

BULLETIN

OF THE

Department of Elementary School Principals

One Day With Fifty-Three Principals—Morrison.....	67
The Misuse of Educational Measurements—Herron.....	73
The Problem of Rating Compositions—Gainsburg.....	81
The Transition From Elementary to Junior Highschool— Cox	88
Some Professional Programs of the Dallas Principals and Supervisors Association—Pinkston.....	91
The Changing Conception of the School Office as a Factor in Good Management—Day.....	94
Dallas and Health Supervision in the Schools—Morris.....	96
What the Henry Clay School is Doing in Training for Citizen- ship—Marx	102
The Teacher-Clerk's Opportunity—White.....	103
Hallowe'en As "Examination Day" in the Chicago Schools— Witcraft	110
Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principal- ship—Longshore	113
Minutes of the Meeting of the Committee on Standards, at Philadelphia, June, 1926.....	117
Report of Enrolment Committee—Fink.....	120
Program of the Texas Convention.....	121
Editorial	123
Notes from the Field.....	123

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ONE DAY WITH FIFTY-THREE PRINCIPALS

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WHEN RODIN carved "The Thinker" he paid a lasting tribute to the philosopher—whose end from age to age has been the gleaning, sifting, and interpretation of those ideas, ideals, and attitudes that elevate the creative potentialities of mankind.

Since it is a function of the public school to transmit such ideas, ideals, and attitudes from generation to generation, adapting them to an ever changing environment, any consideration of standards and training for the elementary school principalship calls for the reflective thinking of the educational philosopher to determine to what extent the principal can direct the school toward the realization of the great aims passed on by thinkers of the centuries.

But since the days when the monastic philosophers spent their time debating the question as to the number of angels that could be encompassed on the point of a needle, there has been a more or less serious conflict of opinion between the philosopher and the individual actually confronted with a task to be done. Thus the maxim, "It is easier to teach twenty what were good to be done than to be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching," is verified. The practical minded man would start with the job in hand and make in it whatever changes or improvements would best shape it to his ends. The philosopher would think out his pattern in terms of the good he would achieve and then shape the job to fit his previously formed conception. Both viewpoints are fundamental. Both are essential to a fair determination of the standards and training that should be required for the elementary school principalship.

Most of the studies thus far made of the elementary school principalship have been fact-finding studies. It is the concern of this paper not so much to review what has been learned as to point out the larger meaning of the studies already achieved.

In the Ohio study¹ the average elementary principal claimed that he spent eight hours a day, exclusive of the lunch period, at his school building. Of this 8-hour day he devoted 12 percent to clerical duties, 16 percent to administrative and organizing duties, 52 percent to teaching, 15 percent to classroom supervision and 5 percent to the duties pertaining to the school system as a whole. It will be pointed out later that this division of duties is largely influenced by a number of factors, chief of which is the size of building.

Last year the Department of School Administration of the State University secured from some 380 Ohio elementary school principals a statement of the administrative duties which they found most time consuming. Altogether 51 different administrative duties were named; they were:

¹ Morrison, J. Cayce. *The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*. Contributions in School Administration, Vol. II, May 15, 1926.

1. Discipline, including corporal punishment
2. Preparation of reports
3. Playground supervision
4. The details of attendance
5. Supervision of janitor service and building conditions
6. Carrying out superintendent's instructions
7. Mediator between teachers and parents
8. Carrying messages
9. Care of children in basement
10. Health work
11. Preparing a Sunday school census
12. Doing janitorial work
13. Promoting professional study among teachers
14. Organizing activities of the school
15. Overseeing the lunch period
16. Securing the cooperation of parents
17. Welfare work, *e. g.*, procuring clothes for the needy, etc.
18. Helping and conferring with teachers
19. Supervision of corridors (regulating traffic)
20. Ordering and distributing supplies
21. Answering telephone
22. Preparing for and presiding over meetings with teachers
23. Assisting in work of parent-teachers' associations
24. Directing the school banking and handling school funds
25. Care of equipment
26. Supervision of physical education work
27. Administering standard tests (including clerical work in tests)
28. Directing extra-curricular activities (school paper, club work)
29. Regulation of routine matters, *e. g.*, period bells, etc.
30. Registration and enrolling pupils, withdrawals, etc.
31. Directing the distribution of milk to pupils
32. Conducting fire drills
33. Conferences with parents
34. Conferences with superintendent and supervisor
35. Committee work
36. Preparing and distributing notices to teachers
37. Schedule making
38. Personal interviews with pupils
39. Receiving callers
40. Revision of curriculum
41. Attending various meetings
42. Civic duties
43. Visiting rooms (not included in classroom supervision)
44. Making plans and programs for special days
45. Settling misunderstandings between pupils and teachers
46. Securing data for research and health departments
47. Library work
48. Directing assembly periods
49. Following the progress of individual pupils
50. Working on moral problems of individuals and groups of pupils
51. Planning work for the school

Attempting to classify these duties is a most interesting pastime. For instance, answering the telephone, carrying messages, receiving callers, mediating between teachers and parents, preparing Sunday school census, regulating traffic in corridors, directing school banking, and working on moral problems, all these suggest something of the variety of experiences

that are uppermost in a principal's mind. Nor it is without significance to note that the administrative duty first in the mind of most principals, from the standpoint of time consumed, is that of discipline. What the implications of this statement are, we have yet to learn.

Recently 53 elementary school principals in Ohio cities kept a detailed diary¹ of all their activities for one day. The average enrolment of these schools was approximately 700 pupils and the average time spent at school by the principal was a few minutes over seven hours. The work as listed by the 53 principals was analyzed in detail and was roughly classified under the following heads; instructional, clerical, administrative duties pertaining to the community or the school system as a whole, and professional study.

Thirty-three and one-third percent of the total time expended was devoted to the instructional group of duties. Classroom observation which consumed 18 percent of the total day ranked first of all the duties in the instructional list. Classroom teaching was second in the list with 8.5 percent of the day; it included both regular teaching duties and substitute teaching. Other items in this list were: Conference with teachers concerning instruction; demonstration teaching, both before groups and individuals; meetings with teachers and preparation for the same; preparation, giving, and rating of standard tests and examinations; examining pupils' work; coaching pupils both individually and in groups; and studying notes on observation.

Under the classification of clerical duties, the most time consuming factors was the telephone. This included making calls, taking messages, delivering messages and conversation with parents, school officials, and teachers. It is true of course that the telephone might be listed as an administrative duty. It was arbitrarily placed in the clerical column because it is assumed that a great deal of the time consumed by the telephone can be cared for by an office clerk quite as well as by the principal himself.

Other clerical duties ranked in order of time devoted to them were: preparation of reports for the central office; care of the correspondence, including dictation; keeping of school records; care of the mail; and ordinary clerical work, types not specified.

Administrative duties consumed 53 percent of the total time expended by the 53 principals during the day. By far the largest item of time in this division was given to conferences, that is, a total of 16 percent of the total day. One third of this conference time was spent with teachers in consideration of matters which had little if any direct bearing upon the process of teaching. This heading included such items as discipline, committee work on curricula, community affairs, health of children, special programs, special pupil problems, textbooks and supplies. Under conferences with pupils were mentioned most frequently such subjects as athletics, failure in class, group projects, and special pupil problems. The

¹ The form used in keeping this diary was prepared by M. R. Trabue, Director of Educational Research, Univ. of N. C. for a much more extensive study of the same problem.

remainder of the time spent in conference was with the architect, assistant principal, book men or salesmen, the janitor on questions not pertaining to building, parents, school nurse and other health officials, P. T. A. workers; superintendent, supervisors, and visitors. Also the bus driver, and school workmen came in for a share of the principal's time.

Attendance took nearly 6 percent of the principal's working day. This included the checking of daily attendance, conference with pupils who had been late or absent, conferences with parents either in person or by telephone, and reports to board of health and the attendance department either written or telephoned, to say nothing of searching the streets for truants.

Playground supervision furnishes a school principal with an excuse for recreation. In one or two cases it seemed to be a specialty. On the average, it consumed nearly 5 percent of the principal's working day.

Work directly with pupils, exclusive of conferences mentioned and coaching listed under "instructional activity," occupied 4 percent of the principal's time. Specified under this caption was the time spent for discipline, enrolling new pupils, first aid, guidance, and health inspection and supervision. Any one of these items can be broken up into any number of subdivisions. For instance health supervision included such items as examining children who had been absent because of contagious disease and inspecting children's heads for none too welcome tenants.

The elementary school principal has as yet little to do with extracurricular activities outside of special programs. The items mentioned most frequently were scouting, both for girls and boys, and the school assembly.

The principal's first job for the day invariably is a general inspection of the building and grounds. Occasionally he becomes so enamoured with this special phase of his vocation that he repeats the process at least three or four times a day. His responsibility for buildings and grounds does not end with inspection, but occasionally the principal is called upon to exercise highly specialized judgment concerning the school buildings. Among these functions listed were the supervision of landscape gardening, studying of plans for new buildings, listing of repairs needed, and inspection of troubles in the system of heating and ventilating. So much for the larger items under general administration.

Were you to look in upon the principal you might find him preparing bulletins and placing them upon the bulletin boards; planning or supervising fire drills; inspecting the library or arranging its material or furniture; helping in the lunchroom either as cash girl, as chief police, or what not; busily absorbed in his office following the routine of the job or in day dreaming that defies classification; sometimes working on a plan of organization for the next term, preparing plans, working over his own plans or reviewing plans submitted by teachers; distributing, inventoring or requisitioning supplies. At almost every recess or dismissal period he would be found in the corridor supervising the passing of lines. When he is tired of work he walks through the corridor to see that everything is all right. Occasionally he is to be found in conference with a substitute teacher or making arrangements to care for the work of an absent teacher.

He still considers administrative details a suitable reason for teachers' meeting. Directing and supervising schemes designed to make financiers of his pupils is not foreign to his program. In some respects he is a social welfare worker; he supervises the collection of clothing and old shoes; now and then he goes into juvenile court; at any time he may be called from the classroom, lunch or office to talk with indigent parents or children concerning their problems of want or misfortune.

In a miscellaneous grouping of duties performed we find the principal attending funeral services of deceased pupils, calling on parents, entertaining school guests, making announcements through the building, distributing milk to pupils, preparing publicity items, supervising the taking of class pictures, traveling back and forth between his schools or his own school and the central office, trying to find stolen articles, finding and punishing authors of immoral notes, collecting funds for N. E. A. delegates, promoting the work of the Teachers Retirement Association, furthering the community chest drive and attending lectures with pupils.

Preparation for and attendance at principals' meetings constituted, on the day in question, his chief responsibility to the general system. Committee organization came second, with the most important committees being, in order, textbooks and supplies, courses of study, and buildings. Work in the interest of the P. T. A. and the lyceum course, found a place in the record.

Three principals listed time spent in professional study; one of these was working on a study of school banking that would be of direct concern to his own school, while the two others were devoting themselves to an assignment obtained through an extension course.

