the leaders have been textbook-minded rather than pupil-minded. (27: 120.)

To overcome this difficulty Betts¹ has set up seven principles which should underlie curriculum making for week-day religious education. This was one of the first attempts to construct a curriculum on a scientific basis. His seven principles are:

1. What we put into the curriculum first exists as culture-material evolved as a part of collective human experience.
2. The cream of this culture material is to be selected and placed in order for our children to learn—that is, to live.
3. Subject-matter, the materials of the curriculum, possesses no intrinsic value.
4. In order to fulfill its function the subject-matter of the curriculum must become a part of the immediate experience of the learner.
5. Religious development involves the same mental powers and processes that are used in other departments of experience.
6. Religion involves the whole life and not just a department of it.
7. There are certain great fundamental needs common to all normal religious experience regardless of individual differences of type and character.

In the more recent survey made by Lotz it has been determined that textbooks are still the core of the curriculum. His summary and conclusions about the problem are as follows:

The following lesson series and individual textbooks are most frequently used in the week-day church schools: Abingdon Week-Day Religious Education Texts; Lutheran Graded Series; Catechism (various editions); Christian Nurture Series (Episcopal); and the Gary Leaflets. The first and the last of these series are non-denominational, the second and fourth are denominational. A variety of catechisms are used such as the Lutheran, Westminster, and Baltimore.

¹ Betts, G. H., *The Curriculum of Religious Education*, New York, Abingdon Press, 1920.

Practically all week-day church schools use basic textbooks but comparatively few use supplementary textbooks. The Abingdon Series is most frequently used for basic textbooks in ten out of twelve grades; equally frequent with the Gary leaflets in first grade; and the Lutheran Graded Series is used most frequently in first grade. Many of the individual units in the various series are not used in the grades for which they were intended. In some instances a textbook prepared and intended for one grade is used over a range of five or six grades.

Many week-day church schools are not content with the traditional lesson material used in the Sunday schools. This dissatisfaction with present lesson materials leads to experimentation in lesson writing. Quite a number of these lesson writers hope to see their lessons in print. Some of these attempts are creditable, others are not.

The Abingdon Week-Day Religious Education Texts are the most frequently used texts in the week-day church schools. This series is used exclusively or in part in practically one third of the week-day schools surveyed. These schools include probably 50 percent or more of the total number of pupils enrolled in the schools surveyed.

The following versions of the Bible are used in the week-day church schools: American Revised (Standard Edition); King James (Authorized); Douay (Roman Catholic); Revised; and Scofield. The American Revised and King James versions are most frequently used.

Week-day pupils engage in various kinds of activity, such as handwork, dramatics, play, giving money and service projects. The three types of activity most frequently used are: handwork, dramatics, and service projects. Handwork is considerably overstressed, while dramatics and service projects are much neglected.

In general, the curricula and activities provided for the week-day church schools are of a higher educational grade than those provided for the Sunday schools. While it is true that a considerable number of denominational week-day church schools are using their regular denominational Sunday school lessons, and while it is true that several inferior week-day series have been thrown upon the market in the last few years, it is also true that several high-grade lesson series as well as individual texts are now available for use in the week-day church schools. (11: 293-294.)

It may be worthwhile to examine the material now available for week-day religious instruction. The first attempt to get definite material was made at Gary and published by the Abingdon Press under the name of the Gary leaflets. These leaflets were graded and prepared for definite grades of school work. (4: 19, 3: 4.) The Presbyterian board of publication at Philadelphia published a series of departmental graded lessons which were used largely by schools. More recently they have published a series of week-day texts which have been written by experts and are carefully graded. The materials are based upon the Bible and church history.

The Baptist publishing house at Philadelphia published the Keystone lessons which followed closely the Sunday school lessons. The Episcopal church at New York published the Christian Nurture Series. (1: 141.) This series contains about twenty volumes and is carefully graded for the school. In discussing this series Betts says:

A most rigid plan of organization obtains uniformly throughout the entire Christian Nurture Series. Every lesson is based on five great correlated aims: (1) that of furnishing the child with necessary information, (2) storing the memory

with Bible and other religious material, (3) the grounding of church loyalty, (4) establishing habits of devotion, and (5) training to different forms of Christian service. The materials used are chiefly Biblical. (*Op. cit.*, 16.)

The Unitarian publishers of Boston attempted to interpret their ethical religion through the Beacon Series. The materials are drawn from history, literature, nature, and biography. The books are well written and the materials attempt to correlate religion with life and the natural processes. The aim is religio-moral.

The University of Chicago has made a distinct contribution to the field in its Constructive Series. Under the able leadership of the late President Burton, Dean Mathews, and Professor Soares, the University of Chicago Press has presented some twenty volumes representing ripe scholarship and careful preparation and publication. The books are based upon Biblical material and practical Christian ethics. They are carefully graded and follow the methods of modern psychology and pedagogy.

The most used series comes from the Abingdon Press. In Lotz's survey we find these words: "The Abingdon Week-Day Religious Education texts . . . are more widely used than any other lesson series." (9:263.) Under the leadership of Dr. Betts and his Northwestern University colleagues, the Abingdon Press has published some forty books for use in the week-day school. The books have been written by authorities in the field and every attempt has been made to employ scientific principles of education. They are mechanically attractive and well bound. Four of the volumes are for use in the pre-school age and deal with stories, songs, hymns, prayers, and games. They are adapted to the kindergarten age and may be used at home or in the kindergarten.

For the elementary school a *First Primary Book in Religion* interprets life for the child in terms of an omnipresent God and is used in grade 1. In grade 2 a *Second Primary Book in Religion* and *The Good Neighbor* enrich the child's notion of God and Jesus and his knowledge of Old and New Testament literature. For the third grade, *Everyday Lessons in Religion* and *The Golden Scepter* contain the appeal of Biblical materials for the child of eight to ten. In the fourth grade the *Tales of Golden Deeds* and *Boys and Girls in Other Lands* enrich the child's life and set up practical activities that are motivated by Christian ideals. The latter attempts to increase the child's knowledge of the part played by the Christian religion in the world. In the fifth grade a *Travel Book for Juniors* introduces the child to Biblical geography. In the sixth grade *Rules of the Game* and *Followers of the Marked Trail* make their appeal to the hero-

worshipping lad. Most of these last named books are accompanied by a teacher's manual which contains much supplementary material of value.

For the junior high school, grade 7, there are three books, *Jesus among His Neighbors*, *Citizen, Jr.*, and the *Geography of Biblical Lands*. In the eighth grade there is an attempt on the one hand to apply religion to life situations and on the other hand to correlate the study with the social sciences. *Living At Our Best* and *Hebrew Life and Times* are used in this connection. In the ninth grade the child is introduced to the life and times of Jesus and the history of the early Christian church.

In the senior high school, for grades 10, 11, and 12, the maturer minds, riper judgments, and keener intellects are introduced to problems of conduct, the philosophy of religion, and historical bases for modern Christian living. In these years we have the story and content of the Bible, the leaders of the church, the application of the teachings of Jesus, the history of the church, and three books which discuss the vocational implications of the practical side of Christianity.

These texts represent scholarship at its high tide and are based upon wide experience with public education and religious education.

Practically all of the denominational boards of publication have books and materials for the week-day school. In many instances purely denominational materials only are published and the other publications are used for general instructional purposes. The principal who is desirous of organizing a week-day school should canvass the materials carefully and select from them those which are best adapted to his community.

VIII. PROGRAM

It is especially important to note that the program of the week-day school is of paramount importance. There is a tendency on the one hand to give too much time to purely the instructional side of it, or, on the other hand, to fill in the time with moralizing, singing, and the like. If the length of the period is about an hour, the classroom activities should care for at least four phases of activity: (1) worship, (2) study period, (3) lesson period, (4) expressional activities.

The worship period should last from five to ten minutes and should be used for singing appropriate songs, reading a scripture lesson, and the offering of prayer. In all three of these phases of worship, careful planning and appropriate selections are especially important. The season, the lesson, the age of the child are factors which should influence the selections.

A study period of from five to seven minutes can be utilized to learn new songs, portions of scripture, or reviewing the lesson.

The lesson period of from fifteen to twenty-five minutes should be a real lesson period, utilizing the best principles of pedagogy.

The expressional period of from ten to twenty minutes should be used for pupil activities. Those things which have been studied and discussed should be carried over into manual activities, construction work, dramatics, projects and the like. Careful planning of the lesson hour and promptness in carrying it out will do much to solve problems of discipline and will greatly enhance the value of this type of training.

IX. SUMMARY

To many of the school men of America it is perfectly evident that there is a crying need for larger opportunities for the study of religion and morals. To meet these needs and to conform to constitutional and statutory enactments the week-day religious education program is offered for the serious contemplation of school men and church men. The foregoing pages have outlined the history of this movement and have attempted to indicate a method for the administration of the plan. A well defined technique is being developed and hundreds of schools are now being operated. Scientifically minded students have canvassed the result of these schools and there is great unanimity to the effect that these schools function largely in bringing to the child a religious consciousness and religious experiences which they might otherwise never have had. If elementary principals set up character as coordinate with attainment and achievement and if week-day religious instruction can be made to function vitally in enriching and ennobling character, then indeed, it merits the attention of every elementary-school principal in America.

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CHAPTER V

THE PRINCIPALS' TEACHING LOAD

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IN ORDER to determine the existence of a definite basis used by superintendents throughout the United States for determining the teaching load of elementary principals, a questionnaire was sent to about 114 superintendents throughout the United States. The cities selected were of two types in size: Those employing more than 100 teachers within the school system; and those employing 99 or less in their system. The following is an exact copy of the questionnaire submitted to these superintendents:

MY DEAR SUPERINTENDENT:

At the request of my Board of Education, I am asking you to fill the blanks below:

City..... State.....
 Superintendent
 No. of teachers—Grades 1 to 8 inclusive.....
 No. of grade buildings.....
 No. of grade principals.....
 No. of grade principals giving full time to supervision.....
 Basis (number of teachers) upon which principal is allowed full time for supervision

Of the 114 questionnaires submitted, 82 answers were received; 31 replies were from cities employing more than 100 teachers and 51 were from cities employing less than 100 teachers. Several tabulations have been made from the replies to these questionnaires and a number of conclusions have been drawn.

From the 31 replies received from cities employing over 100 teachers, the following facts have been tabulated:

Cities represented	31
Total number of grade school buildings.....	448
Total number grade principals.....	289
Total number principals given full time for supervision.....	242

Of these 31 cities only 6 report that they have no definite basis for the allowance of time for supervision. Twenty-five cities have a definite basis. These bases range from a minimum of 8 rooms to 30 rooms before allowing a principal his time for supervision.

It has also been found in the compilation that 13 cities employ a less number of principals than they have elementary grade buildings, from which it will be concluded that the supervision of more than

one building is assigned to a principal, or that they are employing what we term a "supervising principal." From the reports of the 31 cities employing more than 100 teachers, and it was endeavored to get the returns from cities not excessively large, it was found that there were a total of 5313 teachers employed. This makes an average of between 11 and 12 teachers per building in these 31 cities.

In the 51 cities employing less than 100 teachers, the tabulation shows that there were a total of 299 buildings employing 274 principals, 52 of whom were given their full time for supervision and 3 were allowed half time for supervision. Of the 52 cities, 28 reported having no basis for determination of the amount of teaching and supervision a principal shall do; while 23 reported a definite basis. This basis ranges from 6 teachers to 39 teachers per building. The 51 cities employed a total of 2698 teachers. This gives an average of 9 teachers per building.

It would be judged from the compilation above that the larger the school system, the more concentrated the school population becomes in teaching centers, and that due to this concentration, principals are given time for supervision.

It further shows that the minimum number of teachers, in order to allow a principal full time for supervision, is higher in the larger cities than in the smaller. It also shows that the problem has evidently been faced in these larger cities and of necessity solved according to the distribution of their buildings—no definite basis for the determination of the teaching load of the principal being evident, nor uniformity of administrative policy.

The data show that a majority of the principals in the larger cities are given their full time for supervision and are not required to do any teaching, although 156 of these principals evidently attend to the supervision of more than one building. It is apparent that with the growth of the administrative problems the supervision passes from the centralization of the superintendent's office to a centralization with the building principal. It is apparent that in the smaller cities, although there are only 274 principals employed for 299 buildings, that only a few are allowed their time for supervision. Those who are allowed their time for supervision are employed in school systems ranging anywhere from 36 teachers having 4 grade buildings and 4 principals to 91 teachers in 11 buildings with 6 principals.

This shows definitely that there is no policy at the present time among administrators relative to the teaching load of elementary principals.

CHAPTER VI

AN EXPERIMENT IN THE FOSTERING OF LOVE FOR MUSIC

GEORGIA M. BROWN

Principal, William R. Belknap School, Louisville, Kentucky

AS A RESULT of observation and growing conviction that the public school music had not done its part in making America musical, and that we were pursuing an illusory aim in the schools, that of furnishing every child with the complete equipment of the professional musician, the supervisor of music of the Louisville schools, Jay W. Fay, modified the objectives of the music department and set for his goal the fostering of such a love for music that every child would want to hear more of it and make more of it after leaving school. This involved great changes in method and procedure and involved the possibility of lowered standards. To obviate any charge of fostering musical illiteracy, and also to meet the idea of individual differences, he conceived the plan of providing at some point in the child's school career, the opportunity for those of larger musical capacity of getting all the technical training previously offered and more. The point selected was the fifth grade, and the administrative problem was solved by having the fifth "A" and the fifth "B" recite in music at the same time, but in two groups of greater and less musical capacity respectively. For those of greater capacity there was to be provided a special musical experience, for all others, that is for all children prior and subsequent to the fifth grade, and in the slower group of the fifth, there was to be given a course of song singing which was planned to develop a love for music unspoiled by the introduction of technical features which the director was convinced had the effect of killing out a love for music in a large percentage of the children.

In the second semester of the school year of 1924-5, a music project was begun in the Belknap school of Louisville, Kentucky. The fifth "A" consisting of 19 boys and 14 girls and the fifth "B" consisting of 18 boys and 7 girls were thrown together and tested for musical capacity. The tests used were for reproduction of given rhythms, carrying familiar tunes, and making up complementary phrases to given antecedents. Eleven boys and 17 girls were selected as above the average musical capacity and formed into a musical opportunity or accelerated class. The remainder was grouped into an ordinary fifth grade, made up, however, of pupils from the "A" and "B" sections.

When the music period was called, such period being simultaneous for the fifth "A" and the fifth "B" grades, the pupils separated and reformed into the two new groups and were given their lessons in different rooms at the same time. This made possible two music classes without any addition to the regular teaching staff. In this case, however, the music supervisor took charge of the accelerated group and conducted the experiment.

The lower section was given the fifth grade music book (*Progressive, Book II*, Silver, Burdette and Co.) without any technical features whatever and sang the songs on 45 pages. The objective of the class was to arouse a love for music by participation in the singing.

The objectives of the higher section were to enlarge the usual singing experience, and lay a foundation for specialized technic, the assumptions being that the absence of less musically gifted children would make more rapid progress possible, and that the musical capacities of the more gifted children entitled them to a more specialized type of instruction than the average.

The class met three times a week for periods of thirty minutes. They began singing through *Introductory Music* (Ginn and Co.), relying on the piano and upon the voice of the instructor as an aid to the rapid enlargement of their song singing experience. This book is the regular text for third grade in the Louisville schools.

In addition to the usual features of musical technic (note values, rests, sharps, flats, etc.) considerable attention was given to aural recognition of the sequence, repetition, inversion, semi-cadence, final cadence and the tone of repose (doh). The pupils learned to identify the dominant and the tonic chords first by their functions, and later calling them by their names.

Then in the same way the children were taken through *Elementary Music* (Ginn and Co.), regular text of fourth grade, which adds the eighth note and the dotted quarter to the whole, dotted half, half, and quarter notes of the preceding book, and makes a beginning of two part singing. By this time there was a correlation of eye and ear in the identification of the features of musical form mentioned above. Chromatics were also encountered.

The next book to read was *The Progressive Music Series, Book II*, (Silver Burdette and Co.), the regular text of the fifth grade. This book was read to page 145 by the end of the sixteenth week from the beginning of the time of organization. In all, the class encountered 524 songs and sang all stanzas during the semester. No grade in the Louisville schools had ever finished any one of the three books in two consecutive semesters.

During the progress of the class, it was felt that the reading of many English texts at a rather rapid tempo might have an effect upon both the rate and the comprehension of the general reading. It happened that a test had been made at the beginning of the semester using Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test. With a norm of 141 in rate and 9.8 comprehension for the fifth grade, the papers of the pupils were separated to correspond to the two sections and the medians were found to be 135 in rate and 9 in comprehension for the non-opportunity group and 147 in rate and 9 in comprehension for the opportunity group. At the end of the semester the same test was again given to the whole fifth grade and the papers were again sorted into the two groups. The non-opportunity class made a median score of 144 in rate and 10 in comprehension, while the opportunity class made a score of 185 in rate and 13.5 in comprehension. The only variables in the two cases being the musical capacities of the children and the additional reading practice given the opportunity section in the music class.

The success of the opportunity idea has led to its adoption by twenty of the fifty white schools in Louisville this year, and adequate data will soon be on hand as to its effects on a larger scale. Furthermore the Belknap school has adopted as a result of the interest in the opportunity class of last year a wholesale experiment in music promotion, independent of the ordinary school career of the child. To be specific, there are 9 music sections in the school, corresponding roughly to the eight grades above the kindergarten plus the opportunity section of last year. Grades 1, 2, and 3 are in the hands of a capable primary music teacher, grades 3, 4, and 5 under an intermediate music teacher, and grades 6, 7, 8 and the opportunity class in the hands of the regular departmental music teacher. Pupils are to be promoted and demoted according to their ability to carry the music work of the section, with no reference to their status in the academic subjects. The "A" and "B" sections of each grade are taught together.

It is too early to predict any results of the experiment. Homogeneous grades should be able to make greater and more consistent progress, and such is already clearly the case. It is probable that each grade will do the work of its grade, the work of the following grade and the equivalent of half a year in addition without any forcing. This indicates of course that the old requirements were too low, and that under favorable conditions much more extensive work in music can be done than was thought possible. It was suggested during the course of the experiment that when the specially trained children found themselves again with the others they would lose interest in the work which would

be found to be beneath their ability. It so happens that the opportunity children of last year are reciting this year, half of them with the sixth and half with the fifth grade in addition to their opportunity class. Those in the fifth grade rather than lose interest in the work have carried the grade on to the point where it, an ordinary fifth "A" and "B," has outdistanced the 20 accelerated classes of the city. They have become the musical leaders of their little community, just as certain individuals in life become the leaders of any of the larger life communities.

Thus far this year the opportunity class has finished the work of *Progressive, Book II*, has read a part of *Progressive, Book III*, 40 songs in *Junior Laurel* and is having special eye and ear training, preparatory to three part singing.

CHAPTER VII

A STUDY OF SMALL MEXICAN GROUPS

EDITH D. WRIGHT

Principal, Hawthorne School, Houston, Texas

THIS is a study of a special group of Mexican children, in a room by themselves, taught by an American teacher. When these twenty-three children started to school in September, they had a limited vocabulary consisting mostly of a jargon—poor Mexican and poor English. They were not familiar with the nursery rhymes and they knew few English words. Fourteen of the group had attended school previously. In many instances, the teacher used Lee, a fourth grade Mexican boy, as an interpreter.

Age	Grade		Table
	L.	H.	
6	0	0	0
6½	0	0	0 Under age.. 0
7	1	0	1
7½	1	0	1 Normal 4
8	0	2	2
8½	1	1	2 Over age...19
9	2	2	4
9½	2	0	2
10	2	0	2
10½	2	0	2
11	2	1	3
11½	1	0	1
12	0	0	0
12½	0	0	0
13	0	1	1
13½	0	0	0
14	0	2	2
	14	9	23

These children are timid, and they do not seem willing to show originality. They are obedient, but they are willing to sit still and be told what to do. They like to work with colors and to make pretty color combinations. Mrs. Vivian C. Dunn, the teacher, led this group to dramatize the "Three Bears" in late October, because it was such a well-known story. The children selected the big tables for the beds, small chairs for chairs, and used the erasers for the bowls. Mrs. Dunn thought the boys and girls were interested and that they showed some originality in choosing the ones to play, and in the use and arrangement of materials. They talked with each other over the plans.

Mrs. Dunn has observed that, during the free period, these boys and girls cut paper, draw or write numbers on the board, doing only the school work they have been taught to do. There is no effort to create.

Initiative is practically lacking. There is the same docility and obedience, but no effort at planning or meeting new situations. It is very hard to get them to talk, as they seem content to merely sit still, to enjoy the warmth and comfort of the room, and to work at the same task for an unlimited time with their hands.

These children are very primitive and, so far as we can see, do not realize the value of an education, neither do they have any burning desire for an education. If it is cold, they are willing to stay at home. If it is rainy, the same thing is true. If they come late, what is the difference? When you know the home conditions, you cannot blame them for not coming out in the cold and the rain. They have few clothes, and few conveniences. It is easier to sit around or stay in bed than to come to school.

We felt at Hawthorne school that there must be some explanation for this seeming lack of originality, initiative, and ambition. Only three out of the twenty-three had anything in mind for the future; one wished to be a mechanic, one a motorcycle "cop" and one wished to sell fruit. This is one explanation, given to me by a prominent Mexican who is educated and who understands the conditions in Mexico:

In Mexico the children and young people are taught perfect politeness. They wait for the elder person to tell them what to do. They are at the command of the host or hostess. They do not feel free to do or to act for themselves, but they must be subservient to older people, or to the one whose guests they are.

The Mexican children come into our schools with this background. They do not know our language. They do not know our customs and their parents most probably have not had an education, or even been to school. It takes time to come to some understanding of what we are trying to teach them, especially so if these primitive people are asked to read the same books, to write the same sentences and to do the same number work that our American children do with their years of civilization as a background.

Mrs. Dunn tried to meet the situation by working out a project. She made the children understand that they could build a house like the adobe ones in Mexico. One boy volunteered to bring the white clay he knew about near his home. Lee again was called to interpret and he told the boys and girls that the teacher would like to see some dishes such as they used in the Mexican homes. Out of this project grew some conversation as to the making of the house and the yards. It is interesting to see the small dishes made of clay, the tortilla table

with the mano. Mrs. Dunn explained the cow's head over the door in terms of bull fights in Mexico, with which the children were familiar. The burro is present with his load, and the automobile with its clay wheels and clay driver shows that the group realizes its value.

VOCABULARY

I	flower	man	grandmother	live
my	grass	boy	mother	like
you	trees	lady	father	write
it	water	girl	brother	see
she		blackboard	sister	get
he		eraser	teacher	wash
her	tops	door		make
	paper	window		work
rope	stove	table	another	cut
dance	match	chair	what	said
room	broom	book		
song	coal	house		
upstairs	marbles	ball	the	ears
box	church	town	a	teeth
office	handkerchief	school		arms
doll		car		hands
brush	dinner	day	at	nose
sometimes	breakfast	dollar	in	hair
up	supper	boards	to	fingers
about	barn	tablet	with	feet
		home		legs
		dishes		cheek
	red	chalk	one	mouth
dog	green	wood	ten	chin
cat	yellow	pencil		eyes
cow	white			
horse	black		read	
bear	blue	milk	am	stand
wolf	orange	coffee	come	sit
donkey	brown	eggs	play	eat
burro		beans	sing	like
rat		cake	going	skip
kitty	shoes	potatoes	go—went	talk
chicks	stockings	cabbage	clap	
ducks	cap	apples	got	
rabbits	coat	bananas	well	
bird	dress	orange	have	
sheep	tie	grapes	ran	
		food	run	
			catch	
			ride—may	

Altogether the project was a success because the children did show that they could do things that they were not told to do.

In the vocabulary, which is a list made up of words used by the whole group, you will see evidence of this work, and you will also note that the words are those worked out in the room to acquaint the

children with their environment. Mrs. Dunn listed the words as she heard them used. She was trying to build up a common, usable vocabulary.

When we began this study we realized that there were speech defects. Jessie Millsaps, a speech arts teacher, gave expert help in diagnosing this trouble, and gave material help in correcting these speech defects. Many of the children in this group speak more distinctly; they have better use of the tongue in speaking the words and the speech capacity has been enlarged. By removing these difficulties, the reading has improved.

REPORT ON THE DEFECT OF SPEECH FOUND AMONG THE MEXICANS¹

In the correction work done in speech, emphasis was placed upon the correction of the commonplace errors in the pronunciation of the element of the English language.

Then scientific principles of production, correct habits of articulation and enunciation were stressed by daily practice and application of vocal gymnastics and phonic drills, striving to produce a proper vocal resonance, a clearer enunciation and a more distinct pronunciation.

It was noted that the vowels were not handled with the correct vocal quantity and placing. Some vowels were elongated beyond their comparative values—pla-ace was used for place; po-o-o-lite for polite. Difficulty was found in producing the short "i," a substitution was made of the long "e"; it became "ēet," yes pronounced "yiz," three called "tr-ra."

Exercises consisting of the proper formation of the vowels with careful tone placement were given. Ah, ā, ē, ō ōo were first uttered upon the singing tone, then with upward and downward inflections. Then a list of practice words containing the individual vowel was used. Care was exercised to secure the proper position of the organ of speech during the emission of the vowel, stressing always an open mouth delivery of the tone.

It was found there was a tendency to place all sounds too far forward in the mouth, the organs at the back being sluggish in the performance of their part in pronunciation, while those in front were over active. Exercises were given to correct this, and to establish a conscious feeling of the activity of the speech organs at the back of the mouth and the pharynx, the back of the tongue, and soft palate being stimulated into greater activity at the proper time.

¹ Prepared by Jessie Millsaps, Director, Speech Clinic, Houston, Texas.

Then exercises were used to bring into play the activity of the middle back and middle of tongue; then the middle front, front and tip of tongue. As the activity of the various parts of the tongue was brought into conscious use by the child, word lists were given to put the now properly moulded sound into practice.

As the vowels are the carrying part, the vehicle of the word, it was necessary to give to these foreigners a clear cut differentiation of the vowels, and a working use of them, through correct placing and production and the application of them in the words.

There was also an insufficient knowledge of the production of the consonants. A careful practice of the sounding of the individual consonants was instituted, the correct organs of speech being accentuated at the proper time. The lists of double consonants were used.

It was noted that there were considerable substitutions made. "Th" was substituted for s: See was pronounced thee: "Z" substituted for s: "Yiz" for yes: "D" for th: "Vid" for with: "D" for "th" again—"dis" for this: "D" for t: "Budder" for butter: "T" for "th"—"turteen" for thirteen: "W" for r—"Weeks" for rocks: "V" for w—"vind" for wind.

In the correction of this, exercises were first given in the careful placing of the vocal organs in the rendition of the specific consonant, and the use of the word list accentuating the proper sounding of the consonant in the word, then the pronunciation of the words in couples contrasting in their proper setting, the two consonants that have been substituted; for instance "d" was substituted for "th." After exercises had been given for the correct emission of the separate sound, and the word lists practiced by the child with the sound in its proper setting, words were given containing first one sound, then the other alternately: this—day; then—den; thin—din, etc.

There was a tendency on the part of the Mexican child to speak the English words with great rapidity, thus not giving time to differentiate the various sounds found in the words—thus slurring and elisions were made, also the cutting off of final consonants, going became "goin'," believe—"b'lieve," etc. Careful drill on final syllables were given and slow, careful pronunciation stressed.

Work on vocal gymnastics and phonic drills should be carried on daily with the careful diagnosing of speech defects with the application of the proper exercise, to remedy the fault, but there should also be a model of good speech ever before the child from which he can pattern his speech, for the spoken language is the result of the process of imitation for "as ye use to hear so ye learn to speak," Roger Aschman says. The foreign born child is handicapped at home and among his playmates by not hearing well-spoken English and his only chance for

good speech lies in his having a teacher who is capable of being his model to pattern his speech after and one who also has training in the fundamentals of speech art, and can thereby help him over the difficulties in mastering the elements that make up good speech.

It will be seen that this is a limited study. The age-grade table shows the great variation in age in each grade. The list of words tells the story of a very limited vocabulary. The observations made make you realize how difficult is the work of teaching these Mexican children. However, these children are worth the effort expended. They have strong characteristics among which is pride in family, a strong attachment to home and the family. These children are polite; they respond to kindness and they do excellent handwork. They are musical, have a strong sense of rhythm, and a love for pretty things.

This leads me to a few conclusions or recommendations in reference to school work for Mexican children. These will be tried out in the near future to see if they are practical.

1. Work for regular attendance. The probation officer is a great help in getting the children in school.

2. Teach the simple rules of health, such as cleanliness and the right choice of foods.

3. Use pictures, stereoscopes, stereographs and moving pictures, as pictures are said to be the "Esperanto of the eye."

4. Have much conversation in the beginning; leave formal work until the children are ready for same.

5. Have the teacher sensitive to speech defects and see that he knows how to correct these defects so as to procure distinct speech and to develop speech capacity.

6. Get curiosity aroused by having children add to collection started at school.

7. Use project method. Here is a chance to build a vocabulary, overcome timidity and self-consciousness and to develop originality and initiative in meeting the new situations. The project must be one which has a familiar background.

CHAPTER VIII

A CURRICULUM SCHOOL AS AN EXPERIMENT

MARY G. CARSON

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IS THERE a place in a public school system for one particular school whose function shall be to make a special study of specific curriculum problems?

Such experiments are probably being tried out under one name or another in many places. Their success will be in proportion to the degree to which they place in operation programs of teaching which consistently provide for definite study of problems involved in putting over a teaching program. The school which will be referred to in this article was organized three years ago for the purpose of concentrating upon curriculum problems.

"Curriculum problems" is used here in the sense that questions concerning the objectives of the course of study, the organization, methods, and materials for attaining these objectives are essentially curriculum problems and should be studied under rather definitely controlled conditions.

The corps of teachers was selected with this in mind, and teachers of successful experience were assigned to the building. Although the school was not intended to serve as a training school it has seemed best to make a quick turnover of the teaching force, and approximately one third of the corps has been changed each year in order that other successful teachers might come into the building.

Organization of the school—Owing to the fact that this school is not in a junior high zone, the seventh and eighth grades are retained in the building.

The school has an average daily attendance of between ten and eleven hundred pupils. It is not organized on the platoon plan.

Where there are two or more rooms of the same grade the pupils are divided on the basis of power except where experiments are running which involve a strong and weak group in pairs of rooms. This will be done in two 5a rooms next semester to study the results of coaching.

Special teachers include a librarian, instructors in music, art, manual arts, home economics, physical education, a visiting teacher and a part-time teacher of speech defects.

Problems for special study—The list could be made to cover all types of activities, and would necessarily involve the supervisory force as well as the principal and teachers in the building.

The following is a partial list of studies which have been made:

1. What help does the school provide for putting over the health program?
2. Studies in remedial work for upper grades
3. A study of motivation of English
4. Utilizing the teaching power of the school
5. An experiment in handwriting

I. Health program—The question, "What help does the school provide for putting over the health program?", may not seem to be a curriculum problem. In answering the question, however, organization, material, and method were all involved.

A study revealed that three departments: health, physical education, and home economics, all contributed or could contribute to the health program. Considering the rich contribution it was prepared to make, the home economics department probably gave the least. This was due in part to its traditional organization, as well as to the fact that in school practice there is a tendency to limit teachers' contributions to certain detached assignments.

In order to correlate the work of the three departments and to place the classroom teacher in a position where he could become familiar with all the assistance each department is prepared to extend, the following program was marked out:

a. The classroom teacher received the reports of the physical examination by the school physicians and dentist and the physical education teacher's report of over and underweight pupils.

b. The teachers of home economics and physical education conferred with the teacher, and tentative outlines of work were planned to meet the needs of the group.

c. In the main, problems of food, health habits, etc., arose in the room, and by arrangement between teachers were carried over into the laboratory, the physical education department, or to the library.

An illustration of the way problems were worked out may be seen in the following situations:

1. A third grade class had learned during the dental examination that many pupils in the group had poor teeth. They were impressed with the message from the dentist that not only better care of the teeth was necessary, but that the system required less meat and more vegetables. This problem of what vegetables children should eat was referred to the teacher of home economics.

Letters were exchanged between the classroom and the laboratory as follows:

MY DEAR MRS. G.

Many children in this room have decayed teeth. Some of the gums are bad. The dentist told us we should eat more vegetables.

Children do not like vegetables very well. Will you teach us to cook a vegetable we will like?

Yours truly,

TOM SEMPLE

The answer which carefully followed the principles of letter writing was sent in typewritten form to the room to be posted on the bulletin board.

MY DEAR CHILDREN:

I watched the school dentist examine teeth and heard him say many times that children should eat more vegetables and less meat.

Your room is the first to ask me about how to select and prepare vegetables that children will like to eat.

I shall come to your room tomorrow to tell you about the things you will need to do in order to be ready to come to the laboratory.

Sincerely yours,

MRS. G.

During the lesson given by the home economics teacher the following assignment was placed on the board:

a. Collect pictures and make posters of vegetables which were discussed in this lesson.

b. Bring recipes from home or cut from magazines for cooking several of these vegetables.

c. Select one vegetable you would like to cook and send me a recipe for it.

The class selected carrots and had their work in shape the next week to go to the laboratory. Under the direction of the home economics teacher they prepared and cooked the carrots. Most of the children enjoyed the experience of eating the dish they had prepared but in some cases children had to be asked to select a substitute for this vegetable.

2. A food study which caused widespread interest was a milk project.

A local dairy loaned a cow to the school. The feeding and milking, the care of the milk, and a study of milk problems, provided eight weeks of work.

Every class from the kindergarten to the eighth grade had appointments in the laboratory.

The study extended to the care of milch cows, breeds, laws providing for the supply of clean and wholesome milk, a study of butter fats with an illustration of the use of the Babcock tester by the city chemist, and the making of butter and cheese in the laboratory.

The physical education teacher kept in constant touch with the food work going on, and his lessons on care of teeth, study of underweights,

outdoor exercise, requirements for sleep were organized in a way that needless and uninteresting repetition was avoided.

The conclusions regarding the help offered were substantially as follows:

The course of study makes excellent suggestions and defines objectives, but the success of putting over the health program is largely a matter of

- a. Taking advantage of the interests of children at the right time and age
- b. The organization of material which few schools supply but which are easily obtained by any school
- c. The utilization of the teaching power of the school
- d. The readiness on the part of teachers to go to accepted authorities for suggestions and directions

II. *Study of remedial work in reading in the seventh grade*—Twenty-four out of 100 pupils were selected for special help in reading.

These pupils were chosen on the basis of reading tests, and from lists of names of pupils who, in the judgment of teachers of other subjects, were failing because of reading difficulties. Sometimes a pupil's name appeared on the teacher's list when his record on the test was higher than other pupils who were succeeding in their work, but in the main the same name appeared on both lists.

Intelligence tests were given and those pupils who register below 70 I. Q. were either transferred to a special school or, if left in the group, were given a very moderate amount of the teacher's time. Two pupils of this type remained in the group.

Oral and silent reading tests were given and difficulties diagnosed. These difficulties were identical to the problems of poor readers in the second and third grades. The situation was more complicated of course because these pupils were dealing with subject-matter which was beyond them in vocabulary and thought content.

A period of 50 minutes five times a week was divided into 25 minute periods.