Of all the functions listed it was interesting to note that only two were mentioned by more than 50 percent of the principals. These functions and the number of principals performing each on the day recorded were, classroom observation 46 and general supervision of playground 47. Other items performed by one-quarter or more of the principals on the day in question were conferences with parents, 25, demonstration teaching 24, general inspection of building 24, pupil discipline 23, office routine 23, checking attendance 22, correspondence 18, regular teaching 18, enrolling or assigning new pupils 17, supervision of passing of lines 16, conference with attendance officers 16, answering telephone 15, extracurricular duties of some kind 15.

"One day with 53 principals" is but a prelude to the study being made by M. R. Trabue at the University of North Carolina. Trabue is obtaining such a daily record from scores of principals in different states. That principals, by taking thought as to their schedules, can reshape their program so as to give play to more desirable activities is evinced by Kuenny who found that over a six months' period, a group of principals succeeded in increasing the allotment of their time to improvement of "learning activities" from 24 to 32 percent.

One cannot study the principal's job very long without realizing that there are many factors outside himself that shape the course of his daily

work. Some of the factors, isolated by Conners¹ are: size of city, size of building, sex of principal, kind of building, equipment, office facilities, and clerical help.

1 Size of city and size of school building are closely interlated factors which have a distinct bearing upon the principal's daily job. In Ohio the average elementary school principal of cities with 5 to 10 thousand inhabitants, supervises eight teachers and 290 pupils, whereas the principal in cities over 100,000 supervises 20 teachers and over 700 pupils. This difference in the size of buildings is reflected in the fact that the average principal of the larger school gives 13 percent of the working day to teaching, as contrasted to 65 percent by the principal in the smaller cities. The latter group gives 7 percent to classroom supervision and 11 percent to administrative and organizing duties in contrast to 27 and 30 percent respectively, devoted to those two functions by the group in the larger schools. Further, the principals in the larger schools exercise a greater responsibility for coordinating the work of the general grade supervisors, for the direct control of custodial service, and in the amount of time given to general supervision. "In cities above 100,000 the principal has more responsibility for assignment of pupils to classes, for determining the class schedules and for rating teachers under his direction."

2 A second factor influencing the principal's work is sex. Women are usually inclined to give less time to clerical routine and prefer to do more classroom teaching. Frequently they assume less responsibility than do men for supervising janitorial service.

3 The kind of building leaves its mark upon the principal's job. A principal in a building without an auditorium or an assembly hall, without gymnasium, without a modern lunchroom, or with meager playground facilities is not apt to feel called upon to promote civic organization and responsibility amongst his pupils.

4 The school principal with only a shabby office room containing no bookcase, no typewriter, no mimeograph machine, is not apt to feel for long the thrill of professional leadership within his building. When we stop to consider that less than 10 percent of the elementary school principals have any clerical assistance, it is not surprising that a principal should report that he spends a considerable part of his day, answering telephone calls, recording school marks, doing other clerical work, and distributing supplies.

As one searches the field of educational literature for help in understanding the school principalship, one is soon confronted with the fact that the chief available information is confined to the publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals. It is reasonable to expect that during the next few years this body will produce an exhaustive literature covering every detail of the work of its membership. One limitation of such studies of which cognizance should be taken, is the fact that the membership of this Department represents the elementary school principal-

¹ Conners, F. Herrick. *The Status of the Ohio Elementary School Principal*. Unpublished Masters Thesis, Dept. of Sch. Administration Ohio State University.

ship at its best. One of the most important studies in this field, namely, that of Mr. Crouch in the Fifth Yearbook, is misleading because its data was obtained entirely from members of this Department. To illustrate; the median number of teachers supervised by elementary school principals in the Crouch study was 17, while the median number in the Ohio study was 12. Similar differences may be found throughout the two reports. This may be accounted for in large measure by the fact that the Ohio study is based upon data from 45 percent of the elementary school principals in cities and villages above 3000 population, whereas the Crouch study was based upon the membership of this Department which is drawn largely from cities of considerable size.

Another study which promises to throw considerable light upon the activities of the elementary school principal is that now in process by W. P. Dyer who has analyzed at great length the possible duties of the school principal under the general headings, Improving the Technic of Teaching; Improving Teachers in Service; Improving the Classification and Promotion of Pupils; Improving the Curricula; Improving the Selection and Use of School Supplies; and Improving the General School Conditions. His analysis of the principal's work into 148 specific duties is suggestive of a type of analyses that will eventuate in a thorough understanding of the principal's work which we do not now have.

When we have found what the principal's job really is, we shall still be confronted with determining what is good and what further should be done. Two types of investigations are still needed. First, to secure from a small group of men and women who have given long and fruitful thought to the skills, attitudes, ideals, and ideas the elementary school should transmit to each oncoming generation of childhood their judgment as to what the elementary school principal may do toward realizing the function of the school. We need a new statement of the cardinal principles of the elementary school. Second, to secure from superintendents and others a list of the most successful principals and then learn from them the procedures underlying their success. By taking the best procedures from the most successful, we shall ultimately find a method or technic for attaining every principle that the first group may establish.

No other position in American education is due for such rebirth of its vision and practice as is the elementary school principalship.

THE MISUSE OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

JOHN S. HERRON

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IT IS a trite saying among members of the sales craft that, for high-powered gullibility, the ranks of ready prospects are led by widows, doctors, and teachers. Perhaps the statement is overdrawn and slanders two leading professions. Judging from observations covering the past 20 years, the writer has a faint suspicion, however, that a respectable

number of school administrators, principals, and teachers must admit an overpowering faith in any and all "new thought" within the professional field of education, even though excessive gullibility in a business way cannot be proved. The ease with which so many of the teaching profession will accept, without question, educational dicta, especially if the latter come from educators of reputation, is quite amazing.

That school administrator, who lives and works by the principles and practices of "the good old days" alone is due for a fall. The children, the taxpayers and the profession have the right to demand professional leadership that shall be characterized by wholesome progress and growth toward the achievement of a higher civic ideal. The live school administrator is one who is constantly seeking and employing the new to improve his results. It is his business to make his school reflect the best thought of an advancing profession; to make his classrooms an experience of living rather than a preparation for it. Yet, with this goal firmly fixed in mind, he should make it his duty to study, scrutinize and analyze all educational innovations, as he searches for the truth, lending a sympathetic attitude but withholding final judgment until each thing tried has proved its worth.

Professionally, it is the business and duty of all school administrators to challenge every step in the advance of education. Such is the practice of science. No new theory or discovery is accepted by scientists until the discoverer or promulgator has proved his case beyond the shadow of a doubt. If teaching is ever to rank as a science, then it must conform to the rules and usages of science. Truth cannot die. The good will live and the false will perish.

A changed acceptance of standard tests—Fifteen years ago, the advent of standard tests opened a new vista in school administration. Surveys became the vogue and the coming of the scientific era was hailed on all sides. Today, standard tests are applied with great value within certain limits, but many of the original claims made for them have been discarded because, in the light of truth, the claims could not be substantiated. Nevertheless, during the period of their broad and unfettered application, many a splendid teacher experienced heartaches as she saw her efforts belittled by the cold facts of standard test results, perhaps when her pupil material at the time of the test was a dull group lacking intelligence. More than one principal, working under a school handicap of trying social conditions, has been censured and condemned simply because his school did not "measure up." In commenting upon the results of standard testing as employed in the Cleveland Survey, R. Pintner¹ of Teachers College, Columbia University, observes:

In many cases the educational work in schools below average is as good as we have a right to expect in view of the ability of the pupil material. . . . Praise or blame, therefore, cannot be apportioned on the basis of educational tests alone. To

¹ *Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. P. 153.

judge justly of the work of a school, we must have a measure of the mental ability of the children.

As eminent a leader as Courtis, in his "Manual of Instruction for Giving and Scoring the Courtis Tests," made originally—among others—the following claims for the tests:

1. That the tests will make evident the actual conditions existing in the school-room.
2. That the tests will scientifically determine the efficiency of different methods.
3. That the tests will enable the comparison of school with school, or teacher with teacher for the purpose of supervision to be made upon a scientific objective basis.

In the light of the advance made in the fields of experimental pedagogy and psychology within the past ten years, even Courtis would not today be bold enough to make such claims. Yet the Courtis tests are valuable in the classroom and the leadership and initiative of Courtis has stimulated other investigators to new and worthwhile efforts.

Speaking before the Harvard Teachers' Association in 1912 on "Measuring Educational Processes Through Educational Results," Leonard P. Ayres said:

As school executives make practical application of the newer scientific tests, no fact stands out with more impressive distinctiveness than that teachers *whose classes make the best records* are the teachers who are most successful in shaping character.

Would any intelligent school principal of today accept such a statement even though it came from a distinguished educational leader? We know today that classes and schools vary in mental ability; that social conditions vitally affect school progress and accomplishment; that a most capable teacher, doing a splendid job in character training, may nevertheless have a group of pupils who would do poorly with the standard tests. Pintner,¹ in the article previously quoted, says:

From the results of combined educational-mental tests that we are now getting, we have reason to believe that poor teaching is more likely to be found in schools possessing good mental material than those possessing poor mental material, because in the latter there is constant pressure being brought to bear upon the teacher to cover the regular course of study made out for the school system as a whole.

Haggerty, writing in *School and Society* (November, 1916) said:

A city survey will show at once the efficient and the inefficient classes and teachers and define the superintendent's problem of supervision in a way that weeks of travel about the city and personal observation in the several schools will hardly equal.

This, it must be admitted, was a rather broad statement even for ten years ago. Professional surveyors, superintendents and principals used standard measurements in exactly the way and to the degree Haggerty claimed for them, very often in ruthless fashion without studying the

¹ *Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. P. 153.

underlying conditions or recognizing the great handicaps which produced apparently poor results. No educator today would accept Haggerty's statement.

The experience of the past fifteen years has shown that educational leaders and investigators may be honestly mistaken in their claims and conclusions. Progressive school principals and teachers should gladly cooperate and work hand in hand with investigators for advancement, but, at the same time, they must be ready to challenge all claims that cannot be proved. Too often they sit back and accept statements of great educational moment on the say-so of a man of reputation. Truth is no respecter of either persons or reputations.

Pitfalls in the use of group psychological tests—With the mustering of 4,000,000 soldiers in 1917 and 1918, American psychologists were called upon to adapt the findings of their investigators to the work of adjusting the members of the draft army to spheres of most effective service. The psychological tests, constructed and administered at the time, made available a vast amount of material for study and progress in the field of psychology and gave an impetus to its advance that has placed the United States today as the world leader in the field of mental measurements. Professional educators were the first to make broad use of Binet's original contribution to applied psychology. What could be more natural, therefore, than for educational psychologists to carry the army psychological tests into the schools, which was done on a large scale. Opportunity was at hand and the stimulus of war days brought about from professional sources a multitude of splendid psychological tests.

The application of these tests for the past seven years is a matter of general knowledge. The progress which has been made marks a great step forward in solving the problems of education and reflects America's contribution to educational advance. However, there are unmistakable signs that, by many, the psychological group tests are being erroneously interpreted and, as a result, wrongfully used.

Psychological tests today are not perfected, except in certain limited fields. The tests are relatively new. In the hands of experts who know their limitations and proper uses, they are serving splendidly, as for instance when applied to locate subnormal and superior pupils. In the hands of many administrators, they are being used to the detriment of the pupils tested. To anyone conversant with some of the reports of such applications which have appeared in pedagogical magazines of the past five years, this fact must be readily apparent. School administrators have been employing group intelligence tests in the following ways: (1) to determine fitness of grammar school graduates to do high school work; (2) to lend vocational guidance in high and vocational schools; (3) to steer pupils to particular high school courses.

If administrators employed a number of group tests, together with a study of the educational achievement and social conditions of individual pupils for guiding them in the ways mentioned, no one would complain. But, in many instances, administrators have arrived at their conclusions

solely from the application of *one group intelligence test*. It is in this connection that the writer feels that a note of warning will not be amiss on the promiscuous use of psychological group tests by untrained educators. No two tests will produce the same identical results with all pupils. Bagley has spoken most strongly on their application because they are undemocratic. In view of the conclusions so often drawn by inexperienced school people, Bagley may have good grounds for his views.

Comparative study of two group tests—In order to show some of the dangers which exist in drawing conclusions from the common use of psychological group tests, the writer reports herein a summary of his findings secured from applying two recognized intelligence tests to two eighth grade classes of graduates in two different schools of Newark, N. J. The investigation was privately conducted by the writer who was principal of the South Market Street School and later was made principal of the Lafayette Street School. The following facts will explain the conditions of the investigation:

1. The two tests used for comparison were the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability and the Illinois General Intelligence Test (Form I).
2. In both schools the tests were administered by experienced testers.
3. The Terman test was applied first in each school and the Illinois test was given two weeks later.
4. Both schools, whose graduates were tested, had a school population of whom approximately 70 percent came from homes in which a foreign language was spoken.

TABLE I—GENERAL COMPARISON
SOUTH MARKET STREET, GRADE 8A

	No. tested	Median I. Q.	Median mental age
Terman test	36	89	12 yr. 9 mo.
Illinois test	35	104	14 yr. 6 mo.

It will be noted that, for the entire class, there was a general difference in I. Q. of 15 points and a general difference in mental age of 1 year 9 months as determined by the two tests.

TABLE II—GENERAL COMPARISON
LAFAYETTE STREET SCHOOL, GRADE 8A

	No. tested	Median I. Q.	Median mental age
Terman test	52	91	12 yr. 2 mo.
Illinois test	55	101	13 yr. 5 mo.

In this school, the general difference in I. Q. on the entire group was 10 points and the general difference in mental age 1 year 3 months as determined by the two tests.

TABLE III.—STANDINGS AND RATINGS OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS AS JUDGED BY THE Terman and ILLINOIS TESTS

SOUTH MARKET STREET SCHOOL, GRADE 8A

Pupils	Comparative standing		I. O.		Mental age		
	Terman	Illinois	Terman	Illinois	Terman	Illinois	
1. K. A.	1	5	111	122	15-1	16-6	...
2. J. M.	2	4	108	123	14-4	16-0	...
3. H. R.	3	7	104	116	13-2	14-6	...
4. K. L.	3	2	104	126	13-8	16-6	*
5. M. I.	3	8	104	111	13-11	14-6	...
6. B. E.	6	6	100	119	13-5	15-6	*
7. S. J.	6	1	100	127	12-9	16-0	*
8. K. S.	8	22	97	100	14-1	14-6	*
9. H. F.	9	16	96	104	13-2	14-0	...
10. W. D.	9	12	97	107	13-2	14-6	...
11. L. A.	11	ab.	93	ab.	13-8	ab.	...
12. M. R.	11	12	93	107	13-5	15-0	...
13. P. A.	11	20	93	103	13-8	15-0	*
14. R. D.	11	8	93	111	13-2	15-6	*
15. S. H.	11	12	93	107	12-11	14-6	...
16. K. P.	16	8	92	111	12-3	14-6	*
17. G. E.	17	16	89	104	12-9	14-6	...
18. H. D.	17	16	89	104	11-9	13-6	...
19. R. A.	17	8	89	111	12-0	15-0	*
20. S. E.	17	23	89	100	12-0	13-6	...
21. F. M.	21	33	88	82	13-2	12-6	...
22. M. R.	22	8	87	104	13-5	15-6	*
23. M. H.	23	27	86	93	12-3	13-0	...
24. S. R.	23	26	86	97	12-9	14-0	...
25. M. H.	23	27	86	93	12-6	13-6	...
26. H. G.	26	30	85	92	12-6	13-6	...
27. S. L.	26	21	85	102	12-9	15-0	*
28. G. E.	28	30	84	92	12-6	13-6	...
29. M. E.	29	32	83	86	12-0	12-6	...
30. S. E.	30	29	83	96	12-0	13-6	...
31. F. H.	31	12	82	107	11-6	15-0	*
32. M. G.	31	33	82	82	12-0	12-0	...
33. W. D.	31	33	82	82	12-0	12-0	...
34. W. H.	31	24	82	99	12-3	14-6	*
35. H. F.	35	25	80	97	12-0	14-6	*
36. H. M.	36	ab.	76	ab.	11-9	ab.	...
37. D. M.	ab.	3	ab.	124	ab.	15-6	...
Median			89	104	12-9	14-6	...

*The reader's attention is called particularly to relative standings of pupils indicated by asterisks.

OBSERVATIONS ON TABLE III

A. *Comparative standings*—If used roughly for purposes of classification by groups, the findings are satisfactory. As a matter of fact, there is a high degree of correlation between the two tests. Summarizing the correlation by quartiles, we find that 23 out of 35 pupils maintained the same group standing in both tests.

Coming down to the individual, we note outstanding differences. Pupil No. 8 is ranked eighth by the Terman test and twenty-second by the Illinois test. Pupil No. 19 was ranked seventeenth by Terman and eighth by Illinois. Pupil No. 31 was ranked thirty-first by Terman and twelfth by Illinois.

B. Intelligence Quotients

1. The median difference in I. Q. between the two tests was 15 points.
2. Difference in determined I. Q. 0-10 11 pupils
Difference in determined I. Q. 10-20 20 pupils
Difference in determined I. Q. 20-27 4 pupils
The greatest difference in I. Q. for any one pupil was 27 points (pupil No. 27).
3. The Terman test ranked seven pupils with an I. Q. above 100; the Illinois test ranked twenty-three pupils with I. Q. above 100. The Illinois test rated the class as follows: Normal, 32; superior, 4; the Terman test rated them as follows: Superior, 1; normal, 15; dull, 19; borderline, 1.
4. Outstanding differences in I. Q. may be noted in the cases of pupils No. 4, 6, 7, 16, 19, 22, 27, 31. Pupil No. 31 was ranked dull by the Terman test and normal by the Illinois.

C. Mental ages

1. The median difference in mental age between the two tests was 1 year 9 months.
2. In the cases of two pupils, the mental age was the same in both tests.
3. Difference in mental age 0 yr. to 1 yr. 8 pupils
Difference in mental age 1 yr. to 2 yrs. 16 pupils
Difference in mental age 2 yrs. to 3 yrs. 8 pupils
Difference in mental age 3 yrs. to 3 yrs. 6 mos. 3 pupils
4. Outstanding differences noted were in the cases of pupil No. 31 (3 yrs. 6 mos.), pupil No. 7 (3 yrs. 3 mos.) and pupil No. 19 (3 yrs.).

TABLE IV—STANDINGS AND RATINGS OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS AS JUDGED BY THE
TERMAN AND ILLINOIS TESTS

LAFAYETTE STREET SCHOOL, GRADE 8A

Number of Pupils Tested—53

(NOTE: Only particular records of selected individual pupils are listed below, in order to show the dangers of drawing wrong conclusions in applying group test results to individuals.)

Pupils	I. Q.		Mental age	
	Terman	Illinois	Illinois	Terman
1. M. A.	84	99	12-11	14-8
2. A. A.	85	103	12-0	14-11
3. A. B.	80	99	11-9	13-5
4. S. B.	86	103	11-1	13-5
5. E. C.	83	100	11-9	14-1
6. S. B.	86	100	12-6	14-7
7. S. F.	78	93	11-1	13-1
8. J. L.	81	94	11-6	12-5
9. R. M.	89	69	12-0	9-3
10. A. P.	82	92	12-3	14-0
11. C. S.	76	91	11-1	13-1
12. M. D.	92	114	12-0	15-0

OBSERVATIONS ON TABLE IV

This table contains only the records of those pupils in whose results large differences were apparent. The reason for selecting these outstanding instances was to show more strikingly how two group tests will produce surprising reactions in the cases of many individuals tested.

A. *Intelligence Quotients*

1. The median difference in I. Q. for the entire group (52 pupils) was 10 points.
2. Pupils No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 10 would be rated dull by the Terman test and normal by the Illinois.
3. Pupils No. 7 and 11 would be borderline cases as rated by Terman and normal by the Illinois.
4. Differences in determined I. Q. 0—5 16 pupils
 Differences in determined I. Q. 5—10 19 pupils
 Differences in determined I. Q. 10—15 9 pupils
 Differences in determined I. Q. 15—20 8 pupils

B. *Mental Ages*

1. The median difference in mental age for the two tests was 1 year 3 months.
2. Greatest difference in determined mental age for any one pupil was 3 years (pupil No. 12).
3. Differences in mental age 0—12 mos. 26 pupils
 Differences in mental age 1—1½ yrs. 8 pupils
 Differences in mental age 1½—2 yrs. 11 pupils
 Differences in mental age 2—2½ yrs. 3 pupils
 Differences in mental age 2½—3 yrs. 4 pupils

Conclusion—A careful consideration of the tables of this study, together with the observations made, clearly shows that applying group test results to individuals is beset with grave dangers. School administrators must be on their guard to make sure that they do not infer too much from the results. Three short quotations from an article on "Intelligence Testing in Junior Highschools," by M. R. Trabue¹ of Teachers College, Columbia University, will further serve to emphasize the points of this article:

1. The (intelligence) tests at present available are so inadequate and crude that one who uses a single test score as the sole basis for a vital decision in the life of an American youth is guilty of most unscientific practice and possible injury to the child advised.

2. One of the greatest dangers now facing those interested in intelligence tests is that they will be accepted and used with too little critical judgment on the part of the junior highschool principals and other school administrators.

3. Administrators must be constantly on the alert to find the best means possible for the classification of their pupils and should not be tempted into the acceptance and use of a scheme without scientific evidences of its superior value.

¹ *Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.*

THE PROBLEM OF RATING COMPOSITIONS

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IT IS going to be of great interest to every student of methods of instruction in English to note what new turn may be followed by the New York City committee on the revision of the course of study in composition. Probably no subject has suffered from so many contradictory aims and varied standards. A survey by Hudelson, published in the *Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* reveals how divided are the opinions of teachers of English as to whether to emphasize content or form, reproduction or originality, fluency or sincerity, perfection or approximation. A formidable task awaits the committee, and an intent audience awaits the results. Whatever decisions are made will undoubtedly wield a wide influence on the teaching of composition for the next twenty years.

Of particular interest, however, is the recent organization of a committee on standards and measurements, whose duty, so far as composition is concerned, will be to relieve the composition committee of a portion of its burdens, and to determine the objectives, quantitative and otherwise, of composition for each grade. In view of the present general vagueness and lack of any agreement on this score, this is a most worthy move. However, in this one subject there are numerous precautions to be taken and grave dangers to be avoided, and the writer is wondering whether in its zeal the committee may not go too far and expect composition standards to be as reliable and definite as standards in spelling or penmanship. There is in some quarters a too ready acceptance of all tests and scales, a readiness based on their reliability in a few fields and carried over to all others—a readiness, even, that overlooks the limitations mentioned by the very authors of the tests. Such an attitude would tend to nullify all the advantage that might accrue from the use of composition scales as a means of defining grade standards.