The first 25 minutes were devoted to phonic drills, flash card exercises to increase eye span, experience in reading by phrases, and drill on troublesome words. The last 25 minutes were devoted to a free reading period in which library books were provided which ranged from second to sixth grades in point of difficulty.

These books could not be identified as belonging to any particular grade and each pupil selected reading material on the level of his own power.

Rapid silent reading was stressed. The teacher gave much individual attention during this period.

Some form of drill work was given throughout the semester, but the time devoted to phonics and phrase drills was lessened and exercises were introduced in practice in getting the main thought from the paragraph, the use of the index and chapter headings.

Frequently the teacher would use the last 25 minutes in preparing a social science lesson by applying the skills in reading which they had practiced in previous drill exercises.

While some of this work took on the aspect of learning how to study, the basis of it all was to establish a certain reading technique.

It was at this point that some members of the group showed marked improvement in other studies. Others showed little improvement but these were pupils who consistently chose during a free reading period books of the type of "Stories of a Mouse Hole."

At one time the class became intensely interested in the powers of the president. They voiced their opinions freely and were quite unanimous in giving to him all the power of a 16th century czar.

A true-false test, based upon the power conferred by the Constitution of United States, was prepared for the class. The suggestion was made that pupils first take the test and then by using fresh copies of the same questions prove their statements false or true by the Constitution.

Such statements as the following appeared in the list:

1. The President has the power to declare war.
2. The Constitution states that a President may not serve more than two terms.
3. Congress has the power to make laws.
4. Any man who has attained the age of 30 years may, if elected, become a member of Congress.

The pupils worked in groups of five and the leaders came to the teacher or to other groups for help.

The class was called together when common problems arose, such as learning where to look for answers to their questions, the meaning of such terms as "executive," "legislative" and "judicial." The work required study of the meaning of words and phrases they frequently heard in other classes. It provided excellent exercise in reading to get the answers to questions.

At the end of two weeks the class took the same test again and had the pleasure of measuring their gain between the first and last tests.

This choice of material for a class of poor readers could be justly criticized but the fact remains that there is a certain amount of gain in reading difficult material if the interest prompts the reading.

The conclusions reached by this study were:

1. Reading habits and skills can be improved in the upper grades by remedial work. (The improvement was much less than in lower grades.)
2. A 50-minute period in the 7th grade is not too much time to devote to remedial reading for poor groups.

3. Many pupils who will remain poor readers do gain a technique which helps them in other lessons that require reading preparation.

4. While difficulty to interpret the written page is a problem every teacher must be concerned with, there should be special provision for a teacher who is prepared to take charge of classes in remedial work in reading in upper grades.

5. Opportunity should be afforded other teachers to observe this teacher and conferences should be held with him in order that help may be given in types of assignment for special groups.

III. *A study of motivation of English*—Teaching situations which provide for adequate exercises in oral and written English have resulted in some very interesting experiences.

More and more we discover that the best type of English work is being done where some vital interest requires practice in the art of talking or writing well.

These interests may arise in the English department or they may and frequently are brought into the English class from other groups. The pig project quoted below is one of this type.

Project: To study and determine the importance of the pig to mankind.

Purpose: To familiarize children with interesting facts concerning this well-known animal.

Preparation: An interest in the pig was created by keeping a Hampshire pig in a pen on the school grounds. The children's curiosity was aroused to study the animal.

Problem I. How and from where did we get our pig?

A. Animal most closely resembling the pig discussed, *i. e.*, the boar. Children thought the boar was very different from the pig in that the former was wild, while the latter seemed to be a lazy creature.

B. Eagerness to learn the difference prompted the children to look up material on the boar.

Outcome: Short sketch, "The Wild Boar" brought out differences in the pig and boar, and showed that the pig has become domesticated from the tamed boar.

Problem II. Description of present pigs.

A. Their characteristics

B. Their habits and food

C. Lard pigs—care and food

D. Meat pigs—care and food

E. Pigs trained for the circus (showing their intelligence)

Discussion and reading concerning this problem provided material worth writing about.

Outcome: Composition "The Description of the Pig" showed some previous ideas concerning the pig were wrong. Children now conclude the pig is a much cleaner and more intelligent animal than they had thought.

Problem III. Study of the Hampshire breed in Colorado. (The pig we had at Ashland.)

A. Its uses

B. Importance in the United States

Outcome: Compositions concerning "The Hampshire Pig."

Other problems considered in the project were:

1. The characteristics of a good pig.

2. Where the pigs of the world are raised.

3. The value of the pig to man.

Final outcome: Book compiled on "The Pig," which contained pictures collected in their social science work, and all compositions written as a result of this project.

Interesting books compiled by classes are placed in the school library for general reference and pleasure reading. These books consist of pictures, letters, compositions and printed material collected for the purpose. Among the most successful books are:

Travels in Europe (Grade 6)

History of the United States Postal Service (Grade 8)

Instincts of Animals (Grade 4)

Corn (Grade 4)

Beauty Spots in America (Grade 6)

IV. *Utilizing the teaching power*—This has been touched upon in examples of work cited. With this utilizing of power another factor becomes equally prominent—the opportunity and provisions for teachers to grow in their work.

Perhaps one of the greatest helps to teachers in the school has come through the provision made for them to observe teaching in other rooms and departments. Experiments have been watched, good teaching observed, methods studied, and a general exchange of experience provided for through conference groups and special assignments of similar work.

A great effort has been made to extend the individual teacher's interest and knowledge of teaching beyond the confines of one or two grades. This helps to break down the barriers which cause primary teachers to remain in a class by themselves. Sometimes a primary teacher is asked to take over a problem from the grades above which he is specially equipped to solve. He is frequently seen observing certain work in two and three grades removed from his own.

The fourth and fifth grade teachers through their observation in other grades see their own problems in relation to other teaching situations.

This common interest and responsibility has helped to develop an attitude on the part of the teaching force in which principles of teaching are studied, applied and observed on a less personal basis than has been possible when each teacher was a more separate unit in the school.

There is a place in the school for carefully controlled experiments in which methods and suitable material can be judged.

The future of such a school cannot be forecast. There is no question but that a program can be developed in which many useful studies and experiments may be made which will throw light on the whole teaching program in a city.

CHAPTER IX

RESULTS OF DEFINITE DRILL IN THE FOUR FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES AS SHOWN BY THE WOODY-McCALL MIXED FUNDAMENTALS

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IN THE Hamilton County, Tennessee, schools during the school year 1923-24 two studies were made. One was an investigation in reading, the results of which are to be published in the *Peabody Journal of Education*, and the other a study of the effect of drill for ten minutes a day in the four fundamental processes in arithmetic over a period of six weeks.

The Woody-McCall mixed fundamental arithmetic test, form 2, was given about February first from the third through the eighth grades. Each pupil was shown his score and the norm for his grade. The standards of the Chicago and other schools were sent out to the teachers and the pupils. A comparison with these standards and norms showed each pupil how he stood in comparison with other average pupils of his grade. It showed each teacher how his grade stood in comparison with other average grades. It showed the school officials—the principals, the supervisor, and the superintendent—how the Hamilton County school system compared with other school systems in regard to the fundamental processes in arithmetic.

Immediately after the giving of form 2, drill work in the four fundamental processes ten minutes a day was given for a period of six weeks. The drill was very definite. It was on addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and on common fractions and decimals. As a goal toward which to practice, the Chicago standards were used. An example of the definiteness of these goals is given for grade four:

Addition

- a. Single columns of 6 digits each—20 in five minutes
- b. Single columns of 11 digits each—10 in five minutes
- c. Four three-digit numbers—10 in five minutes
- d. Eight three-digit numbers—5 in five minutes

Subtraction

9863 15 in five minutes—Examples not to have more than two borrow-
—2947 ings

Multiplication

- a. Any two-digit number by any two-digit number—10 in five minutes
- b. Any three-digit number by any two-digit number—6 in five minutes

Division

Dividing any four-digit number by any two-digit number giving a two-place quotient with a remainder—6 in five minutes

The objectives for each of the other grades are as definite as this. Each pupil knew what standard of efficiency he was practicing to attain. It is this definite effort on the part of the pupil which secures the best results. The drill in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of fractions and also in decimals was carried out with objectives as well defined as in the case of the other fundamental processes.

The examples to be used for drill work were worked out with the answers ready. The pupils were allowed to work at their seats, or at the blackboard. The ten-minute practice was frequently broken into one-minute and two-minute periods. More examples than could be completed in the time limit were always given. The many types of practice suggested in the Thorndike series of arithmetics offered much help and were freely used. The Studebaker practice tests were not used, but tests similar were made up by the teachers.

A study of effective drill shows that it must have certain well-defined characteristics. An effort was made to obtain the best possible results of these ten-minute practice periods. The following characteristics were found to be effective:

1. Drill must fit the needs of the class. These needs are to be determined by standard tests, by observing the pupils at work, and by having them do some work orally.
2. The pupil must understand what he is doing, why he is doing it, and the best method of doing it.
3. Drill should be on one element at a time.
4. Good drill keeps all of the pupils busy all of the time during the drill period.
5. Good drill presents the same element in a variety of ways; it appeals to several senses.
6. Attentive repetition is necessary; there should be a maximum of attention.
7. Drill periods should be short and at frequent intervals.
8. Care should be taken that bad habits are not being formed.
9. Good drill lines up with the instinctive tendencies of the pupil—the desire to excel former records, group rivalry, play, etc.
10. Good drill provides for individual work rather than concert work.
11. Drill is more effective under timed conditions.

At the end of six weeks, form 3 of the Woody-McCall mixed fundamentals was given. The results of both forms are shown in Table 1. The same results are presented graphically in Figure 1.

TABLE 1.—GRADE MEDIANS SHOWN BY THE WOODY-MCCALL TESTS, FORMS 2 AND 3

Grades	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Form 2	9.5	15	19.5	23.5	24	27.5
No. Cases	504	570	510	445	276	249
Form 3	11.5	18	23	25.5	26.3	29
No. Cases	499	572	510	447	281	250

As is shown in Table 1 approximately the same number of tests was given in each form of the test; using form 2, 499 grade three,

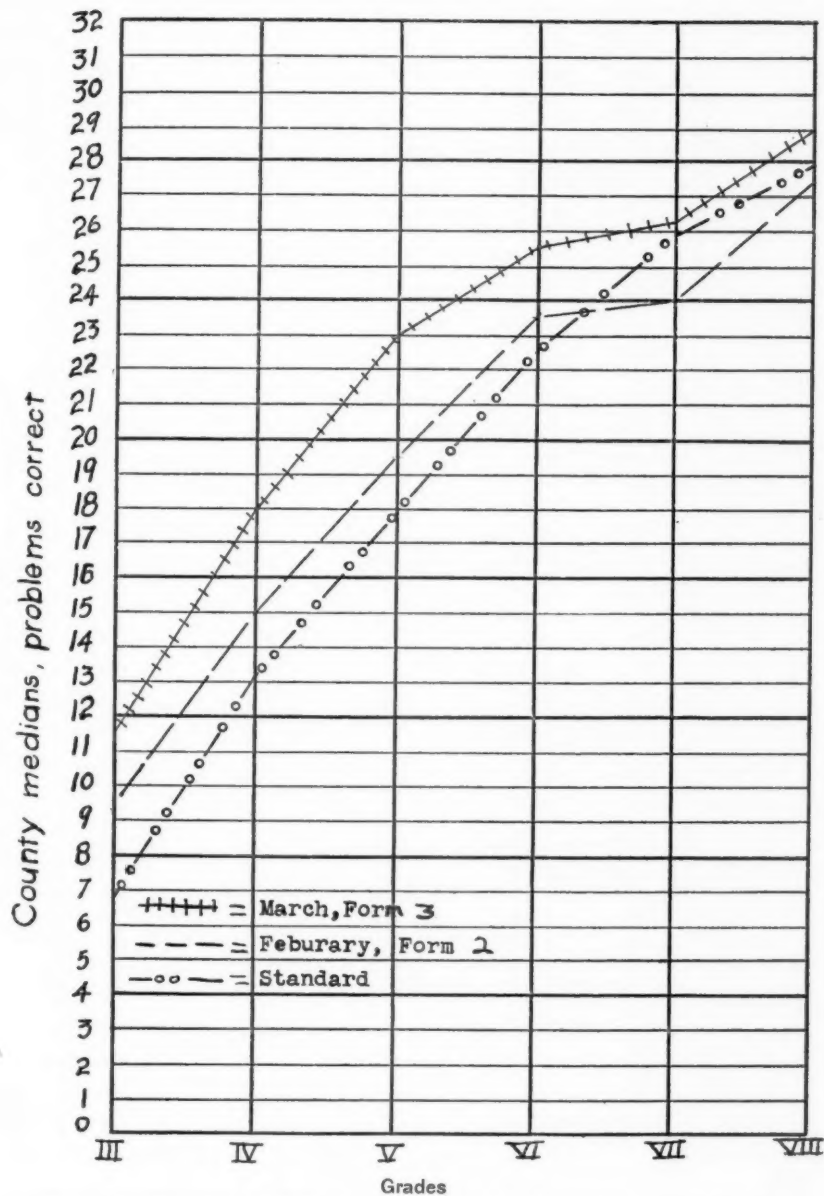


FIGURE 1.—Results of Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals, Forms 2 and 3

572 grade four, 510 grade five, 447 grade six, 281 grade seven, and 250 grade eight. The records include only those of the white rural schools.

In Figure 1, the curve with the broken line represents the results of form 2; the curve with the continuing line which has the cross bars on it represents the results of form 3 given six weeks later. The broken line which has the circles on it represents the standards, or norms, for the end of the year.

TABLE 2.—GRADE MEDIANS SHOWN BY THE WOODY-MCCALL TESTS IN ONE-TEACHER, TWO-TEACHER, AND THREE-OR-MORE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

School	Grade	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
One Teacher	Form 2	11.5	16.7	20.2	20	..	..
	No. Cases	47	47	40	15	..	..
	Form 3	11.8	18.5	22.7	24	..	..
	No. Cases	47	41	37	14	..	..
Two Teachers	Form 2	10.1	15.3	20.4	24.5	26.5	28.8
	No. Cases	92	96	104	77	66	51
	Form 3	12.8	18.6	22.5	25	27.4	29.3
	No. Cases	87	101	106	74	62	49
Three or More Teachers	Form 2	10.1	15.3	21.2	23.9	25.1	28.5
	No. Cases	365	429	366	355	210	198
	Form 3	12.1	18.6	24	25.9	27.5	29.1
	No. Cases	343	397	349	330	217	192

The results of forms 2 and 3 are given in Table 2 for the one-teacher, the two-teacher, and the three-or-more-teacher schools. The number of cases is also given. In the one-teacher schools there were only three pupils who took both forms of the test and only one pupil in grade eight who took both forms. The fewness of the numbers in these grades makes the comparisons unreliable, hence, the curve for the one-teacher schools stops with grade six.

The curves in Figure 2 show the comparison of the one-teacher, the two-teacher, and the three-or-more-teacher schools, using the results of form 3. The curve with the continuing line represents the results in the three-or-more-teacher schools; the curve with the broken line which has the circles on it represents the results in the two-teacher schools; the curve with the continuing line which has the cross bars on it represents the results in the one-teacher schools; and the curve with the broken line which has the crosses, or "X's" on it represents the standard for the end of the year.

It should be noticed that each grade made consistent gains, that the curves in Figure 1 are almost parallel. The seventh and eighth grades on form 2 are below the standard for the United States. This may be due to a lack of practice on the fundamental processes in these grades.

The curves in Figure 2 show the one-teacher and the three-or-more-teacher schools to be of about the same efficiency as regards the teach-

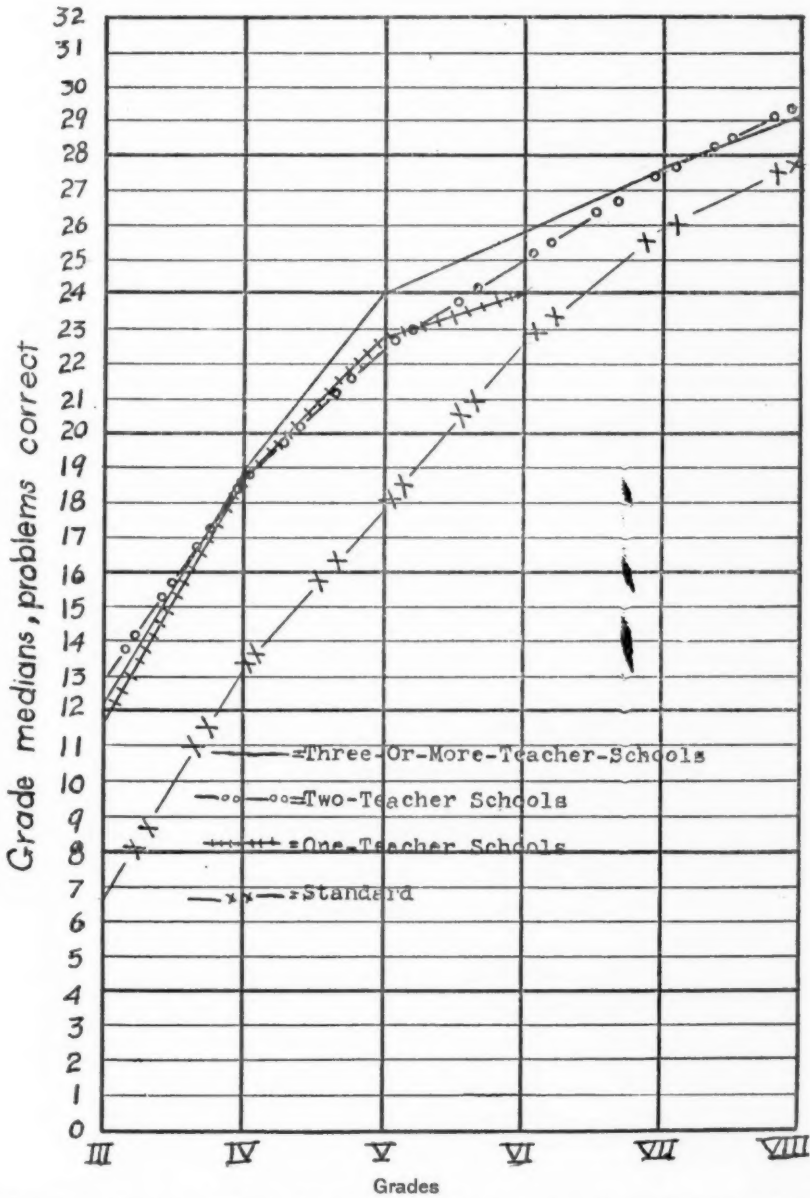


FIGURE 2.—Results of Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals, Form 3, One-Teacher, Two-Teacher, Three-Or-More-Teacher Schools

ing of the fundamental processes in arithmetic. Grade five in the three-or-more-teacher schools seems to be making more progress than grade five in either the one-teacher or the two-teacher schools.

It is not so much the actual gain that is the predominant feature of such an investigation. It is the scientific attitude on the part of the teachers resulting from such a study. It is the fact of the use of standard tests to measure the results of teaching in rural schools. It is the fact of each pupil's knowing how he stands with reference to the pupils in other schools. It is the fact that, since the pupils are so well up in the fundamental processes in arithmetic, more time and attention can be given to oral English, to a wider reading program, and to a more varied course of study through which the experiences of the pupils are broadened and through which their horizon is extended. There is no school, or system of schools, in which standard tests may be used with better results than in rural schools.

CHAPTER X

THE SURFACING OF PLAYGROUNDS

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THE PROBLEM of furnishing adequate playground facilities adjacent to all school buildings is receiving much attention by school authorities, chiefly because of the following considerations:

1. The advancement of physical education to a rank of major importance in the curriculum.
2. The need of more and better play space made necessary by the increasing use of group play, particularly in connection with the Platoon and Junior High School types of organization.
3. The increasing hazards attending the use of public streets for play purposes caused by the rapidly growing menace of automobile traffic.
4. An insistent demand for the extended use of playgrounds for supervised play after school hours and on holidays.

To meet the situation caused by these changed conditions larger and better surfaced playgrounds are necessary. While this need for larger play areas is usually met without serious difficulty in the selection of new sites, insuperable obstacles are encountered when an attempt is made to extend the play facilities connected with old buildings. In every case this is a local, individual problem of no concern to other school authorities.

The means by which a satisfactory playground surface has been secured is in every case of interest to all others who are wrestling with a similar problem. It is because of this consideration that the present study was undertaken. While limitations of space require that this report be brief, an attempt is made to indicate the most important results of a nation-wide survey.

An ideal play surface presents a uniform slope, is resilient to the tread, yet not so soft as to allow slipping; is never muddy because of rainfall or thawing frost, nor dusty from lack of rain. As the result of scientific research and experimentation, and the liberal use of money several cities have obtained playgrounds approximating this ideal.

Concerning the problem of playground surfacing the Playground Association of America says, "No surfacing has been devised which has proved itself to be ideal, or which is satisfactory for every ground. Soil conditions in the various parts of the country are important factors in determining what the surfacing must be." It might be

added that inasmuch as the initial cost and the maintenance are in every case considerable, but vary greatly according to the local supply of the different materials commonly used for surfacing, the available supply and consequent relative cost must also receive careful consideration. Climatic conditions as to rainfall and extremes of temperature are also of great importance. Since drainage is of supreme importance, the first consideration in the preparation of a playground is the securing of a surface sufficiently porous to take care of ordinary rainfall by underground drainage, with enough slope to quickly carry off any surplus water. The slope or grade must not be so steep as to cause cutting at any place. Usually a one percent slope meets both requirements fairly well. Drainage toward the center has been found less satisfactory than toward the sides; however, with large areas, a drainage system with a sufficient number of laterals is necessary. This requires careful determination of grades by a competent engineer.

The New York state board of education and the city of Detroit use substantially the same materials and employ the same procedure:

1. All grass, weeds and humus are removed.
2. A three-inch layer of cinders not exceeding three inches in diameter is added and thoroughly rolled to conform with the desired grade when finished, the material being kept wet during the process.
3. The wet cinder surface is now covered with a two and a half-inch layer of limestone screenings and dust, which is rolled to a compact surface.
4. Calcium chloride, about one and one-half pounds to the square yard, is spread evenly over the surface.
5. A one-fourth inch of clean sharp sand is spread. The New York board reverses the order of applying sand and chloride.

Three or four inches of cinders is found to be sufficient when spread on a sandy subsoil. On a clay surface two or three times the amount is found to be necessary.

In Baltimore, H. G. Perring, of the public improvement commission, has found that a layer of granite dust six inches in thickness, compacted by rolling to four inches, makes the most satisfactory surface. He says that it is soft and resilient under the feet, yet sufficiently firm to support the children while running, with little danger of slipping; that it is not unduly dusty in summer or muddy in winter; is not very expensive to lay, and is comparatively inexpensive to maintain.

Mr. Perring says that a cheaper but less satisfactory surface is obtained by cutting the graded surface with a disc harrow to the depth of six or eight inches, adding a mixture of about two parts of sand to one of clay, thoroughly mixing and then compacting by rolling. To keep the surface moist and compact a liberal sowing of calcium chloride is added.

While the original cost of the sand and clay surface is only about one half that of the granite dust—20 cents to 40 cents as against 55 cents to 60 cents—the maintenance cost of the former is considerably greater than that of the granite dust, since it requires resurfacing after a few years.

The materials used and procedure in Philadelphia are very similar to the above except that a compact surface and freedom from dust are maintained by sprinkling from an underground system of pipes whenever needed.

George E. Dickie of the Playground Association of America recommends a similar use of sand and clay. He considers this a fairly satisfactory surface and one comparatively inexpensive on a natural clay field. Mr. Dickie suggests experimenting on a small field to determine the proper proportions of sand and clay to be used in any location.

S. Wales Dixon of the same association emphasizes the necessity of creating a surface which will shed water rapidly but which will not wash at any point. "Drainage is the first consideration," he says. A grade of about one percent is quite generally recommended.

Cinders have been used for surfacing in some cities. When thoroughly rolled and covered with a layer of fine gravel and sand they make a very satisfactory surfacing material. As a surface coating, however, they are unsatisfactory because the hard, sharp corners and edges are destructive to the children's shoes and clothing, if not injurious to the children as well.

The Chicago board of education do not favor their use on the surface. For the treatment of surfaces where they have been in use L. H. Weir of Louisville, Kentucky, recommends thorough plowing, mixing with soil and clay, compacting with a steam roller and then adding a surface of thoroughly rolled grit, finishing with a light oil.

Dr. Brown of Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, has found that a one or two inch layer of thoroughly compacted river bed gravel coated with a layer of hard oil or asphalt road oil, followed by a thin layer of sand, makes a very inexpensive and satisfactory surface in the south.

While concrete is used in a limited way for play areas, its extreme hardness and gritty surface has rendered it generally unsatisfactory.

Superintendent Wood of Aberdeen, South Dakota, reports that sand and clay which his board buys properly mixed gives a surface suitable for all seasons. The cost and expense of maintenance are said to be "normal."

Houston, Texas, uses fine gravel alone. The surface is prepared by rolling, after which the gravel is spread and rolled. The surface is

satisfactory throughout the year. The cost is put at \$4 to \$5 per square yard, with little expense for maintenance, as it usually lasts from five to seven years.

Greensboro, North Carolina, has found the mixture of sand and gravel to give a surface satisfactory at all seasons.

The natural soil when mixed with sand, gravel, or cinders gives a surface which Superintendent Saam of Council Bluffs, Iowa, characterizes as "relatively satisfactory." In addition to this dirt surface, however, every school ground in that city is provided with a play surface of concrete from 40' x 70' to 80' x 100' in area.

In southern California a heavy derivative of natural oil is commonly used, the surface being finished with a coating of sand.

In Seattle, the soil formation being commonly a light loam on a gravelly subsoil, natural underground drainage takes care of the ordinary rainfall to a very large degree. Climatic conditions are exceptionally favorable for economical maintenance inasmuch as excessive rainfall and penetrating frosts are rare. For surfacing material the sand and gravel from the natural pits is passed over a quarter inch screen. The mixture of fine gravel and coarse sand which goes through the screen gives a very satisfactory material at a minimum cost.

Soft asphalt on a concrete base has been found satisfactory for limited areas, being much more resilient than a concrete surface.

Of all the materials used for dust binders calcium chloride is probably the most satisfactory, all things considered. It is used in a single application of the crystals at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per square yard, or in several successive applications of the solution, starting with $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. per square yard and continuing with $1/10$ lb. per yard at intervals of a week for several weeks. The latter plan is used in Philadelphia.

Fasscoil has been found to be satisfactory as a coating for concrete at Youngstown, Ohio. It is said to be cheap, odorless, and almost trackless. A coating lasts about six weeks.

Glutrin has been tried in various places in the east. It is a heavy liquid, readily soluble in water, and when dry is a strong adhesive. However, its use is restricted to certain surface conditions; when dry it tends to crumble under foot; and it requires frequent renewing, making the cost excessive.

In several cities a scientific study of the various considerations entering into the matter of playground surfacing is being made under expert direction. Much can be learned from these experimental studies, still local conditions affecting the whole situation are so various that the determination of the best materials to be used and methods to be employed in any case is largely a matter of local experimentation and study.

CHAPTER XI

LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS IN FORTY-THREE CITIES

W. T. LONGSHORE

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LOCAL organizations of elementary school principals, local clubs including both elementary and high school principals and the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association are providing opportunities for intensive co-operative study of professional problems by elementary school principals. To determine how widely elementary school principals are availing themselves of the opportunities offered through local organizations an inquiry was sent to superintendents of schools in all cities over 100,000 in population. Tables 1 and 4 summarize the replies from 43 cities having either a local organization made up entirely of elementary school principals or an organization including both elementary and secondary school principals.

Columns 3 and 4 of Table 1 show that of the 46 school principals' organizations reported, 19 include only elementary school principals; 26 include all principals, both elementary and high school; and one includes only the district superintendent and the high school principals.

Columns 5 and 6 of Table 1 show that the great majority of local principals' organizations have a definite time of meeting and that in most cities, meetings are held monthly.

In thirty-six out of forty-one local principals' organizations reported, membership dues are paid. In various cities dues range from \$.50 per year to \$40. The average membership dues for the thirty-six organizations reported is \$4.20. Table 2 shows the amount of annual dues paid in both types of principals' organizations: (1) those whose membership include only elementary school principals, and (2) those including all principals, both elementary and secondary.

Twenty-eight out of the forty organizations reporting on the subject of membership (or seventy percent) state that from 95 to 100 percent of those eligible for membership are members of local principals' organizations. It is interesting to note that in the organization where

¹ The author acknowledges the fine cooperation and work done by the Research Division of the National Education Association in sending out the questionnaires for this report and tabulating the data.

TABLE 1.—NAMES AND TYPES OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS—TIME OF MEETINGS, MEMBERSHIP, AND ATTENDANCE IN 43 CITIES

City	Name of Organization	Type of Organization		Organization Meetings		Annual Membership Dues	Number Principals Eligible for Membership	Number Principals Members	Percent That Number Members is of Number Principals Eligible for Membership	Average Percent Attendance at Regular Meetings
		Elementary Principals Only	Both Elementary and High School Principals	When Held	How Often					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Baltimore, Maryland	White Principals' Assn. of the Baltimore Public Schools		*	Third Tuesday	Monthly (for 7 months)	\$2.00	110 (approx.)	80	80%	50%
Boston, Massachusetts	Elementary Principals' Association	*								
Buffalo, New York	Camden City Elementary School Principals' Assn.	*	*	Third Thursday in November, March and May Last Monday (4.15 P. M.)	Three times per year 7 regular meetings per year	\$1.00	76	76	100%	75%
Camden, New Jersey	Camden City Elementary School Principals' Assn.	*	*	Last Monday	7 meetings a year (Sept. to May except December)	\$1.00	37	34	92%	40%
Chicago, Illinois	Chicago Principals' Club		*	General meetings Saturday morning, Committee and directors meetings after school and evenings Third Saturday	General bi-monthly directors—monthly committee—average 5 times per week	\$40.00	364	290	95%	60%
Cincinnati, Ohio	Cincinnati Elementary School Principals' Club	*			Each month	\$4.50	52	48	92%	75%
Cleveland, Ohio	Elementary Principals' Club	*	*	Dinner meeting second Thursday	Monthly	\$5.00	All elementary principals	Practically all	100%	75% (approx.)

Columbus, Ohio	Columbus Elementary Principals' Round Table	*		Third Monday 5.30 P. M. Dinner	Monthly during school year	\$1.00	35 (approx.)	31	89%	100%
Dallas, Texas	Dallas Principals' and Supervisors' Assn.	*		Second Tuesday evening	Monthly	\$2.00	All white	49		60%
Dayton, Ohio	Dayton Principals' and Supervisors' Assn.	*		First Monday	Monthly	\$1.00 ¹	40	40	100%	90%
Denver, Colorado	Denver Principals' and Directors' Assn.	*		First Monday	Monthly	\$2.50	67	67	100%	95%
Des Moines, Iowa	The Des Moines Principals' Club	*		First Tuesday	Monthly	\$1.00	All	All	100%	100%
Detroit, Michigan	Detroit Teachers' Assn. Administrative Division	*		Upon call	About one a month	\$0.50	All	159 (approx.)		100%
Fall River, Massachusetts	Grammar Principals' Assn.	*		Thursday evening	Monthly (Oct. to June)	No dues	13	13	100%	100%
Grand Rapids, Michigan	Principals' Exchange Club	*		Monday	Monthly	\$3.00	36	36	100%	75%
Hartford, Connecticut	Principals' Club		District supt. and high school principals only	Second and fourth Wednesday	Twice a month		11	11	100%	
Houston, Texas	Houston Principals' Assn.	*		Fourth Thursday	Monthly	\$2.00	64	42	60%	65%
Kansas City, Kansas	The Grade Principals' Club	*		Third Thursday of 6 week period	Every 6 weeks	\$1.00	41	41	100%	75%
Kansas City, Missouri	Elementary Principals' Assn. of Kansas City, Missouri	*		Second Tuesday of Oct., Nov., Dec., Feb., March, April, May	7 meetings a year	\$2.00	74	53	78%	75%
Los Angeles, California	Elementary Principals' Club	*		Second Wednesday	Monthly	\$5.00	260	220	85%	75%

¹ Amendment to Constitution pending, making annual dues \$3.00.

TABLE 1.—(Continued)

City	Name of Organization	Type of Organization		Organization Meetings		Annual Membership Dues	Number Principals Eligible for Membership	Number Principals Members	Percent That Number is of Number Principals Eligible for Membership	Average Percentage Attendance at Regular Meetings
		Elementary Principals Only	Both Elementary and High School Principals	When Held	How Often					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Louisville, Kentucky	Louisville Principals' Club		*	Last Tuesday (Sept.-May)	Monthly	\$2.00	All white	All	100%	95%
Minneapolis, Minnesota	Minneapolis Principals' Forum		*	Last Saturday of each school month	Monthly	\$0.50	All			65%
New Bedford, Massachusetts	New Bedford Primary Principals' Club	*		On call of pres. or sec.	Bi-monthly		13	13	100%	100%
New Orleans, Louisiana	New Orleans Public School Principals' Assn.	*		Monday following second Friday	Monthly during school months	\$1.00	85	69	81%	33%
New York City, New York	New York Principals' Assn.	*		4 annually	4 per year	\$25.00	420	225	54%	
Norfolk, Virginia	Norfolk Principals' Assn.		*	Wednesday, 4 P. M. or 6 P. M.	Twice a month	None	25	25	100%	100%
Oakland, California	Elementary Principals' Conference	*		Once each month. Time set by pres.	Monthly	None	35	35	100%	100%
Omaha, Nebraska	Oakland Principals' Club		*	At dinner, 5.45 P. M.	4 times each semester		65	60	92%	90%
Paterson, New Jersey	Elementary School Principals' Club of Omaha	*		Third Thursday	Monthly	\$10.00	59	57	97%	80%
	Paterson Principals' Assn.		*	Wednesday preceding second Thursday	Monthly	\$5.00	28	26	93%	80%
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	The Principals' Club	*		Irregularly	About 4 times a year	\$1.00	201	170	85%	65%

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	Pittsburgh Principals' Club	*	*	Second Friday	Monthly for the school year	\$2.00	114	114	100%	75%
Portland, Oregon	Portland Principals' Assn.	*	*	When called by secretary	4 times a year	\$7.00	90	75	83%	75%
Rochester, New York	Council of the School Principals	*	*	Last Monday	Monthly	\$1.50	41	41	100%	60%
San Francisco California	San Francisco Principals' Assn.	*	*	Once a month for business and once monthly for professional program	Monthly	\$4.00	All	All	100%	45%
Seattle, Washington	Seattle Principals' Assn.	*	*	Irregularly	Monthly	\$5.00	85	85	100%	90%
Spokane, Washington	Elementary Principals' Assn.	*	*	First Monday	Bi-monthly	None	43	43	100%	80%
St. Paul, Minnesota	St. Paul's Principals' Club	*	*	Third week Sept., Nov., Jan., March and May	Monthly	\$1.00	65	40	62%	80%
Syracuse, New York	Association of Men Principals and Supervisors	*	*	Oct., Dec., Jan., Feb., March, May	3 times per year	None	All	All	100%	75%
Toledo, Ohio	Principals' Association of the Graded White Schools	*	*	Dates arranged at first meeting in October	3 times per year	\$5.00	65 (approx.)	53	80%	33%
Washington, D. C.	Worcester Principals' Club	*	*		4 times yearly	\$1.00	75	60	80%	61%
Worcester, Massachusetts	Yonker's Principals' Assn.	*	*		Bi-monthly	\$1.50	57	32	100%	75%
Yonkers, New York	Youngtown Education Assn.	*	*		One business meeting a year; 6 regular meetings and 18 study club meetings	\$1.00	32	37	100%	90%
Youngstown, Ohio						\$2.00	37			

TABLE 4.—SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS—THEIR RELATIONS WITH SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS PROFESSIONAL STUDIES AND OTHER IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN IN 43 CITIES

City	Name of Organization	Relationship Between Superintendent's Office and Organization	Program of Professional Study Promoted by Organization During Past Year		Professional Subjects Studied	Other Important Activities of Organization
			Yes	No		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Baltimore, Maryland	White Principals' Assn. of the Baltimore Public Schools		*		1. Promotions and non-promotions 2. Individualizing instructions	Activities on part of social, legislature, publicity and other committees
Boston, Massachusetts	Elementary Principals' Assn. Boston Principals' Assn.	Complete harmony and splendid co-operation Cooperative	*		Salaries	Salary campaigns
Buffalo, New York	Elementary School Principals' Assn.	Excellent	*		Pupil ability and individual differences	Salary
Camden, New Jersey	Camden City Elementary School Principals' Assn. Camden Principals' Assn.	Organization directed officially from supt.'s office. This does not mean that there is no cooperation and good will	*		School finance, other studies through committees	
Chicago, Illinois	Chicago Principals' Club	Most cordial and cooperative	*		The principal's program; principal as supervisor; relation of principal to business department of board of education	Salary question; promotion of attendance at and success of important educational meetings
Cincinnati, Ohio	Cincinnati Elementary School Principals' Club	Most cordial and friendly	*			Conduct lecture course for teachers; bring prominent educators and speakers to address teachers; conduct studies in geography, English, arithmetic and elementary science
Cleveland, Ohio	Elementary Principals' Club					

Columbus, Ohio	Columbus Elementary Principals' Round Table	Very cordial	*	Teacher training; music appreciation in the schools; character training; arithmetic—Winnetka plan; place of silent reading in the curriculum; geography and the project method; the gifted child. Standardization of principal's work, city planning, raising the standard of our personnel, salary schedule, enlarging the elementary schools, health education, character education, classroom methods, teacher training, junior high school, school records.	Serve on committees—textbook, salary, course of study, etc.
Dallas, Texas	Dallas Principals' and Supervisors' Assn.	Cordial cooperation	*		
Dayton, Ohio	Dayton Principals' and Supervisors' Assn.	Very close	*		
Denver, Colorado	Denver Principals' and Directors' Assn.	Supt. is member responsible for professional meeting	*	A curriculum revision and supervisors	Lectures, inspirational talks, annual banquet, remembering sick and retiring members with gifts Colorado Education Association campaigns, National Education Association campaigns, bond issue campaigns
Des Moines, Iowa	The Des Moines Principals' Club	Very cordial and cooperative	*	Clerical duties of principal, procedures for opening and closing days of school	"Know your schools" campaign
Detroit, Michigan	Detroit Teachers' Assn. Administrative Division	Supt. is a member of Association	*	Study of other school systems	Entertaining teachers and delegations from other cities
Fall River, Massachusetts	Grammar Principals' Assn.	In close touch through conference	*	Supervision	Retirement system; supporting State Teachers Federation; legislative measures; curriculum; office equipment
Grand Rapids, Michigan	Principals' Exchange Club	Very pleasant co-operation, supt. is member	*	Administration and supervision; revision of the curriculum; addresses by prominent educators	
Hartford, Connecticut	Principals' Club		*	Course in social science under instructors from Columbia University	
Houston, Texas	Houston Principals' Assn.	No official relation. Relation cordial	*	Curriculum construction; Junior High School; Platoon School	Frequent luncheons and social activities
Kansas City, Kansas	The Grade Principals' Club	Close cooperation. Very harmonious	*	Parent Teachers' Assn. Supervision Citizenship Training; administrative duties of principal	Sponsored and established an open air school financed through Junior Red Cross Salary campaign; sociability
Kansas City, Missouri	Elem. Principals' Assn. of Kansas City, Missouri	Harmonious	*	Improvement of learning activities principals daily schedules, principals self-rating scale.	Social, legislative, editing journal
Los Angeles, California	Elementary Principals' Club	Very close, supt. belongs, assn. has 2 representatives in supt. advisory committee	*		

TABLE 4.—(Continued)

City	Name of Organization	Relationship Between Superintendent's Office and Organization	Program of Professional Study Promoted by Organization During Past Year		Professional Subjects Studied	Other Important Activities of Organization
			Yes	No		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Louisville, Kentucky	Louisville Principals' Club	Supt. is honorary member. Cooperative	*		Efficiency of principals; supervision of reading, assembly period, attendance, tardiness, truancy, unclassified groups, salary schedules, establishment of Junior High School Plan; Platoon Plan.	
Minneapolis, Minnesota	Minneapolis Principals' Forum	Hearty cooperation	*		Curriculum	Social
New Bedford, Massachusetts	New Bedford Primary Principals' Club	Cordial and cooperative	*		Penmanship	Promotion of safety instruction (cooperation police dept.) vaccination, its stress and values
New Orleans, Louisiana	New Orleans Public School Principals' Assn.	Favorable consideration	*	*		Cooperation with civic associations
New York City, New York	New York Principals' Assn.	Cordial but unofficial	*		Curriculum	
Norfolk, Virginia	Norfolk Principals' Assn.	Supt. is present at all business meetings and has an invitation to all professional meetings	*			
Oakland, California	Elementary Principals' Conference	Supt. meets with the conference and takes part in the discussion	*			Education week; parental schools; city projects
Omaha, Nebraska	Oakland Principals' Club	Cordial, supt. and assistant invited guests	*		Foundation of method	Bringing educators to lecture to teachers and principals
	Elementary School Principals' Club of Omaha	Cooperative	*			

Paterson, New Jersey	Paterson Principals' Assn.	A good spirit of cooperation	*		Tests, school libraries, school decoration; relation of vocational to elementary school. The principal to supervisor; relation of principal to special supervisory heads of departments and janitors; improving relationship between elementary and high school	Improvement of working conditions and salaries, sociability
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	The Principals' Club	Cordial but unofficial	*			Child welfare work
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	Pittsburgh Principals' Club	Helpful cooperation	*			
Portland, Oregon	Portland Principals' Assn.	Agreeable and cooperative	*		Retardation: exceptional children (have established Dept. of Research and Guidance)	Study of thrift, health work, systematic athletics and features that function in platform schools
Rochester, New York	Council of the School Principals	Cooperative	*		Administration and supervision; know your school; know your system	Solely professional
San Francisco, California	San Francisco Principals' Assn.	Cordial cooperation.		*		Social
Seattle, Washington	Seattle Principals' Assn.	Very cordial	*		Citizenship training, extra-curricular activities	American education week, social
Spokane, Washington	Elementary Principals' Assn.	Cooperative	*			Child accounting: relation to principal of school and community
St. Paul, Minnesota	St. Paul's Principals' Club	Cooperative	*		Grade supervision	Professional lectures
Syracuse, New York	Association of Men Principals and Supervisors	Superintendent is a member	*			
Toledo, Ohio	Principals' and Supervisors' Club	Friendly and cooperative	*			Social and helpful
Washington, D. C.	Principals' Assn. of the Graded White Schools	Interested and helpful	*			Give aid financially to teachers who retired before retirement bill was passed
Worcester, Massachusetts	Worcester Principals' Assn.	Cordial	*		School management housing	
Yonkers, New York	Yonkers Principals' Assn.	Friendly cooperation	*		Administration and supervision	Social
Youngstown, Ohio	Youngstown Education Assn.	Supt. suggested organization and is a member	*		Current literature, nature study, curriculum and methods	Social, cultural, economic

the membership dues are the largest, namely \$40 per year, 97 percent of the principals of the local schools are members of this principals' club. See Column 10, Table 1.

TABLE 2.—AMOUNT OF ANNUAL DUES—PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

Amount of Annual Dues	Number Organizations for Elementary Principals Only Reporting Annual Dues	Number Organizations for All Principals (Elementary and High School) Reporting Annual Dues	Total
Under \$1.00	0	4	4
\$1.00-1.99	7	5	12
2.00-2.99	1	7	8
3.00-3.99	1	0	1
4.00-4.99	1	1	2
5.00-5.99	2	3	5
6.00 and over.....	2	2	4
No dues	3	2	5
Not reported	2	2	4
Total	19	26	45

Read table as follows: No organization for elementary principals only reported annual dues of under \$1.00; four organizations for all principals reported dues of under \$1.00; a total number of four reported dues of under \$1.00.

The average percent attendance of the total membership in 40 local principals' organizations is approximately 75, according to data in Column 11, Table 1.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE PERCENT ATTENDANCE AT REGULAR MEETINGS

Percent	Organizations for Elementary Principals Only	Organizations for All Principals (Both Elementary and High School)	Total
30-39.....	1	1	2
40-49.....	0	2	2
50-59.....	1	1	2
60-69.....	2	5	7
70-79.....	7	4	11
80-89.....	1	2	3
90-99.....	0	6	6
100.....	4	3	7
Not designated.....	3	2	5
Total	19	26	45

Read table as follows: One organization for elementary principals only reported an attendance of between 30 and 39 percent at regular meetings; one organization for all principals (both elementary and high school) reported an attendance of between 30 and 39 percent; a total of two reported between 30 and 39 percent attendance.

Table 3 gives the average percent attendance at regular meetings for both types of principals' organizations: (1) those including only elementary school principals, and (2) those including both elementary and secondary school principals.

The relationship between the superintendent's office and the local principals' organization is described by school superintendents in

phrases such as these: "Complete harmony and splendid cooperation," "excellent," "cordial cooperations," "harmonious," "superintendent is honorary member," and "interesting and helpful." See Column 3, Table 4.

In reply to the question, Has your organization promoted a program of professional study during the last year?, thirty out of the forty superintendents of schools replying answered in the affirmative. See columns 4 and 5 of Table 4. Also see Table 5.

TABLE 5.—PROGRAM OF PROFESSIONAL STUDY PROMOTED BY ORGANIZATION

Professional Study Promoted	Number Organizations for Elementary Principals Only Reporting	Number Organizations for All Principals (Elementary and High School) Reporting	Total
Yes	13	17	30
No	2	8	10
Not designated	4	1	5
Total	19	26	45

Read table as follows: Of the 30 organizations reported as having a program of professional study, 13 were organizations for elementary principals and 17 were organizations for all principals (both elementary and high school).

"The Curriculum" was the subject of professional study most frequently undertaken by local principals' associations during the past year. Among other topics studied were these: Promotions and non-promotions, individualizing instruction, salaries, the school principal's job, school finance, classroom methods, etc. See Column 6, Table 4.

A comparison of Column 11 of Table 1 and Column 5 of Table 4 shows that in most organizations where professional studies are carried on the percent of attendance at regular meetings is high. Column 7 of Table 4 shows that among other important activities carried on by local principals' organizations, in addition to professional study are these: Social and legislative activities, publicity, salary campaigns, lecture courses for teachers, bond issue campaigns, teachers' retirement system, promotion of safety instruction, cooperation with civic associations, and American Education Week.

CHAPTER XII

IMPROVING READING INSTRUCTION IN THE LIGHT OF CURRENT PRACTICES IN GRADES FOUR, FIVE, AND SIX

CLARENCE R. STONE

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EXPERT supervision always ascertains what practices are in use in the classroom as a point of departure in attempting to improve instruction. A careful study of the present practices of reading instruction in grades four, five, and six, makes clear the outstanding needs in the supervision of reading in these grades. It is with the hope of helping principals and other supervisors that the study herein reported has been undertaken and that the section on objectives and methods in silent reading has been included.

I. TWO INVESTIGATIONS OF CURRENT PRACTICE IN READING

Hosic's studies—Hosic made a detailed study of the questions and other study helps in four series of literary readers for the middle and upper grades and secured a complete stenographic record of eighteen reading lessons in these grades in seven different schools in Chicago. His analysis and classification of the questions in the texts showed a large preponderance of questions in detail in comparison with questions involving consideration of the unit of literature as a whole, or of its major values. He says,¹ "The overwhelming majority of these questions were found to relate to details, particularly linguistic and informational details." Concerning the questions used by teachers in the eighteen lessons observed, he says, "In general the questions of the teachers are strikingly similar to the questions put down in the textbooks." Concerning common practices in teaching reading, he says, "Both the stenographic reports themselves and the quantitative results of the analysis of them seem to indicate a tendency in practice to deal with details at the expense of the whole. . . . Apparently the reading course in the intermediate and higher grades of the American schools is still largely a formal course in oral reading, the study of vocabulary, and the acquiring of miscellaneous knowledge, rather than a course in the interpretation and enjoyment of literature."

¹ Hosic, James F. *Empirical Studies in School Reading*, Columbia University, Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 114, 1921.

By experimental teaching, involving the use of a method that gave a vivid impression and imaginative experience of the literary unit as a whole and a method that consisted primarily of dwelling on details, Hosic showed that the positive method of the whole was far superior in developing appreciation than the negative method of details. He says, "Too much analysis and questioning upon detail is thought to hinder rather than help. From first to last the selection should be regarded as a single organic whole."

Cooperative study of the Department of Elementary School Principals—In the *Third Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, the writer reported the results of an investigation relating to current practices in reading in the middle grades, particularly in relation to oral reading. The study was based upon 228 reading lessons in grades four, five, and six, observed and reported upon by fifty different principals in all sections of the country. The following is the summary of that study:

1. While silent-reading methods are being used to considerable extent in the middle grades in the better class of schools throughout the country, the traditional oral-reading method is still the leading one.
2. Audience reading is being used to a small extent, but by and large the importance and possibilities of providing the audience situation in the oral-reading lessons is not sufficiently realized by the rank and file of classroom teachers.
3. The reports of the lessons in which poetry was the subject-matter show that in the main the teachers understood the relation of oral reading to the problem of developing appreciation.
4. Judging from the small amount of material covered and the teachers' reasons for having the material read orally, one is forced to conclude that the traditional non-audience oral-reading lesson proceeds by a slow, analytical, piecemeal method entirely inadequate in developing good audience reading, skilful silent reading, or in realizing the content values that should be realized in the middle grades through extensive reading.

II. GENERAL PLAN OF THE INVESTIGATION HEREIN REPORTED

Purpose of the investigation—The purpose of the investigation reported in this article was to determine the present relative emphasis on silent and on oral reading in the middle grades and to extend the previous investigation by making a detailed study of practices with reference to silent-reading methods. It was desired, for instance, to determine the extent to which plans for group work are being used in conducting reading lessons, and to gather helpful suggestions concerning plans for organizing classroom instruction in reading so as to secure a maximum development of each individual in the class. In relation to silent reading, the specific objectives were (1) to find out the extent to which problem methods that center attention upon the whole selection or a few leading ideas and major values are being used in comparison to methods that deal primarily with details and word

study; (2) to determine the attention being given in the classroom to independent recreative reading; and (3) to gather helpful suggestions concerning effective testing and training methods for developing skills, habits, and abilities in silent reading. The ultimate purpose of the investigation was to throw light upon improvements needed and to suggest means of improvement.

Means of securing data—The plans for securing data on current practices involved the cooperation of the author, the editor of this yearbook, the Research Division of the National Education Association, and elementary school principals in all sections of the country. The following is a copy of the report blank (reduced in size), which was formulated by the writer and sent by the editor of the yearbook to one hundred principals in large cities and to one hundred principals in smaller cities of all sections of the country:

REPORT ON READING LESSON OBSERVED

NOTES:

1. Whenever possible, answer by checking or underlining.
2. Use other side of sheet whenever space left for an answer is insufficient.
3. Use one blank for each lesson observed.

I. School..... City..... State..... Grade.....

II. Indicate how the lesson was conducted by checking one of the five statements below:

- A. With all pupils of the room as one class with uniform material
- B. With part of the pupils in the room as a class with uniform material
- C. On the basis of a three group plan for the room
- D. On the basis of more than three groups in the room
- E. On an individual basis (includes library plan)

III. If you underlined (A) or (B) under II above, give the following:

1. Number of pupils in the class.....
2. Text used
3. Title of selection.....
4. Prose or poetry.....
5. Author
6. Is the class: (Check (a) or (b) below)
- (a) Fairly uniform in ability
- (b) Characterized by a wide range in ability

IV. Was the lesson an oral-reading lesson in the sense that the material used was read aloud consecutively? Yes No

V. If the lesson material was read aloud, was there a real audience situation in the sense that the reader was reading to one or more persons who had not read the material? Yes No If you answer "Yes," explain the plan briefly just below:

VI. If the period was spent with a group or class as a silent reading lesson, was the aim of the lesson mainly in relation to: (Check correct answer)

- A. Content, appreciation or experiential purposes
- B. Training purposes

C. Testing

If you checked (A) under (VI) above, which of three methods listed below was used: (Check)

1. Method of the whole—one or more problems centering attention upon the value, significance, or meaning of the whole unit or of a few leading points.
2. Method of details—relatively large number of questions—attention centered mainly on details.
3. Informal procedure—explain on reverse side of this sheet.

If you check (B) under (VI) above, describe in the space below:

- (1) The specific training purpose; (2) A brief account of the procedure and material.

If you checked (C) under (VI) explain in the space below, the nature and purpose of the test given.

VII. If the lesson was conducted on the basis of three or more groups to the room, describe in the space below: (a) Basis of grouping; (b) Material and method used with each group.

VIII. If the lesson was conducted on an individual basis, describe briefly just how it was done in the space below:

.....
Name of Principal who filled out this blank

(Return not later than November 15 to Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.)

The following paragraph is from the editor's letter of October 15, 1925, which accompanied the report blanks sent to the principals:

Will you kindly assist the Department of Elementary School Principals in a study of current practices in reading? We would like to have you observe three to five recitations in reading in grades four, five, and six without giving advance notice of your visits and then report upon your observations using the inclosed blanks. (Use one blank for each observation made.)

One hundred and fifty reports received and studied—Forty different elementary school principals, representing all sections of the United States, observed and reported upon one hundred and fifty lessons in grades four, five, and six. Certain tabulations were made from these reports by the Research Division as an aid to the writer in reporting upon the study. Much of the information on the reports does not permit of statistical treatment. The reports were classified and studied with reference to the purposes previously indicated.

III. INTERPRETATION OF THE REPORTS WITH SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING READING INSTRUCTION

Current practices in regard to classroom organization—Of the 150 lessons reported, 79, or 53 percent, were conducted with all pupils of the room as one class with uniform reading material in hand. The following shows the distribution of these 79 classes as to size:

4 classes ranged from 12 to 19 pupils each					
14	"	"	"	20 to 29	" "
49	"	"	"	30 to 39	" "
12	"	"	"	40 to 48	" "

Of the 79 lessons conducted with uniform material in the hands of all the pupils, 43, or 54 percent, were oral-reading lessons and 36, or 46 percent, were lessons connected with silent reading. The 43 oral-reading lessons with uniform material in the hands of all the pupils could not very well have real audience situations for the oral reading. Yet, in a considerable number of these cases, the principals checked *yes* under V in the reports. The explanation asked for in the space below served as an excellent check on the correctness of the principal's report with reference to the audience situation, and revealed the fact that some of the principals apparently do not understand what is meant by a real audience situation. In explaining the plan for the audience situation, one principal wrote, "Lesson had been studied day before class reading. Each reader stood before the class while reading. Questions were asked regarding content." It is appropriate at this point to suggest that merely having the reader stand before the class does not constitute an audience situation. Furthermore, having the pupils close books while one pupil reads aloud does not provide a real audience situation. There must be one or more persons entirely dependent upon the reader for the meaning before there is a real audience situation. In interpreting the reports, then, it seems nearest the truth to consider all of the 43 oral-reading lessons with uniform materials in the hands of all the pupils as lacking a real audience situation.

The writer would not say that reading lessons in the middle grades should never be conducted with uniform material in the hands of all the class, but the use of such a plan appears to be altogether too common.

The remaining 71 lessons are distributed as follows with reference to classroom organization:

Thirty-one with part of the pupils in the room as a class with uniform material
Fifteen on the basis of a three-group plan for the room
Seven on the basis of more than three groups in the room

Eighteen on the basis of all pupils as one class without uniform material. These lessons classify as follows:

- Twelve individuals reading to class as an audience
- Three library plan (silent reading)
- One pupil searching for information bearing on a problem
- One pupil reciting original biographies of Franklin

The class-fashion type of lesson with one or two classes to the room apparently predominates in the reading lessons in the middle grades in the great majority of American classrooms. The writer believes the three-group plan of classroom organization based on reading abilities and needs is the most practical plan. Both informal reading activities and the more formal class-fashion type of instruction undoubtedly can be utilized to good advantage.

Current practices with reference to oral reading—The reports show that just one half of the 150 lessons were conducted as oral-reading lessons. Of the reports on the 75 oral-reading lessons, 14 reports contain clear evidence that there was a real audience situation in the sense that the pupils read to one or more persons who did not have the material in hand and had not just previously read the material.

In discussing improvement in oral reading as an aim in the middle grades, the *Report of the National Committee on Reading* (1915), on page 57, says, "It is important that strong motives for reading and real audience situations be provided." Classroom practice appears slow in putting into effect this essential principle, which has been constantly emphasized in educational literature during the last fifteen years. The reports indicate that oral reading continues to hold an undue prominence in classroom practice in the middle grades and that the oral reading is usually conducted under artificial condition with the center of attention focused upon the mechanical elements rather than upon the conveyance of meaning and feeling under conditions of strong and proper motives.

Current practices closely related to silent reading for experience, appreciation, and other content values—Objectives in reading instruction closely related to the content and to methods of providing vivid experiences and keen appreciation are as follows:

1. To enrich and extend experience.
2. To establish permanent, varied, and desirable interests in reading.
3. To inculcate fundamental ethical attitudes and ideals.

Of the seventy-five lessons classified as related to silent reading rather than to oral reading, thirty-seven were reported as class recitations with the primary purpose closely related to content, appreciation, and experiential values. The following shows the number of recitations using each of the three methods listed on the report blanks.

Fifteen method of the whole—one or more problems centering attention upon the value, significance, or meaning of the whole unit or of a few leading points.

Twenty method of details—relatively large number of questions—attention centered mainly upon details.

Two informal procedure. (Requested description given in only one.)

These data indicate that probably a majority of teachers who are using silent reading methods to realize objectives closely related to the content, such as extending and enriching experience and developing reading interests and appreciations, are carrying over from the stereotyped analytical oral reading method the piecemeal method of details. However, it is promising to see a considerable percentage of teachers using the problem method with attention centered upon major values and leading ideas.

Of the two reports indicating an informal class-fashion procedure, one gives no description of the procedure as requested. The other report gives the following data:

I. Grade 6. II. Lesson conducted with all pupils of the room as one class with uniform material. Forty-five pupils in class—characterized by a wide range in ability. "Milo of Croton" from Guerber's *Story of the Greeks*. Aim of lesson mainly in relation to content. Informal procedure. The following questions were written at beginning of period: 1. Why was Milo considered very remarkable? 2. On which Greek colony did he live? 3. When did he start to train himself to be strong? 4. Who killed Milo? Class was told to read silently, then write answers on paper. Answers were read and results checked. Seventy-five percent of class obtained perfect answers.

Apparently the aim in this lesson is more closely related to testing and training purposes than to content purposes. Attention is apparently focused upon a test result rather than upon the inherent values of the content. Some persons might call this lesson an informal test. The writer believes that it is unfortunate that the term informal has been applied by some writers to designate a certain type of test. Any test in the sense of yielding a measure is bound to be more or less formal.

Among the reports indicating a less formal organization and procedure than the usual class-fashion type of recitation, three report the use of the library plan. The following report is interesting and suggestive:

Some children were reading books from the public library. These went on with such books. Others were reading stories from the classroom library. These books were handed out and children continued to read silently. The teacher suggested books and magazine stories for such children as had no reading material. Then he went about from child to child, helping, suggesting, encouraging, and receiving little reports on the work done.

The relatively small number of lessons utilizing the informal library plan is disappointing. This type of reading activity is essential in developing varied, permanent, and worthwhile reading interests. In the opinion of the writer it should constitute about one fourth of the entire program reading time in the middle grades.

Current practices in testing and training lessons in silent reading—

Reports for thirty lessons give clear evidence that in each case the primary purpose was to test, to train, or both to test and to train. A reproduction of ten reports, representative of the best and of the poorest lessons, will now be given together with constructive comments.

(1) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted on an individual basis. VI. Specific training purpose: to train a class, slow in comprehension. Material and procedure—cards containing directions to be acted out were distributed, face down, and three to a pupil. One by one, the pupil turned the cards and executed commands. Incidentally training in speed was given, since pupils were required to comply promptly with direction card.

As indicated at the beginning of this report, this exercise was apparently conducted on an individual basis. The writer believes that greater social value and better training outcomes would result from grouping the pupils according to needs and conducting similar lessons as group exercises with the reading material in such form that all the pupils in the group can read the direction being executed.

(2) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted on basis of four groups with uniform material. III. 30 pupils; The Silent Readers—Fifth; The Two Charlemagnes; prose; pupils fairly uniform in ability. VI. Specific training purpose: Training in observation, memory, selection of important points in the selection. Procedure: Three minutes for explanation of new words, location on map. Seven minutes for silent reading. Ten minutes for preparation for recitation. Twenty minutes for discussion. Leaders of groups consulted with other members of their groups. Aim of group 1—to tell the story in words. Aim of group 2—to ask pertinent questions on the lesson. Aim of group 3—to act the story. Aim of group 4—to draw as many pictures of the scenes as there were members in the group.

Although the details of the first step are not indicated in the report, the writer believes that the preliminary attention to words as usually done is psychologically wrong and induces the wrong reading attitude on the part of the pupils. The text contains a good introductory approach to the lesson and five good problems centering attention upon significant major points. The aim of the editor of the text was evidently to train in comprehension of leading ideas in a selection. The writer feels that a teacher better trained in the details of specific purposes in training lessons in silent reading would have recognized the editor's aim and utilized the helps in the text. Then the excellent group plan as outlined in the report might well have been carried out in connection with a re-reading of the selection.

(3) I. Grade 6. II. Lesson conducted on basis of four groups to the room. VI and VII. The class had been given a test for speed and comprehension, and as a result of this test, the class was arranged in four groups as follows: 1. Needing speed and comprehension; 2. Needing work to increase speed; 3. Needing work to increase comprehension; 4. Those who are capable of reading with little supervision. The teacher was working with Group II. Each child read the story silently, raising his hand as he finished. When each one had finished, he was told how quickly he had finished. This way he was able to check up on himself. The stories are kept practically the same length, so the improvement in speed can be

more accurately judged. The thought of the story is then checked upon, so the children do not acquire careless reading habits. While Group II was working with the teacher, Groups I and III were reading silently to answer questions which the teacher had written upon the board, and Group IV used this time to read a story from some book from the class library.

Grouping pupils on the basis of one test is precarious. For the purpose indicated, an average or total result of two or three tests yielding rate and comprehension scores would be a more reliable guide in grouping. Such a plan of grouping and training for the specific purpose indicated should not be continued to the neglect of training for a number of other equally important specific purposes, such as vocabulary, organization, and accuracy, for which a different grouping might be better.

(4) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted with half of the pupils as a class with uniform material. III. Twenty-five pupils. The Silent Readers—Fifth Reader, *Gerry of the Signal Corps*. Class fairly uniform in ability. VI. Specific training purpose and procedure: Skimming. Questions asked containing keyword to look for. Sometimes teacher would ask for it, but as pupils have these lessons about once a week, they seemed to be able generally to find it for themselves. After quickly finding the answer, books closed while they wrote it. Books opened to verify and check right or wrong. Several answers read and discussed. Papers graded by writers and handed in.

This type of procedure appeals to the writer as a valuable one. There is a definite objective and the procedure was well planned to realize the objective.

(5) I. Grade 4. II. Lesson conducted with part of pupils in the room as a class with uniform material. III. Twenty-four pupils reciting. Everyday Classics Fourth Reader: *Cosette* (Prose). Pupils characterized by a wide range of ability. VI. Test. Aim: to test speed of comprehension. Time: three minutes to find average for one minute. Teacher explained purpose and plan, gave page and line. At signal all read silently. One used lip-movement most of time, two used lips some. Standard—140 words per minute. Greatest read 403 words. Eleven pupils fell below standard. The second highest read 318 words per minute and answered 17 questions promptly and accurately. Individual graphs to be made and record improved. During the study period that followed the true-false test, the pupils wrote on paper how many things showed the fright *Cosette* felt on the way to the spring. Books were used.

The details of the test procedure are not entirely clear. It is not clear whether all the pupils read the whole story or whether all stopped at the end of three minutes. If they all stopped at the end of three minutes, a comprehension test of twenty true-false statements would not yield comparable scores. If the pupils were permitted to complete the story, the test is open to the objection that the text contains one whole page and two half-page illustrations. It is difficult to tell how much of the meaning may be gotten through the pictures. There seems to have been no follow-up work for the comprehension test. The citation or copying of sentences to verify the correctness or incorrect-

ness of the true-false statements would have been a valuable follow-up exercise for the study period. Instead the teacher assigned an entirely new problem.

(6) I. Grade 4. II. Lesson conducted on basis of two groups to the room. VII. Grouped according to judgment of teacher. Group I—Elson Reader, Book IV, *Baucis and Philemon* (prose). Read first to increase speed and for understanding. Counted number of words per minute. Told story as far as had been read, each child adding a little more to the story. Teacher then told group to finish the story and gave some written questions to test their understanding. Group II—Fifty Famous Stories Retold—*The Ungrateful Soldier* (prose). Method—silent reading. Blanks were filled and true and false statements were checked.

This teacher has evidently realized the importance of using simple material with the less capable group. The use of material of the proper level of difficulty for the group is essential in realizing the full benefit of grouping according to ability. Tests probably would have aided the teacher in making a more accurate grouping of pupils. With the proper materials and management, a three group plan will meet the problems of individual differences and needs better than a two group plan. Tests would probably have revealed to the teacher a greater range of ability than he thought existed in the room.

(7) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted with all pupils of the room as one class with uniform material. III. 31 pupils—characterized by a wide range of ability. Child's World Fifth Reader—*John Maynard* (prose). Note.—This teacher will group his class at end of month. This is first month of school. VI. Specific training purpose—to teach pupils how to study. The teacher wrote the following instructions on board: "Read the story, *John Maynard*, and be able to tell the story. Make a list of the hard words so that you will be able to read it to some one aloud. Begin." One pupil was asked to tell the story before the class. This pupil failed. A second pupil then told the story fairly well. Pupil No. 1 was asked if he knew why he failed to tell the story. He did not know. The teacher then explained that he began to read and that he should have read the selection first to get content, then again to get his list of words. Teacher then told class that pupil No. 2 was on a list of pupils in the class who knew how to study. He read this list of about ten pupils. He then told class how to prepare the reading lesson: 1. Read for content. 2. Read again and make a list of difficult words. Look up and pronounce these words. 3. Read a third time aloud to members of family.

The tactics used in showing pupil No. 1 the "error of his ways" show some skill. But the teacher needs some instruction himself concerning how to study a reading lesson. Why list words and learn to pronounce them? Why read the material aloud to the folks at home? Evidently he has in mind practice for oral reading, which is not study. Presuming that good oral reading is the objective, he failed to provide a strong motive which is the first essential. However, his test for pupil No. 1 was a test of silent reading and reproduction. For this purpose he should advise the pupil (1) to read the selection through rapidly to get the whole account in mind; (2) to make an outline of the main points; (3) to practice recalling the story with the outline in hand;

(4) to practice recalling the story without the outline in hand. Why did the teacher place the word "begin" at the end of the assignment? Is he imitating a point in testing procedure entirely foreign to a good assignment of study? Apparently this teacher needs skilful sympathetic supervision and needs a course in the psychology of reading and study.

(8) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted with all the pupils of the room as one class with uniform material. III. 36 pupils. Fairly uniform in ability. The Silent Readers—Fourth Reader, *Clear Thinking* (prose). VI. Specific training purpose—to train pupils in following directions. Procedure: They were told to read the paragraph at top of page 13. They were to read the eight directions and follow them. Teacher worked with class in checking work.

No doubt time was wasted for the superior pupils in the class. Let us presume that the teacher did not know which pupils in the class needed training of this type. The pupils might have executed the directions during a short study period. After the teacher or some bright pupil, using a previously prepared key, had checked the papers, a recitation period in follow-up corrective teaching and drill might have been spent with pupils needing such training, while the pupils who followed the directions correctly were given a more profitable type of reading activity.

(9) I. Grade 5. II. Lesson conducted with all pupils of the room as one class with uniform material. III. 36 pupils fairly uniform in ability. Bolenius Fifth Reader—*The Fish I Didn't Catch*. VI. Test. Rate and comprehension tested. Both scored by pupils—teacher directing. Pupils left with a desire to improve and looking forward to the next test.

There is a serious question whether a literary unit, such as the one by Whittier used in this lesson, should be used for a rate and comprehension test. The editor of the reader provides a considerable list of questions and exercises at the end of the selection and in the manual he suggests this unit as a good one for topical outlining. He suggests nine divisions and provides sectional numbers in the text to show these. Evidently the teacher is not following the manual.

(10) I. Grade 6. II. Lesson conducted with all pupils of the room as one class with uniform material. III. 22 pupils, fairly uniform in ability. Elson Reader, Book VI. *Voyage of Ulysses* (prose). VI. Training and testing. Pupils being trained to master new words appearing in lesson. Were required to study words by visualizing them. A good many words of the story were hard for the pupils to pronounce and spell. Many of them had been marked and the pupils studied them and then wrote them.

This report is an excellent illustration of "words" instead of thoughts being placed in the focus of attention. Evidently the class is using material that is too difficult. The teacher needs the sympathetic aid of an expert supervising principal and needs to study modern methods of teaching reading.

The thirty lessons reported as being primarily for testing and training purposes were reported by eighteen different principals in seventeen different cities in fourteen different states representing all sections, east, west, north, south, and central. Although the number of lessons is too small to furnish conclusive evidence as to current practices with reference to purposes and procedures in specialized training in silent reading, yet it is somewhat indicative of general practice.

Apparently many teachers and principals are awake to the need of training lessons in silent reading. Judging from the 30 reports and from personal observation of many reading lessons in classrooms in various centers during the last few years, the writer believes that the greatest needs on the part of principals and teachers with reference to the problems of training in silent reading are as follows: (1) A well formulated outline of specific objectives for training in silent reading; (2) recognition of the importance of centering upon one of these specific objectives as the primary aim of a particular training lesson; (3) knowledge of the essentials in method with reference to each specific objective; (4) recognition of the importance of using material specially adapted to the method; (5) recognition of the importance of grouping the pupils for training according to specific needs as indicated by tests and teacher judgments; and (6) an adequate supply of materials specially planned for attaining economically the specific objectives.