A principle which may be accepted without much opposition is that the more complex and difficult of analysis, the less reliable is the measure of a subject. By complex is here meant the increasing importance of other factors than knowledge, such factors as skills, attitudes, ideals and technic. In arithmetical fundamentals we have an example of one extreme, the simpler one, on our scale of complexity. Speed and accuracy are here the important aims; they are relatively simple and therefore comparatively easy of measurement. Reading represents a much more complex phase. We may be able to measure speed and comprehension of reading with ease, but these factors are by no means the most important aims of reading. Locating the central thought, subordinating contributing thoughts, apprehending and foreseeing the author's organization, the speedy location of special information, the appreciation of style and content—all these and more, represent desirable and vital aims of reading that are not so susceptible of measure.

Reading tests cannot be relied upon then, as the sole means of standardizing objectives in reading, since they can be used for but *two* of the many objectives, namely, speed and comprehension. For the other more important aims of reading, either other tests must be devised, or some other means than tests must be discovered. At any rate, the complex elements of good reading make measurement of reading ability a much more difficult problem than was recently suspected.

In the measurement of composition we have perhaps the extreme of greatest complexity and therefore the least reliability of measure. There is even the added difficulty that it is impossible to use a test at all in this field, and we must resort to the doubtful procedure of a scale. There are some scales, such as the handwriting scale, in which the product to be measured is fairly uniform, and practically the only varying factor is a single quality such as speed, or alignment or spacing. A penmanship scale which attempts to set up a scale for each of these qualities can achieve fairly accurate results. Composition, however, represents qualities that almost defy analysis and certainly provoke disagreement. Only in the formal elements is there any degree of concurrence. Spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, grammatic correctness—these, it is agreed, are necessary to composition.

But at this point harmony of opinion ceases. Are these the primary aims of composition, or the subordinate aims? May a composition be correct in all of these and still be worthless or ineffective? Such questions lead to the discussion of other composition elements—wealth of vocabulary, power of organization, appropriate use of variety in style, effective phrasing, use of devices to stimulate the readers' curiosity, wide knowledge of the topic, obvious sincerity and many more.

These are somewhat more complex than formal correctness. Even form in composition presents greater difficulty of measuring than form in penmanship, for in the latter the same phrase, the same letters are repeated in each step of the scale. In composition, every step of the scale varies in a dozen ways at least from every other. But when we attempt to measure the more complex informal elements of composition, the task becomes, to say the least, a heroic one.

In view of the complexity of composition, therefore, the author of a composition scale sets out with a tremendous handicap. And the person who attempts to set up ratings on such a scale as standard, definite objectives, must bear in mind that handicap before accepting the scale.

The objectives of this article should now be made clear. The author proposes to answer briefly, within the limits of a short article, these questions:

1. Are composition scales valid?
2. If not, are they more accurate instruments than the teachers' judgment?
3. In any case, to what extent are they valuable or useful?
4. Can these values be obtained through any better instrument?

It is hoped that some such self-questioning will guide the committee on standards in its consideration of composition objectives, or that this article

may serve as a partial guide in the selection and use of measures of composition.

1. *Are composition scales valid*—A scientific discussion of the validity of composition scales would involve valuable space. A briefer statement permits of only a few high-lights, without any supporting evidence. Those, therefore, who feel that this section exhibits lack of proof, must be referred to other sources. Briefly, then, the following points indicate that little validity can be attached to scales.

They aim to measure something too vague and general and much beyond our present ability to measure. In order to determine "the ability of children to write English composition" (to quote one scale-maker), we must know something of the mental background of each pupil, the preparation before he writes and his reaction to the topic assigned. If two boys write compositions of equal merit, and one of the pupils has had more training or was more interested, obviously the compositions are not evidence of equal ability. Many scales attempt to measure "general merit." Even Thorndike, who has insisted that there is no such thing as "arithmetic ability," and who has analyzed it into numerous specific abilities—even Thorndike rather inconsistently attempts to measure in composition only one general ability. As indicated earlier in this article, there is already a widespread disagreement as to just what is to be emphasized or included in composition ability. Therefore, each teacher using such a scale is likely to emphasize the same particular elements that he always used for guidance, and thus be in no better position than without the scale.

To conceive the difficulty of either making or using a scale of such highly complex products as composition, one has but to picture the effort to lay out, in the order of "general merit," a number of samples of colored paper in which there are only six colors or qualities, but combined in every conceivable mixture and shade. One unconsciously begins to select some basis for judgment, such as amount of black or actinic power, or softness, or the like. But there is little likelihood of any successful arrangement, even though the qualities are limited to six. In composition, however, we have an undetermined number of elements, all of them in varying proportions. Each sample contains elements of form, of structure content and of self-expression, and each of these in turn is really a group of contributing elements. How can we judge form, for instance, if the sentence structure is poor, the grammar otherwise good, and the spelling fair? Even spelling must be differentiated into misspelling of easy words and misspelling of difficult words (as in the work of some more ambitious student).

Some scales have a better scientific basis since the aim is narrower, or the scale is of narrower application. The products are more uniform in the Lewis form scales, and there are fewer qualities to be judged. Each of the four Harvard-Newton scales measures only one form of discourse, such as narration, description, etc. At least one varying quality is eliminated from the complex total. The Breed and Frostic scale is applied to the sixth year only, thus keeping somewhat uniform the extent of pupil preparation.

Statistics was almost invariably the basis for judging and determining which ten compositions, out of thousands, were to be used as "steps" on the scale. The value of each step was also determined by statistics. It is not the purpose here to attack statistics when used as the sole method of a scientific study. That has already been done by statisticians themselves who demand that trained observers, and correct observations, isolation of the quality to be studied and equalization of all other conditions must be included with statistics. It is the purpose at this place only to show that the results of a statistical study cannot always be accepted as accurate, that sometimes they may even yield absurd conclusions.

This was the case in the "91" study, by Hudelson. Seven compositions, judged to be approximately equal in value, were carefully mutilated in 12 different and distinct ways. Each composition had 13 forms, the original and 12 forms of mutilation (one for clearness, one for unity, one for incomplete sentence, one for run-on sentence, one for grammar, one for spelling, one for ornate words, etc.). One of the 13 forms was an improvement over the original.

These compositions were then distributed to 180 judges, all experts and trained in the use of the Hudelson scale. They were rated with the help of the scale. The statistical results of their ratings should have been a vindication of the scale and should have proven the general soundness of their judgments. The results actually reveal the most astounding inconsistencies and absurd conclusions. The table below is garnered from several tables in the report:

Version	Rank	Scale Rating
Well written	1	66
Ornate	2	55
Difficult words wrong	3	53
Easy words wrong	4	50
Stacalto sentences	5	46
Unity violated	6	45
Run-on sentences	7	42
Wrong forms	8	40
Original	9	39
Incomplete sentences	10	37
Grammar	11	36
Punctuation	12	33
Obscure	13	25

This table offers splendid evidence, not only that scales are not valid, but that they serve to mislead even trained judges. Note that the mutilation using ornate words lured all the judges and took second place, far above the original. Note that mechanical errors, such as wrong forms, run-on sentences, etc., took higher place than the original (which was most free from those errors). Note that the original got no better than ninth place. Seven mutilated forms were rated higher by trained experts and with the use of an objective, composition scale.

Hudelson admits "Evidently the Hudelson scale, at least, does not aid teachers in discriminating between affectation and sincerity." Also, "A child's original composition seems a most difficult thing to judge fairly." The table reveals other failures. For example, so much attention was paid to faulty punctuation and capitalization (where other elements were undisturbed), that they were rated far below such serious faults as violation of unity and use of meaningless words.

Enough has been presented to show that the validity of scales, at the present at any rate, must be seriously questioned.

2. *Are scales more valid than teachers' judgment*—The question then arises does the use of scales yield better results at least than the subjective judgment of the teacher. On that point the writer has no definite conviction. Such an investigation as the "91" study would seem to point to a preference of teacher judgment. But the absurd conclusions may be due only to the absence of any criteria in the scale. No judge was informed of the qualities he was to look for, either in the scale or the submitted samples. A clear statement of the qualities that make each step of a scale better than the last might well remedy that condition. No scale, except the Harvard-Newton scales does this. On the other hand, an experiment by Conklin and Sutherland indicates that arranging papers in order of merit is even better than comparing with a scale. The results of both methods show a high rate of correlation, but the order-of-merit method seems to be influenced less by the personal reaction of the teacher. Perhaps there will be a decided improvement in scales when they are designed to measure and score one composition element at a time. Perhaps improvement depends also on the development of composition analysis, so that all English teachers become aware of all the elements of composition and their relative importance.

3. *What are the values and uses of composition scales*—Measuring composition has a more significant purpose than mere measurement. Taking temperature, combined with other data, diagnoses the progress of a fever. Air pressure, plus other data, foretell meteorological conditions. All measure has ulterior purposes, except such idle curiosity at some amusement park, as measuring the force of a sledge-hammer blow. Measuring composition has pedagogical significance, else it has no place in the schools, whether valid or not. It may seem that too much space is taken to prove what is obvious. If so, it must be explained that the contention was recently made, at a well known university, that scales are not to be examined or considered except as a mere measure of compositions, the finished products.

But this is true no more of composition measure than of any other measure. A scale maker must keep one weather-eye on the pedagogy of composition and so construct his scale that it will be a useful instrument even if not altogether valid. Most scales then become useful, some to the extent to which they lay better claim to validity, some to the extent of their analysis into composition elements. These uses are listed in two groups:

Pedagogical—1. Diagnosis is the most important function of a scale. Most scales do not serve this purpose as they attempt to rate only "general

merit." The others serve it but weakly. The Ballou scales permit diagnosis only as to the four forms of discourse. The Willing scale separates form and content. The Lewis scales measure only for mechanical ability. Van Wagener separates thought, structure, and content as well as the four discourses. Used with care, the Ballou (or Harvard-Newton) makes a worthy contribution to the cause of diagnosis.

2. The scale presents a goal within the pupils' reach—the next step—and not the discouragement of unattainable perfection. The encouragement of a close, visible goal is a very useful teaching device.

3. The scale may be used to stimulate self-emulation, improving one's own record. It must be remembered, however, that the attainment of one step of the scale represents considerable progress.

4. It may be used for the pupils' self-evaluation and give added independence. But this device should be used sparingly as even experts cannot use the scale uniformly well.

5. Some scales provide certain uniform test conditions that might otherwise affect results unfairly: such conditions include topic and time allowed for preparation, writing, and correcting.

Supervision—These are values that depend entirely on the validity of the scale. The less valid the scale, the less reliable are these values. They include such items as determining the progress of class and school, comparing classes and schools, judging the achievement of the teacher or the worth of a method, and classifying and grading pupils. Such uses presuppose the accuracy and reliability of scale use. In the absence of such reliability, these uses, without corroborative evidence, should be avoided.

In any event, whether for classroom use or for administrative use, there are many precautions that must be taken. Dr. Klapper lists a number of these and several others are here added:

1. The scale used must be carefully studied and analyzed so as to determine the various elements and merits of each step and their improvement from step to step.

2. The class compositions to be judged must be written under as nearly uniform conditions as possible.

3. The "informal" or "content" merits must not be overlooked or subordinated.

4. No individual rating can be accepted as accurate. There is greater possibility that the rating of a group will be more nearly right.

5. No individual can be properly judged by a single composition. Several samples must be obtained, and the best mark used as a record of his ability.

6. Try to discover the motives of greatest interest, individually, to the pupils. Reactions to such motives will be surer indications of their ability.

7. Rate preferably on the basis of the dominant characteristic of the composition. Other elements may be rated, but for the purpose of pointing out defects rather than to grade or classify the pupil.

8. Supplement the rating by arranging the compositions in order of merit, and note the correlation of teacher-judgment.

9. Do not expect visible progress on the scale within a term. The steps on the scale represent very long intervals.

4. *Is there any other instrument that can be used to better advantage than a scale*—If we accept diagnosis as the greatest contribution of the measuring movement, then scales fall far short of another device that has been tried in other countries. The Analytical Score Card, an outgrowth of the Job Analysis Sheet, is advocated by Dr. Klapper. The success of such a method must depend on the logic of the analysis and the ease of scoring. His analysis is as follows:

- I. Content.
 - 1. Self expression.
 - 2. Organization.
- II. Language.
 - 1. Vocabulary.
 - 2. Sentence structure.
 - 3. Grammar.
- III. Form.
 - 1. Arrangement on paper.
 - 2. Spelling.
 - 3. Punctuation.
 - 4. Capitalization.
 - 5. Appearance.

There is a card for each pupil, so that progress may be noted in every element. A composition may be rated for all elements, or for a few, or even for that one which is being stressed in a lesson. The rating method may be at the teacher's discretion, although a five-point rating method is advised. Three indicates the average; two, slightly below the average; four, slightly above the average; one, inferior; five, superior.

Another analysis that may be useful is the following:

- 1. Mechanics (which includes appearance, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, sentence structure, inflection, and syntax, appropriate use of words).
- 2. Structure (which includes paragraph unity, clarity of whole organization, effectiveness of organization, logical, chronological, or interest arrangement).
- 3. Effective devices (use of striking phrases, wealth of vocabulary, variety of sentence arrangement, use of figures of speech, methods of arousing curiosity, style appropriate to content, etc.). In elementary form, these devices can be learned and effectively used by elementary school pupils.
- 4. Content (includes selection of appropriate details and valuable or interesting ideas; originality; ability to convince; presence of sincerity).

The five-point rating system may of course be used here, as with the other system. The important item, however, is that pupils learn to use this device to score each other and to score themselves. It is much simpler, with the analysis shown, to effect a fair rating than with any type of scale. The analysis may be changed at the discretion of teacher or educators, but the principle of the Analytical Score Card, used over a considerable period, will probably point the way to a solution of rating difficulties.

THE TRANSITION FROM ELEMENTARY TO JUNIOR HIGHSCHOOL

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INSOFAR as any transition from elementary to junior highschool may affect the former school, there ought to be scarcely any problem involved in the educational procedures of the elementary grades. In practice there are problems enough, doubtless, but they grow out of the clash between what we aspire to do and what a stupid convention and tradition compel us to do. We mouth such words as character, courtesy, health, and we do our best to promote the attainment of these objectives. But we do not promote children because they are courteous or healthy or of good character; we base promotion on knowledge of grammar, skill in arithmetic and spelling, verbal familiarity with the contents of geography and history books.

Slowly, very, very slowly, we bring our administrative practices into accord with our philosophies. If ever we come to see clearly the goals of education and to understand the means of achieving these goals, we shall realize that education is one continuous process from birth to maturity and beyond. Then we shall know that the functions of different schools depend largely on the stage of maturity of the pupils who attend them, and that the best transition is assured by each school doing well the work *suited* to the stage of maturity of its pupils.

What, then, is the junior highschool? Is it grades 7, 8, and 9? Is it a separate organization? Is it the first three years of secondary education? Does it have departmentalization of teaching? Is it characterized by "promotion by subject," or by student government, or by teachers who are college graduates, or by shops and studios and gymnasias? We do not know. And we need not care!

The educative process of children at the dawn of adolescence is the great problem of the junior highschool. Because of its unique opportunities and its difficulties, it is of vital importance that the education of children of this age be intelligently and sympathetically administered and controlled. This new institution has, therefore, been dedicated to the progressive solution of the problem.

The junior highschool is indeed to be defined in terms of this project. It is the institution that accepts all the mentally normal boys and girls of its community before they are adolescent, and fits its educational program to them. In this new school program, what constitutes seventh grade work or ninth grade standards is of little importance. Rather does the new school ask itself what is the subjectmatter and what the method, what is the educational experience that is most likely to stimulate each one of the 13- or 14- or 15-year old boys and girls to exert himself to the utmost to accomplish tasks that appeal to him, to his teachers, and to his parents as thoroughly worthwhile. For one it may be the preparation of an assembly, for another a report with charts in geography, for someone else

it may be the school orchestra, and for still another it may be intuitional geometry. There are some children who find self-expression even in English grammar, there are many who find it in a foreign language, in typewriting, in art, in dressmaking, and in shop.

In the creatively controlled junior highschool, nearly all of them can find places satisfactorily in a diversified social environment of homerooms and clubs and athletics and student publications and corridor officerships and clerical assistantships. In these places they can and do perform adequately and with growing confidence tasks for which they are competent. And the broadly conceived school, like social life itself, has room for and need for many and diverse traits and qualities among its members.

The junior highschool is an environment to which come all the little children of late pre-adolescence—happy, active, and unspoiled as yet by the discouragements and artificialities of the formal and, to them at least, meaningless grind of grammar and verbal history and examination-passing. It is an environment in which these children, all of them, continue to live happy, adequate, purposeful lives of activity for the ensuing two or three years—years of rapid physical growth, of great intellectual activity, of emotional reconstruction, and spiritual unfoldment. And, finally, it is an environment from which there emerge two or three years later these same boys and girls, now taller and more mature, children of middle adolescence—almost young men and young women—eager to go on with their school education, having tasted of hard work and of resultant success, and found it good! And these self-confident youths of 15 to 16 years of age are interested in the public weal. They have found their personalities in their social groups. They have served as leaders and followers; they have imitated wisely and originated freely. Their personalities have waxed and bloomed in the warm friendly atmosphere of the junior highschool.

But the reader may ask, might not such an environment be developed in the eighth grade school? And if it were, would this writer maintain that such a school was a junior highschool? If such questions should be asked, the answer must be that such a school would illustrate junior highschool spirit and philosophy. But without provision to save its boys and girls from the stupid and soul-destroying elimination and failure practices of the conventional ninth grade, even the best eighth grade school must leave its task unfinished.

For the junior highschool is a protest against the dehumanized verbal and symbolic grind of formal mathematics, grammar, and history, and against the vicious destruction of human personality that has so often characterized the school procedures both of the conventional grammar grades and of the uninspiring lesson-getting of the freshman year of the four-year highschool. The school that was typical in 1900, and that is too much in evidence even today, resulted in the disgust and discouragement of most of the children who were not both bright in regard to abstract verbal intelligence and docile in accepting without question others' thoughts, others' wishes, others' standards as their own. There has until recently been little attention paid to the innovators among our youths and to the artistic, the

mechanical, the socially effective boys and girls. There have been few, indeed, who have had regard for the precious human beings who were being broken on the wheel of our stupid, unreal, and unlikelike, scholastic judgments.

Such callousness has been "respectable"; it has indeed been fortified by conventional standards and accepted practices. The hope of a new day in education has lain in the development of a new school that would base its practices on a philosophy and science of life. The junior highschool is life—life that prepares for living, life that springs from within, life that is fresh and dynamic and resourceful. In this life, all children may develop eagerness to contribute, all may find satisfaction in originality, initiative, and service.

How, then, may the progressive elementary school aid in the transition to the new school procedures for all the children at the dawn of adolescence? If we are thinking of the transition character of the educative processes of the 11 and 12-year old children and of their possible modifications in the light of the junior highschool program for 13, 14 and 15-year old children, then the answer to the question is relatively simple.

The primary objects of elementary education are physical and mental health and such intellectual, social, and moral habits and attitudes as will promote good will, harmless enjoyment of leisure, and wholesome human relationships. Insofar as we do not lose sight of our main objectives, whatever skill and enjoyment pupils develop in reading, in correct expression of their thoughts, in the use of maps, in simple computation, and in singing, drawing, and physical play, and whatever knowledge they may gain of nature, biography, history, and the rest will serve as basic work for their junior highschool careers. On the whole, however, "book-learning" and formal accomplishments in spelling, grammar, and fact geography are of relatively little importance. It is "up to" the junior highschool to carry its own academic load; it does not ask what formal facts and skills pupils know; it accepts all children where they are, and encourages each one to grow to his maximum. As Burnham, in *The Normal Mind*, points out for education in general, "the mental attitudes developed are the vitally important things; and these have a double significance, on the one hand for mental efficiency of the pupils, and on the other for their mental health."

As classroom teachers, however, we must do what we are directed to do by our superior officers. Hence, any progress toward intelligent modifications must grow out of mutual understanding and effort. To whatever degree it is possible within any given school system, let the elementary school and junior highschool principals and faculties work together to break down the artificial hurdles of scholastic standards that have been erected between the elementary school and the junior highschool. Let no subjectmatter or process or standard be superimposed in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades that could as well or better be dealt with in the junior highschool. Let the younger children live and work eagerly, adequately, joyously at tasks and projects that are within their comprehension and not beyond their interest range. Let the children be children, let them play

childish games, let them read childish books and sing childish songs. Let them even accept adult duties in a childlike spirit of play-responsibility. They will perform the work of the school-world more eagerly and spontaneously and competently, as "captains" or "monitors" or "sanitary squads" or "teams" in the play spirit than they ever have done under the conventional system of "discipline."

There is no need of hurry or worry or irritation or forcing for the normal children. The nervous strain that is only too obvious in so many schools is the result of our mad rush to get children to do tasks and learn lessons that are to them meaningless, except as a means of gaining favor. Such subject-matter could much better be deferred till a need for the fact or process is felt.

But what about those who are not in all respects normal?—those whom accident or a niggardly nature has cheated, and those unfortunate children whose home or neighborhood life has given them utterly wrong attitudes toward the school and its teachers. Surely for these unhappy children irritation and worry are utterly ineffective. The same warm spirit of friendliness and comradeship which is of importance for the normal and docile children, is indeed fundamental for the misunderstood or maladjusted child. Only in an atmosphere of general forbearance and mutual help, an environment characterized by wholesome human relationships and by social approvals for cooperation and innovations can the defective child, the unsocial child, the repressed child, the spoiled child, and the child with an inferiority complex be expected to achieve the types of mental and physical behavior and attitudes which are the goals of public education.