Conclusions based on the reports—The reports undoubtedly show that a large percentage of progressive schools are giving attention to silent reading as a process distinctly different from oral reading and are utilizing silent-reading methods for attaining aims closely related to content, experience, and appreciation and are also using specialized methods and materials for testing and training purposes. In the silent-reading lessons for content and appreciation purposes, no doubt many teachers are using positive methods that give vivid impressions of the literary unit as a whole. However, probably the majority of teachers are using negative methods of detail in the reading lessons for content values and literary appreciation. Many progressive schools are awake to the need for specialized training in attitudes, habits, and abilities essential to skilful silent reading. However, many teachers apparently do not understand methods of determining individual needs for such training, and are unaware of the importance and advantages of grouping pupils to insure a maximum development of all the children. Teachers need the guidance of well planned programs of reading instruction with reference to general and specific objectives and varied methods to accomplish these varied purposes. There is an apparent need for adequate material specially suited to training purposes.

Oral reading continues to hold an undue prominence in current practices in the middle grades, and the stereotyped, non-audience, piecemeal, oral-reading procedure appears to be altogether too common in the middle grades in spite of the almost universal condemnation of this type of lesson in educational courses and by prominent educational speakers and writers.

III. OBJECTIVES AND METHODS IN SILENT READING

General objectives in silent reading—The following is a brief summary of the general objectives in silent reading:

1. To enrich and extend experiences.
2. To establish permanent, varied, and desirable interests in reading.
3. To inculcate fundamental ethical attitudes and ideals.
4. To cultivate the attitudes, habits, skills, and abilities essential to efficient silent reading.

For the achievement of the first three aims an abundant supply of varied content of excellent quality and of the right level of difficulty for the class is essential. Informal methods and positive methods that focus upon vivid impressions of the whole and relate the major values to actual experience are the most effective in realizing these aims. Wide reading of varied types of materials is an essential in realizing these objectives.

Specific training purposes—With a certain percent of the pupils the fourth aim will be realized as a by-product of reading activities intended primarily to accomplish the first three objectives. However, many pupils will need specialized training lessons for the development of ability to do skilful silent reading. Such lessons should provide definite training in the following:

1. Recognizing word and phrase meanings of increasing difficulty.
2. Interpreting sentences of increasing complexity.
3. Grasping the central idea of the paragraph, of a section, and of the selection as a whole.
4. Comprehending the essential conditions of a problem.
5. Locating and selecting data bearing upon a problem.
6. Analyzing, associating, and organizing the various elements in reading matter.
7. Perceiving the purpose of the author.
8. Comprehending the author's organization.
9. Evaluating statements and judging the validity of conclusions.
10. Increasing the rate of reading within the limits of adequate comprehension.
11. Concentrating upon leading points for purposes of retention and recall, such as reproducing to others.

Purpose of test lessons—The ultimate purpose of tests is, of course, the improvement of instruction. The immediate purpose of a test lesson is to measure. Wisdom in testing contemplates the use of the measurement results in relation to training purposes. A lesson that

involves measurement as its immediate objective is called a test lesson. A lesson that has for its main purpose a training objective, although a test result may be involved, is more appropriately called a training lesson than a test lesson. Many so-called "informal tests" are really not informal. Usually such exercises may be more appropriately called training lessons because the primary immediate purpose is the training result rather than the test result.

Types of responses utilized in lessons in silent reading—In the stereotyped oral-reading lessons, we may think of the oral reading as a response. One of the problems of effective silent-reading lessons is to provide varied responses that make a consecutive oral reading unnecessary. The following is a list of responses commonly used in lessons in silent reading.

1. *Discussion of problems*—This type of response is particularly valuable in connection with lessons whose objective is primarily in relation to the content, such as lessons for enriching and extending experience, for developing interests and appreciations, and for inculcating ethical attitudes and ideals.

2. *Action response* in relation to direction sentences, demonstrations, plays, rhymes, games, tricks, and dramatization of stories.

3. *Manual responses* of cutting, drawing, coloring, construction, and the like.

4. *Matching responses*, such as matching pictures and expressions, paragraphs and headings, riddles and answers.

5. *Two-choice responses*, such as, yes or no and true or false.

6. *Multiple-choice responses*.

7. *Citation responses* for training in verification. In silent-reading lessons many occasions arise in which it is an appropriate and essential part of the procedure to have the pupils prove or disprove answers by citing expressions in the reading matter. The verification step is essential in reading requiring special care, or exactness.

8. *Outlining response* as a means of developing ability to comprehend the organization.

9. *Telling responses* in reproducing, in answering questions, and carrying out directions.

10. *Written responses* in reproducing, in answering questions, and in carrying out directions.

11. *Completion response*.—The filling in of omitted words is a response sometimes used. Frequent use of this type of exercise may interfere with the development of mature habits of eye-movements, on account of the many regressive eye-movements involved.

Types of training lessons as to purposes—Every training lesson in silent reading should have a specific purpose. The procedure used in the lesson should be planned for the most effective realization of the specific objective. In many cases the material should be specially organized and printed to facilitate the procedure. The following are the main types of training lessons as to purpose:

1. TO DEVELOP ACCURACY AND DEPTH OF COMPREHENSION

Reading which requires accuracy and depth of comprehension of necessity must be done under conditions of deliberation and under

conditions allowing opportunity for verification. Exercises involving action responses and manual responses of drawing, cutting, and constructing are adapted for training for this purpose. It is evident that such exercises should not be done under the pressure of a short time limit.

2. TO DEVELOP SPEED OF COMPREHENSION

On the other hand, an exercise for the development of quickness of comprehension should be conducted under the pressure of a short exact time limit. Such exercises should be relatively simple. Often the units are numbered, and the child's objective is to see how many units he can complete in a definite time, such as five minutes. Investigations indicate that such exercises not only increase the speed of reading but also the accuracy.

3. TO TRAIN SPECIFICALLY TO GRASP THE MEANING OF IDEA OR THOUGHT UNITS

Comprehension may be improved (1) by special vocabulary exercises to increase mastery of word meanings and to develop independence in working out word meanings; (2) by training in comprehending sentences and questions; (3) by training in grasping the central ideas or the essential meaning of the paragraph as a whole; (4) by training in grasping the subject or main point of large sections of a relatively long unit; (5) by training in grasping the problem, major value, or leading idea of the whole selection.

4. TO TRAIN SPECIFICALLY IN THE FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE MORE COMPLEX FORMS OF INTERPRETATION IN STUDY READING

Training in silent reading in relation to study involves the use of well-organized informational material in non-narrative form for the following purposes: (1) To improve comprehension through reproduction, discussion of problems, and answering of questions; (2) to develop the ability to grasp the central idea of paragraphs; (3) to train in perceiving the author's purpose and organization; (4) to provide practice in locating and selecting expressions and statements bearing upon a particular point or problem; (5) to teach the technique of reading for special purposes of retention and recall.

5. TO TRAIN IN RAPID STORY READING WITH COMPREHENSION ADEQUATE FOR THE PURPOSE IN HAND

The types of training in story reading with method suggestions will now be given as follows:

1. *Developing speed*—Choose a rather easy long selection and divide it into several sections. In the preparatory step secure the

proper attitude on the part of the pupils for rapid reading and throw out a remark or leading question to stimulate interest in finding out what is in the first part of the story. More time should be spent in the actual silent reading than in the questioning and discussion. Advise the too slow reader to try reading faster and to tell you whether or not he gets the story better. Such pupils need to be drilled in a separate group with easier material. An exhibition of the poor comprehension of the too rapid, careless reader will usually be effective in causing him to read with more attention to the thought. Such pupils should be advised to read more slowly.

The comprehension check-up should emphasize the main point of the section and relate it to the plot of the story. This plan helps to give the poor reader the run of the story and makes it possible for him to read the next section faster and comprehend it better.

The idea is to go through the story under speed conditions, checking up the comprehension informally at the end of each reading stretch and covering the whole story in one period.

2. *Improving comprehension*—The practice of proceeding in a highly analytical, piecemeal fashion, with the major emphasis upon words and details unrelated to significant values, underlying problems, or leading ideas, has been altogether too common in teaching reading in the middle grades. The problem method avoids these fundamental deficiencies. In this positive method of focusing upon major values and leading ideas, words, expressions, and details are given attention; but they are given attention as they relate to the solution of problems designed to bring out the major value or essential meaning of the story. Such a method not only increases power of comprehension, but it also increases interest in reading, provides valuable experiences, aids in establishing permanent reading interests, stimulates thinking, and makes the reading period a real joy.

3. *Providing practice in reading for pleasure and general information*—In using more or less formal procedures in reading lessons, the school is in danger of neglecting practice in reading for mere pleasure and general information. Narrative informational material is adapted to informal practice in reading for pleasure and general information. In connection with such lessons, explain in the preparatory step that the story is to be read for the joy and pleasure of reading and for picking up any general information that appears to be of interest. After the pupils have read the story in this recreative fashion, have an informal discussion to give pupils an opportunity to relate the parts that interest them most and to contribute similar experiences of their own. Encourage the pupils to ask questions about points in the story that may have aroused their curiosity.

Concluding statements—In Part III the importance of basing each training lesson upon a definite objective has been emphasized. The importance of using a procedure adapted to the realization of the specific objective has been stressed. It has been pointed out that it will often be necessary to have the material specially organized to be suited to the necessary procedure. Varied types of specific teaching for clearly defined purposes to provide an adequate program of training in silent reading is probably the most important present need of most classrooms in the middle grades in relation to instruction in reading.

CHAPTER XIII

PUBLISHING A SCHOOL PAPER IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

MABEL HAVEN

Principal School No. 18, Yonkers, New York

THE POSSIBILITIES for effective education involved in the publication of a school paper can only be suggested in this article. Probably, there is no other activity in the school which offers so many opportunities for the development of good citizenship, or, in other words, strong intelligent, moral character. Briefly stated the chief objectives are to discover the children and then to assist them in the development of their latent capacities for leadership by training them to take initiative, to plan, to execute; to develop the spirit of team work by organizing an editorial staff comprised of members from four different grades as well as an editorial staff in each home room; to train children to take responsibility by giving a group of leaders the definite task of securing suitable material from each classroom; to train judgment by giving the children the problem of selecting the material to be used in the paper; to unify the school by having a common problem upon which all may work; to furnish a channel through which the children may express their ideas and ideals to each other and to the public; to encourage children to express their ideas clearly and with some degree of force and accuracy; to develop alertness for opportunities to serve.

The school where this paper is published consists of about 1500 pupils, over 98 percent of whom are of Italian birth. Italian is the language principally spoken in the homes. The kindergarten and first eight grades with a vocational class are in the same building. Five sixth grades, five seventh grades, and four eighth grades are working under a departmental system.

The monthly publication of our school paper forms a very important part in the education of our children. In planning the work the first purpose of the leader is to arouse genuine interest and then to provide for the development and expression of that interest. This is accomplished by suggesting possible fields for explanation and thus discovering the children's interests. A paper cannot be successful as an educative factor if it is not an expression of the children's ideas. The problems of the school in general, such as passing of classes, assembling before school and marching in, keeping the lawn in good

condition, providing for activity on the playground, the management of the basketball teams, the work of the student council and reports of committees under its directions are real and therefore of interest. The activities of each individual class also furnish much material. Interest is the mainspring of effort. Motivated effort is always the most effective and the most productive.

The first problem is the organization of the editorial staff. A new staff is chosen for every issue in order to give as many children as possible the experience of acting as editor. The editor-in-chief and the assistant editor are appointed from the eighth grades by the principal with the advice of the teachers. The principal discusses the problem of the selection of members of the staff with these two editors. By means of careful questioning the important duties and qualifications of each editor are agreed upon. Mimeographed copies of these conclusions are made and sent to each of the eighth grade rooms to assist the children in deciding what office to apply for.

The editor-in-chief advertises in each eighth grade for a story editor, news editor, sport editor, scout editor, joke editor and any other department editors he may choose to have. He appoints a time and place for interviewing each group. When the editor has selected his staff from these applicants, he informs the principal.

Meanwhile the principal has met the editor and his assistant and has discussed with them the possible material suitable for the paper. The result of this discussion is mimeographed and made ready for the editors.

Each home room selects a home room editor and provides for its own editorial staff. In some classes the children elect their editors, while in others the teacher appoints them. The home room editor serves for one school year but his assistants serve only twenty weeks.

The editorial staff chosen from the eighth grades, and the home room editors meet with the principal and discuss the mimeographed material. The principal leads in this discussion. She endeavors to explain the possibilities of the suggested materials and answers any questions pupils may have about any subject or about organization.

The home room editors launch the project in their own rooms. All are encouraged to write on some subject suggested, or better still upon one of their own. The editor in charge of the department takes all material belonging to him, reads it carefully and selects from it whatever he wants to use. He corrects this and hands it to the home room editor who in turn reads, selects and corrects whatever he deems best and passes it on to the editor-in-chief. As fast as it comes in this copy is turned over to the department editor in the eighth grade editorial staff. Here it is again read and corrected after which it is

handed to the principal. She examines it and if it is not necessary to make further rejections of material it is sent to the printers.

When the paper comes up from the shop, the editors of the paper meet with the staff selected for the next month and the principal, to review the finished work. The principal commends fine work and calls attention to glaring errors in spelling, English and arrangement of material. In this way the children learn what is excellent or good and also what may be improved. Joubert says, "Too much severity freezes our faults, and fixes them; often indulgence kills them. A good praiser is as necessary as a good corrector."

Children develop power by using what they already have. They delight in doing real tasks; the harder the better. The responsibility of selecting the editorial staff, organizing the home rooms, planning the paper, selecting and correcting copy, classifying and organizing material and finally managing the sale of the paper, belongs to the children. Consequently, they feel that it is their project and are very eager to make it worthwhile. One of the most interesting and educative experiences the principal has is the one when all of the editorial staff meets to decide what copy shall be rejected. She takes little part in these discussions. The children realize which article has real value and which one sounds good but isn't worth much. Each editor is desirous of publishing the best and the editor-in-chief is especially anxious to put out a fine paper. The degree of cooperation developed by means of this school activity cannot be measured. School spirit, judgment free from personality, pride in excellent work without thought of who did it, joy in achievement—real cooperation—are some of the fruits of the struggle made each month.

The school paper furnishes an open forum where children may express their ideas in regard to every activity in the school. Through its columns the president of the student council may keep his purpose and plans before the school. The captains of basketball may stir up enthusiasm. The various committees at work in the school have a means of making their work understood and thus may secure cooperation. Incidentally it motivates the work in English both oral and written throughout the school.

CHAPTER XIV

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CURRICULUM

C. A. HARWELL

Principal, Emerson School, Berkeley, California

THE EMERSON elementary school is located in a residential district adjacent to the campus of the University of California.

It has an enrolment of 375 children in kindergarten and grades 1 to 6 inclusive. In this community are to be found the homes of highly educated, successful men and women who are always anxious to cooperate in any way to make the school more efficient and more attractive. A strong well organized parent teacher association has been a feature of the school for years.

One year the improvement of the children's playgrounds had been their special project. A father's labor day and the raising of eight hundred dollars for playground apparatus and school ground beautification kept the organization very busy and very well satisfied with results accomplished. Next year the problem of improving the facilities for children and teachers was taken up. A school cafeteria and well equipped teachers' lunchroom resulted. In planning the parent teacher organization objective for the next year with the newly elected officers, it occurred to the writer that this group would welcome the opportunity to work more intimately with the teachers in carrying out some phase of the regular program of the school.

In such a community as this why should not the well equipped home libraries, and art collections, as well as the exceptionally well educated mothers and fathers, be used in an organized way by the school to enrich the curriculum of the children? On the other hand why should not the curriculum be modified at any time to meet the needs of the community?

The writer outlined the following plan which was enthusiastically received by the children, teachers, and parents: That we select a number of countries for special study during the year, that all classes of the school engage jointly in their study and that parents cooperate with teachers in arranging programs, exhibits, and excursions and in other ways to make the learning of their children more meaningful and more abundant.

We decided to study one country a month under the following schedule:

October, Holland
November, Switzerland

January, Mexico

February, United States

March, Norway and Sweden

April, Japan

May, kermess of all nations studied during the year, to be arranged as an outdoor pageant.

A general program committee was appointed by the president of the parent teacher association to serve for the year, with a sub-committee for each month. In appointing these sub-committees care was taken to select mothers who were particularly interested in the country assigned to the month, either because of travel or other special interest.

Through the year not less than one hundred parents took active part on committees helping in some of the following ways to carry on the purposeful activities of the children in connection with their study of these countries.

A group of mothers gifted in music served as a folk dance committee. By playing the piano and assisting the teachers and physical education supervisor in teaching suitable national dances to the children, the physical education program of the year was very much enriched. Similar assistance was given in teaching the national folk songs.

The committee on each country assisted teachers in finding suitable materials needed by the children in their activities. Books, pictures, magazine articles, natural and manufactured products were brought to the children to enrich their geography lessons, their history lessons or their language, reading, music or art work, in connection with this special study.

Parents were encouraged to study these countries with their children. One or more mimeographed notices were sent to all parents each month by the parent teacher association committees, telling of the progress of the project, what country was being studied, what supplementary materials were needed by the different classes and suggesting ways parents could cooperate. Parents were invited to visit the children at work in the classroom and to be present at assembly programs. Many excursions were made by parents with their children to museums, libraries or other sources for information needed in carrying out the project. The country being studied very often became the dinner table topic for the whole family.

Once a month an exhibit was arranged in the school auditorium under the direction of the parents' committee. This included not only the wealth of material sent in from the homes of our parents and from other sources for the occasion, but work of the children in their classrooms on the country under study. This exhibit was put up at

the time of the regular monthly meeting of the parent teacher association and remained in place two or three days so that all children had time to study it.

For the hour preceding the monthly meeting of the parent teacher association the program committee working with the teachers prepared a suitable "review" program of the particular country being studied for the children to which all parents were invited. Children contributed national songs or dances, talks on their work, and perhaps an original play or pageant which had been developed during the month. The parents' committee usually brought to the children an adult speaker, a reel of moving pictures, or colored slides, and always a member of the committee to explain the exhibit.

A costume committee was kept busy during the year supplementing the work of the girls' sewing classes in making costumes typical of these seven countries for children taking part in the plays or pageants developed from time to time by groups of children under the direction of their teachers. We had in mind from the first planning of the project that all the best from the programs of each month should be put together at the end of the year in a large outdoor pageant to be participated in by all the children of the school—a kermess of nations—so that many costumes were required.

Looking toward the kermess to be held in May a committee under the direction of one of the teachers developed an original pageant from month to month as the work went forward. The best ideas presented at the monthly assembly programs were woven together around the idea of California giving a party assisted by young America, Uncle Sam, and Freedom, to which all the countries of our project were invited. In the pageant as presented, characters and groups were first introduced to show the growth and development of California and the United States, then groups from foreign lands sought admission. They were welcomed by Freedom and Uncle Sam. They entertained with their national dances and folk songs and told what contributions they had to make to America and to California. They were in turn told what America expected of them, all groups exchanged their national flags for the Stars and Stripes, and the kermess closed with the singing of *My Own United States*.

A committee of mothers assisted the children and teachers in editing and publishing the kermess number of the *Emerson School Quarterly*. An assistant editor in each classroom together with the editorial staff from the high sixth grade assembled the worthwhile material on the countries of our project all during the year. Children were encouraged to illustrate their stories. Stencils were cut and the work of mimeographing, assembling and stapling was largely done by the committee.

In motivating and enriching the learning of the children and in bringing about a finer spirit of cooperation between parents and teachers this project had very great value. The home and the school too often find little in common as school programs are organized. Parents too easily excuse themselves for being uninterested in the work of the school on the ground that methods of instruction have changed so much or they do not understand the program of the school. In this cooperative project of the Emerson school, parents were not only made to know the program of the school—they actually helped formulate the program. The parent teacher association voted this one of their most worthwhile years and asked the privilege of working with the teachers in a similar way during the next year in bringing to all the children of the school the geography, history, literature, art, music and natural resources of our own state, California.

CHAPTER XV

PUPIL PARTICIPATION THROUGH CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

E. H. BASH

Principal, H. C. Kumpf School, Kansas City, Missouri

AN IMPORTANT function of the elementary school is providing opportunities for boys and girls to form civic habits and attitudes. During this period of life, children are particularly receptive to civic learning and respond readily to cooperative activities. Children are doers by nature and welcome any opportunity to work with problems which concern their interests.

Every community has certain civic activities in which schools should participate. Those which are common to every cooperating group are: health, safety, conduct, thrift, and other such welfare activities. All of these are vital in the education of elementary school children, and they should be given an opportunity to assume responsibilities in promoting such civic projects.

The school child should be educated *in* not trained *for* citizenship. In other words, the doing rather than the knowing should receive the emphasis. For this reason, pupils must be encouraged to carry on these civic activities through organizations of their own making. The following criteria may be used in judging the worthwhileness of activities for pupil organization:

1. The activity should be rich in civic possibilities.
2. It should satisfy a need of the pupil body.
3. It should provide active participation for all the pupils of the school.
4. It should provide possibilities for continuous and definite programs of work.
5. It should lend itself to a type of organization which will prove instructive.

Creating the proper school environment for an effective pupil organization program is the most important step in the project. First, it must be thoroughly sold to the teachers and principal of a school. There must be aroused in the teaching corp an enthusiasm for the program. This interest will come with the proper study and discussion of the aims and method of procedure for a pupil participation program. The attitude of the teachers should be one of understanding and sympathy for the endeavors of child life. The second step in obtaining this environment is to create a civic atmosphere and group spirit which will lead to a desire on the part of pupils to promote their civic activities. This requires skilful guidance on the part of teachers

and principal. The pupils should feel their responsibility for the project, therefore they must be encouraged to take the initiative.

For several years an experiment with pupil civic organizations has been carried on in the H. C. Kumpf school, Kansas City, Missouri. There have been numerous changes in the form of the organization during the time. However, the major aims of this project have remained the same throughout the experiment and may be thus stated:

1. To encourage in the pupil body those habits and attitudes which make for good citizenship.
2. To teach pupils civic appreciation through participation.
3. To familiarize the pupils with school and community civic problems by providing opportunities for civic responsibility.
4. To develop an understanding of good leadership and fellowship.

THE HOME ROOM CIVIC CLUB

The room or class group is the natural unit with which to begin civic organization work. In this cooperating group there is always, a loyalty and pride out of which civic impulses are continually surging. The size and homogeneity of the group is conducive to the successful promotion of an organization.

Prior to organizing the home room civic clubs, there existed in the Kumpf school several pupil civic organizations, such as the junior safety council, conduct committee, girl welfare association and other special interest clubs. This experience was very helpful in creating the desire for the home room organization.

The auditorium of a platoon school serving as a citizenship and integrating center is a great force for molding sentiment and stimulating pupils to desire and ask for participation in civic activities. In our situation the auditorium teachers discussed with the pupils their civic responsibilities in the school and community. The result was that one group asked their home room teacher to allow them to organize a civic club. The news spread and in a few weeks every room in the school, from the third to the seventh grade inclusive, had organized a civic club. They nominated and chose their president, vice president, secretary and members of the several committees needed. Five committees of three members each are to be found in every room at the present time. These committees are health, safety, conduct, thrift, and scholarship.

All committees have a continuous and definite program of work. For example, the health committee directs the daily health inspection which takes place in each room at nine o'clock every morning. The members of the health council of the upper grades do the inspection work in the kindergarten, first, and second grades. The safety com-

mittee conducts the safety activities of the group. The thrift committee keeps an accurate record of the banking of the room and continually works at the problem of increasing the list of depositors. The conduct committee has charge of the passing of lines and reports to the home room teachers any meritorious or unsocial conduct of its group. The scholarship committee selects work of the group for display on the bulletin boards and makes announcements of scholarship achievements in the assemblies. These are a few of the numerous activities of the home room civic club committees.

The civic club holds its regular meeting every two weeks during the language period. The meeting offers an opportunity for a well motivated oral language lesson and is so regarded by the teacher, who during the meeting is a sympathetic member of the club. Regular parliamentary procedure is followed in carrying on the meeting. This is simplified, of course, for the lower grades. Practically every child above the second grade who has been in the school for the past three years is able to conduct a meeting in a very satisfactory manner. The chairman of each committee makes a report at every meeting concerning the progress of the group. The entire meeting is taken up in discussing civic affairs of the class and school. The desirable outcomes from these reports and discussions tend to raise the civic and scholastic standards of the group. The spirit of striving for superior achievement, particularly in health, safety, thrift, conduct, and scholarship, is the dominating note of each meeting.

THE COUNCILS

The forming of the councils naturally grew out of the home room organizations. The committees of the several rooms became interested in their neighbor's efforts in thrift, safety, health, scholarship and conduct. They were anxious to have the school stand high in these civic activities. In order to promote these interests it was agreed that the chairman of all home room committees should meet to discuss ways and means of stimulating the interest of the entire school in these major activities. Out of this grew the five councils.

These councils function for the school in matters of thrift, scholarship, health, safety, and conduct as the home room committees serve their rooms or sections in those activities.

Regular meetings of the councils are held every other week. Each room has one representative. These representatives report the progress of their rooms and discuss methods and plans for improvement. The action of the councils is reported back to the home rooms by the representatives.

A teacher appointed by the principal acts as sponsor to each council. Each council elects its officers from its membership.

The organization and function of three of the councils will be found in the outlines which follow.

THRIFT COUNCIL

I. Purpose

1. To inculcate in pupils these habits of thrift which make them appreciative users of money, time and materials.
2. To promote the practice of thrift by pupil participation
 - a. conducting the banking, b. depositing savings, c. disseminating thrift propaganda.

II. Membership—Every child having a deposit in the school bank is considered an associate member of the council.

III. Organization—The active membership of the council is composed of the Thrift chairman from each home room civic club and the bankers.

A. Officers—President, vice-president, secretary. These are elected by the council from its membership.

1. Duties of officers

a. President

1. Preside at council meetings
2. Make announcements at assemblies
3. Distributes bank materials
4. Attends Senate meetings and give thrift report
5. Posts notices on bulletin board

b. Vice-president

1. Serves as chairman during the president's absence
2. Assist the president in carrying out duties of the office

c. Secretary

1. Keeps minutes of the council meetings
2. Checks in bankers on bank morning
3. Figures percents of deposits
4. Writes out and posts the standings of sections

B. Bankers

1. Manner of election

- a. Bankers are chosen from the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. They are selected on the basis of their ability to write neatly and figure accurately. They must be reliable.

2. Duties

- a. Attends council meetings
- b. Makes Thrift talks to the section they serve
- c. Reports at 8:20 A. M. on bank mornings
- d. Receives money and enters the amount deposited in the book of depositor

C. Director

The teacher of each room in which banking is done is a bank director.

A. Duties

1. Sees that depositors are orderly
2. Seals and signs envelope containing money
3. Assists bankers in checking up any irregularity in the banking.

SCHOLARSHIP COUNCIL

I. Purpose—To raise the standard of scholarship of the school:

1. By stimulating pupils to superior achievement through emphasizing neatness, accuracy, and effort.
2. By pupil participation in the selection of work deserving recognition.

II. Organization

A. Membership of council

The chairman of each home room scholarship committee

B. Officers: President, Vice-President, and Secretary.

These are elected by the council from its membership.

C. Duties of the officers

1. President

a. Presides at the meetings of the council

b. Represents the council in the senate

c. Makes announcements regarding the council in assembly

2. Vice-President

a. Assists the president

b. Presides in president's absence

3. Secretary

a. Records minutes of the meetings

b. Writes notices of meetings on boards in home room

D. Meetings

The council holds a meeting every other week after school hours.

Pupils from all sections who have done meritorious work are encouraged to bring it to the council meetings. From the work offered the council members make selections to be displayed or mentioned in assembly.

E. Activities of the council

1. Sees that those having meritorious work bring it to the council

2. Judges the work presented

3. Arranges displays

F. Suggested activities for home room scholarship committee

1. To select work of the section to be brought to the council

2. To report in the home room civic club the transactions of the council

3. To make scholarship talks before their respective groups

G. Suggestions for the various departments

1. Spelling

The names of pupils who have perfect records for one month are to be given to the scholarship chairman to be read in assembly.

2. Arithmetic

Frequently, written lessons or home work which is neatly and accurately done will be submitted from each room for display purposes.

3. Language

Pupils telling the best stories or writing the best compositions will bring their work to the council meeting with a view of use in assembly.

4. Library

a. Report on home reading by sections as shown by book circulation.

b. Report on required reading by sections.

c. Advertising new books.

5. Social Science

a. Exhibit of note books.

b. Well prepared oral or written compositions on geographical or historical subjects.

6. Music

Groups or sections which perform particularly well may be selected to appear on assembly or parent-teacher programs.

7. Art

Outstanding art work, such as lettering, poster, basketry or water color pictures will be displayed.

8. Practical Arts

Manual training and home economic products may be displayed in assembly or about the building.

9. Gymnasium

Pupils showing improvement in posture or corrective work will be recognized in assembly.

Pupils having the highest number of points toward their school letter will appear in assembly.

CONDUCT COUNCIL

I. Purpose

1. To improve the conduct of the school through pupil participation.
2. To educate pupils to respect authority and administer the same judiciously.
3. To set up standards of conduct which make for good citizenship.

II. Organization

A. Membership of the council

1. The chairman of each home room conduct committee.
2. Appointed seventh grade pupils who act as patrols.

B. Officers: President, Vice-President, Secretary.

These are elected by the council from its membership.

C. Duties of Officers.

1. President
 - a. Presides at meetings of the council
 - b. Represents the council in the senate
 - c. Directs the conduct patrols
 - d. Sees that offenders appear in the court
2. Vice-President
 - a. Assists the president
 - b. Presides in president's absence
3. Secretary
 - a. Records minutes of council
 - b. Writes notice of meeting on boards of home room
 - c. Takes care of conduct report blanks

D. Conduct Court

The council holds court each Tuesday after school. All those who have broken conduct rules meet with the council at this time. The charge is read against each offender and the members of the council act as witnesses and jurors. Certain privileges are taken away from the habitual offenders.

E. Activities of the councilmen

1. Serve as patrolmen
2. Make a report to his section when the home room civic club meets.

THE PUPIL SENATE

The senate is a representative body sponsoring all of the pupil activities of the school. The president of each home room civic club and the president of each council make up its membership. It plans with the pupils, teachers, and principal for all the big programs of the school such as Junior Red Cross membership drive, the annual Christmas program, boys week, thrift week, patrons week, and commencement. It is a booster organization and checks up through the home room civic clubs and councils the citizenship work as practiced in the school.

The president of the senate is elected by ballot. All the pupils from rooms having the home room civic club have the right to vote. The graduating class nominates four candidates from which the pupil body makes its choice. These candidates carry on a regular campaign through posters and by making speeches in assemblies and rooms. They also have their campaign managers who look after their interests. The school is divided into district and wards, and the election is carried on after the plan of our city. The election plans are worked out by the pupil senate. They also appoint the judges, clerks and count the ballots. The pupils take a very active interest in this election.

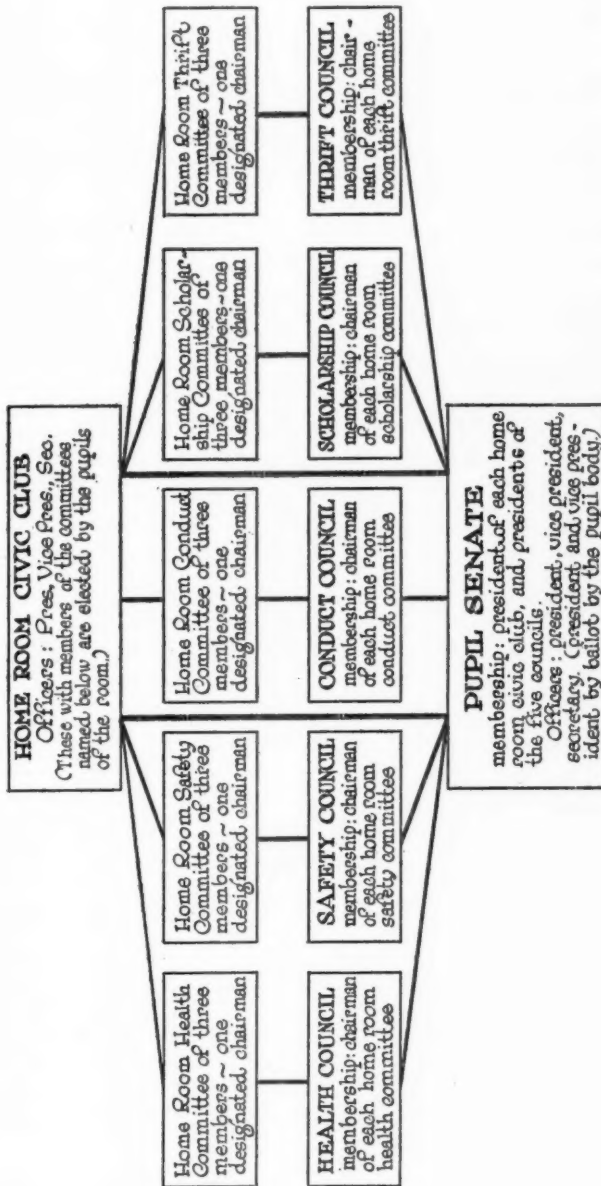
The senate meets every two weeks in the auditorium during the school day. At this meeting, each representative makes a report of the activities of his club or council. The organization is constantly at work on some civic project.

In order to determine the attitude of pupils and teachers toward these civic activities the writer recently circulated questionnaires to each teacher and three hundred fifty two pupils of grades four, five, six, and seven. Three fourths of the teachers have taught in the school for more than two years. Three hundred two of the pupils have attended the Kumpf school from two to seven years. This indicates that a majority of those reporting have had ample time and opportunity to judge the value of the civic training offered by the pupil participation program.

REACTION OF TEACHERS

1. All approved of the pupil participation plan.
2. A majority thought that it did not require more of the teachers' time than a non-pupil participation program. Several thought that the plan saved them time.
3. All felt that the time spent in promoting the organization work could be justified by the results obtained.
4. The following favorable changes in habits and attitudes were credited to the pupils' organization: (a) Pupils are more willing and able to assume responsibility, (b) they are more tolerant, (c) they have more regard for the welfare of the group, (d) the backward child becomes more self-reliant, (e) the pupils have a greater respect for the rights of others, (f) the pupils show more initiative, (g) leadership is discovered.
5. The questions asking for undesirable outcomes brought the following replies: (a) Pupils become too aggressive, (b) some pupil officers become "bossy," (c) pupils resent authority of other pupils, (d) encourages habit of teasing.

DIAGRAM SHOWING PUPILS' CIVIC ORGANIZATION *of an* ELEMENTARY SCHOOL



REACTION OF PUPILS

1. Number of pupils reporting, 352.
2. Number preferring a pupil participation plan, 346.
3. Number disapproving of the pupil organization plan, 6.
4. Number who have not held office since the organization work started, 68.
5. Those feeling that pupils having offices of authority were generally fair, 303. Those feeling that officers were not generally fair, 49.

OBSERVATIONS

The pupils' participation plan has given teachers greater confidence in pupils' ability to think and act for themselves. This has stimulated pupil activity in all phases of school work. The increased number of class and school projects initiated by the pupils and the high order of interest manifested by the pupils in these are evidences of this fact.

The three years in which this plan has been in operation has brought about a great change in the attitude of teachers and pupils toward discipline. The plan is more constructive, in that group approval or disapproval is the chief instrument used in obtaining the right conduct. Reporting a fellow pupil for misconduct is no longer regarded as tattling; it is an obligation.

The plan has increased school loyalty and a much higher order of sportsmanship prevails.

CHAPTER XVI

THE PRINCIPAL OF A PLATOON SCHOOL AND HIS SUPERVISORY DUTIES

JOHN MERRILL

District Principal, Detroit, Michigan

THE PLATOON type of school organization offers to the principal several advantages for the carrying out of an effective plan of supervision.

In the first place, half the teaching staff is composed of specialists handling such subjects as music, art, literature, library, health education, household arts, social science and auditorium. They are especially fitted by talent and training for the subjects they are teaching; therefore, much less time is required for training teachers for these special subjects. The time thus saved can be used to correlate and unify the work of every department to a greater degree than is possible in a traditional school.

Second, the home-room teacher, relieved of the teaching of the special subjects, devotes his time to the three R's and soon becomes somewhat of a specialist in his field. Each home-room teacher is responsible for two groups of children. The principal, therefore, has only half as many teachers to supervise in these academic subjects as he would have if his school were of the traditional type.

Third, oftentimes, particularly in a large school, a home-room teacher has two sections of the same grade. This admits of more homogeneous grouping of children of about the same mental range and of shifting from group to group, which tend to facilitate supervision and to make the instruction more effective.

Fourth, the platoon organization with the six hour school day, permits both the academic and the special subjects to be followed with greater regularity, thus making for fewer interruptions to the plan of supervision.

Fifth, the health education department relieves the other teachers from playground activities.

Sixth, the program allows each teacher a half hour rest each half day. These rest periods may sometimes be utilized by the teacher to confer with the principal about his work or to observe another teacher conduct a recitation.

The platoon organization in no way lessens the importance of supervision. In common with the traditional school, it needs a principal

*Specialist
not
supervised?*

with administrative ability and a supervisory technique founded on the modern philosophy of education; one who understands the psychology of abnormal as well as of normal children, teacher problems, instructional material, program making, etc. We are now interested in the ways in which the platoon principal actually handles the instructional activities that are affected by this type of school.

At present Detroit has 103 platoon schools organized under the leadership of Charles L. Spain, deputy superintendent of schools, and Rose Phillips, supervisor of platoon schools. In order to gain a representative idea of how the principals of these schools were handling instructional problems, the writer conferred with the principals in one district and an equal number of platoon principals scattered throughout the city. He found that quite definite programs were outlined. These were followed as closely as conditions would permit. The following general outline as presented by Mary DeManigold, principal of the Ferry school, contains points that are common in the schools studied.

Aims and problems of the school:

1. The spirit of coordination
 - (a) Unity
 - (b) Opportunity for growth
2. The principal's problem
 - (a) Establishing clear-cut goals
 - (b) Providing opportunity for growth of both pupils and teachers
 - (c) Developing and maintaining unity
3. School activities for improving instruction
 - (a) Conferences of teachers of related subjects for coordination of their work
 - (b) School projects
 1. Organization—provide the setting
 2. Detailed plans
 3. Execution
 - (c) Special problem committees
 1. Research
 2. Arithmetic
 3. Reading
 4. English
 5. Spelling
 6. Special Studies
 7. Local
4. Measuring progress

In carrying out the supervisory duties in the various schools studied, we find—

1. Frequent demonstration lessons are given by capable teachers, which are followed by general discussions as to method, organization, devices, goals, etc.

2. The principal concentrates his supervision on one subject at a time. This plan gives him a better opportunity of bringing outstanding work before weaker teachers. In carrying out such a plan a

schedule is made for each subject as to (a) time, (b) period, (c) teacher, (d) room, (e) grade.

3. In several schools interest in certain subjects is stimulated by questionnaires emphasizing correct methods preceding a supervisory visit by the principal. This has been done in silent reading, visual education, spelling, and supervised science study. (A questionnaire on the last named topic follows this discussion.)

4. Copies of mimeographed material in silent reading, local arithmetic problems, book lists, etc., are filed in the library in sets for use of teachers.

5. Committees are appointed to work out suggestions for unifying the work and creating more perfect correlations. Copies of their findings are given to each teacher.

To illustrate the service rendered by special committees, the report of the spelling committees of the A. L. Holmes school is here-inserted—

Your committee suggests:

(a) That the home-room teachers appoint a good speller in each section as a leader to carry lists of misspelled words from the literature classes or other special classes to the home rooms.

(b) That the literature teachers make out lists of words used during the oral composition periods that the children do not know how to spell. These lists can be carried to the home rooms for drill before the day for written composition.

(c) That after compositions have been written the papers can be exchanged and looked over for misspelled words. These words can be put on little slips of paper with the name of the child who misspelled the words. These lists can be collected and sent to the home rooms. During the spelling period these words can be used in sentences at the bottom of the study papers. They can also be put on the "Never Again List."

(d) The teachers of spelling should give pupils many opportunities to consult and use words in "My Never Again" and "My New Words" lists.

6. In order that the work of the various subjects may be closely correlated, the teachers of related subjects form themselves into groups, each group usually selecting its own chairman. In social science the group conference is large; it includes the science teacher, the home-room teachers, the librarian, the literature teacher, the auditorium teacher, and the general arts teacher. The work proposed for the next month is discussed. Suggestions are made for the use of references, slides, films, stories, poems, and other desirable related material. Small and sometimes large projects grow from these conferences. When the unit of work is large enough to embrace every department of the school, the principal calls a general meeting of teachers where the subject-matter to be studied is discussed and a tentative outline of work for each department is presented. This plan is broad and flexible allowing plenty of opportunity for initiative and originality for both teacher and pupil. The principal either participates in the group meetings or confers with the chairman.

7. Frequent group conferences are held, at which work accomplished is exhibited and ideas of members discussed. Often two or three teachers get together whenever the need arises. The finest kind of cooperation is thus brought about. One teacher may find material very helpful to another and some of the material may be used in several different ways.

8. A shelf is reserved in the library for references to the particular subject-matter. Here are also placed recent books, magazines, monographs, and clippings that have some bearing on the subject.

9. Much material is gathered by the children upon all phases of the subject being studied. This material is displayed, together with exhibits from outside agencies. A correlation chart placed where it may be consulted easily by the teacher (in the library, for example) shows what each teacher is doing in his particular line in every class. There is a column on this chart for home-room activities, science, library, music, gymnasium, penmanship, literature, art and auditorium. Each teacher fills in his column for each section in his particular subject. A few sentences or topics are all that are required. A teacher consulting the chart knows on what the other teachers are working. Charts indicating the work of a third and of a sixth grade class are given as illustrative of the charts in general use.

The principal of a platoon school endeavors to have his staff thinking and planning in terms of the whole school. Projects, therefore, may arise in any classroom as well as in the principal's office. Usually the auditorium rounds out the work of the various departments in the form of a pageant or play. This is illustrated by a report from Jenny Fleming, principal of Roosevelt school, of a project on "Records," the stimulation for which came from the art department. By means of the various schemes previously enumerated, a unit of work was planned and a tentative sketch made. The outline was presented at a meeting of the teachers. All the departments began work. Much of the background was furnished through reading and English in the home rooms, and through the regular class activities in literature, social science, and library. A fifth grade class, working on fractions, made a chart tracing the history of the development of fractions. All departments contributed. A wealth of material was produced. The material was used in the literature room to fashion a play, each class writing an episode showing the development of record keeping. Original material was used wherever possible, as the Mayflower compact, first Thanksgiving proclamation, American Indian picture-writing as described in Hiawatha, etc. The costumes designed by the art department were simple and suggestive. The auditorium finally rounded out the work of the various departments by putting on the

CROSS SECTION OF CORRELATION CHART

SUBJECT—FOODS AND UTENSILS

Third Grade

Home Room	Auditorium	Science	Literature	Gymnasium	Music	Library	Prac. Art
1. Silent reading exercises on proper foods. 2. Arith. Find cost of foods. Total grocery bill (store). 3. Compute cost of one meal or food for one week. 4. Cost of utensils. Reading rel. Hour, IV, pp. 104-105.	1. Etiquette. 2. Films and slides. 3. Wheat. Milk. Meat etc. 4. Hygiene beverages.	A. Booklet. 1. Glass. 2. Utensils. 3. History. 4. Process. B. Study of tin, iron, aluminum. C. Transportation of foods. D. Material gathered for construction of food map.	1. How clay was made. 2. How clay dishes were first made. 3. The Devilish of Mo-sha. 4. The golden pears. Composition. Letters. a. Invitation. b. Acceptance.	1. Flower Dance. 2. Jolly Miller.	1. The Train. 2. The Teaspoon. 3. The Boatman. (Songs about transportation of food.)	1. Exhibits of food and utensils from Museum. 2. Books for reference from Public Library.	a. Book. b. Table service. c. Place cards. d. Flower arrangement. e. Napkin holders. f. Poetry. g. Hebrew. h. Greek. i. Indian.

Sixth Grade

Home Room	Auditorium	Science	Literature	Gymnasium	Music	Library	Prac. Art
1. The Lay of the Laborer. 2. The Corn Song. 3. Story of the Reapers. 4. Maple Sugar. 5. Planting of the Apple Tree. (Horace Mann, VI.) Arithmetic. Family budget project involving all processes needed.	1. Slides and films on foods. 2. Etiquette. 3. Hygiene. 4. The Milk Question. 5. Sewage. 6. Refuse. 7. Drugs. 8. Alcohol.	1. Summary of food sources. 2. Transportation. 3. Preservation of foods. 4. Evolution of cooking. 5. Utensils: a. Gold. b. Silver. 6. Mining. 7. Source and use of iron, tin, aluminum.	1. A Banquet in the Day of King Arthur. 2. Nellie's Silver Mine. Composition. 1. Business letters to firms asking samples. 2. Invitations.	1. Etiquette from Minuet. Setting "Pean Hinneman, Vol. 3.	1. Wassel Song.	1. Order Art Muse-1. Book. 2. Arrange display. 3. Order and circulate books from Public Library. 4. Look up and mark good references. 5. Prepare reports to be given in Science and Literature room.	1. The Dinner. 2. Chart. 3. Table Setting. 4. Booklet. 5. Food and Balance. 6. The Story of Silver. 7. Construction of favors; placecards for special occasions. 8. Red Cross.

play. The program was largely the work of the children and showed the result of the creative thinking they had done.

Every principal interviewed spoke of the value of group conferences at which small units of work are as effectively correlated as those taking a longer period of time. Some of the larger projects being handled at the time of this study were the following: Europe, The American Indian, Theodore Roosevelt—the Typical American, The Plymouth Colony, Making the Constitution, Clothing and Textiles, Nature's Wonders, A Bird Project, A Pageant of Detroit.

The pupil measure of the success of the platoon school is indicated by their replies to a questionnaire sent around by Anna Maher, principal of the Howe school, a few months after the school had been reorganized. The following are a few of the answers:

1. The work seems easier.
2. Because it is interesting, entertaining, useful.
3. Because it is not so tiresome.
4. If you do not like a teacher you do not have to stay in his room all day.
5. It teaches us self-control.
6. The teacher specializes in one subject, therefore can teach better.
7. Something to look forward to all the time.
8. Because subjects from the other rooms are used in the Auditorium.
9. In one room the teacher could not have all the interesting things we have in a number of rooms.
10. It is better in every way.

Good reports are only an indication. Dr. Spain, who has general charge of all elementary instruction in Detroit, has carefully compared the standard test scores made by both types of schools and has studied the results from various angles. His study shows that "The platoon school is able to preserve the quality of training in the three R's which the public has always demanded, and at the same time through its auditorium and its lengthened school day provide a medium through which the ever-increasing demands which the public make upon the school may be met.

The study points out a few ways in which the platoon type of organization offers advantages to the principal in carrying out an effective plan of supervision.

It states that the same qualities of leadership are essential in the platoon and the non-platoon school.

It points out some of the ways a representative number of platoon school principals in Detroit are handling instructional activities in which correlation is used.

The principal of the platoon school thus has problems in supervision which are as serious as those confronting the principal of other schools. These problems, however, demand a different technique and a different phase of leadership to coordinate the efforts of the entire teaching staff.

..... School, Nov. 5, 1925.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCIENCE STUDY

1. Whom do you consider best fitted to have charge of science study? Why?
2. What procedure do you adopt during this period in your room?
3. What applications do you make of the principles of silent reading?
4. Can you see any value in applying multiple choice to content of paragraphs? Explain.
5. What visual aids are most used in your room during science study?
6. What to your mind is the outstanding reason why science study fails to function most effectively? Be definite and open in your criticism.

CHAPTER XVII

CHARACTER BUILDING

B. E. KOONCE

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YEARS AGO a high school principal well known to the writer remarked concerning a certain student, "To educate a boy like that is merely to make a clever devil." Most teachers have found from subsequent events that in certain cases they have been assisting in the training of clever devils.

The character of the pupils trained determines whether the efforts of the teacher are productive of good or bad. The church and the home are said to be responsible for the character and ideals of the future generation while the schools provide knowledge and skills to be used as these ideals and character dictate; but the church reaches only a small part of the children of the cities to any marked extent, and a large part of the homes, including the most prolific, set very low ideals and moral standards. If the schools do not do something to fix higher standards and form habits of honesty, cooperation, and service, a considerable portion of their labor will be expended on a rising generation of idlers, crooks, and criminals, to say nothing of discontented fault-finders too selfish to give the other fellow credit or see his point of view; and the part of their labors spent on honest, industrious citizens will be proportionately reduced.

What about the crime wave among boys, the disregard of traffic laws, and of public and private property? Some teacher's time has been spent on the people who are responsible for these things. Time spent on them is worse than wasted, for it makes them more able to get by with dishonesty and disregard of law, and gives them a social standing and prestige that popularize them and their conduct. We deplore this situation, but what is to be done?

Since the formation of children's characters is occurring partly in the schools it is possible to influence it there. This can be done in three ways: (1) By direct instruction, (2) by training through indirect means, and (3) by unconscious influence and example.

I. Direct instruction—In admirable character we want right action made permanent in habits of life; yet back of these habits and tendencies must be a basis of knowledge to direct and support them. Our habits and sensibilities in the use of our language need to be controlled by a knowledge of the laws and relations taught in formal grammar.

So our moral habits and attitudes need to be controlled by a knowledge of the laws of ethics and of our relations to others.

This knowledge is being given to some extent in some of the courses in the elementary schools. The course in literature presents literary gems in which the masters of our language best express their noblest conceptions of life. These can be fixed firmly in the child's mind and deeply impressed upon his emotional being so that they will be an ever present influence. The course in history teaches the ethical relations of the individual to the nation. The lives of great Americans are emphasized and idealized, and their great achievements upheld as an inspiration. The course in civics presents the product of history in our modern institutions. Study of civics can readily be directed into study of good citizenship with immediate application to the child's privileges and duties as a citizen of his community and of his school. The study of law enactment may well be accompanied by a study of "The Children's Morality Code," distributed by the Character Education Institution, at Washington, D. C., under direction of Milton Fairchild, or some similar code with a broader scope and more direct reference to the child's conduct and social relations than any enactment of nation, state, or city.

The writer has found in his own school that it is most effective to let the pupils first draft their own morality code, constructing it on the basis of their own experience and knowledge of social needs, amending and supplementing it if desired, from some prepared code. The drafting of the code gives the pupils an incentive for careful study of social relations in the groups of which they are members, and consequently a clearer understanding of them. It also challenges their ability to conform to the code which they have prepared.

Referring still to the writer's own experience, a practical application has been a periodic checking-up by each pupil of his own obedience to the code. Of course questions continually arise leading to class discussion of the various applications of the code.

This form of moral instruction has been used to some extent in all grades from the kindergarten up, laws of their own or a prepared code being discussed with the children, illustrated by stories, and applications to the children's conduct being pointed out. The teachers preferred this instruction to the disciplinary methods by which they were compelled to meet the problems of conduct every day. The result is indicated by the following report from a second grade child, referring to the law of self control, "I am trying to keep from talking back to mother"; or the testimony of a third grade child on the last day of the semester in tearfully assuring his teacher that he would never forget the morality code.

II. *Indirect character training*—More important than direct instruction in conduct is indirect training. Knowledge of right conduct is of little value unless it effects habits. The formation of these habits is not a separate and distinct process, but is effected as a result of conduct; hence most of character building is incidental or indirect, a by-product of other activities. Boys play ball for love of the game, yet life habits of cooperation or selfishness are formed as a result of the way they play the game. The way in which the teacher maintains discipline and the attitude of the children towards the group help to form the adults' habits of obedience to law and respect for their fellow men. The best method of producing men and women who are good citizens of the community is by having boys and girls perform the functions of good citizens of their social group. If the teacher shares with the class responsibility for the welfare of the group he will build in them habits of sharing responsibility for the welfare of society.

An effective way to further put children in a position to form habits of sharing the duties and obligations of the social group is by school organizations. In the writer's school special student activities and some of the ordinary routine of the school are directed through the student federation. Its working unit is the class organization of each home room group. The activities of all the groups are unified by a school council. Each room unit had originally three officials—president, vice-president, and secretary-treasurer—to which have been added sanitary inspector and safety patrol. The officers of all room units together with the home room teachers constitute the school council of which the principal of the school is *ex-officio* president. The council meets at stated times and when called for consideration of special business. Greater initiative and freedom on the part of the pupils is secured by the principal meeting with the student officers apart from the teachers. When this is done the teachers may be consulted beforehand, and reports of the children's deliberations furnished them immediately afterwards.

The function of this organization is not student self government in any complete sense. It is student participation in control. It is definitely understood that since the teachers and principal are the persons responsible for the affairs of the school the student council and room organizations have authority only so far as it is delegated to them and their proceedings meet the approval of the principal and teachers. It affords the pupils practice in leadership, in wise selection of leaders, and delegating of authority, and abiding by the decision of the one to whom the authority has been given. It creates within the school conditions similar to those in adult society, yet adapted to the

abilities and needs of the children. It is a success only so far as the teachers in charge make it a success.

The teacher who puts such a system into operation relieves himself of much of the unpleasantness of school discipline by correcting the difficulties before they become serious. Law is for the lawless, and the teacher who succeeds in making his pupils good citizens has little difficulty with law enforcement. Not only is the need for disciplinary measures reduced but he has a corps of assistants, and while their chief service is in influencing the opinions and raising the moral tone of the group, they frequently understand the problems of their classmates better than the teacher does, and occasionally some child of keen understanding and sympathetic spirit will render effective assistance in solving a perplexing difficulty. The teacher reduces his own difficulties by the same process that multiplies the value of the pupils' training. He must however exercise greater skill than would be required to arbitrarily enforce obedience.

Most of the work of this sort of an organization is done in the room unit. The room organization ordinarily has been in session ten minutes each morning, the president leading in the flag salute, the Lord's Prayer, and a brief business session or special program. Time for special business sessions is occasionally allowed by the teacher when special problems of the group are to be considered, such as election of a captain for a class athletic team, or arranging an excursion or a picnic. It is evident that in such arrangements the teacher's influence must often control, and his resourcefulness is sometimes taxed to control by influence instead of by dictation.

In the regular business sessions the usual type of business consists of periodic reports from the sanitary inspector, safety patrol, thrift director, line leaders, room athletic team captains, and any special committees, election of new officers as terms expire, and discussion of possible improvement of the work of the group or addition of interesting group activities. When matters concerning other groups are discussed they are referred to the school council with recommendations. Such things as inter-class athletic schedules, cooperation in keeping halls and playgrounds free from papers and trash and walls free from disfiguring marks, and regulation of the lunchroom so that pupils from the farthest room will not always have to be the last to be served, must of necessity be problems for the school council in which all groups are represented. The older children are of course most influential in the council, but the presence of the younger children keeps their home rooms in closer touch with the plans and activities of the school, and serves as a check on the thoughtlessness

of the older children. The school council is a coordinating, directing, and inspiring agency, the basic work of the organization being carried on in the room group.

The place where student organization functions best is in athletics. The best place to teach children right habits and standards in their dealing with others is in their play. Play is free and spontaneous. Recitation and study are under the teacher's direction. In free play the child is controlled by his own will influenced largely by only one other factor, which is the opinion of other children of about equal age, just as the adult is his own boss except as influenced by public opinion or the opinions of certain friends among his equals. The child's situation in play corresponds to the adult's situation in playing the game of life.

In no part of his work will the teacher's help count for more than on the playground. From the first grade, where with a little indulgence the children will spend as much time complaining to the teacher as they do playing, to the eighth grade, where some child because of age, physical prowess, or superior determination will impose his autocratic authority, the teacher's wise supervision is needed to help the children work out the principles of democracy where the majority rules, and knows how to rule with a fair degree of justice and equity. It will be largely rule by leaders, but democratic adult society is controlled by leaders, and these leaders most of all need to begin at an early age to form habits of cooperation and unselfish consideration of the needs of others. The attitude that prompts men to unfair competition in business, dishonesty, and selfish cruelty, is a more mature manifestation of the spirit which causes a group of boys to exclude from their play a child whose lack of skill slows up the game, or the best players of a group to compel the others to suffer continual defeat at their hands instead of making the game more interesting to all by the formation of well matched teams. Here again is a problem to tax the teacher's ingenuity.

Teachers are familiar with the tendency of children to admire and imitate the actions of those who are older. It is an important aid in influencing the conduct of lower grade children in a school to have them see a very high type of sportsmanship and self control in the conduct of the children of the highest grades of the school. The hero-worshipping boy will emulate the actions of the athletes of the ball team, or others who are outstanding in something in which he hopes to excel at a later time; and the responsibility which this prominence imposes together with loyalty to the school may be made to strengthen the character of the older boys. Again the writer must refer to the practice in his own school to illustrate. Here strict requirements of

scholarship and conduct have been imposed, as requirements for players on the school athletic teams. In athletics student control is exercised to the highest degree. The group of best players elects the captain, and their selection is final subject only to the requirements of scholarship and conduct mentioned before. The teachers and principal discuss possible candidates with the boys before the election, and when they think it important to do so they can usually control the election, though not always. The boys know that they are only advising, not dictating, and that they will accept the outcome of the election and suffer the consequences along with the pupils. Once elected the captain selects and places the players, and any player who does not accept the captain's decision is not considered fit for a place on the team. The boys and girls are made to feel that a position on one of these teams is a position of honor, and that no one could be allowed to represent the school in such a position if for any reason they could not be proud of him both in scholarship and in conduct.

The players in the athletic teams have constantly held up before them the ideal of playing the game fairly and accepting without argument the decisions of the officials. With the team alone, and before their classmates, in ordinary practice and just before a game is emphasized as the only policy worthy of the honor of the school, to win if possible, but in victory or defeat to play fair and like a true sportsman, that fairness and sportsmanship with defeat are better than victory not fairly won or modestly accepted. The boys win by this system. For two successive seasons they have been champions of the city schools in soccer ball; but more gratifying than the championship is the clean sportsmanship displayed in every game. The only evident case of poor sportsmanship in the two seasons was when the captain of the first champion team after a defeat sarcastically accused the referee of favoring the opposing team. The boy was promptly ordered from the field with instructions not to return until he was sure of displaying better sportsmanship. In five minutes he was back to apologize to the referee. Because of his prompt and evidently sincere apology he was allowed to retain his position as captain of the team. He never displayed that spirit again in any game.

Through custom the authority of the captain of a team has been accepted so that his directions are seldom questioned. A captain who is a tactful and vigorous leader not only selects and places his players but coaches them as well. His influence combined with that of teachers and other members of the team has frequently been the means of getting players to bed early, especially just before games. At times teachers have been relieved of classroom problems by the captain taking to task some negligent student whose scholarship was becoming

so poor that he was in danger of being disqualified when he was needed in an important game. The democratic spirit of a good leader is illustrated by the attitude of the champion of the second champion soccer team who later was assigned by the captain of the baseball team to first base instead of to the pitcher's box where he had played the preceding season. He not only played first base throughout the season without a murmur, but by his influence and loyalty he assisted greatly in maintaining the morale of the baseball team.

In addition to training players in sportsmanship the sentiment must be spread throughout the school. Assembly programs can be arranged to honor and encourage those who display the finest spirit. The same thing can be done by the school newspaper. Assembly performances and newspaper write-ups must primarily be made interesting to the children; then as the platform and press do in adult society they can be made to mold the sentiment of school. They are most valuable when they are the students' own work prepared with the help of a teacher who censors and directs so as to get the results desired.

The student assembly and school paper train in public speaking and use of written English at the same time that they build up a pride in achievement and in high standards. We hear fear spoken of as the thing that keeps people from crime, but more people are kept in the paths of rectitude by fear of disgrace than by fear of the law. Fear of disgrace or pride in a clean record is a trait to be developed and used in the training of children, and built up into a lasting love of the things that are right. An attitude of confidence on the part of a teacher will do more to prevent the repetition of an offense than a display of suspicion.

It should be an axiom of pedagogy never to accuse a child of falsehood. A few months ago a fourth grade boy was suspected of stealing a pocketbook. The next morning his brother reported where the pocketbook was. The boy suspected when questioned launched into a complaint of how people were always accusing him of stealing, accompanied by a denial of having stolen this pocketbook. He was not accused of the thing which he denied, but the discussion was directed to why people suspected him of stealing. The boy told of several previous petty thefts. In spite of this record and strong circumstantial evidence he was not accused of stealing but instead the seriousness of such an offense and a reputation for thieving was discussed. He had come to the school only a few days before, but though he attended the school for several months no other theft was known during that time that could be ascribed to him. Accusing him of theft could scarcely have done better than that, and would have destroyed the feeling which it is hoped he retained that he had at least two

friends left, the teacher and the principal. Making a child feel like a criminal is likely to make a criminal of him, and it is a better to let two or three criminals escape than to make one new one. When a child denies something that he is guilty of, kindly reasoning will do more for him than accusation, and a confession secured by this method is worth more than one extorted by threats, and about as likely to be secured.

The superiority of kindly over harsh methods is illustrated also by the following incident which occurred in a group of second and third grade children. A coin had disappeared from a pupil's desk. Since this had occurred several times before the teacher in desperation determined to search every pupil before anyone left the room. The search was fruitless. After the recess period the teacher told the children a story with an application suited to the existing situation. A little later the coin was discovered lying in the place from which it had disappeared. Where searching the children as if they had all been criminals had failed a little story had been effective.

Harshness and punishment may inspire fear that will have a negative value in preventing wrongdoing at least temporarily, but unless followed by formation of a desire to do good it may leave a rankling resentment to break out later in worse things. Positive character must come with pride in accomplishment and a desire to be of service, with a love for the right and for the good that we can do.

III. *Unconscious influence*—More important than either direct instruction in moral conduct or incidental training is the unconscious influence of the teacher. Growing children are building their characters, using as materials the impulses and influences that come to them. One of the strongest instincts is imitation. By it the actions of the teachers are being stamped upon the lives of their pupils. It is important that teachers all be persons of high ideals and correct habits.

If children are under the care of teachers approximately one fifth of the waking hours of the first twenty years of their lives should not these teachers assume one fifth of the responsibility for their training? Teachers have been excusing themselves by laying the blame for crime waves and cleverly perpetrated injustice at the door of the home. But if we could have only persons of the highest character and ideals in the teaching positions in our schools and have them as highly trained in character development as in presenting subject-matter we could within two decades produce a generation on a higher plane. By care in the selection of teachers school authorities can reform society and elevate social standards. By care in his conduct every teacher can elevate the social standards of the group with which he works.

Summary—Schools could accomplish more good if they formulated more definite and more suitable standards and higher ideals and turned the skill and knowledge of those trained to useful and helpful pursuits.

It is possible for the well trained teacher with high ideals to do much character building since children are in his charge about one fifth of their waking hours of the first twenty years of their lives.

Direct instruction in right conduct is needed as a background for right habits, just as instruction in the rules of grammar are needed as a guide and aid to right habits in the use of the English language. This direct instruction can be included in such regular courses as literature, history, and civics.

More important than direct instruction in conduct is formation of right habits and attitudes which results incidentally from activities in which the child participates for purposes other than character building, such as play and athletics carried on for sport, classroom activities and discipline carried on for the acquiring of knowledge and skills commonly provided for in the school curriculum, and in student activities carried on to enrich the students' experience, and in every other part of the business of the school.

To secure right habits and attitudes incidentally from activities in which children are deeply interested requires great teaching skill, but also makes the teacher's job pleasanter and easier.

Positive training must be used to build up the satisfying results of right action into pride in a clean record, habits of doing right, love of right actions, and the desire to benefit others.

Most important of all in character building are the example and influence of the teacher and of the principal.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE AS CO-WORKER WITH THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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THE PROFESSIONAL school for teachers by whatever name it may be known—university school or college of education, teachers college, normal school, or training school for teachers—should be as a city set upon a hill whose light cannot be hidden from the rank and file of superintendents, principals, and classroom teachers in its service area.

These schools have, in too many instances in the past, attempted to do their work in all but complete isolation from the school systems which they were created to serve. Many of their ablest staff members have elaborated their "systems of education" with little or no consideration of the practical difficulties by which the workers in the field of public education have been confronted. All too frequently the professor, from his "pedagogical pulpit" has thundered his condemnation of education movements which he has little understood and of classroom practices with which he has had but slight acquaintance.

This professional self-sufficiency of the cloistered pedagogue has provoked the outspoken wrath of the public school administrator who through years of patient endeavor in the public service has been schooled in humility by the "practical" difficulties he has had to encounter. Little wonder that the classroom teacher after hearing this prolonged and futile controversy between the "theorist" and the "practicalist" has been willing to accept with a knowing wink and an approving nod the distinction which the school boy attempted to make when he said that "a professor is one who professes, but a teacher is one who really can teach."

Happily we are now living under a new dispensation. The professor is less willing than formerly to live and work in monastic seclusion. As a consequence, he is less dogmatic and cocksure. He is no longer content to spend all of his time and effort upon the problems that are found in books. He chooses to search for some of them in the open field of public educational endeavor. He has observed with lessening surprise in recent years that the places of highest preferment and responsibility in the teachers college staff are offered to men and women

whose intimate familiarity with the best of public school practice has enabled them to make the point of contact with the most promising laboratory for educational experimentation that has yet been found or is likely ever to be found, namely, the public school system itself.

And public school administrators have undergone a change of heart, too. They are beginning to suspect that the professor of education isn't spending all of his time "inventing perpetual motion machines that won't run." In fact the more "practical" they are the more likely they are to invite the "expert"—in Heaven's name let's use the word with caution—to the field for counsel. The best of them frankly admit that they have much to learn from him and that he is no longer ostentatious and rarely is offensive in giving counsel or patronizing in offering help.

Yes, evidence is not wanting that the field forces in education and the professional schools for teachers have at last actually entered into an *entente cordiale*. You may hear the officers of our teachers colleges concede that teacher preparation is a function of supervision and in the same breath invite the overhead staff of supervisors and principals of public schools to make constructive suggestions for the improvement of the teacher-training program which is nominally under their own complete control. And you may hear the public school leaders concede with equal magnanimity that the teachers college holds the key to the development of a profession of teaching and should be given much more adequate financial and moral support.

The ablest and wisest professional leaders in both groups are focusing their attention upon the same problems: (1) How can we utilize the latent resources of the public school system as a great laboratory for educational experimentation of far reaching significance, and (2) how can we capitalize the professional and technical equipment of the teachers college staff for cooperative research and for the wide publication and practical demonstration of the best that is known to the profession as a whole.

For obvious reasons it would seem that the writer should devote the limited space allotted him to setting out a few concrete illustrations of conspicuously successful attempts of teacher-training colleges to carry their professional services to their several constituencies—the administrative officers, field supervisors, principals, and classroom teachers throughout their respective service areas. For practical reasons the following illustrations are chosen from three distinctly different types of teacher-training institutions—the university college of education, the state teachers college or state normal school, and the city teacher-training college, and, for the sake of concreteness,

from among those with whose activities as here set forth the writer is personally familiar.

1. *The annual Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania*—More than a dozen years ago the school of education of the University of Pennsylvania began a series of annual meetings with the field forces in public education in their immediate territory including Pennsylvania, Delaware, Southern New Jersey and Eastern Maryland. These programs have been planned by a university committee in full, free, and open conference with elected representatives of the major groups of school workers throughout the state of Pennsylvania. A survey of the proceedings of these annual conferences will reveal the fact that no important phase of administration or supervision and no forward movement in teaching has been omitted from consideration.

The planning of these programs has been a work of educational statesmanship, (1) in the selection and scope of the topics included for investigation and report, (2) in the representative character and uniformly high order of the professional talent that has been invited from far and near to participate in cooperative studies and to help formulate reports, (3) in the graphic concreteness and striking effectiveness with which the results of investigations have been set before conference groups, (4) in the publication and wide circulation of the annual proceedings, (5) in the progressive and continuous study through a period of years of all major topics included, and lastly, in the completeness of the cooperative control and conduct of studies, programs, reports and publications. All these points of policy, consistently adhered to and easily apparent to the casual observer, have contributed something very definite and tangible to the objective and impersonal, to the scientific and professional character of the administration of public education in the Keystone state and adjacent territory. In fact, there are not wanting among the best trained and ablest leaders in public education in the state those who insist that as a unifying force among all who have made intelligent and worthy educational endeavor and as an insistent stimulus to professional cooperation on the highest levels of public service the contribution which the school of education has made through its annual conference known as the Schoolmen's Week has far outweighed in importance the service it has rendered in the courses for teachers it has given on the campus during all those years. It would be difficult to demonstrate so sweeping a claim for these conferences, but a cursory survey of the ten volumes of its proceedings will convince any thoughtful person engaged in the work of public education that conferences of this character conducted at the uni-

versity school of education can be made to insure a kind of non-official professional cooperation that in most places is sadly lacking.

2. *The institute of education of the school of education of New York University*—This might not inappropriately be called the extra-mural or extension division of the school of education. The feature of its program which is here described represents in some respects a significant departure from the established form of University Extension courses for teachers. In the city of Elizabeth, New Jersey, which is within easy striking distance of the school of education, an arrangement has been entered into for the current year which brings three fourths or more of the teachers of the public schools into conference-study courses given in their own city and conducted by a corps of specialists including most of the regular members of the staff of the school of education and many of the members of the overhead staff of the local public school system.

The scope of these study conferences was determined in a series of open meetings in each of which both groups of instructors were well represented to the number in most instances of twenty-five or thirty persons. It was decided for example that three branches of study, namely, arithmetic, manual arts, and social science, should be undertaken with and for the teachers of elementary grades. Courses were planned on two levels in each of these subjects—one for teachers of grades one, two and three, and one for teachers of grades four, five and six. This meant the formation of six sections of elementary teachers. Each section has been meeting every other week in class conference. The leaders or instructors, two from the school of education and one a general grade supervisor from the city school system, have had the help of the grade teachers in choosing the problems that should be studied in the laboratory of the public school classrooms in the intervals between meetings and reported on and discussed in succeeding class conferences.

All of the class conference leaders whether from the school of education or the public school staff were chosen because they were both able and willing to conduct demonstrations with classes of children of appropriate grades and because they had the time and were interested in making frequent visits to the classrooms of teachers enrolled in their courses. The class conferences have not degenerated to the low level of mere lecturing or of "exercises in knowledge transfer." They have represented a genuine group effort to find and formulate the problems of aim, subject-matter, method, and pupil response, to take counsel together on the solution of these problems and to be able to go back to their classrooms with the power to do independent thinking and creative, professional, teaching.