To the extent that the elementary school is already committed to the promotion of a more abundant emotional, physical, and intellectual life for all the children committed to its care, the transition to the junior high-school is already provided for. For in such a school, the educational program is identical in general purpose and method with that of every junior high-school worthy the new philosophy and the glorious opportunity of serving that society of which it is both the creature and the agent.

SOME PROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS OF THE DALLAS PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS ASSOCIATION

EVA G. PINKSTON

Principal, Cumberland School, Dallas, Texas

DURING the past few years this association has felt a crying need for discussing some of the problems that were pertinent to its work. To meet this need the membership of the association was divided into groups, each group working on some problem of particular interest to it. A chairman was selected and the topic outlined so that the group at the

beginning would know some of the objects of the program committee. The groups were at liberty to add as many more phases as they wished. After a committee had reported, a discussion, both pro and con, of the topic was open to the others. By this means the association's enthusiasm has been kept at high tide.

The topics discussed by these different groups were as follows:

I. *Methods of improving our system of records*

- A. Is loose leaf record system such as is used in the high schools suitable for the elementary schools?
- B. What advantage does the bound volume have over the card system?
- C. Are suitable provisions now made for the preserving of school records? What provisions should be made?
- D. What should be the attitude of the principal regarding records?
- E. Are old records sometimes treated as junk?
- F. Definite suggestions for a satisfactory permanent record system.

II. *Health education*

- A. Compare health education both in our elementary schools and in our high schools with that found in other cities, as to curriculum and equipment.
- B. Make definite suggestions for a suitable health program in our schools.

III. *Training teachers in service*

- A. Should there be material recognition of and compensation to teachers for the following:
 - 1. Securing of additional credits in summer schools or extension work.
 - 2. Rendering service in school work far above the average.
 - 3. Attending meetings of the N. E. A. and state teachers' association.
 - 4. Educational tours during the summer vacation.
 - 5. Definite contributions to the field of education.
- B. What check should be made regarding a teacher's reading of educational magazines and educational books during the course of the school year?
- C. Should we have:
 - 1. Sabbatical year with part pay.
 - 2. A system of exchange for teachers.
 - 3. A certain number of days in which teachers may visit other schools.
 - 4. Teachers' meetings for study of educational problems supplementing those meetings for administrative reasons.
- D. Improvement of teachers through close supervision of their work. Use of Standardized Tests, visitation, demonstration, consultation, special devices.
(A detailed report was made concerning investigation as to what was being done in other schools, together with definite recommendations for the city of Dallas.)

IV. *The junior highschool*—Junior highschools have been introduced into our large school systems very rapidly during the past five or six years. Many educators look at cities without them as backward educationally. Is this true of Dallas? Is it advisable that we

should have the junior highschoools in Dallas? A study should be made of what other cities have done along this line, with the results that have followed.

- V. *A program for character training*—Two definite programs for character training were prepared, one for the elementary schools and another for the highschoools. The program was outlined as follows:

1. Interest in character education.
2. Nature of the problem.
3. Character education in the kindergarten.
4. Character education in the primary grades.
5. Experiments in other school systems.
6. Classroom procedure in relation to character education.
7. Rating plans as a means to character education.
8. Recommendations of the committee.

- VI. *Classroom technic*—Such topics were considered as follows: What portion of the work during the class period can be group work? What portion individual work? How teach pupils how to study? Special devices for various subjects; the socialized recitation; visual instruction; the art of questioning; and evaluation of achievements.

- VII. *The large elementary school*

- A. The expense of constructing.
- B. Economy in the use of the grounds.
- C. The maintenance expense in proportion to that of the smaller school.
- D. Why more efficient.

- VIII. *Salary schedules*

1. Reasons for adequate salary schedules.
2. Principles and standards involved in making desirable salary schedules.
3. Trends of median salaries.
4. Types of classification for salary ratings.
5. The single salary schedule.
 - a. What is it?
 - b. What is claimed for it?
 - c. Has it proven satisfactory?
 - d. What are the objections?

- IX. *Evaluation and rating of principals*—The discussion of this important subject has been approached from three points of view, namely, (1) the Superintendents, (2) the Supervisors, and (3) the Principals.

1. The Superintendents told—
 - a. The good points of the principals.
 - b. The short-comings.
 - c. How these short-comings could be remedied.
2. The Supervisors suggested—
 - a. How to supervise a teacher.
 - b. Illustrated with records of supervision blanks.
3. The Principals—
 - a. A discussion as to how to make better principals.

THE CHANGING CONCEPTION OF THE SCHOOL OFFICE AS A FACTOR IN GOOD MANAGEMENT

JOSEPH A. DAY

Principal, Peabody School, Fort Smith, Ark.

IN THE MAJORITY of the articles written for the elementary principal during the last few years, he has been told that he should increase the efficiency of his office in order to give him more time for supervision, but he has had very little help actually in improving the service of his office.

In the first place, reference should be made to the school office and not to the principal's office, except where there is a suite of offices and the private office of the principal is designated. There is more than mere terminology in the suggestion. As long as we call it the principal's office, we, and others, will think of it as being the principal's office—something for his personal use, something to assist him in the management of his school. And until it is designated as the school office, it will be but a "cubby-hole," or the otherwise unused space above the entrance, at the end of the second floor hall.

If we speak and think of it as the office of the school, the public will begin to see the point, and to realize that it exists to render service, not only to the principal, but to teachers, pupils, janitors, superintendents, supervisors, boards of education, patrons, and visitors. We speak of the "central office" or the "administration building" rather than of the "superintendent's office," and ordinarily we think of it as the proper clearing place and "channel of communications" from the general public to the school as a whole, and vice versa.

If, then, it is to belong to and be a part of the school, it is much more likely to be given a suitable and adequate location in the plan of a new building and much more attention to standardization of practice in the interest of efficiency.

The elementary school office should be to the immediate right of or directly in front of the main entrance on the ground floor. It should consist of not less than two rooms, properly lighted, and fitted with modern office equipment. I agree with the suggestion made by Dr. Briggs to a class of highschool principals last summer to throw away their old roll top desks with the pigeon holes and install modern flat-top desks. Not only that, but we need to get the "philosophy of the flat top desk," the modern conception of office management and service. Office practice has been changed greatly since someone laid down the principle that a letter should be answered the same day it is received. The old board files which hang around the wall belong in a class with the roll top and have been replaced almost entirely with modern vertical filing systems.

A school of any size needs trained office workers, and the principal should know the fundamentals of office technic well enough to utilize such improved service. Perhaps we shall be furnished more and better workers when we demonstrate that we are making profitable use of what clerical

assistance we have. If only one office girl is available the question arises whether she is the principal's clerk or the secretary to the school. She acts in a dual capacity. Where there is more than one office girl, their duties will be sharply defined. As the secretary of the school, the duties of the office girl will be practically the same under the administration of any good principal. Pupil accounting, distribution of supplies, and many other routine matters should be uniform throughout a school system. In another capacity, however, the single office girl is private secretary to the principal. Her duties in this capacity are quite different in many respects when a new principal is appointed or when she is transferred to another school. Even in this capacity, much of her work should be practically the same, and would be the same if principals would learn a little more of what is accepted as good office technic. A principal wisely may apportion certain hours of the day to these two phases of his secretary's work.

The equipment of the elementary school office can be standardized and modernized, and if we will but set about doing it, the manufacturers will gladly meet our needs just as they meet the needs of the banks. Dr. Hosis, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, has made a collection of office record forms, but they are available in such a variety of shapes and sizes for different school systems that they scarcely can be classified. Yet the information recorded on these forms is common to nearly all school systems. This data is recorded in so many different ways that it is of very little use for purposes of comparison. These uncertain conditions easily can be remedied with a little planning and cooperation. Such a simplification of office technic would make it possible to offer to principals some training in office management which would be well worth the time required to learn it.

The general abhorrence of records, forms, and reports, commonly dubbed "red tape," would disappear, if this idea once were accepted, and the service of a well organized and functioning office would be recognized as an important factor in the operation of the school rather than as a necessary evil.

The principal no longer is bound to be at a certain place at a certain time, but he may need to be anywhere, anytime. The office of his school, therefore, must run itself just as any other department or activity of the school is self-operative. The principal, of course, will supervise the office just as he supervises and is responsible for any other room or service of the school. This self-operative system calls for the development of technics and standard procedures. It then will be possible to estimate the value of the office to the school. Even the janitor service already is operating on such a basis of carefully worked out and widely accepted standards.

The principal and his school will not lose in individuality and become a machine if this highly-developed system of standardization is realized. For, with a system in operation which allows the principal leisure time, and does away with the necessity of his attending personally to every detail in school management, he is allowed time and opportunity to infuse his individuality into the school. His personality can be remarked in the methods of handling routine matters, rather than in the method by which he handles a

particular problem. His organization will reflect his personality. It is only when measured by common standards that real merit is proved.

I hope this short article will provoke a discussion which will bring out the details of the problem.

DALLAS AND HEALTH SUPERVISION IN THE SCHOOLS

C. W. MORRIS

Principal of Stephen F. Austin School, Dallas, Texas

MANY forward steps in the education and development of the children in our public schools are not made without trials and opposition, and surely the health work has had its share if we may depend on the history of its growth in the United States. So in giving the history of the rise of health work in the Dallas schools with the plans used and the experiment carried out in the Stephen F. Austin school during the year 1924-25, we hope to help and encourage some reader who may be passing through the same trials incident to introducing health supervision in his school system.

Dallas was one of the first cities of the South to try such an experiment nearly 20 years ago. In 1906 medical inspection of school children was begun under the auspices of physicians from two small, embryonic medical colleges—the Baylor Medical College and the Southwestern Medical College. The work started off favorably, but due to misunderstandings and friction between the two institutions and opposition on the part of some of the citizens the work gradually dwindled to a few examinations by specialists. The entire movement lasted about four years. Had the work been under the supervision of the board of education, there is no doubt but that it would have continued in force. It should, however, in fairness to the board, be said that they have always been interested in health supervision and always ready to undertake a health program whenever the people so desired and were willing to support such a program.

In the fall of 1914, the board employed a nurse and intended employing several more with the expectation of gradually working into a full health program. Unfortunately, due to some unwise and unexpected newspaper publicity, this plan was in operation about 90 days.

Thus we see that the early attempts in Dallas were thwarted by misunderstandings and friction. No other attempts were made by the board until June, 1925. Still some good health work was continually being done for the more needy and neglected children. The Dallas council of mothers for several years maintained neighborhood nurses in localities where the need was most pressing. The different parent teacher associations of the city form a central organization known as the council of mothers. The Dallas council is in turn a member of the state organization of mothers. The work of the council is to know the child and its needs; to make a special study of the different phases of childhood; to know the schools and to give

what assistance it can in seeing that the schools of the city keep up with modern progress.

The slowness of Dallas in undertaking a program of health work may in part be explained by the fact that the city is fortunate in having several good clinics to which school children may be taken for the most part free—Baylor Medical Clinic, Baylor Dental Clinic, the Presbyterian Clinic, and the city health department. The schools have made more or less constant use of these free clinics, and especially have the schools situated near the clinics made almost daily use of the services offered. However, the success of such a plan depended *in toto* on the interest of the principal and teachers in the physical welfare of the pupils in their particular schools; so we find only the more evident cases being taken care of while many pupils who really needed attention went without it. Also the interest shown was often sporadic, no definite program being carried out.

Another fact is that for several years each elementary school has had a physical training teacher who has worked with the pupils of the first four grades. Each class reports to her once per day for a 25-minute period. In addition to the regular exercises of this department, each pupil had a test for hearing and vision once each term, and for weight once each month, of which records are kept and cards sent to the parent. This physical training teacher is on the constant watch for any defects which she might discover. These are reported to the principal whose duty it is to enlist the cooperation of the parent in having remedial measures taken. This was good insofar as it went, but these teachers were not prepared and did not have the technical knowledge to give physical examinations as they should be given, and the responsibility for remedial work was not keenly felt by anyone.

In 1922, the council of mothers employed a nurse who visited all elementary schools and gave very valuable help in health and hygiene work. But what real work could one person accomplish in serving 36 schools? She no doubt was influential in helping many children, but the largest contribution of her work was in helping bring to a focus the idea of the need of a full program of health supervision. Thus the idea grew year by year, and we must give full credit to all concerned not only for what has been done but also for what is being done. However, from close observation and association with children in two elementary schools for the past four years we clearly recognized the fact that the children as a whole should have more attention physically than they were getting through the methods used. They needed thorough examinations conducted by competent physicians. Recommendations from such a source have far more weight with parents than those coming from the principal or teacher. Another convincing fact of which all school people are cognizant is the great loss of time from school because of trouble with eyes, ears, nose, throat, malnutrition, etc. The only real source of relief is a thoroughly organized and smoothly functioning health department. Other items brought to the writer's attention in the two schools were: the number of retarded pupils as shown by an age report; the many absences because of minor ailments; the many requests for free

lunches by children who otherwise would have to go hungry—it is true that some of these children often came to school without breakfast because they had nothing at home; the numerous cases of poor school work being done, the pupil, called dull or slow, being hindered by some physical defect which could be easily remedied.

Realizing the facts just stated, and in view of the fact that the Dallas schools had no regular health program, the writer, in line with other studies being made by the principals' association, decided, after getting the permission of the superintendent and board, to undertake a systematic health experiment in the Stephen F. Austin school with the following objectives: (1) To determine with concrete evidence the need for systematic health supervision in the schools; (2) to determine the attitude of the parents; (3) to determine the attitude of the physicians.

Our general plan was to secure all possible data on each child at the first of the school year and then have a reexamination near the close of the year to check up on the remedial work done and the progress made by the child as a result of this work. In getting a full survey of each pupil as to his daily habits, food habits, play habits, and sleeping habits or conditions, a questionnaire was filled out with the aid and under the supervision of the teachers. Accurate answers were stressed in all cases. This was to be followed by a thorough examination of the teeth and gums; next an examination of the eyes, ears, nose, and throat; and last a general medical examination. These examinations were to be followed with a specific letter to the parent showing the results and making certain recommendations. The principal and teachers were to use all information as a basis for better classification of the child or a better arrangement of his work insofar as we were able.

In getting the work started we first secured the promise of full cooperation on the part of the building teachers; then placed the plan and purposes before the parent teacher association in order to secure the sanction of its members and to enlist their help in getting cooperation in their respective neighborhoods. Those present said that they were glad that such a move was contemplated and expressed their willingness to help wherever needed. The next move was to secure the help of the Dallas council and mothers by meeting with its health committee. This committee was asked to accompany the writer to secure the services of dentists and physicians. We wanted only representative men and women with the object in view that the examinations as far as they should go were to be as good as possible to make them. So we called on Dr. H. L. Miller, superintendent of the Baylor Dental College, and Dr. W. D. Jones, president of the Dallas County medical association. These men were enthusiastic and wanted the work commenced immediately. Dr. Miller proposed that he should direct the dental work bringing with him competent men from the college; Dr. Jones promised the services of recognized physicians. Thus we have paved the way. The reader will see that we so hedged the intended experiment that little place was left for failure.

We are fortunate in that the Austin school has a clinic room equipped with hot and cold water, cuspidor, private lavatory, medicine cabinet, and all the necessary electric connections needed in an examination room. Thus we were enabled to give private examinations, when necessary, and to pass a room of pupils through without delay or confusion. There were 700 children to be examined. As the dental work was separate from the medical, and as we could get all the dentists at one time, these examinations were given while arrangements were being made with the physicians. This dental examination gave a thorough report on the condition of the teeth and gums. The blanks were kept in triplicate—one for the school, one for the dental college, and one to be sent to the parent. This work kept seven dentists busy from 9 A. M. to 3 P. M. for three days. The procedure was as follows: beginning with the high seventh grade, pupils were passed to the clinic by rooms. At a desk outside, the first part of the blank was filled in and each pupil given a number. The pupil then passed into the clinic room, one examiner taking the even numbers and another the odd; thus we could keep two lines passing all the time.

The procedure for the medical examinations was somewhat different. These must be more private, and the boys must be taken separately from the girls; nor could the work be continuous as the different physicians had their calls and office hours to keep. Consequently we were some three weeks in completing the examinations. As the physicians could come the boys and girls were passed to the clinic separately. With the small children no distinction was made as to who should make the examination, but from the fourth grade up all boys for the general examination were taken by men physicians and all the girls by women physicians. These examinations were very thorough as shown by the blanks used. Twenty leading Dallas physicians took part in the examinations.

It is outside the province of this paper to list the results of the questionnaire and the different examinations. Suffice it to say that the percent of defects ranks closely with statistics giving the conditions of school children in general. But we must refer to the objectives set forth as the basis of the experiment. The results obtained proved beyond any question our first objective—the definite need of systematic health supervision in the schools. As to the second objective—the attitude of the parent; at no time during the progress of the examinations did we have any complaints or objections from any parent or guardian. True, some were more or less passive and indifferent; in general interest was shown in knowing the true condition of their children. Parents as a rule have the proper attitude when they know and understand just what the school is trying to do for the child. Our third objective—the attitude of physicians—is answered by the favorable action of the medical association plus the services of the number of its members who worked with the pupils.

As a whole I think we are justified in saying that the experiment was a decided success when viewed in the light of the results obtained. Parents were awakened to the physical needs of their children and consequently many received remedial treatment; the children themselves were brought

to view their own health conditions as something of importance; teachers got a new vision of the human material with which they were working; and lastly, I think it may be truly said that the experiment as carried out in the Stephen F. Austin school was a prime factor in the final decision of the board of education to adopt a health program for the Dallas public schools.

In June, 1925 the board passed favorably on the question of health supervision. The work was to start with the school session of 1925-26, and \$25,000 was put in the budget for this department. A staff of two physicians—one man and one woman, one dentist, and six nurses—five white and one colored—were employed as full time officials. Some opposition very naturally arose, but the percent of objectors was small. The citizenship of Dallas was ready and willing to support this advance in the development of its future citizens. In this the second year of its existence the force of nurses has been increased to 11. Large plans are being laid for extending the services of the department. Vaccination against smallpox has been made compulsory for attendance at public school. Soon we shall see Dallas second to none in health supervision in the schools.

SURVEY FORM FOR DALLAS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Name	Sex
Grade*	Age

1. Have you ever repeated a grade?.....
2. Have you ever had any serious sickness?.....
3. Do you feel well and strong now?.....
4. What time do you get up?.....
5. What do you usually eat for breakfast?.....
6. Do you eat breakfast every day?.....
7. When do you start to school?.....
8. What do you usually eat for lunch?.....
9. Do you drink coffee?..... How much?
- Do you drink tea?..... How much?
10. Do you work any out of school hours?..... What kind of work?.....
- How much?
11. How much do you earn per week?.....
12. How much do you save per week?
13. What games do you play?.....
14. When and where do you play these games?.....
15. When do you have supper or dinner?.....
16. What do you usually eat at this meal?.....
17. How much time do you put on your lessons at home?.....
18. When do you go to bed?.....
19. What kind of a room do you sleep in? One window..... two windows..... sleeping porch.....
20. Do you have the windows open or shut at night?..... On cold nights.....
21. How many sleep in the bed?.....
22. How often do you bathe?.....
23. Do you own a toothbrush?.....
24. Do you use a toothbrush?.....
25. Do you eat candy every day?.....



DENTAL EXAMINATION

Austin School, Dallas, Texas

Name Grade..... Date.....

No.....sex.....age..... Has been to dentist, yes.....no.....

Occlusion—reasonably normal....., needs orthodontia.....

Deposits on teeth—practically none....., some....., very bad.....

Conditions of gums—good....., fair....., poor.....

Upper permanent teeth																
8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Right									Left							
Upper first teeth																
8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Right									Left							
Lower Permanent teeth																
8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Right									Left							
Lower first teeth																

Explanation of marking:

- T. First tooth with cavity too late to fill.
- E. Probable exposure of nerve, or putrescence.
- F. Fractured tooth.
- R. X-Ray needed to complete diagnosis.
- M. Missing tooth which should be present at this age.
- C. A cavity which should be filled.
- X. Extraction indicated.

Examiner.....

WHAT THE HENRY CLAY SCHOOL IS DOING IN TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

ELLIE MARCUS MARX

Principal, Henry Clay and James B. Hope Schools, Norfolk, Va.

THE HENRY CLAY elementary school, located in the heart of Norfolk's eastside, has a kindergarten and six elementary grades. The pupils come from homes that do not vary greatly in social and vocational status. Intelligence tests are not given for entrance; but standard educational tests are given to all pupils and are used as a basis of classification and comparison. The pupils are grouped in classes on the basis of their abilities and attainments; Within each class provision is made for individual promotion according to individual needs, the goal being the physical, intellectual, social, and moral training of each child.

To secure this end the school attempts something more than a curriculum made up of modern studies taught in a modern spirit. It is a little democracy in which the pupils are responsible members, their activities being based upon the curriculum and various organizations of school life. This curriculum is a combination selected for those fundamental and characteristic activities which are valuable in themselves and which are most likely to encourage the pupils' further development.

We are finding that education to be most effective must satisfy the natural needs of mind and body, and must prepare the child to cope with his environment by creating a school environment which offers experiences approximating real life. The child is encouraged to originate, to analyze situations, and to make judgments; he has every opportunity to work as an independent individual in a group of interdependent people. From these experiences he may escape those fearful adjustments which those of us educated in the "old way" had to make in order to meet the requirements of the complex adult world.

It is natural for the child to love school—any other attitude is not normal. The school is the great world to him. His interests, his topics of conversation, and his friends are there. Believing that the child should be taught how to live in a democracy, how to appreciate the plan of government, and that the safety of the republic depends upon the wisdom and the virtue of the people, at Henry Clay the tendency has been towards greater freedom with the aim of identifying the child's school life with his environment and outlook in life.

All questions of discipline and formal study are not abandoned. However, the goose-step, militaristic idea of school discipline has been banished. The pupils participate in their own government on the playground, in the basements, and in the corridors. This has been found to be a most excellent method for training the child for life in a democracy.

In addition to the limited student government, citizenship is taught in the school life, in the group order of large classes regularity, neatness,

responsibility, obedience, concentration, punctuality, order in the yard, care of the room, passing to classroom, assembly order, supervised play, dismissals. Organizations like the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Red Cross, and athletic clubs teach teamwork, giving and taking orders, and bodily control. In this way discipline as a center of correlation relates studies, the school, the home, and the world life.