One significant feature of the scheme has been that periodical meetings of all the teachers in any given elementary school building are held and devoted exclusively to reports from representatives of each of the class conference groups (in arithmetic, manual arts and social science) thus giving all teachers in the building corps an opportunity to keep informed concerning the practical outcomes of the cooperative studies made in all three fields.

Similar plans are carried out with groups of junior and senior high school teachers and with the general administrative and supervisory staff.

The experiment is by no means a well-demonstrated success. It may require several years to perfect the organization of so comprehensive a plan for coordinating the efforts of the whole teaching staff of a city in the cooperative study of its professional problems. Whatever may be the ultimate outcome it represents a significant attempt to provide effective assistance to the rank and file of a public school staff by cooperative planning and coordinated service on the part of a teachers college staff and the administrative and supervisory groups in a city school system. Already there is evidence that objective and impersonal standards of judgment in matters professional are being eagerly sought by the teachers themselves and that a kind of cooperative group supervision is taking the place of the official inspection which in many places is still the accepted practice.

If space permitted, it would be interesting to relate the details of a plan of cooperation between the director of the institute of education and the superintendent of the Monmouth County, New Jersey, school system. This plan has been in effective operation for nearly three years, during which time most of the leading members of the staff of the school of education have given courses in one or other of the half dozen public school instruction centers of the county and during which period the great majority of the teachers and supervisory officers (including the superintendents) of the county have taken advanced courses somewhat definitely related to their work.

3. *Conferences with educational workers from the service area of the state teachers college or state normal school*—In some parts of the country these meetings are sectional gatherings of state educational associations and are held as a matter of convenience at the state teachers college. The practical outcome of this policy has been a better understanding on the part of the public school staff of the professional resources and material needs of the teacher-training institutions and of the strategic position it holds in relation to the educational program of the district. In many of these institutions the administrative officers and teachers improve the opportunity (1) to set up

conferences—informal and formal—with the field forces in education and to get the benefit of their counsel in the formulation of institutional policies and programs, (2) to make attractive exhibits and effective announcements of new forms of educational service which the institution is prepared to render to school systems and to individual teachers and officers. The writer has been profoundly impressed by the way in which certain of these meetings which he has attended in Missouri, Nebraska, and other states in the central west have served to establish the bond of fellowship among all who are engaged in worthy educational endeavor and to fix in the minds of the whole teaching force of the district the potential leadership of a well-organized state teachers college.

4. *Visitors' days at state teachers colleges and normal schools*—In some states, notably in New Jersey, visitors' days held annually or semi-annually play an important part in the professional program of the institution and in the service of its constituency. To these are invited as special guests for the day such officials as the following: members of the state board of education, members of the staff of the state department of education, university professors of education, county and city superintendents of schools, principals of high schools, principals of elementary schools, and directors and supervisors from the training centers in which students of the teachers college or normal school are given their laboratory experience in supervised teaching.

On these occasions the program of the day, both in its educational and social features, is worked out with the greatest care and in the minutest detail. An example is here given. Guests arrive at the beginning of the school session. They spend a period in visiting informally in the several departments where all class work is in charge of students. Then they witness expert teaching demonstrations given by members of the teachers college staff. Next they meet with faculty and students in the assembly where a program of interpretation of the work of the school is represented by students. A fine social program is arranged for the lunch hour at which function the service is provided by the teachers-to-be. This is followed by a notable address by the state commissioner of education or some other person prominent in the field of public education, and the day closes with a series of informal conferences between the students and faculty and the guests.

It is not difficult to see that the most significant results of such meetings are not the immediate results. They establish a basis of common understanding; they inspire mutual respect; they promote professional morale; they make it possible to work out common problems in a spirit of mutual accommodation, and better than all else they

reveal to the young people who have not yet entered the service, the magnificent possibilities of teaching as a career.

5. *The Saturday morning demonstration classes, conferences, exhibits and clinics at the Cleveland School of Education*—Following the completion of the Cleveland school survey by Ayres, Judd, and others in 1916, Frank E. Spaulding was chosen superintendent of schools of that city and took up his new duties in the summer of 1917. Within a few months he secured the board's consent to undertake at public expense a much more adequate program for the further professional training while in service of the city's public school officers and classroom teachers as well as for the recruitment, selection, and training of young people to enter the teaching service than had hitherto been in operation. The new superintendent attached so much importance to this aspect of his administrative responsibility that he insisted that the person chosen to formulate in detail the teacher-training program of his administration should "in rank and responsibility be second only to the superintendent himself." It was the writer's good fortune to be invited in the winter of 1917-18 to become a member of his cabinet and to assume responsibility for setting up and developing the new program.

It is not pertinent to this discussion to present all aspects of the many-sided program of in-service courses and other opportunities which, with the cooperation of the several collegiate institutions, museums, and other educational agencies of the city, it was possible in due time to offer in afternoons and evenings, on Saturdays and during summer terms to the five thousand teachers of the metropolitan area.

The unique and distinctive feature of the "Cleveland plan" for the in-service professional education of teachers, as that plan has been developed during the past eight years, has been the new emphasis placed upon demonstration teaching and the conduct of conferences and clinics as a means of illustrating, interpreting, and rationalizing the best of modern educational practice.

A neighborhood elementary public school of thirteen classes had for some years been housed in a wing of the Cleveland normal training school building. This organization included a kindergarten group and the A and B sections of each of the first six grades. With the establishment of the Cleveland School of Education to supersede the Cleveland normal training school and to provide for the larger program of in-service courses and training as well as for the pre-service preparation of 600 prospective teachers, this laboratory school was enlarged as soon as possible to furnish accommodations for twenty classroom groups of children of the six elementary school grades.

It occurred to the writer that if the new school of education with its carefully selected collegiate staff of educational experts and subject-matter specialists, able and willing to teach children on occasion as well as to lecture about how it should be done, and with a cooperating staff of regularly assigned "master-artist teachers" in each of these twenty classrooms should set up the most ideal program of demonstrations and conferences on the practical problems of aim, content, method, pupil response, etc., this program could be of major service only to the teachers-to-be, the novices in training, and not to the teachers-in-service unless a special schedule could be set up providing for the full and complete operation of this laboratory-demonstration school on Saturdays when they should be free in numbers to attend its sessions.

After a survey of all the difficulties involved it proved to be feasible (1) by giving the children and teachers in this elementary demonstration school their weekly holiday on Mondays instead of Saturdays (2) by providing an adequate program of demonstrations in this school on Tuesdays to Fridays inclusive to meet the needs for laboratory-experience of the six hundred prospective teachers in the junior teachers college of the school of education (3) by holding Saturday morning sessions of the demonstration school when its facilities could be devoted exclusively to the hundreds of teachers who should wish to come in for observation and conference. This innovation was undertaken, in spite of many handicaps, in the fall of 1918. It required about three years to get the program into full and effective operation. The writer intends to publish a monograph on this subject in the near future. There is space here to give only a brief description of what the thousands of participants and visitors have chosen to call "The Cleveland plan of Saturday demonstrations for teachers."

The dean of the Cleveland School of Education as a member of the superintendent's headquarters staff met in conference once each week with the whole field group of assistant superintendents, general and special supervisors and subject directors. He conducted a course in supervision in which there were present in two sections of a weekly conference practically all of the one hundred elementary school principals of the city and a few from the suburbs. The members of the faculty of the school of education were practically all giving courses for teachers in service, meeting once each week. These college teachers were given a half day each week free from scheduled appointments to visit the public schools of the city. With all of these official meetings and unofficial contacts between the school of education staff and the whole field staff of the public school system it was not difficult for either group to keep fully informed concerning progressive educational

movements which the other group was attempting to promote through administrative measures, through supervision or through classroom teaching. Nor was it difficult to secure active cooperation in setting up a program of Saturday demonstrations well calculated to progressively modify practice in the direction of the best prevailing standards of the expert leadership of the whole school system.

In working out the details of the programs for each week it was at first the practice of the dean, who was the administrative head of the school of education, to call the principal or director of the demonstration school and some of the teachers on his staff as well as certain representative members of the college faculty into conference each Monday and to work out with their assistance a full program of activities for the school on the following Saturday when it should attempt to serve the visiting teachers. These programs were mimeographed and sent to the office of the city superintendent of schools to be mailed out with his weekly official bulletin to all the schools. By Wednesday afternoon these demonstration school programs were posted on every bulletin board in every public school building in the city. Additional copies were mailed to public libraries and suburban public schools to be posted and on request also to private and parochial schools. It was theoretically possible, therefore, for every teacher in metropolitan Cleveland to find out, without any special effort on his part, by Wednesday afternoon just what particular demonstrations would be given, which individual demonstration teachers, college instructors, or supervisors, principals or teachers chosen from the field, would be in charge of each, what classes or grades of children would be the subjects of instruction, the places and hours of meeting in each case, the exhibits of teaching materials prepared by the director of the educational museum which would be made, the clinics which would be conducted etc., on the following Saturday morning between nine o'clock and the noon hour. Some of these demonstrations were set up as the laboratory aspect of a systematic senior college or graduate course in the teaching of reading, arithmetic, spelling, geography and other school subjects.

The record shows that on ordinary occasions 600 to 700 or on special occasions 900 to 1000 teachers visited the school on a single Saturday morning and that the number rarely fell below 300; also that visits by delegations of teachers from towns and cities all over northern Ohio have not been infrequent.

It has been the prevailing practice to have each demonstration followed by an open conference. Before this conference begins the children leave the room to engage in supervised group activities in the gymnasium, in the auditorium, in the library or on the playground.

The conference is usually led by some person other than the one who has conducted the demonstration. The demonstrator, however, is present and joins in the discussion on equal terms with all who have witnessed her work. In the post class conferences problems of aims, sources and selection of subject-matter, methods, pupil participation and response and the outcomes of instruction are freely discussed by teachers, principals, professors of college subjects, and visiting members of the staff of field supervisors.

Not infrequently it happens that a principal brings with him the entire teaching staff of his school to witness a new type of work or to examine an exhibit of teaching material or a finished project in English, in health or in some other subject which has been worked out in another school of the system. It happens not infrequently, too, that a teacher or principal out in the system brings a class to the demonstration school on Saturday morning to present an original play or pageant which has resulted from group cooperation in his school.

In connection with a course in English folk dancing given in the senior teachers college on Saturday mornings, the instructor, a field supervisor in physical education in one of the districts of the city, has for years been bringing in a half dozen selected children from each of the thirty schools in his supervisory district to demonstrate the kinds of leadership which children themselves can provide in developing their creative impulses through folk dancing.

The special exhibits of teaching materials prepared by the staff of the educational museum in the school of education building have never ceased to attract and interest teachers. These have resulted in a remarkable increase in the circulation of educational moving picture films, lantern slides, stereopticon and mounted pictures, industrial exhibits, health charts, and special maps of all kinds. The ever-increasing demand upon the school for the expansion of this form of service has resulted in the organization of a council of the directors of the natural history museum, the historical museum, the art museum and the educational museum in an effort to secure more effective cooperation in meeting these needs and a more satisfactory circulation of teaching materials from all of these museums through the delivery system of the Board of Education.

At irregular intervals, but not infrequently, speech clinics, testing and classification clinics, clinics on difficult cases of conduct and discipline, etc., are held at the college on Saturday mornings. Such clinics are set up whenever the need for any special type of service is apparent. In the planning and conduct of these clinics specialists from the public school staff generally as well as from the faculty of the school of education and the headquarters staff participate.

One of the many distinguished guests of the school of education in addressing a Saturday morning audience in the assembly hall, after three hours spent in its demonstration classes, conferences and clinics and in the educational museum, expressed his approval of the plan and his appreciation of the spirit of the service in these terms:

This is the very essence of that indirect, objective impersonal, and effective supervision which has seemed like a Utopian dream to every aspiring teacher whose spirit has been crushed by negative criticism based on nothing more fundamental than the casual inspection of his work. This is helpful and constructive throughout. It is very doubtful whether three times as much energy, time, and money expended upon the improvement of teachers in service through the conventional types of supervision or of "extension courses for teachers" could have resulted in anything like so wide a variety of progressive movements in the schools of this city. I cannot conceive of a plan better calculated to enlist the active professional cooperation of the whole staff of teachers, principals, supervisors and administrators nor one so likely to promote the continuous professional growth of the entire staff.

In conclusion the reader need not be reminded that the number and variety of conspicuously successful attempts of teacher-training colleges to carry their professional services to the whole body of field workers in education who constitute their collective constituency might be indefinitely extended. The writer hopes that the five significant illustrations given above may serve to indicate a few of the many possible lines along which the teachers college may in ever-increasing measure demonstrate the usefulness of its service as "the teacher of the teachers of the children of the nation."

CHAPTER XIX

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE TRAINING OF THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

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IN ANY treatment of the problem of the relationship between the public elementary schools and the institutions in which teachers are trained for work in those schools it is necessary to define and limit the scope of the discussion. In my invitation to contribute to this symposium I have been asked to base my remarks as much as possible on actual experiences and to consider the problem from the angle of the superintendent's office. For purposes of definiteness, therefore, as well as to meet the request to which I have just referred, I shall for the most part consider the question from the point of view of the city school system containing within its borders a training school for teachers. Many of the conclusions reached will be only remotely applicable to other situations, but there should be no necessary conflict between these conclusions and those basic principles which underlie the whole question of the relationship between the professional schools and departments of superintendence.

In recent years, increasing emphasis has been given to the problem of training teachers in service. Today no school system can be considered in any sense adequate which is not making definite provision for the improving of the work done by teachers while employed in the schools. The means used for this purpose vary largely, ranging all the way from the relatively unsystematized "lecture opportunity" or annual institute, to the organization of observation opportunities, the establishment of demonstration schools, and the definite setting-up of professional courses for teachers in service. It follows as a necessary corollary from this present-day emphasis that there should exist a close relationship between pre-service training and the improvement of teachers in service. It is obvious that effective professional improvement of persons after they have been appointed to teaching positions in public school systems must, to be effective, be founded upon the preliminary preparation which has been received in the training school.

The need for continuity in the training of teachers as just outlined would seem to carry with it the implication that the superintendent's department should occupy very much the same relation to pre-appoint-

ment training as to post-appointment training. In other words, the superintendent of schools is vitally concerned with the preliminary preparation of teachers appointed to serve in the schools which he supervises, and should possess a large degree of responsibility in this phase of teacher training. With this contact as a basis, he can prepare his plans for the training of teachers in service so that there will be the closest possible articulation with the work previously done in the professional school. Without it, the "after-training" opportunities he offers may often overlap the teacher's preparatory training, or, what would be worse, definitely conflict with it; at best, the necessary unity that should characterize the guidance the teacher has received from the day of his entrance to the professional school, throughout his years of preparation and of service, will be seriously endangered.

Even apart from the argument just advanced for placing pre-service training under the same general supervision as that which administers training in service, there are other important reasons for giving to the superintendent's department a definite supervisory relationship to the work done in the professional schools. Training schools for teachers, like all other human institutions, tend to crystallize along the lines of present practices, and so grow away from the changing procedures and standards which characterize modern school systems. No one has better opportunity than the school superintendent to know, not only the present needs of the schools, but, in addition, their tendencies and prospective changes in policy and practice. Responsible as he is for the policies of the schools and for preserving contacts with the changing needs of the community, he, more logically than anyone else, should be able to outline the kind of training the professional schools should give to those who later are to serve in the actual working out of the program of the public school system. His daily association with the practical operation of his schools, moreover, gives him unequalled opportunity to analyze the defects of the training which has been received, and, on the basis of scientific investigation of the product of the training school, to offer constructive criticism of the training program and currently to suggest proper modification of that program.

This theory of the relationship of the superintendent's office to the work done in the professional schools does not imply any arbitrary or dominant control on the part of that department. Any school superintendent who has been properly trained for his work and who is aware of his responsibilities will see the importance of utilizing to the full the experience and knowledge of those who have been engaged in the detailed work of the training of teachers. A large degree of

autonomy must necessarily be permitted to those in direct charge of any teacher-training institution. The point I wish to stress in this connection is merely that the superintendent has a vital relation to the policy of such institutions, that he must be in constant contact and close conference with its administrative heads, and that in case of any ultimate difference of judgment on a point of fundamental policy it must be the superintendent whose point of view shall prevail. Any other solution of the problem of the relationship between the training school and the superintendent's department must either lead to lack of unity in the work of teacher training with a consequent inexcusable waste of time and effort, or, worse still, to a subordination of the professional status of the superintendent's department.

It is being increasingly recognized that the training school for teachers is essentially a technical school, parallel in every essential respect to the schools of medicine and law. While the teacher should, in addition to possessing technical skill and a grasp of present-day educational standards and viewpoints, be an individual of strong personality, good character, and broad general education, the training school today cannot devote a large part of its attention to the direct cultivation of these qualities. It must concern itself primarily with the furnishing of professional equipment and the development of professional skill. This does not mean that the training school may ignore the essential importance of these other vital qualifications of persons undertaking to enter the profession of teaching. It does mean, however, that great care must be exercised that there shall be admitted into the training school those students only who represent proper standards in these matters. It will probably be granted by all that if conditions of entrance into the professional school can be so administered as absolutely to prevent the admission of students with weak or faulty personalities, with poor scholarship or under-average intelligence, or of doubtful moral character, the training school itself can well afford to concentrate on problems which are specifically professional. There must, it goes without saying, be provision for the constant growth of the prospective teacher along all lines which will tend toward development of personality, scholarly interests, and character, but these opportunities must perforce be incidental to the chief purposes of the training school curriculum. It follows from this point of view toward the function of the training school that the inclusion in its course of study of a large proportion of subjects which are purely cultural or academic in purpose is contrary to the purpose for which the institution exists.

The content of the curriculum of the professional school seems to be in a transition state. It varies necessarily with the length of the

course prescribed and with the amount of preliminary preparation required. It is to be hoped that the day is not far distant when the profession of teaching will take its stand alongside of those of medicine or law in requiring a basis of college work as a preliminary for entrance into the school for teacher training. Regardless, however, of the length of the course, or of the amount of preliminary training which should precede it, there are certain basic facts which should guide us in the organization of a teacher-training curriculum. Psychology, for instance, in so far as it includes an analysis of the act of learning, those fundamental laws of mental life which play an important part in the understanding of the teaching process, and insofar also as it furnishes an understanding of individual differences in children and the key to the solution of the behavior problem they present, must necessarily find an important place in the curriculum of all training schools. It is also important that the prospective teacher shall get that point of view toward present-day educational practices which can come only through a study of the historic development of these practices; in other words, the genetic point of view is as essential to the comprehension of the school problem as it exists today as it is to any other important phase of modern life. It follows that the history of education in some form should be included in the curriculum of the professional school. Just as the psychology that should be taught, however, must be selected with the teaching profession constantly in view, so the history of education that should be taught must not be presented academically or as an end in itself, but solely for the purpose of the interpretation of present-day procedure in the light of its development, a treatment widely at variance with current practice. It would probably be well, for purpose of definition and in order to suggest the newer viewpoint, to discard the term "history of education" and substitute the more fully descriptive title "genesis of current educational problems."

The training school curriculum should make provision for a careful study of the problems of the elementary school curriculum. The objectives of the curriculum and the contribution of each element in it toward the achievement of these objectives should be very clearly developed and concretely illustrated from every field of elementary school work. The elementary curriculum should also be analyzed from the point of view of the teaching process. In other words, courses should be organized devoted to what has been termed "professionalized subject-matter" on the basis of carefully worked out courses in the psychology of teaching and a parallel course on the underlying principles of teaching. The teaching process should be analyzed and the various types of lessons differentiated and illus-

trated from the common school branches. Work of this character, as has been pointed out repeatedly by Professor Bagley, is in every sense of the term to be considered as of college rank, even though much of its material is taken from the curriculum of the elementary school.

Hand in hand with the professional training which has just been outlined, there should be developed systematic courses in the observation of teaching. For purposes of effective administration, most of the observation done by students should take place in the demonstration school connected with the school of education. Only in this way can there be the proper control and grading of the teaching which is observed. Much important work has recently been done in the field of the proper guidance of observation. Suffice it to say in this connection that every visit for observation purposes should have a clearly defined purpose, that it should be preceded by discussion of the important points to be noted, and should be followed by a conference on these points.

Of even more vital importance is the organization of practice teaching which must constitute an essential part of any course in teacher training. Practice teaching may be considered as the bridge over which the student travels from the more or less theoretical basis furnished in the training school to the practical application of these principles in the classroom. From the point of view of the problem of the evaluation of the student's work, and leading the student to fuller and finer accomplishment, practice teaching may be regarded as the culmination of the training program. It is of prime importance, therefore, that the practice teaching be carefully organized, definitely graded, and effectively supervised.

Practical effectiveness of the practice department of a professional school for teachers can be more readily accomplished if the training plan includes a system of practice schools definitely organized for the purpose. In addition to a school of observation for students, there should be as many adjunct schools of practice or "teacher clinics" as will make possible the proper grading and organization of the practice teaching for all the students. The "training teachers" employed in these schools should be specially selected from among the best teachers obtainable, and should be particularly competent not merely as teachers of children, but also in their ability to analyze their own methods and to diagnose the errors of students and guide them through example and constructive criticism. As compared with the plan in use in some cities whereby part or all of the practice opportunities for students is given in the regular elementary schools, the definitely organized school of practice has marked advantages. Granted,

of course, that the practice school in each case represents a normal neighborhood condition, the student teacher undergoes an experience which may be considered an apprenticeship in just as true a sense as though he were assigned to various elementary schools scattered over the city which have not been specifically organized for training purposes. He has in addition the incomparable advantage of expert supervision at every point of this experience. This supervision need not imply over-attention, or "coddling"; the expert supervisor knows very well when it is wise to withdraw from the scene and leave the student on his own resources. As the practice period progresses, a constantly greater degree of independence should be allowed the student teacher.

To return to a consideration of the contacts of the training school with the elementary school situation, it is important to point out that what has been said as to the responsibility of the department of superintendence in the administration and general control of teacher training for the elementary schools does not imply that it is only through that department that the training school is to establish its contact with actual practices and policies in the school system. In order that the professional school shall be in direct relation to the objectives toward which it is working, everybody who is responsible for teacher training in these institutions must establish and maintain a constant and close relationship with the actual conduct of the schools for which they are training prospective teachers. It follows that opportunity should be furnished for the members of the training school faculty, by personal visits and observation, to be in touch with elementary classroom work under the varied conditions found in the public school system with which they are associated. This provision is important in every field of the work of teacher preparation, since the inclusion of any subject in the curriculum of the professional school can ultimately be justified only because of its relation to the work of the teacher after the conclusion of the training period. So vital is this constant contact between the professional school and the elementary school system in which it is preparing its students to teach that the mere furnishing of opportunity to the faculties of professional schools is not sufficient; this opportunity should be supplemented by a thorough program of visits and conferences which will insure the establishment and maintenance of this contact. This relationship is essential to the successful carrying out of the work of the professional school.

Almost as important as the relationship just outlined is the necessity for establishing a corresponding contact on the part of the student group in the professional school. This problem admits of easy practi-

cal solution in city systems which contain professional schools for the furnishing of a large part of the teacher supply. Students in training should be made familiar with neighborhood conditions, housing situations, and other social problems which characterize the city in which they will probably begin their professional work. They should also become as familiar as possible with typical elementary schools in the district. This means that the observation and practice opportunities provided in the training school itself should be supplemented by carefully programmed visits to neighborhood schools. These visits should be preceded by discussions which will focus attention on significant facts during the visit, and should invariably be followed by conferences for the interpretation of the situations observed. The effect will be not merely to familiarize students in advance with the problems they will later meet in practice, but, what is of even more importance, to vitalize the training they are receiving by intimately associating this training with the concrete conditions of the teaching work to which they will later be assigned. This contact between the training school and the elementary school system presents no particular difficulties of administration, particularly if the relationship of the superintendent to the whole plan as outlined above has been fully recognized and defined.

Still another contact which must be established between the professional school and the elementary school system has reference to the organization of a definite "follow-up" program after the student has completed his training and has been assigned to a teaching position. As already indicated, there must be a close articulation between the preliminary preparation of teachers and their training in service, an articulation which can be best secured if the superintendent's department has a general supervisory relationship to the training school as well as to the elementary schools of his district. This after-training, however, will very naturally be administered in large part by the faculty of the professional school. Some plan should therefore be organized by which the training school can keep in touch with the progress of teachers during the early part of their actual experience. In some systems, a definite apprenticeship plan has been organized. This plan has much to commend it. In any event, some form of contact between the training school and the work of its graduates would seem to be of vital importance both from the point of view of the success of the young teacher and as a constant corrective and guide to the work of the training school itself. The operation of any such plan involves a number of difficult administrative problems. The relationship of the school principal to the newly appointed teacher

and to the training school, and the function of other supervisory officials in relation to the work of the newly assigned teacher in special fields are problems capable of creating a number of very real administrative difficulties. The solution to them all, as I see it, must depend largely on the establishment of a unified system of control and supervision.

CHAPTER XX

JUDGING THE EFFICIENCY OF PRINCIPALS

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THE DEVELOPMENT of a new curriculum has followed a reappraisal of values that has affected school administration no less than courses of study. The effect has been to rationalize procedure throughout the system, but no part of it has been more profoundly touched with the spirit of a renaissance than the conventional conception of the elementary school principalship. It was inevitable that the principal should advance to a position of greater leadership in the corps. His position is at the focal point where all trunk lines of influence entering into, or radiating from, his school must converge to have their energy transformed into working units suitable to the task at hand. This strategic position makes the school "his" in a very real sense. If he has courage, wisdom, faith, and vision, his school expresses unity, character, buoyancy, and growth; if he lacks these qualities, his school reflects this lack.

The work that belongs to the principalship of a modern school is highly technical, but the standards of its technique are not yet well defined. They are only emerging from the obscurity of a conception that has not quite established itself. Forward looking principals, attentive to social growth about them, have sensed the approach of enlarged opportunity in their special field, recognized its import, voluntarily acknowledged its authority to impose higher standards and met with readiness the challenge to more responsible service. The less forward looking have discreetly ignored an unwelcome apparition only to postpone what cannot be avoided, for the continued development of effective educational service in larger systems rests on the possibility of creating and maintaining a vigorous professional vitality through enlarged service on the part of the principalship.

The building up of a school system to levels of higher efficiency is a process of discovering superior ability and utilizing its maximum contribution in the largest practicable way. Confidence in both the wisdom and integrity of the management is essential to insure understanding and cooperation. This is promoted by a common knowledge of both the standards and evidences that influence judgment when decisions are made and policies announced. Such knowledge does more

than this, it indicates to those who want to know the direction in which growth lies in that system and enables their aspiring more confidently to chart a forward looking course.

Principals have lacked the advantage of studies made of their work, equal in extent and thoroughness to those that have been made of teaching. The need for administrative purposes of formal rating methods has not been as keenly felt except perhaps in a few of the larger cities. There are fewer principals than teachers in a system. They stand in a more intimate relationship to the superintendent. Their tenure has been more stable. Their duties if not more complex are at least more varied and harder to evaluate objectively. The position has been developing, consequently the standards have been changing. There is still considerable uncertainty concerning the value to the system of excellent executive ability when combined with mediocre supervisory discrimination; judgment is forced to be lenient and in practice avoids positive commitment while standards are becoming clarified. There has been, therefore, a general tendency to rely upon personal impressions that do not readily submit to detailed analysis and classification according to any predetermined form. These are not as a rule reduced to writing. For purposes of promotion and assignment, relative efficiency can be determined more accurately by informal discussion than by dependence upon any rating system so far proposed. The principal, however, who wishes to improve his service may be no wiser concerning his own standing if he is not selected for promotion, and is probably left to draw his own inference concerning the superintendent's opinion of the quality of his work. The problem, therefore, of developing a plan of rating that will be of definite value as a means to improved service is of primary interest to principals, and should be given some constructive attention by them. For this purpose a rating scale as such is unnecessary and practically impossible to apply helpfully. There is no present means of making rating impersonally scientific. It is in fact a record of personal judgment and is discriminating according to the wisdom and insight of those who make it.

Some of the larger elements into which the service of the principalship naturally resolves itself when individual efficiency is being considered, include professional leadership, ability in management, supervision of instruction, cooperation in administrative policies, relation to teachers, and community leadership. The rise in importance of the principalship has been coincident with the changing conceptions of these functions. These changes make necessary a constant revision of our working definitions of them and some confusion often results

in consequence. Is a principal for example poor in "management" who has a quiet, orderly, well disciplined school, but who fails to provide opportunities in his organization for children to develop responsibility and initiative through exercise? Is a principal poor in his "relation to teachers" who is popular with his corps but who fails to develop in it any enthusiasm for professional growth or loyalty to supervisory help? Is a principal poor in "community leadership" who has for his school the strong support of his patrons, but who fails to interpret to them the policies for which the administration stands? The rating of a principal will often depend upon the answer to such questions.

A study made by Worth McClure of the prevailing method of rating principals, published in the *Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, shows that a formal rating plan is employed in only eleven of the larger cities, but an informal estimate of the efficiency of principals, reached by administrative officers through discussion and conference, is regularly made in a number of other systems. Whether principals are formally rated or not, any administration that recognizes differences of merit must make some kind of appraisal of the relative value of service to the system. Any trustworthy opinion of a principal's work must be based on some kind of objective evidence even though the evidence cannot be objectively measured. The treatment of such evidence, if it can be frankly shown, is the principal's best guide to cooperative support of administrative policies and ideals. A principal's study of his functions and activities through their effects should be a stimulus toward self-improvement. If relative merit is considered when promotions or transfers are made, how is merit found out? How is it, or the lack of it, made manifest to those who endeavor to be guided by it in making assignments? Lack of time on the part of administrative officers makes impossible an intimate knowledge of the whole range of a principal's activities. What then are the reliable signs of quality by means of which a principal's value to the system may be judged by the superintendent and his staff?

It is natural that thoughtful principals should raise these questions. A sufficient answer is not to be found by reference to classifications or attentive evaluations of the numerous duties of the principalship although such studies have value. Although a full schedule of duties may be performed the value of the service may still range from the invaluable to the mediocre. Value is more nearly commensurate with quality of service than importance of function, and such quality is an attribute of personality. This is more evident as it becomes clear that the aims of education today are distinctively social instead of intel-

lectual. It seems, therefore, that the essence of the inquiry resolves itself into the question, How and through what objective evidence do the outstanding personal qualities of a principal come to the attention of administrative offices for evaluation? It was thought that the best answer to this might be found in the records of a few actual case studies showing in each the procedure of superintendents in selecting the data used in reaching a judgment of efficiency. Consequently letters were addressed to a limited number of superintendents representing school systems that are known to be professionally progressive asking for two or three typical case studies that would illustrate their procedure in evaluating the services of principals.

Of those who replied only a very few responded with the kind of information desired. In every instance there was evidence that much attention was given to the kind of service principals are giving, but the evaluation was primarily through informal conference for administrative purposes.

The following selected quotations may be taken to illustrate the usual administrative procedure in summing up the evidence that determines a principal's standing in these systems:

If a vacancy occurs in a principalship, the superintendent and his associates naturally appraise the merits of the principals in service. Usually some one, two, or three people are marked for the position by reason of personal qualifications, or adaptability, or outstanding leadership.

It would be possible, of course, to develop a scheme of rating each principal on all of the things that enter into the determination of the merits of a principal. The number of principals, however, in a system of below 500,000 is sufficiently small that the superintendent and his associates know each of them well. Should there come an important decision in the matter of promotion, they would use the quantitative methods available to them for determining the decision.

The methods used for the rating of principals in the schools are wholly informal. Nevertheless, I think the superintendent's office has a rather accurate rating upon the merit of the work of the heads of the respective schools. Instances have occurred in which whole faculties have been brought together to discuss the case of the principal, and a cordial relationship exists between the members of the superintendent's staff, principals, and teachers to an extent that enables information to circulate fairly, easily, and reliably.

An informal estimate is reached through discussion and conference with administrators and supervisors. Through this we get the relative value of services of principals to the system to be used when changes and promotions are being taken care of.

In selecting a principal for a school in which research work, methods and curriculum were to be especially studied one was selected after a conference of administrators and supervisors. This principal was strong in professional leadership, supervisory ability, and ability as a student of educational problems.

When organizing a building under the platoon scheme a conference of the superintendent and general supervisors was held and different principals discussed as to their relative merits in conducting platoon schools. The principal at the school concerned was called in by the superintendent, told frankly his weak and strong points, and was given a definite time in which to show that he could handle a platoon school. The principal failed. Another conference was held and a principal selected because of his professional leadership, supervisory ability, ability in organization and management, cooperation and community leadership.

The following illustrations are somewhat more concrete and indicate more definitely the particular items of evidence that were influential in estimating efficiency:

1. "Shortly before the holiday vacation time, I went to the building of a principal whom I had rated as strong. I visited every room and observed from the work that there had been a very distinct, specific, and concise study of supervision made. There was concrete evidence everywhere that this principal had led her corps to test the progress of the pupils by comparing the work of that date with the work which was done at the opening of the school year. Some of this work was afterwards exhibited in my office under the subject of penmanship, not for penmanship alone, but to indicate the type of supervision. The details of this observation were exceedingly important and helpful."

2. "This principal was rated high because of ability, attitude, and capacity for growth. He is highly professional in his attitude toward his work; he seeks improvement through university work and in volunteer study groups; he is well read in current educational literature, and experiments freely but sanely with new methods and suggestions.

"A day's visit to the school showed teachers working with definite common purposes that had been discussed in building meetings. It is evident that much use is made of activities. Teachers are interested in showing work that indicates growing independence and initiative on the part of pupils. There is evidence that teachers understand the value of utilizing situations that may naturally arise in the social life of the school to develop right moral and civic attitudes. Considerable use is being made of standard tests to check up on the progress of the work and to improve instruction. Teachers have received directions that have come from the central office with such interpretation and discussion as to stimulate an interest in their right use. The auditorium is used frequently by groups of pupils to present projects that they have prepared in the course of their regular work to other groups of pupils. Athletic teams show fine sportsmanship in inter-school contests. The parent-teacher organization is active, interested, and cooperative.

"Teachers who call at the office show much interest in their work and refer definitely to the suggestions and help they have received from the principal in improving the quality of their teaching. There is no disposition on the part of teachers to ask for transfers to other schools."

3. "This is a principal of high ideals, cultivated tastes, and sensitive temperament. She is not an extensive student of educational

literature, but does some professional reading incidental to her work. She is always keenly interested in the personal welfare of pupils and encourages all efforts to improve social and moral standards. She keeps before pupils the importance of being considerate of the rights of others.

"A visit to this school shows a well-kept, orderly building, an industrious atmosphere and a cheerful spirit of work. Pupils are quiet and orderly in the halls and lunchroom. Directions from the superintendent's office are received in a thoroughly cooperative spirit. Classroom work, however, is somewhat formal and stereotyped. There is no evidence of a building program for developing initiative and responsibility in pupils through the use of problems and self-directed activities. Work of this type by individual teachers, if well controlled, is appreciated by the principal, but the corps as a whole has not caught the spirit or the philosophy of individual and group activity. Exercises to develop skill are consistently and reasonably employed. Athletic teams and interschool games show a fair degree of self-control and sportsmanship, but pupils are not quite dependable in emergencies. The community support is strong. Parent-teacher meetings are well attended. The community looks to the principal for guidance in matters affecting the welfare of the school.

"Teachers are very loyal, but the less resourceful show little improvement in technique under her guidance. When calling at the central office, they invariably speak of the fine spirit of the school but rarely are able to mention specific suggestions that have resulted in improved methods of teaching."

4. "This principal is representative of a considerable group. He is a man of good executive ability, personally popular with teachers and patrons, capable of dealing effectively with any ordinary administrative problem. There is no evidence of very thoughtful professional reading or study, although there is an evident desire to keep the school in the line of progress.

"The building régime is well organized, a good spirit prevails, pupils are orderly but not suppressed, teachers are not working under strain. Projects and activities are under way in some of the rooms, the results as a rule of suggestions received by the teachers from bulletins or at grade meetings with supervisors; but these are approved by the principal as they are brought to his attention. There is no evidence of a general building program of progressive study or practice, but ready approval is given to all suggestions that come from the supervisory staff. On the other hand, mediocre work passes unchallenged and unprogressive teachers are not uncomfortable in this building so long as their classes are well controlled. There is an evi-

dent lack of fine discrimination between good and poor teaching, between the strong and the weak teacher. The principal's tendency to rate no teacher as unsatisfactory supports this belief. The school through its principal does not stand for well-considered fundamental educational principles. The school atmosphere, however, encourages thrift, patriotism, and good citizenship. Athletic teams are well behaved, the parent-teacher association is sympathetic.

"Teachers like to work with this principal. They are allowed much freedom, their initiative is rather encouraged. They invariably speak of the fine support he gives them and the promptness with which he obtains for them the books and supplies their work requires."

5. "A conscientious principal of long experience, of intense convictions, wholly absorbed in his work, ambitious to excel; a constant student through wide reading and university summer courses; a person who has the best of intentions, but is never able to attain an impersonal viewpoint when the interests of himself or his school are involved; a person, therefore, whose influence is limited and whose contacts frequently are unfortunate.

"A visit to the school will show that the details of administration and supervision are looked after with scrupulous care. The principal has been quite successful in helping a number of younger teachers to become successful who have been on the point of failure because they lacked training in organizing their class work and following up the details of management. Standard tests are used freely by the principal to measure progress. Projects and activities are heartily approved. Work of this kind, however, lacks evidences of spontaneity and is apparently dominated too largely by the teachers. It is doubtful if much creative spirit or independence of thought is expressed in it. Judged by ordinary standards, however, the class work is satisfactory. There is not much enthusiasm but there is good attention to lesson assignments. Children about the building are orderly, yet there is lacking in their attitude a natural friendly courtesy that expresses sincere hospitality. In interschool games, partisanship is not well controlled, and the school does not have a reputation for good sportsmanship. The parent-teacher association organization is supported and encouraged, but clashes with individual parents are not unknown.

"Teachers generally speak favorably, some speak enthusiastically of the principal. Some do not know just what use the principal makes of the tests given, but are satisfied to follow directions and do the work as it is assigned."

6. "This principal has fixed ideals to which she adheres. Her education in philosophy is expressed by the terms thoroughness and

drill. She has not, within recent years, been active in any form of professional improvement, and apparently is not familiar with recent books or studies on education, although she has received college training.

"Good order prevails in this building. The pupils march through halls under close supervision; the principal keeps within sight during the intermissions. The general attitude of the pupils is obedient and respectful. General administrative directions from the superintendent's office appear to be faithfully observed, but any responsibility not in the direct line of routine duty is avoided.

"In the classrooms, the teachers are generally working independently, without any apparent community interest growing out of common building aims and objectives. Directions and suggestions from the central office, relating to methods of instruction reach them without helpful comment or interpretation. Apparently no effort is made to set a building standard for quality of work. The results of standard tests given under direction of the central office are utilized by teachers as they may see fit. No apparent supervisory use of them is made by the principal. In interschool athletic contests, this school has a reputation for poor sportsmanship and lack of courtesy.

"This principal is very well liked by her teachers as a rule. She supports them in matters of discipline and lets them alone in their teaching. Occasionally, teachers have been dissatisfied with their professional growth in this building, and have complained that there is present a spirit antagonistic to efforts of the supervisory staff to initiate improved methods of instruction. No effort is made to get in touch with the community life or to reach homes through a parent-teacher organization."

Facts such as those noted above, but of course in greater variety and detail, came out in an informal conference of the superintendent's staff. No two pictures are exactly alike, although a rating scale would often show no important distinction. The larger functional elements used in rating service are all present, but do not have constant values. Their weight varies with individuals and with situations. The principal represents in his community the central administration and the superintendent's department strives to understand and rate his service in terms of its functional unity.

Do principals want such estimates of their own work as the illustrations cited suggest? Is it best for the system? Would it destroy a spirit of cordiality and confidence to place such information within their reach? Should the superintendent's office be represented by someone to whom principals may go to be frankly advised concerning their needs of professional growth as the administrative staff see

them? It is apparent from the cases cited that any advice to be useful must be specific enough to correspond to a particular need. One or two at least of the principals referred to above might be advised that the time has come when much might be gained by broader contacts with national educational leaders; the others could become more efficient if they had the will by developing greater personal power in particular directions which are clearly indicated by the studies of their work. One city, at least, makes it a practice to let principals know their general rating in the corps, and then through one of the superintendent's staff to discuss frankly with each one that wants to know the meaning of his own rating and the reasons for it.

If principals want such information they should have it. If they do not, there is no indication that superintendents are inclined to impose it upon them. Present tendencies, however, seem to indicate that principals themselves will feel that their professional rank justifies a more definite recognition of the qualitative element of their work than the informal unrecorded estimates that generally prevail. An improved form of rating blank may be devised to be used as a starting point. It cannot be a substitute for understanding. Until a blank is interpreted in terms of concrete illustration, it has little about it to stimulate activity. Private business promotes and discharges without explanation. A more professional spirit controls school relationships, and with its growth, there is a progressive trend toward mutual confidence and understanding that arises from the ability, in view of the larger interests at stake, to make criticism impersonal and constructive.

CHAPTER XXI

SUPERVISORY PROJECTS

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ONE OF THE most effective means of assisting the teachers to a high type of work and thereby improve the quality of work accomplished by the pupils is for the principal to arrange suitable classroom exercises which may be placed in the hands of each pupil. Another means is to place in the hands of the teachers in typewritten form definite checks which they may use in evaluating their own work. The following exercises are illustrative of such material in use in the Simmons school.

INFORMAL EXERCISES IN WORK-TYPE SILENT READING FOR THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES

Work-type reading—Work reading deals with the development of economic and effective skills and habits of reading. It takes place when the individual definitely reads for the purpose of obtaining information. It does not take place when one is reading for sheer pleasure, or the satisfaction of an emotional desire. The information one reads for may be to assist in solving a problem, or to more fully understand the activities we are engaged in every day. In the elementary school we are concerned with developing the abilities and habits of working with books, periodicals, the almanac, encyclopedias, etc. In studying history, geography, or other social science studies, where reading is done for a definite informational purpose, we have work-type reading.

Need for work reading—It is common to hear junior and senior high school teachers criticize the elementary school for not teaching the children how to study, or, in other words, how to read material of a work-type. It is also common to hear fifth and sixth grade teachers, who do not have enough geography books of one kind to go around the class, state that the children are unable to get information from the printed page, unless it is definitely assigned to them and studied with them. These situations call for an intensive program of work reading instruction to be given largely in the intermediate grades, or woven into the entire reading program of the elementary school.

Geography and history teaching in the past has been largely nothing more than silent reading of the work type. Also it involved only one kind of work reading, that of retention of what was read. All organizing and locating of information, etc., was done by the teacher and given the pupils. Present-day geography and history teaching takes for granted that the children know how to do work reading. It not only takes for granted that they understand what they read, but that they can locate information, remember what they read, and assimilate and organize it for their particular problem. Being able to do this kind of reading is prerequisite to social science work and not a part of it. It is a part of the reading program.

Silent reading materials—In recent years silent reading books have been placed on the market offering instruction in silent reading. These books give many suggestions for teaching the different selections, but the responsibility of what and how the children should read is largely placed on the teacher's shoulders. It is expected that the teacher will give the pupils the type of silent reading instruction needed the most. The books offer no program by which the teacher can find out just what type of instruction the pupils need, and then give reading instruction to remedy the trouble. Also the books take it for granted that the teachers know the many things that the pupils must learn to do with printed matter and will give it to them if they have the material to do so. No program is given by which the teacher can systematically give to the pupils definite instruction in the many specific types of work reading. Neither is any program offered by which the teacher can do group or individual work according to the needs of individual pupils or groups of children. As a result these books are used almost entirely in an incidental and isolated manner. The teachers teach the selections in the order in which they are arranged in the books, attacking the material in the different selections in whatever way they wish. This means that in a year's time the teacher has only taught the children to do about one third of the different things they should be taught to do with reading material, and probably none of many important kinds of work reading that need to be done. If the teacher was asked at the end of the year just what different kinds of reading had been done and how much of each kind he would be unable to answer.

The present silent reading instruction is also done in an isolated manner, there being no correlation between the needs of instruction as shown in the study work of other subjects. Many of the silent readers contain material of a classification, stunt, or other similar nature that is nothing more than being able to juggle words and should not be in the intermediate grade silent reading program. Also a large

part of the material is either story material or factual material put up in story form. The child does not meet the reading material that he has to contend with in his other subjects. This makes it exceptionally hard for teachers to use the work reading period to prepare the pupils to do work reading. A definite program is needed that will show just exactly what each pupil can do with the many kinds of work reading material, and also give the pupil practice in the use of this material in the many ways that he has to use it in his other subjects. Also the material should be organized so that each pupil will get the practice that he needs to develop his skill to such a degree that he can economically and effectively do work reading.

Other types of reading—It is not the purpose of this bulletin to lead one to feel that the work-type of reading is the only type to be taught in the intermediate grades. It is felt that recreational reading, which would include much enjoyment reading, literary appreciation, both of which include much oral reading, have a definite place and are of utmost importance. It is felt that the methods and principles of teaching these other types of reading differ greatly from those underlying work reading. To attempt to apply the principles involved in this bulletin to the other phases of reading would be detrimental as far as realizing the objectives set for the other phases of reading are concerned. A very brief statement of the objectives for the different kinds of reading follow to show clearly that the aims of various kinds of reading are different.

The purpose of work reading is to locate information, understand reading material of different factual kinds, remember factual material read, organize different kinds of factual reading material in different ways, quickly and accurately. This necessitates much intensive practice with the child knowing at the beginning just what he is to do. The practice period must be short enough to eliminate any chance of fatigue. It is advanced mechanics of reading.

The purpose of recreational reading is primarily for enjoyment, and secondarily giving the child experience and creating an emotional response to the selection read. This purpose holds for both literature and other recreational reading. It necessitates a happy atmosphere, free from any tenseness and details.

Oral reading is a part of both work reading and recreational reading, but probably has a much greater part in the recreational reading than the work reading. A child must be able to read orally in a fluent manner and with correct pronunciation, enunciation and expression before he can contribute to either work reading or recreational reading. It necessitates an audience situation and an individual desire to outwardly express oneself.

There is probably no doubt that pupils will enjoy recreational reading much more after they have had an intensive program of work reading, but to require the intensive analyses and detail work asked for in work reading in recreational reading would without question defeat its purpose. This is evident upon inspection of the above purposes.

Materials in reading exercises—The materials in this bulletin deal with work reading needed in studying for the social sciences. They include nearly all the general reading skills and habits necessary to intensive reading. What is said in this bulletin pertains to work reading only, no emphasis being placed on recreational reading. The selections are short, not any of them being over four hundred words in length. They are taken from magazines, geographical readers, encyclopedias, textbooks, and advertisements. Some of them are much more difficult than others. It will be some time before enough materials have been collected, tried out, and their difficulty determined. Teachers who wish to do this kind of work should use their present social science materials selecting their paragraphs to suit the specific ability that they wish to give practice in. They can use the material as it is in the books or rewrite it to suit the needs of the group.

Organization of materials—The exercises that follow involve nine different kinds of comprehension, six different kinds of retention, nine different kinds of locating information, and eleven different ways of organizing. It is true that ways of doing the above are not listed, but the major ones are in the list. This list was made by visiting social science classes and noting the different things the child had to do, reading much social science material and estimating the different things that could be done with it, and surveying the many reading articles pertaining to work reading and summarizing the types of work listed. Many abilities found were so closely related to other abilities that are listed in this bulletin that it did not seem wise to include them when those listed were similar and probably more important.

Rate of reading—In looking over the different abilities of work reading it is very evident that the rate in which the child reads is influenced to a great extent by the task he sets out to perform. It is almost impossible to attempt to test the rate of reading by the use of these exercises. The class should be required to finish the job attempted within a reasonable length of time, stimulated to do the task in the least amount of time that it can be accurately and thoroughly done. It is evident that the child will read many more words a minute in skimming material to tell in one sentence what the article is about than in reading to give a title and all the supporting details. Conse-

quently it is felt that to add a time limit or measure the rate of reading in the exercises would be folly.

Time necessary to use the exercises—It should not take more than ten minutes to give, correct, and discuss an exercise. With this in mind would it not be worthwhile to set aside ten minutes three to five times a week for intensive work of this kind? Certainly the practice is worthwhile for every individual in the intermediate grades. For many it will be work that is badly needed, and for others they will become much more proficient readers with the practice.

How to use the exercises—There are many ways in which the exercises can be used. A few are listed.

1. Note in the social science work those pupils who are especially weak in doing a certain specific type of work. Place them in a group and after teaching them how to do the work give them intensive practice in that particular type of work reading. Their initial work should be recorded, a chart or graph kept, and the growth noted.

2. Hold a hospital class for the poor readers in social science material. Test to find their specific weaknesses. Give each pupil every day practice material in the specific ability he needs work on. No pupils should work on more than two types in one day. A record should be kept of each child's progress, eliminating him from the class as soon as he shows suitable proficiency in the work.

3. Set aside ten minutes every day, or every other day, for practice in this material. This might be worthwhile when we are dealing with children in the intermediate grades as it is here that we are really teaching them how to study. In this way we are assured that each child will have practice in each type of reading he is going to be called upon to do for study purposes, both in the elementary school and later. Also each child will know how to do this kind of reading, and will know what his own weaknesses are. A chart or graph should be kept by both teacher and pupil so that each will know just where the pupil stands. Also a record should be kept of the specific type of reading practiced upon each day so that the teacher will systematically cover all types of work reading and can put particular stress on those types in which the children are particularly weak.

4. A combination of numbers two and three. Conduct practice work as in number three and hold a hospital for special cases. This gives the entire room the practice needed in all types of work reading and gives individuals extra practice in that type of work reading in which they need special practice.

Initiating the program—In teaching children to do this type of reading much preliminary work is necessary before attempting to give them practice material. The children must be taught the most effective way to do the task which they start out to do. A brief description of what was done with a sixth grade class in locating information and organization follows:¹

I. Preparation of class

1. Where have you found it necessary to locate material?
2. Where do you expect to be called upon to locate information as you continue your school work?
3. What effect will practice in locating different kinds of information in different ways have upon your work?

¹ Material used—*The Silent Reader*, Wm. B. Lewis and A. L. Rowland, 1920, J. C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa., p. 210.

II. Steps in locating information

1. Find the book in which you expect to locate material.
2. Locate the chapter or part of the book.
3. Locate the paragraph in which the information is located.
4. Skim the paragraph until the information is found.
5. Read the material that you want carefully.
6. Check the question to see if you are sure this is the correct answer.
7. Re-read to make sure you get all the information it gives.
8. Tell yourself the information to make sure you know it.
9. Repeat 6, 7, and 8 if necessary.

III. Words and phrases of difficulty

foregoing movements	truck farming
horticulture	barren lands
intensified farming	reclaim
pasturage	fertilizer

Direct the class to the place in the material where the word is located and have this sentence read orally. Define the words through the content if possible.

IV. Questions. The class was directed to find the answer to the first question. Each pupil stood with his finger on the paragraph when he had located it. The second question was answered in the same way. The pupils were directed to stand ready to tell the answers to the third, fourth, and fifth questions. They were given small pieces of paper and directed to write the answers to the last six questions. These papers were collected to assist in grouping the children for the second day's work.

1. Locate the paragraph that tells of the progress in agriculture?
2. What machines have done most towards improvement in agriculture?
3. What seven factors have caused progress in agriculture?
4. Which state is noted for its fine horses?
5. How great are the proceeds from poultry?
6. What state is noted for its winter wheat?
7. Where would you write to find out how to get rid of insects?
8. Where do we find much truck farming?
9. Where does the farmer in the state get help to make his farm more profitable?
10. Where does the farmer find out what fertilizer is best suited to his soil?
11. Why does the farmer grow more than one crop?

Second day—Eight harder questions within the same article were listed for the class to find the answers. Those pupils who scored five or six correct responses the day before were put directly to work on this assignment. The pupils who had three or four correct responses the first day were given their papers back to check their answers. They were directed to first check their answers for the day before and then to commence the new work. The rest of the class, which consisted of about ten pupils, had two or less correctly answered the first day. They

were directed to take their books and come to the front of the room and stand in a circle about the teacher. They started with the first question of the day before and went through the same procedure more quickly. The teacher was placed in the center of the group and could watch each individual work to see exactly what he did on each question. When a pupil was found who knew what he was about he was sent to his seat to finish the work. The others were directed and taught to locate the information according to the steps listed the first day. In fifteen minutes the last of these pupils was sent to his seat. The teacher then directed the second group to come to the front of the room. With this group she commenced with question No. 6, and verified the results they had obtained the first fifteen minutes that day. When she was certain that they were locating the information correctly they were also sent to their seats. In ten minutes the last pupil in this group took his seat. Many of the pupils in the poorest group were only able to get the questions of the previous day answered during this second day period. When this day's work was over nearly every pupil in the room had a knowledge of the steps in locating information. The next day the class was ready to commence work on the practice exercises.

In teaching "organization of material," the following outline shows the steps of the lesson.¹ The type of organization taught was that of, "Listing the essential points needed to tell about the selection." This material is written in story form which made it harder to handle than the previous lesson.

I. Preparation of class

1. What do we do when we outline or organize a lesson in geography or history?
2. Why do we organize our work?
 - a. Report systematically.
 - b. Remember main ideas.
 - c. Contribute to others so they can remember.
3. Why is practice in organizing worthwhile?
 - a. Help us in our history and geography.
 - b. Assist us in reports.
 - c. Save time in collecting material.
 - d. Help us to choose that which we can use.

II. Difficult words

hoisting cage
experienced

uncoiled
main shaft

III. How do we organize?

1. List the big things talked about as headings.
2. List other things where they belong under the big ideas.
3. Analyze the list to see whether any ideas can be grouped under other main ideas.

¹ Material used—Lincoln Sixth Reader, p. 82.

IV. Name or list the parts of the mine that Sandy learned about.

This was the assignment for the first day's work. The pupils were given paper as they were when they were taught how to locate information. At the close of the period the papers were collected.

The class was again grouped according to the number of correct answers. The better group was given detailed work within the same assignment that pertained to outlining minor details. The poorest group again brought their books to the front of the room and stood about the teacher. She directed their reading asking them to read until they came to the place where a different part of the mine was talked about. They found this place, and the change in wording of the book was noted. They then read to themselves until they came to a place where another part of the mine was mentioned. After they had definitely found the third division in the presence of the teacher they were sent to their seats to complete the first day's assignment. The middle group spent ten minutes with the teacher and the rest of the time correcting their first day's assignment and commencing on the new assignment. Many questions came up during this work as it involved weighing of values to some extent, and individual pupils needed individual help.

Third day—The pupils were given a short selection on "giving an article a title and outlining four supporting details." They did this in less than ten minutes. That is it took less than ten minutes to distribute papers, give directions, do the work, discuss answers, and collect papers.

This same type of work is needed in retention before directing children to do practice work. A habit of correctly organizing material to retain it is important and a class needs the work gone over in detail for two or three lessons before they are given practice exercises.

During the five days work that is described above a few pupils were found who had considerable vocabulary difficulty, read one word at a time, or were very careless. These children are individual cases and should be cared for by the teacher individually, probably before school commences in the morning. The children should be told their weaknesses when they are discovered and also told exactly what they can do to help remedy it. Nearly all children will respond excellently when handled in this way and will do all in their power to overcome their troubles.

Difficulties to be overcome—When we are dealing with geographical and historical material we come upon words that are technical in nature and the children have not seen before. These words must be

TABLE 2.—CHART SHOWING WORK READING PROGRESS

Teacher has choice of using picture, color, or number to note the quality of work being done by pupils. The color looks the best, but takes more time to use. The picture shows the results at a glance better than the numbers.

- Red —3—indicates inaccurate work. Needs help.
 ○—Green —2—indicates average work. Over three fourths right.
 I—Black—1—indicates good or excellent work. No errors.

Name of Pupil	Last Mark in Soc. Science	Specific Reading Ability Practice Exercise									
		A-1	A-1	A-1	A-4	A-4	B-2	C-1	D-1	D-1	
John Jones	C	I	I	I	○	I	□	I	○	I	

Other factors—A few copies of types of material, questions, and reading abilities are given following the key to specific reading abilities. These illustrate the kind of material that needs to be prepared for work reading. The selections are short, but call for a definite task to be completed. Many better illustrations are being prepared now and after the work has been done for a semester we shall undoubtedly make some changes. Each teacher who attempts this work should collect considerable material before he commences. Many of our textbooks can be used and the lessons taught directly from them. If outside material is collected some of it will have to be rewritten as when it is taken directly from some other book many times it does not exactly fit the task which is demanded.

In showing progress considerable valuating on the part of the teacher will have to be given. The exercises he uses will not be standardized and this means that he must consider the difficulty of material and difficulty of task to be performed in determining whether a child should do as well or better than previously.

Much material can be found in old language books, science books, recent informational periodicals, young people's encyclopedias, histories, geographies, advertising folders, the world almanac, etc. The purpose is to teach the children how to handle the reading, not to teach the information in the exercises. In preparing the materials the teacher needs to keep in mind the many different kinds of material he wishes to use as well as the many different ways it is to be used.

In the practice exercises that follow it will be noticed that the wording on some of them is taken verbatim from informational material. The wording in others is completely changed to suit pur-

pose. In reading these practice exercises an idea can be obtained about the author's organization. Much material that is in the books that we have for the children is not suited for this type of work as it is very poorly organized. In talking with the teachers in the building many felt that the children should meet this material exactly at it is and be forced to get the information from it rather than getting it from reorganized and rewritten material. It is true that in the problem work they will have to confront this poorly written and organized material, but for practice work it is questionable whether we should use the material exactly as it is written in the books.

Not all of the specific abilities needed in work reading can be taught by the use of the short exercises. Many types of reading should be done with an entire book in the hands of the child. Much of the detailed work reading can be very effectively done by the use of the short exercises. Teachers who use the exercises should realize that the other work should be done as well as the detailed work outlined in the exercises.

Three references are given which each teacher should read. These references were a very valuable help in preparing this bulletin.

Twenty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Second Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, Chap. V, Objectives in Reading, Ernest Horn.

Educational Bulletin No. 2 Revised. Minneapolis Public Schools.

SPECIFIC READING ABILITIES

A. COMPREHENSION

1. Check map or graph with related reading material.
2. Read to determine accuracy of comprehension. (Questions must be specific and material must be in detail.)
3. Draw map or picture to illustrate selection.
4. Draw conclusions inferred, but not definitely stated within the selection.
5. To associate facts with underlying principles.
6. Understand conditions of a problem.
7. Recognize equivalent ideas when expressed in altered form or changed wording.
8. Pick out ideas meaning the same thing or different things.
9. Read to answer questions on selection. Child may read selection as many times as is necessary to answer questions, a test of understanding.

B. RETENTION—REMEMBERING

Children must know how to read to remember. The following might be helpful:

- a. Read once.
- b. Choose main things you wish to remember.
- c. Close eyes and try to say these things.
- d. Look back to see if you missed any.
- e. Try until you can say all.

They must be pushed to do as much of this as possible during first reading.¹

1. Read to answer factual, or multiple choice, questions after they are through reading.
2. Read to determine accuracy and completeness of remembering.
3. Follow a list of directions. (List names, places, incidents pertaining to material previously read.)
4. Read to tell someone else how to do something.
5. Outline from memory facts or events in logical sequence.
6. Read to rewrite in own words all important material.

C. LOCATING INFORMATION

Children must be taught where to look for facts in almanac, encyclopedia, dictionary, directory, newspaper, periodical, textbook, and story book. Many of these have their own organization. The organization of a textbook will not do for all of them. They must know the relationship of maps, graphs, charts to the printed material, and how to read them. Such things as table of contents, index, paragraph headings, summaries, notes at bottom of page, and other things are important.

The following might be helpful in teaching children how to locate information:

- a. Choose book in which you expect to find material.
- b. Locate chapter or part of book.
- c. Locate paragraph in which you expect information is to be found.
- d. Skim material until you find what you want.
- e. Read part you want carefully.
- f. Check question to see if you are sure you have correct material.
- g. Tell yourself the information to make sure you know all of it.
1. Locate names, topics, or other facts in an index, table of contents, etc.
2. Locate all material pertaining to certain subject by use of the index.
3. Locate the paragraph within a selection where certain material is expected to be found.
4. Locate definite information within a paragraph.
5. Locate material found in tables, charts, and maps.
6. Locate material given in arithmetic problems.
7. Locate material in more than one source and verify results.
8. Collect facts pertaining to some subject.

D. ORGANIZATION AND EVALUATION

The children should first be acquainted with the necessities of locating information. They must be able to pick fact from fiction, associate ideas with previous experience, grasp the organization of the author, know when to skim and when to read in detail, skip over and leave material which might be interesting, but have no bearing on their problem, take

¹ Taken from page 104, *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*.

essential notes for further reference, evaluate the worth of the material, and reorganize their various findings into a unified whole.

1. Choose topical heading and outline the supporting details.
2. List essential points needed to tell about the selection.
3. Make a list of questions (state number) which if answered properly will completely cover the main points of selection.
4. Skim to tell the main incident or subject.
5. List closely related points in sequence.
6. List closely related points in article telling about more than one thing.
7. Distinguish between material of value and material of no value in selection pertaining to certain subject.
8. Take notes which you would use in telling the rest of class exactly how something should be done.
9. Outline brief synopsis of events surrounding some incident.
10. List comparisons needed to tell what tables or charts show.
11. Making judgments on basis of facts presented.
12. To reorganize what they read into a usable form.
13. To be able to judge validity of conclusions. (Children must be taught to ask themselves if there are other factors not stated that might change the conclusions.)

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

The following reading material tells you about the plains of central North America. With your pencil write the names of these plains on the map.¹ Write the names on the part of North America where these plains are located. Then put crosses where the cities mentioned are located. You do not need to write the names of the cities.

West of the prairies and southern plains lie the western plains, reaching to the base of the Rocky mountains. Here the rainfall is light, but grass enough grows to support many cattle.

In the far north, beyond the United States, are the cold northern plains. Along the Arctic coast the soil is frozen to a great depth and thaws only a few inches at the surface in summer. South of the frozen plains are mossy and forest regions where many deer (caribou) feed.

Among the great cities of the central plain are Chicago, on Lake Michigan; St. Louis, on the middle Mississippi; New Orleans, not far from the mouth of this river. These cities carry on trade with the farming and grazing regions around them.

The central plain in the United States is drained almost wholly by the Mississippi river and its many branches. From the west come the Missouri and other large rivers; from the east comes the Ohio.

¹The reading material in this exercise is taken verbatim from the Frye Elementary Geography. A map of the United States showing state boundaries and rivers is given to the pupil with the test.

The steamboat traffic on these waterways is very great. The boats carry as freight the various products of the states along the rivers. Railroads cross nearly all parts of the central plain in our country.

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

You wish to choose partners for a spelling match. In order to decide who shall have first choice, you use the Oriental method.¹ If you extend two fingers after the third shake, and at the same time your partner extends a closed hand, who has first choice?.....

ORIENTAL METHOD OF CHOOSING PARTNERS

This is used a great deal by Oriental children in making decisions as to which team is "up to bat" first, just as we flip a coin. The two leaders shake their closed right hands three times and after the third shake, throw. The first and second fingers extended in a V make scissors; the open hand, paper, and a closed hand a stone. The scissors can cut the paper; the paper can wrap the stone; and the stone can break the scissors. If, for example, you have thrown "stone" and your opponent has thrown "paper," he wins. If, however, you throw "stone" again and he threw "scissors," you win. The usual two out of three is required.

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

Read the following in order to answer questions about what you read after you are through.

PREPARATION FOR AN INDIAN ATTACK²

Some of our great-grandfathers were among the pioneers who settled this western country. At that time small villages of white people were scattered here and there throughout this country. There were many Indians about, some of whom did not like it that the white people were settling in their country. These Indians would attack the white people at times when they least expected it. The people had to be on the watch for these Indian attacks.

The people in the villages usually lived in their own cabins. In the spring, when it was felt that Indians were about, they would move to the blockhouse belonging to the village. If at night time the Indians

¹ The material was taken verbatim from *Ice Breakers*, a game book, Edna Glistler, Durand Co.

² Rewritten from *Following the Frontier*, William L. Nida, Macmillan, 1924, p. 70.

were seen about the village a messenger would go softly to the door or window of each cabin and quietly awaken the head of the house. The people were always on the watch for this and so it never took very long to awaken them.

The entire family immediately got up and prepared to go to the blockhouse. The father would take his gun and other things necessary to fight the Indians. The mother dressed the children and gathered other supplies needed at the fort. They never started a fire or even lit a candle. If there were young children they handled them with care so that they would not cry. Other children were told that the Indians were about and this frightened them into silence.

The blockhouse was usually one half mile or more away from the cabin. They went there at once and during the next few days the men would gather provisions and get ready for the Indian attack.

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. Why were the pioneers easy to awaken?
2. Where did the people go when the Indians approached?
3. What did they take with them?
4. Why were the younger children very carefully taken up?
5. How were they informed when the Indians were near?

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

Read the following material in order to outline from memory the important facts that tell why the Hawaiian Islands are a help to the United States.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS¹

In 1898 the United States annexed the Hawaiian Islands. This was at the close of the Spanish American war. They are located about half way between the United States and Japan in the middle of the Pacific ocean. There are many reasons why they are a valuable possession of the United States.

¹ Rewritten from *Nations as Neighbors*, C. T. Sinnott and L. O. Packard, Macmillan, 1925, p. 233.

Their location half way across the Pacific ocean makes them an excellent coaling station for our steamships. In case of war their harbors would be very helpful to us. Also the Philippine Islands are at present under the direction of the United States and our steamships going to the Philippine Islands can visit the Hawaiian Islands at the same time.

The two chief products of these islands are sugar and pineapples. The United States has to import both of these products. Since they have become annexed to the United States much of their land that was formerly used for pasture, on account of it being too dry to raise sugar cane, has now become suitable to raise pineapples. In 1923 the pineapple crop was valued at twenty-eight million dollars. Both the imports and exports of the islands have doubled in the last ten years. The sugar cane is sent to San Francisco to be refined, but many of the pineapples are canned on the islands before being shipped.

LIST FACTS SHOWING WHY THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS ARE A HELP TO THE UNITED STATES

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

The following information is taken from the table of contents of an almanac.¹ You are interested in the subject of transportation. Remember that transportation includes roads, railroads, waterways, and ships.

On what pages of this book do you think you can get some information.

THE WORLD IN 1925	Page
Census of Germany and Russia.....	29
Moving Picture Industry.....	30
RULERS OF THE WORLD.....	31
GOVERNMENT OF THE U. S.	
Administration	32 33
The Courts	34 36
New York City and State Population.....	42 43
The Sixty-ninth Congress.....	38 41

¹ Material written to suit needs from World Almanac.

RECORD OF THE YEAR	Page	
Births, Marriages, and Deaths.....	42	48
Scientific Progress	49	59
Explorations	60	65
IN THE BUSINESS WORLD		
Financial	66	75
Bond Market	66	68
American Railroads in 1925.....	69	71
The Use of Ships.....	72	75
BIG PROBLEMS OF 1925-26		
The League of Nations.....	76	79
The World Court.....	80	82
Prohibition	83	87
Reduction of Taxation.....	88	91
Improvement of Roads.....	92	100
Strikes and Lockouts.....	101	103
Immigration	104	106
THE UNITED STATES		
American Merchant Marine.....	107	109
The Declaration of Independence.....	110	110
Biographies of the Presidents.....	111	120
The Army and Navy.....	121	125
National Parks	126	128
National Banks	129	131
National Wealth	132	133

Write the titles of the chapters in which you would expect to find material. Also write the pages you would turn to.

Titles	Pages
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	

Name..... Grade..... Date..... Room.....

Suppose that your class in geography is studying the question of transportation. If you are asked to report on the states having the largest number of roads and also the states having the largest amount of improved roads, which states would you report on? Write their names at the bottom of the paper.

PUBLIC ROADS IN THE UNITED STATES¹

Data below is correct to the year 1922 according to the United States Department of Agriculture.

State	Miles of Surfaced Roads	Total Miles of Roads	State	Miles of Surfaced Roads	Total Miles of Roads
Alabama	10,420	58,410	Nebraska	496	86,556
Arizona	1,233	21,227	Nevada	168	26,057
Arkansas	3,871	74,866	New Hampshire...	1,692	13,841
California	14,275	75,889	New Jersey.....	6,459	14,066
Colorado	4,598	48,143	New Mexico.....	1,802	45,549
Connecticut	2,206	12,152	New York.....	18,566	81,878
Delaware	448	3,933	North Carolina...	16,755	68,204
Florida	6,438	27,643	North Dakota....	710	106,523
Georgia	18,339	94,912	Ohio	36,068	84,219
Idaho	2,982	31,099	Oklahoma	2,461	134,263
Illinois	11,437	96,326	Oregon	8,050	45,475
Indiana	39,857	76,246	Pennsylvania	13,921	90,991
Iowa	2,585	104,082	Rhode Island....	744	2,274
Kansas	1,100	128,551	South Carolina...	6,908	61,850
Kentucky	15,436	68,704	South Dakota....	548	115,485
Louisiana	2,771	39,803	Tennessee	9,878	62,546
Maine	2,953	21,483	Texas	14,883	167,685
Maryland	3,663	14,772	Utah	2,544	23,047
Massachusetts	6,575	18,868	Vermont	3,545	14,676
Michigan	7,186	77,283	Virginia	7,260	59,080
Minnesota	16,905	107,103	Washington	12,062	45,816
Mississippi	5,744	53,085	West Virginia....	1,367	35,173
Missouri	7,878	111,520	Wisconsin	19,714	78,679
Montana	1,772	64,732	Wyoming	440	46,528
Total in United States.....			387,760	2,941,294	

Since June 30, 1916, the United States has spent over \$800,000,000 on roads.

States having largest number
of miles of improved roads.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

States having the largest num-
ber of miles of roads.

.....
.....
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.....
.....

Is there any other information the class should know?

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

¹ Taken from the World Almanac for 1926, p. 354.

ORGANIZATION TEST

1. In one to four words give the following article a title.
2. The most important point in each paragraph is:
 - Paragraph I.
 - " II.
 - " III.
 - " IV.

The people in the United States use more sugar in their food and drink, in their candy and other sweetmeats, and in their manufacturing than do the people of any other country in the world. On the average each of us consumes in a year more than a hundred pounds. Therefore, though we produce great quantities, we import more sugar than any other product.

Most of the sugar which we import comes from islands in the warm belt, where cane sugar is the only kind produced. We buy enormous quantities from Cuba, the Philippine Islands, Hawaii, and Porto Rico.

Sugar cane is a cousin of the Indian corn and looks much like it. Sorghum, from which much molasses is made, is another cousin.

The raising of beets for sugar is a development of later times. This industry has grown rapidly in cooler regions, where the sugar beet grows well, and large quantities of sugar are manufactured from its juice.¹

Name..... Grade.... Date..... Room....

If you were asked to tell your geography class about the chief industries of Florida, what main ideas would you tell them about? Write them at the bottom of this page.

FLORIDA²

Florida, the southernmost state in the United States is about 140 miles wide and 400 miles long. The surface is low and flat, and is covered with swamps and lakes. During the time when the settlers from Europe settled along the Atlantic coast and began to develop this country, Florida was almost unsettled. Very few people settled

¹ Taken verbatim from Allen's Geographical and Industrial Studies of the United States, Ginn & Co., 1925.

² Material rewritten from *North America*, Harrison Smith, Century Co., 1914, pp. 276-289.

in Florida until after it belonged to the United States and that was not much more than one hundred years ago. The present progress of Florida commenced in 1870.

The greatest money crop of Florida is the tourist crop. Many northern people wanting to get away from the cold weather during the winter months migrate to Florida. This is due to the climate of Florida. The state is surrounded by a gulf stream which keeps the temperature warm through the entire winter. It was estimated that in January, 1923, nine hundred thousand people of Florida cared for seven hundred thousand outsiders. More people seek Florida for comfort during the month of January than any other month of the year. The tourist season is only about three months, those months being December, January, and February. In the season of 1923-24 these tourists spent over three hundred million dollars and in addition to this paid twenty-five million dollars for Florida land.

The fruits are the next best money crop, then come the vegetables. Grapefruit is the best fruit crop. Florida seems to be able to produce a better quality of grapefruit than any other state. Also many oranges and lemons are grown in Florida. The vegetable market is very good in the winter and early spring. The potatoes are shipped to the northern states in May, at the time when the people of the north are just planting their potatoes. Many other vegetables, as celery, lettuce, and peppers, are shipped. During the season 1921-22 Florida shipped eighty-five thousand cars of fruit and vegetables to the northern states.

There is not as yet any sign of any important manufacturing industry in Florida, aside from lumber, fertilizers, and cigars. Canning factories for fruits and vegetables are the most probable factories for the future. Jacksonville, a small city of ninety thousand people, claims to be the largest lumber shipping point of the world. Tampa has over two hundred cigar factories at the present time.

CRITERIA FOR STUDY OR SEAT WORK IN PRIMARY GRADES

Teachers in the primary grades are perplexed considerably to prepare and have on hand suitable material and enough material for constructive seat work. They are particularly annoyed and thought provoked when it comes to preparing material that requires constructive thinking on the part of the child. The problem of seat work is an important one as the child spends as much or more time under seat directed activities than he does in actual class recitation work. In consideration of the large amount of work expected from the pupils in the primary grades and the habits and skills we expect them to obtain before being placed in the more advanced grades we are

challenged to make use of every minute of time the child is in school in a constructive program based on child psychology, the acquirement of habits and skills, and the development of the ability to think.

Many teachers are already planning their seat work for next semester. Others should be doing so very soon. In order that we may prepare our new material on a sound psychological basis the following criteria are submitted for consideration in deciding the type of seat work we prepare.

1. *Does it require thinking on the part of the child?*

A large part of the pupil's time should involve thinking and a very little of his time should be spent in sorting, hunting for answer, mechanically fitting until right card is found, and placing card in right place.

2. *Is the purpose of it known and understood by the pupil?*

Many children are just assigned to do something, not knowing what they are doing when they do it, or why they do it. This should always be known by the children.

3. *Is it on the level of the child?*

Most of our work meets this criteria, but some of it is below this level, it being three or four year old material.

4. *Does silent reading, figuring, organizing, vocabulary building, and other reading objectives, occupy most of the time of the child while working?*

Much of our work calls for drawing and illustrating. Some of this type of expression is worthwhile as it helps the child to experience and live a selection read or a social experience desired. We must think however just how much of the child's time is spent in the drawing or other motor skill activity in comparison to the time spent in thinking or reading and determine the worth of the activity in light of the thinking and reading as well as the other experience desired. It is felt that much of our seat work leans entirely too much toward the drawing. Usually where this is done three fourths of the child's time is spent in drawing and less than one fourth in the real objectives set aside for seat work. This criteria should supplement No. 1.

5. *Does it supplement the reading class work and also bring in much incidental reading?*

Many of the stories that are not recalled in reading periods should be recalled through a seat work activity. Those that are recalled in class work many times should be left out of the seat work program. Also much incidental reading should be done in the seat work period. This brings into play many of the words

taught through a different activity and gives a new experience which is very valuable. A word is never known by a child until he can recognize it in any situation in which it is found.

6. *Does it occupy most of the seat work period time for the average child?*

Many of our activities are finished in two minutes and then the child is left to find something else to do. This type of thing is as harmful an activity as any we can give for the bright pupils as they very soon set up very low standards of accomplishment for the ability which they possess.

7. *Does it provide for a definite check which the pupil can use, or which the teacher can use upon inspection?*

Activities which just direct the pupil to do something and provide no way of child or teacher to know whether they are completed or not except upon hearing the child recite is not a seat work activity. It is an assignment made previous to a recitation period and does not have much place as a seat work activity.

8. *Is it interesting to the child?*

This factor is a vital one as far as the energy which the child puts into the activity is concerned. A variety of material is a big factor in fulfilling this criteria. Nothing is more tiresome to a child than being required to solve time and time again the same piece of work in the same time and in the same way. To have just three or four types of things for seat work for a semester and then have these duplicated day after day is doing nothing more than trying to keep children busy.

9. *Is it hard enough to tax the ability of the child who attempts to solve it?*

This is important as far as the bright pupil is concerned. Much of our school work in the first two grades is play to him and taxes him very little to accomplish the task.

10. *Is there adequate supplementary material available for those who finish early to use?*

This material should be in every lower grade room for the pupils who every day finish their work much sooner and better than the other pupils.

During the past semester we have had in the office much material that should assist the teacher in preparing his seat work. Many teachers have and use much very excellent material. Others seem to have only three or four types of things that get tiresome to the child

before he is through with a month of school work. The material that has been on display from the Harter School Supply Company and the Plymouth Press has given many suggestions of excellent types of seat work. We have purchased one copy each of about twenty of the best devices from these companies. Also you have had access to the material sent to the board of education office last year and the material prepared by the new teachers to the system this present year. I personally believe that the home made material is the best. It not only develops the teachers but it usually fits into the local school situation much more readily than the purchased material. There are hundreds of things we can do and many suggestions for making things we have obtained by looking over this material. It isn't necessary that all pupils work on the same project at the same time. A graded list from which each pupil works another when the first is completed is a desirable program.

In each room there also are reading books available for the children when they finish the regular laid out program. At present there is very little check on what each child reads to find out whether he understands it or not. Many short one word tests such as the Bolenious readers provide for their books, can be worked out for many of the stories in these other books. A copy of the Bolenious tests is in the office. Then the pupils can obtain the sheet with the test material on it and see how much of it they can do after they have read the story. After working on the test they can re-read the story to check their responses and to find out answers to things which they were not able to respond to on the test sheet. The new Thought Test readers prepared by the University Publishing Company are excellent in this type of thing.

It is realized that a program of the above nature is a laborious one for those who have not much seat work at hand. Many of us expect to teach this same grade of work for two or more years to come. Certainly nothing would be more worthwhile than starting on a program of preparing one new activity a week. It doesn't take long to collect considerable material and with it on hand one of the biggest problems of the primary grade teacher is solved.

The development of this material is one of the best means of teacher development in present day silent reading methods and individual instruction. A program of this nature is not only suggested, but it is urged. A room of children where every child is constructively working on live (not dead) material, with a program ahead of him that is unlimited as far as accomplishment is concerned is a room of happy, growing, working boys and girls.

Any teachers who wish material on this subject are directed to the following sources:

- Bolenious, Emma M. *Primer and First Grade Manual*. Also Second Grade Manual, Houghton-Mifflin, 1925. The first part of the First Grade Manual is worth reading several times by every teacher.
- Courtis-Smith—*New Course of Study for Beginners in Reading*. This takes up the work for the first fourteen weeks of the school child. It is an individual instruction program and consequently contains many things that will give excellent suggestions for seat work in the 1-B grade.
- Course of Study—St. Cloud, Minn. This Course of Study in Reading covers all the grades. Tests are given and illustrated for checkup on the work of pupils. Many suggestions for seat work material can be obtained from this Course of Study.
- Catalog—Harter School Supply Company. Illustrates all the types of work purchasable from them.
- Catalog—Plymouth Press. Illustrates all the types of work purchasable from them.
- Catalog—Parker Games.—Full of games that suggest work in primary grades. Parker Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Catalog—Cut Out and Put Together material. There are many direction cards that can be prepared for each activity.
- Parker, S. C. *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*, Ginn & Co., 1925. Chapter on Beginning Reading.
- Stone, C. R. *New Text on Silent Reading for First Grade*, Houghton-Mifflin, 1925.
- Bulletin—Minneapolis No. 1 and 2. Educational.
- Bulletin—Mimeographed list of activities prepared by new first grade teachers this fall.
- Prout, F. J., and others—*Thought Test Readers for Second Grade*, University Pub. Co., 1925.
- Catalog—Happy Work Pastime Packages—Gibson Art Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

CRITERIA FOR DRILL WORK IN ARITHMETIC FUNDAMENTALS

I. GROUPS

1. Has each pupil been tested with informal test covering previous work of class and beginning work that class is to commence and then placed in a group of pupils to work with based on the results of the test plus the judgment of the teacher.
2. Does the pupil know the results of his test, why he is placed in the group he is in, and what type of work the group is going to do.
3. Are the knowns that the pupils work with in the group thoroughly mastered by the pupils so that they can put their entire energy on the unknown they are striving to acquire.
4. In commencing new work with the group, are the knowns used in connection with the new ability to be acquired easy knowns, so as to enable the pupil to put all mental faculties on the new ability and not be confused with other fundamentals.

5. Is the new process made concrete to the groups before abstract drills are used.
6. As the work of the group progresses are the known fundamentals used with the new specific ability to be acquired made more difficult as the work progresses.
7. Are there any pupils working in the group who have mastered the work the group is working on and could more profitably spend their time on problem work.
8. Is each pupil given a re-test at close of work and a new test at beginning of new work so that he has an opportunity to be placed in a different group if his work justifies it, or another group where the work more adequately covers his difficulties.

II. TESTS-GRAPHS

1. Are frequent tests being given covering past work and present work, to tell the teacher and pupils how well they are retaining what has been acquired and how well they are progressing in the skills they are working on.
2. Are graphs or charts being kept of the progress of each pupil to stimulate him to better work. Do these show accuracy as well as growth.
3. Are diagnostic tests being given to those who do not progress with the rest of the group to help locate the trouble the pupil is having.
4. Are graphs or charts displayed where children can use them. Are they attractive, neat, and understandable.
5. Have the combinations used in the tests been checked for correct and even distribution.
6. Does the pupil have a goal set for him to try to reach in a given time limit and is he frequently tested to show him his progress in reaching this goal.

III. MECHANICS MANAGEMENT

1. Is the time limit for both class work and seat work short enough so as not to cause fatigue.
2. Are answers quickly and easily checked so that both teacher and pupil know with what proficiency the pupil is working.
3. Are opportunities for counting on fingers, lip movement, and using other crutches, reduced to a minimum.
4. Is guessing reduced to a minimum.
5. Is enough work required so that every pupil in the group is forced to work at his best the entire period.
6. Do the pupils struggle to acquire one unknown at a time.

IV. MASTERING FUNDAMENTALS

1. Is the drill in the 381 combination facts given so that pupil automatically responds with answer the instant he sees the combination.
2. Are devices used in the combination facts that hold intense interest on the automatic response.
3. Are more difficult combinations given more drill than easier ones.
4. Do devices vary so that the pupil meets combination fact in all ways in which he might meet it in life.
5. Are the combinations in the drills used as a pupil would use them in an actual life situation.
6. Are short drills conducted to make them more proficient in previously mastered fundamentals.
7. Have the seat work exercises been checked for the combination distribution so that the teacher knows exactly how many of each combination are on each practice drill.

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF THE DEPARTMENT
OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—
ADOPTED 1921

PREAMBLE

A GREAT majority of our future citizens receive all their formal education in the elementary school. To it is intrusted the physical, mental, and moral training of the child during its tenderest years, and to it we must look for that basic training upon which all future education must rest. Educators everywhere and our federal, state, and local governments are realizing more and more the responsibility placed upon the elementary school, but primarily it is the elementary school principal who must face these responsibilities intimately. In order to meet these responsibilities with a united mind and purpose, to study the problems of the elementary school with a broad and sympathetic outlook, to enlist the aid of educational forces everywhere, and in general, to give to the elementary child the advantages of united effort, we do hereby form the Department of Elementary School Principals and adopt the following Constitution:

Article I. Name—The name of the organization shall be the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association.

Article II. Membership—Membership in the Department of Elementary School Principals shall be defined to include state, county, and city supervisory principals of elementary school classes who are members of the National Education Association.

Article III. Officers—(a) The officers of the Department shall be the President, three Vice-Presidents, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Executive Committee.

(b) The officers of the Department, with the exception of the Executive Committee, shall hold office for a period of one year from the date of election.

(c) The Executive Committee shall consist of four members besides the Chairman. These members shall hold office for four years, one member retiring each year. The member receiving the largest number of votes at the first election shall serve four years, and the others three, two, and one, respectively, according to the number of votes received. The President of the Department shall be an *ex officio* member and Chairman of the Executive Committee.

Article IV. Method of Amending the Constitution—(a) An amendment to the Constitution or By-Laws may be proposed by the Executive Committee or by a petition of at least ten regular members of the Department.

(b) The proposed amendment shall be read in regular session at least 24 hours before a vote is taken upon it.

(c) Two thirds of the votes of the members present in a regular session will be necessary to make the proposed amendment part of the Constitution.

Article V. Elections—(a) Election of officers will take place in business session held during the summer meeting of the National Education Association.

(b) Election shall be by ballot.

(c) Active members only are entitled to vote.

(d) A nominating committee of five members shall be appointed by the President at the first session of the summer meeting. This committee shall nominate one candidate for each office to be filled. Nominations from the floor shall be permitted.

Article VI. Duties of Officers—The President shall preside at all meetings of the Department and of the Executive Committee, appoint all committees not otherwise provided for, call meetings of the Executive Committee at his pleasure or upon written request of three of its members, sign all orders on the Treasurer and perform such other duties as may from time to time devolve upon him. He shall be an *ex officio* member of all standing committees.

The Vice-President, in the absence of the President of the Department, shall perform all the duties of that office.

The Secretary shall keep in the minute book of the Department a careful record of the proceedings of the Department and of all its committees; and he shall be responsible for their preservation. He shall be custodian of the seal of the Department. He shall be the secretary of the Executive Committee. Within 30 days after any meeting of the Department and within 10 days after any meeting of the Executive Committee the Secretary shall furnish a copy of the minutes of such meeting to each member of the Executive Committee. He shall prepare and keep an accurate list of the members of the Department with their postoffice addresses, countersign all orders of the Treasurer, and perform such other duties as may, from time to time, devolve upon him. His compensation shall be such as the Department may direct before he assumes the office.

The Treasurer shall give bond, approved by the Executive Committee, in amount fixed by such committee, the expense of such bond

to be paid from the funds of the Department. He shall collect and have the custody of all the funds of the Department, which shall be deposited in the name of the Department in an institution approved by the Executive Committee. He shall pay out such funds only on orders signed by the President and the Secretary. He shall be *ex officio* member of the Enrolment Committee and shall give his receipt countersigned by a member of such committee to each member of the Department for payment of dues. He shall keep the accounts of the Department and his accounts shall be audited by the Committee on Audits before the annual meeting of the Department, and at such meeting he shall make an itemized report in writing of all receipts and expenditures. He shall perform such other duties as may, from time to time, devolve upon him. His compensation shall be such as the Department shall direct.

The Executive Committee shall be regarded as the administrative body of the Department, subject to the call of the President, except as otherwise provided for in the Constitution. To supplement and assist him in the conduct of his office, the Executive Committee shall, by a majority vote of all its members, fill all vacancies, except that of President, which is provided for in the Constitution. The Executive Committee shall prepare an advance program for each annual meeting of the Department not less than 30 days before such meeting convenes. The Executive Committee shall prepare an annual report of the Department and shall send a printed copy of same to each member of the Department.

The annual report shall contain a list of officers and committees of the Department, a list of members of the Department, together with their addresses and such other matter as the Department and Executive Committee may direct.

All bills before being paid shall be approved by the Executive Committee, and such action shall be placed in detail on the minutes of the committee.

BY-LAWS

Article I—There shall be the following standing committees and such other special committees as the President may appoint: Committee on Educational Progress, Committee on Resolutions, Committee on Enrolment, Committee on Cooperation with Civic Bodies.

Article II. Organization and Conduct of Committees—The first meeting of a committee shall be called by the first-named member thereof. All committees shall organize by the election by ballot of a Chairman and a Secretary unless otherwise provided for and may make rules for the conduct of their business not inconsistent with the

Constitution and By-Laws. Minutes of the proceedings of each standing committee shall be kept in the minute book of such committee, and a copy thereof certified by the chairman and secretary shall be promptly furnished to the Secretary of the Department. All standing committees shall report to the Department in writing at the annual meeting. Vacancies in all committees except the Executive Committee shall be filled by the President of the Department.

Article III. Committee on Educational Progress—The Committee on Educational Progress shall consist of one member from each state. This committee shall bring before the Department such features of educational progress as it may deem worthy of consideration.

Article IV. Committee on Resolutions—All resolutions offered at an annual meeting of the Department shall be referred to the Committee on Resolutions, unless otherwise ordered by the Department. This committee shall submit to the Department for its consideration such resolutions as they may deem advisable.

Article V. Committee on Enrolment—The Committee on Enrolment shall consist of not less than one member from each state, but additional members may be appointed by the President of the Department. This committee shall secure members for the Department, collect the annual dues and pay them to the Secretary, furnishing him therewith a list of the names and postoffice addresses of members from whom such dues have been collected, and giving each member the Secretary's receipt, countersigned by a member of the committee.

Article VI. The Committee on Cooperation with Civic Bodies—The Committee on Cooperation with Civic Bodies shall enlist the support and cooperation of such civic organizations as shall increase the influence and scope of the Department.

Article VII. Books, Records, Papers, and Property—**SEC. 1.** The records and accounts of the Department and of its officers, committees, departments, sections, and divisions, shall be kept in books provided by the Department, which shall be the property of the Department.

SEC. 2. All books, papers, records, and accounts of the Department and its officers, committees, departments, sections, and divisions, shall be open at all times to the inspection of the Executive Committee or any member thereof.

SEC. 3. Every officer, member, committee, department, section, or division of the Department having funds, papers, books, records, or property of any description belonging to the Department shall give up the same on demand to his or their successors in office or to the person authorized by the Department or its Executive Committee to receive the same.

Article VIII. Fiscal Year—The Fiscal Year of the Department shall begin July first and end June thirtieth in each year.

Article IX. Roberts' Rules of Order—The rules and orders of Roberts' "Rules of Order," not inconsistent with this Constitution, shall govern the meetings of the Department and its committees.

Article X. Rules on Debate—The Department shall be governed by the ruling of the National Education Association that debates shall be limited to five minutes unless otherwise ordered during the year.

ROSTER OF PRINCIPALS' CLUBS¹

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Secretary, A. J. Hamilton, 2133 Allston Way

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¹ Compiled by Research Division of the National Education Association.

² Executive Council is composed of Superintendents of Schools, Principals, Vice-Principals, Supervisors, Deans, and Heads of Departments.

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Richmond, Virginia—Principals' Club

President, Algar Woolfolk, Principal, Bellevue Junior High School

Secretary, A. L. Thoms, Principal, Ginter Park School

Roanoke, Virginia—Roanoke City Board of Principals

President, Mabel C. Massey, 1323 Roanoke Street

Secretary, Lena E. Lawson, 906 Campbell Avenue

Rochester, New York—Council of the School Principals

President, Jackson Gallup, Principal, School No. 18

Secretary, Emma O'Keefe, Principal, School No. 8

Salt Lake City, Utah—Principals' Association

President, A. J. Hagen, Irving Junior High School, 1172 E. 21st Street, South

Secretary, J. B. Driggs, Hamilton School, 770 S. 8th, East

San Diego, California—San Diego Principals' Club

President, T. Malcolm Brown, Roosevelt Junior High School

Secretary, Minnie Pease, Florence School

¹ The Passaic Principals' Association has not functioned for several years. The superintendent's Cabinet includes all principals and supervisors.

San Francisco, California—San Francisco Principals' Association

President, Mrs. K. E. Brogan, 417 Stockton Street

Secretary, Susie Ward, 3640A 19th Street

Seattle, Washington—Seattle Principals' Association

President, V. K. Froula, 5043 18th Avenue, N. E.

Secretary, Lulie Nettleton, 1017 Boren Avenue

Sioux City, Iowa—Administration Club¹

President, L. W. Feik, Principal, West Junior High School

Somerville, Massachusetts—Somerville Schoolmasters' Club

President, Arthur L. Doe, 27 Spruce Street, Malden, Massachusetts

Secretary, Charles E. Brainard, 12 Pleasant Avenue

South Bend, Indiana—St. Joseph County Principals' Club

President, Edythe J. Brown, 619 Park Avenue

Secretary, Mrs. Elmo Swarm, Kennedy School, Mishawaka, Indiana

Spokane, Washington—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Ida D. Most, 607 Cleveland

Secretary, Bess R. Turner, Granby Court

Springfield, Illinois—Principals' Club

President, Edward Kinney, Principal, Palmer School

St. Joseph, Missouri—Principals' Club

President, A. L. Dailey, Lafayette High School

Secretary, Emma O. Mumm, Hosea School

St. Louis, Missouri—St. Louis Principals' Club

President, Walter A. Lodbey, 3450 Wisconsin Avenue

Secretary, H. P. Stellwagen, 4163 Green Lea Place

St. Louis Women's Principals' Club

President, Clara F. Jones, 4908 Cote Brillante Avenue

Secretary, Margery Griffin, 5335 Belleview Avenue

St. Paul, Minnesota—St. Paul's Principals' Club

President, E. N. Bonnells, 1668 Princeton Avenue

Secretary, A. W. Kirk, Jackson School

Syracuse, New York—Association of Men Principals and Supervisors

President, Frank F. Dunham, Madison School

Secretary, Asa Knapp, Porter School

Toledo, Ohio—Principals' and Supervisors' Club

President, Mrs. Fannie Perkins, 356 Rockingham Avenue

Secretary, Jean Marcellus, 845 W. Woodruff Avenue

Topeka, Kansas—Principals' Club

President, L. R. McCormick, 1048 College Avenue

Secretary, Margaret Browne, Hotel Kansas

Trenton, New Jersey—Trenton Principals' Association

President, William J. Bickett, South Stockton Street

Secretary, Harriet Crisp, Administration Bldg., South Stockton Street

Troy, New York—Hudson River Schoolmasters' Club

President, N. K. White, Lansingburgh High School

Utica, New York—Principals' and Supervisors' Club of Utica

President, John L. Blood, 19 Grant Street

Secretary, Elizabeth T. Carney, 14 Amy Avenue

Washington, D. C.—Principals' Association of the Graded White Schools

President, Mary A. Dilgbr, 3810 Warren Street, N. W.

Secretary, Viola Offutt, Bethesda, Maryland

Wheeling, West Virginia—Wheeling Principals' Association

President, J. E. Ewing, 312 S. Broadway

Secretary, Mary D. Reppetto, 2006 Warwood Avenue

¹Sioux City, Iowa, has no principals' organization but has an Administrative Club which includes principals and all other administrative officers.

Wilmington, Delaware—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Sallie R. Shaw, 812 W. 9th Street

Secretary, Frances G. Doherty, 911 W. 8th Street

Worcester, Massachusetts—Worcester Principals' Club

President, Ellen E. Moynshan, 4 Homer Street

Secretary, Ruth Johnson, 47 Highland Street

Yonkers, New York—Yonkers Principals' Association

President, Joseph J. Eaton, 104 Broadway, South

Secretary, Nita Sibley, Public School No. 21

Youngstown, Ohio—Youngstown Education Association

President, H. K. Rayen, Princeton School

Secretary, Robert Fleming, South High School

Note.—Schenectady, New York, has an organization of all men on the teaching staff, including principals and supervisors, known as The Journal Club.

Springfield, Massachusetts, has no organization for principals only. There is a Teachers' Club for women teachers of which Mary O. Pottenger, 29 School Street, is president. Also an Educational Club of which Stanley O. Smith, 14 Gunn Square, is president.

LIST OF MEMBERS

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

FOR THE YEAR 1925-26, CORRECTED TO APRIL 15, 1926

Unless otherwise indicated those listed are elementary school principals.

- Aarvig, Bertha O., Apt. 3, K. C. Bldg., Fort Dodge, Iowa.
- Abbott, Annette, 1220 A St., Lincoln, Nebr.
- Abbott, Robert B., 1137 Bremer Ave., Fresno, Calif.
- Abel, B. L., School No. 45, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Abrams, Henry, 1014-L Riverview Union, Reedley, Calif.
- Adams, A. Virginia, East Landis Ave., Vineland, N. J.
- Adams, Grace, 1918 Ashland Ave., Indianapolis, Ind.
- Adams, Laura, 3416 Schaffer St., S. Hills Sta., Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Adams, Ruby M., 714 S. Kline St., Aberdeen, S. Dak.
- Adamson, Belle, 116 Spring St., Marietta, Ohio.
- Adel, Mrs. Edna P., 530 S. Ohio Ave., Columbus, Ohio.
- Adsit, Margery, 338 Pearl St., Burlington, Vt.
- Adsit, Ruth, Supv., Elem. Tr. School, Col. of Educ., Univ. of Wyo., Laramie, Wyo.
- Afferbach, Calvin E., Rural Supv., State Dept. of Pub. Instr., Court House, Georgetown, Del.
- Ager, H. W., 1947 Hawthorne Ave., Portland, Oregon.
- Agre, M. W., Consolidated School, Reading, Minn.
- Aitkens, Emma C., 1108 Napoleon Ave., New Orleans, La.
- Alton, Maude E., Americanization School, 10th & H Sts., Washington, D. C.
- Akin, Wayne M., Sargent School, Monte Vista, Colo.
- Alderman, Etta L., Park Avenue School, West Springfield, Mass.
- Alexander, Mrs. Alevia, St. Paul Hotel, 130 4th St., Portland, Oregon.
- Alexander, Carter, Assoc. Prof. of Ed. and Research Assoc., Div. of Field Stud., Tehra. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y.
- Alexander, Hattie, 204 N. McDowell, St., Charlotte, N. C.
- Alexander, J. A., Supt. of Schools, Windsor, Ill.
- Alexander, Miss K. U., 1512 Swann St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- Alexander, Rae, Ethan Allen School, San Francisco, Calif.
- Allen, Amelia S., 440 Eastern Ave., East Lynn, Mass.
- Allen, Mrs. Anna B., 1309 11th St., Aurora, Nebr.
- Allen, Grace A., 25 Bacheller St., East Lynn, Mass.
- Allen, Lillie E., 1750 N. 15th St., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Allen, Lora, 99 W. Kansas, Pittsburg, Kansas.
- Allen, Nell B., Box 35, Hoquiam, Wash.
- Allbands, Mrs. Ida M., 989 E. 11th St., N., Portland, Ore.
- Alt, Mary A., 1120 S. Beaumont, Detroit, Mich.
- Altamer, W. H., College Hill School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Alter, Harvey E., Thomas Street School, Rome, N. Y.
- Altstetter, Mrs. M. L., 725 W. Colonial Drive, Orlando, Fla.
- Amerman, Nona L., 35 Collings Place, Houston, Tex.
- Ames, Rena, Lafayette School, Hammond, Ind.
- Anderson, Mrs. Cora S., 106 S. 25th St., Omaha, Nebr.
- Anderson, Elizabeth N., Kane School, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Anderson, Ellen R., Prin., Practice Dept., State Normal School, Potsdam, N. Y.
- Anderson, Emma C., 419 W. 76th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Anderson, J. H., 83 Smyth-Duncan, Greenville, S. C.
- Anderson, Robert S., Keystone School, Upper Darby, Pa.
- Anderson, William, 1513 Druid Hill Ave., Baltimore, Md.
- Andrew, Ellen B., Asst. Prin., Kilgour School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Andrews, Alice L., 40 Roselawn Ave., Warren, Ohio.
- Andrews, Frank A., 47 Clark St., Worcester, Mass.
- Andrews, J., West Ward School, Eastland, Texas.
- Andrews, John H., Itasca Station, Superior, Wis.
- Andrews, Mary A., Box 84, Santa Ana, Calif.
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- Anspach, Charles J., 4713 Pabst Ave., Milwaukee, Wis.
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- Antrim, Louise, 3220 W. 98th St., Cleveland, Ohio.
- Arce, Mrs. A. V., Legarda Elem. School, Lealtad, Sampiloc, Manila, P. I.
- Archart, Claud A., Linnton, Oregon.
- Armstrong, Cora, 319 McKinley Ave., S., Canton, Ohio.
- Armstrong, Mrs. Mary F., 1346 Wealthy St., S. E., Grand Rapids, Mich.
- Armstrong, Nano E., 194 22nd St., Milwaukee, Wis.
- Arnold, E. G., Alcott School, Denver, Colo.
- Arnold, Frank J., 622 Mansfield Pl., Brooklyn, N. Y.
- Arnold, John A., Oakland School, Tacoma, Wash.
- Arnold, L. G., 419 Q St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- Arnold, Melville A., 29 Walnut St., Everett, Mass.

- Arnson, Harriet, 22 Lochiel Apts., Niagara Falls, N. Y.
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 Atkins, Robert S., Thomas N. Hart School, South Boston, Mass.
 Atkinson, F. H., Henry Ford School, Highland Park, Mich.
 Atterbury, Lydia, John Muir School, Berkeley, Calif.
 Atwater, Jane S., 6824 Harper Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Ault, J. W., Prin., Elem. Tr. Sch., State Teachers College, San Diego, Calif.
 Austin, Mary N., Bancroft School, Omaha, Nebr.
 Averill, W. A., Ginn & Co., 15 Ashburton Pl., Boston, Mass.
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 Axtell, Annie D., Doty School, Madison, Wis.
 Axtelle, George E., Dept. of Education, Honokaa, Hawaii
 Ayres, Florence N., Washington School, New Brunswick, N. J.
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 Baer, Schanette, Whittier School, Toledo, Ohio.
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 Baker, Elizabeth S., 159 Paxton St., Harrisburg, Pa.
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- Benson, Josephine E., Nelson Dewey School, Superior, Wis.
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- Bestick, Grace V., 229 Wells St., Bridgeport, Conn.
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- Blankenship, Ursula, 1210 S. Boulevard, Charlotte, N. C.
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- Blough, H. B., 321 E. 22nd St., Portland, Oregon.
- Blumb, Joseph L., 1916 Woolsey St., Berkeley, Calif.
- Boecker, Alexander, Public School No. 100, Coney Island, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- Bogan, L. E., Okay, Okla.
- Boland, Teresa M., Union School, Rutherford, N. J.
- Bolen, Elizabeth, 102 S. 19th St., St. Joseph, Mo.
- Bolenbaugh, George B., Fairview School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
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- Bond, Mary E., 1860 Columbia Rd., Washington, D. C.
- Bonfield, Susan, Douglas School, Chicago, Ill.
- Book, Clare B., Supv. Prin. of Schools, Slippery Rock, Pa.
- Bopst, M., Columbia Street School, Cumberland, Md.
- Borden, Nellie G., 715 N. Van Ness, Fresno, Calif.
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- Bowen, Warren R., 20 Pleasant St., Salem, Mass.
- Bowen, Wayne F., Prin., Belle Vernon School Dist., Compton, Calif.
- Bowers, Jacob, 32 W. Lakeview Ave., Columbus, Ohio.

- Bowman, C. P., 1714 Pike Ave., Ensley, Ala.
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 Boyne, Edwin M., Midland Public Schools, Midland, Mich.
 Boysen, Mrs. Agness, Lyndale School, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Bracken, Angeline, Sherman School, Omaha, Nebr.
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 Briggs, Elizabeth M., South Dartmouth, Mass.
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 Brookes, M. Emma, Miles School, Cleveland, Ohio.
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 Brooks, C. J., Madisonville School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
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 Brown, Edythe J., 619 Park Ave., South Bend, Ind.
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 Brown, Emma, Leath School, Memphis, Tenn.
 Brown, Florence G., Quincy School, Ogden, Utah.
 Brown, Florence I., Walnut Square School, Haverhill, Mass.
 Brown, Georgia M., 426 E. Oak St., Louisville, Ky.
 Brown, Mrs. Huldah H., 72 Bunnell St., Bridgeport, Conn.
 Brown, Mrs. Jeannette B., 1224 Bates St., S. E., Grand Rapids, Mich.
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 Brown, W. Q., Kennedy-Silverton School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
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 Bruce, Robert, Orcutt Union School, Orcutt, Calif.
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 Buchanan, Wm. D., 5511 Vervon Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
 Buchsieb, Carrie J., Siebert School, Columbus, Ohio.
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 Buckingham, B. R., Dir., Bureau of Educ. Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
 Buckley, Charles, Supv. Prin., Sulzberger Jr. High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Buckley, Mary E., School 7, Indianapolis, Ind.
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 Buettell, Emma L., 11 Prescott Apts., Dubuque, Iowa.
 Buhr, Mrs. Emily J., Box 683, Oelwein, Iowa.
 Bull, Elizabeth A., Bay Avenue School, Patchogue, N. Y.
 Bullard, Helen M., 484 Concord St., Manchester, N. H.
 Bullock, Caroline M., Fifth Street School, Niagara Falls, N. Y.
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 Burke, Hanna J., 222 S. Park Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.
 Burke, Mrs. Katherine M., Ewa School, Ewa, Oahu, Hawaii.
 Burke, Lottie C., Riverside School, Memphis, Tenn.
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Publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals from the time of its organization to January, 1926

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Bulletin No. 1, May 1, 1921. Published at Port Arthur, Texas

National Association of Elementary School Principals
Bulletin No. 2, June 1, 1921. Published at Port Arthur, Texas

Department of Elementary School Principals, Proceedings, 1921
Bulletin No. 18 of the National Education Association

Bulletin of the Department of Elementary Principals
No. 3, November, 1921. Published at Duluth, Minn. (out of
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Bulletin of the Department of Elementary Principals
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Bulletins of the Department of Elementary School Principals, published in Washington

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"The Technique of Supervision by the Elementary School
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