The aim of all education is to prepare the child for life. There are greater opportunities in some studies and activities than in others. This fact is especially true of the social studies and reading; of a free choice period, when the pupil may carry on a self-initiated activity under the supervision of a sympathetic teacher, and of a civic club to develop the feeling of a community responsibility. These, together with a limited student government, and the discipline chart giving the rating of each child in the various qualities of good citizenship, are excellent ways of getting good results. Individual effort is not enough—teamwork is necessary, and the democratic spirit is the only basis for real cooperation. Special talents, initiative, power of leadership should be employed in the common service and should be recognized and encouraged.

The Henry Clay school is not experimental but is based upon a balanced curriculum. Through standard tests and measurements, every precaution is taken to develop the ability of each child so that he may be better fitted to take his place in the world's work.

THE TEACHER-CLERK'S OPPORTUNITY

HOWARD DARE WHITE

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Jersey City, N. J.

YOU HAVE offered me the opportunity of discussing the teacher-clerk's opportunity to serve the public school system. Please do not expect me to avoid platitudes, to inspire you with zeal for educational martyrdom, or to announce any new discoveries. Seldom should one be expected to accomplish any such tasks.

There is left, however, the interesting problem of reminding you how exceptionally full of possibilities that office is, and how it may be related to school progress. The teacher-clerk has an opportunity that is unique, attractive, and important.

The title of her position is an accurate, condensed description of its duties and opportunities. That is what a title is intended to be, and this paper will not attempt much more than an expansion of this condensed meaning into a discussion about what a teacher-clerk may do and be.

It does not follow that you will hear a eulogy of the ideal teacher or a defense of clerks. Neither is needed. There have been several addresses in the past about teachers and teaching—unless I am mistaken there have been books written on the subject. It would be hard to name any sub-

ject without its bibliography, and we are tempted sometimes to believe that the bibliography precedes any real investigation of the subject.

But you are invited to examine with me the meaning of the term "teacher," and that of the term "clerk" as applied to school affairs, and particularly the meaning of the term "teacher-clerk." These meanings have changed materially within our own memory, young as we are, and are, I believe, destined to change still more within our life time.

You never knew the day when an admitted part of a teacher's duty was to "motivate the learning process" by the use of a hickory stick. But perhaps you can remember when he was expected to stand behind a desk in a room full of rows of other desks and pupils—the pupils sitting at attention—and shake an admonitory forefinger. Some people actually thought that it did some good to the pupils, if not to the rows of desks.

But the development of school practice during the last, I shall not say how many years, has disclosed many new needs and devised improved methods of meeting them. It is fair to describe this development as a tendency to try to discover the individual abilities, characteristics and needs of children and to adapt the materials of instruction to those abilities and attitudes and needs.

This development, whether we call it the "sociological" or the "scientific" movement in education, or whether we mercifully refrain from naming it at all, aims to substitute scientific and trustworthy evidence of school progress for the traditional opinions which have predominated in the past and which even yet govern too large a proportion of our school practice. It aims to keep accurate and easily interpreted records of school work and of individual progress for the use of society. It aims to provide for the individual pupil a curriculum and a type of instruction better adapted to his needs as shown by his response to careful group and personal tests. It sets no limit to its aim short of learning how to live and teaching everyone the lesson.

So ambitious a program as this—and it is a program that our schools are seriously and hopefully undertaking—requires the collection, arrangement, understanding, and use of an enormous number of facts. Let us inquire in some detail what kinds of facts these are and who is to deal with them and how.

Any record of human behavior in the past or present has possible value for the future. Our regard and care for records is in direct proportion to the value we place on what they record, whether that be wealth or human life or the worth of the sum of our civilization.

Everyone always thought wealth worth recording, and among the earliest written records of every race are lists of crops and inventories of property. Our most complete records today, excepting perhaps the raw census record of the number of people, are records of property values.

Earlier and ruder stages of civilization left but meager account of their culture. We think that account worth trying to understand. It is to be hoped that our own culture is not final or standard, and that rather than survive or endure in its present form it will produce a better development

in the future. But we think it worth recording and using now, and preserving, either as a guide or a warning, for future generations.

As to the value of human life, both now and for the future, our own age is making a genuine gesture of concern. We protest against disease, which destroys gradually and against war which destroys suddenly. We adopt improved and constantly more effective measures of prevention against the former, which we are gradually coming to understand, and we express general pious disapproval of the latter, which only a few people ever tried to understand.

It is left to education to utilize the values of contemporary life, to study the myriads of facts about people as they are, to make capital of those that can be used in the present, and to record those that may be of use in the future.

Both the teacher and the teacher-clerk are concerned with many of these facts. But their interest differs in degree and kind to such an extent as demands some definition of the field in which each is to work.

I intend to insist that the teacher-clerk is properly and primarily a teacher even when her clerical function is most emphatically stressed. But I should like first to mention some of the obligations of the modern teacher. These obligations are based on the fact that teachers are a highly privileged class, selected from the upper strata of American society, and by far the largest distinctively educated class that the country affords. If there is or is to be a thinking group in the country it may well be the group of teachers.

In Hughes Mearns' startling book of last year, "Creative Youth," is one carelessly flippant sentence, a brilliant pun, a sage epitome of the last 25 years of educational history in America, a prophecy for the next 25, one of the wittiest sentences in educational literature, and a stern warning to all workers in the field of education.

He and we will not be satisfied until every teacher has become a student of education. The teachers' claim that educational democracy involves their participation in determining and shaping school policies no less than in carrying them out, has much justice in it. But it is a claim that implies increased competence on the part of all school officials rather than reciprocal concessions or giving up of powers or duties on the part of any. No one who knows anything wants any more power than he has the knowledge and skill to use. The picture of the university professor of education, with his libraries, graduate students, tabulating machines, and no laboratories of actual schools and pupils has become as absurd and, happily, almost as obsolete as the picture of Ichabod Crane and his professional and literary descendants.

The obligation to become and continue for a life time a student of education is one that no teacher can escape except at the price of being both absurd and obsolete. It is heavier even than that, for it involves endless laborious reading and experiment, much of which must necessarily be fruitless. It means repeated painful thinking, discarding comfortable traditions which have become almost as much a part of us as our clothes or our skins, and without which we are likely to be uncomfortable and unhappy. It

means becoming psychologists, statisticians, philosophers, sociologists—or at least accepting and using the candor and sincerity of scientific method which may some day produce psychologists and sociologists. It means subordinating vocabulary to reality, a search for facts, a critical study of appearances, admitting ignorance and accepting consequences. Teachers must become accustomed to all this.

Every worker is, perforce, a student of his work and takes a near view of the necessities of his job. The class teacher and the teacher-clerk are not exceptions to this rule. They have constant and insistent reminders to study their immediate problems. The challenge of their daily duties is not likely to be ignored. They have to keep out of trouble and avoid being swamped.

The old textbooks on school management and drill methods of teaching taught us, or our predecessors how to keep out of trouble and how to avoid being swamped. They resulted in some wonderfully well ordered, quiet, cemetery-like schools. It would be idle and unseemly to spend much time or ill nature in criticism of those books or those schools. They were the honest and sincere product of their time, fairly representative of their day, typical of the passion for organization and standardization that has given us a world full of leisure for thinking and scarcely any need to think.

We are fairly sure, then, to study the daily routine and to meet the demands of the machine. The class teacher will keep her register, make the required reports to the school office, spend several hours trying to work wisely with her pupils. During the whole school day she is employed in useful and necessary labor. She may even toil blindly for hours beyond the school day in a vague and vain endeavor to educate equally "all the children of all the people." She is less likely to find time and motive for keeping up with the current experiments and recent studies and new points of view that are tending to illuminate and direct her path even if they can't make it any easier.

The teacher-clerk is also certain to meet the immediate emergencies that confront her. The telephone rings. The easiest way in the end is to answer it. Questions of all sorts from all sources interrupt the task on which her attention is concentrated. It takes less time to answer even the useless question than to explain how unnecessary it is. Letters deserve to be answered and experience has taught most correspondents the economy of answering them at once rather than later with an added paragraph of explanation or apology.

Visitors, parents, pupils, fellow teachers, with small errands or large require attention and helpful courtesy on the instant. They get it and the day is gone before it is well begun. There is small danger that the teacher-clerk will fail to take a near view of her daily routine, see it clearly and do it well on the spot. She knows how to swim and must keep her head above water.

But with her as with her colleague in the classroom that is not enough. She also has to have a destination in view. Accuracy, industry, patience, unselfishness—all the virtues you choose to name may make one's task

easier and more pleasant. But only intelligence and thinking and initiative can do it or give it dignity. We must know the meaning of our work and learn to think about it. The negative virtues we have named are mere means of self-preservation. They are not forward looking in any sense nor do they promise improvement. Meaningless routine—whether the motiveless drill of the classroom or the statistical drudgery of the office is deadly, health-destroying, ignoble, and menial—no matter how high the salary or how flattering the social acclaim that attends it and no matter how sweet and cheerful the automaton who is working at it. The street cleaner and the office bureaucrat work on the same level, and the moral advantage is on the side of the street cleaner.

Just as the teacher, therefore, can escape meaningless routine only by relating her daily work to social aims, the teacher-clerk must grasp the social and educational significance of her statistical and other work.

What is the significance of this work? Is there any sense in it? Does all this multiplication of forms, records, reports, procedures, charts, graphs, and distribution tables have to do with mere office organization and red tape or has it to do with education and the improvement of instruction? Does your exhibit belong to a business show and are you only clerks and private secretaries—or are you teachers with special training for a particular part of the educational program?

Your office is a comparatively new one, and on the answer to this question depend important legal and professional aspects of its future. It seems obvious enough to us that your legal and professional status should be fundamentally that of the teacher. But it should be remembered that the school law bases its definition of the teacher's function on an earlier and simpler idea of education than now obtains, and that final interpretation of it lies with officials who don't have to know anything about changing concepts of education. You should be able, therefore, to make it perfectly clear to any layman that your work is just as much a part of the educational program, of the teaching process, as that of the class teacher.

The growth of school systems has made necessary the development of school supervision. It is one of the platitudes I promised you that this development of supervision involved a differentiation of function and an integration of aim. The earliest supervision was lay rather than professional and concerned itself for many years with organization, extreme standardization, and executive management with but small agreement as to educational aim or purpose. Its recognition and acceptance was slow and grudging—as it deserved to be for much of the supervision was autocratic, arrogant, ignorant, petty, and destructive. It gradually won its way and obtained the professional and legal sanction it has today—as it deserved to do when it became intelligent, progressive, constructive and cooperative. So that now we not only welcome but demand the service of supervisory officers and cheerfully accord them the honor of recognition as fellow teachers. They deserve it.

The Commissioner of Education, and his assistants, the county superintendents of schools, superintendents, assistant superintendents, supervising

principals, principals, assistant principals, and supervisors are classed as teachers for the apportionment of school funds and by the Teachers' Pension and Annuity Fund Act in New Jersey.

All these officials are engaged in the improvement of instruction and all of them have various administrative and clerical and statistical duties either assigned them by law or implicit in the nature of their positions. It would be absurd to claim that they are engaged in actual or direct or classroom teaching for any considerable part of their time.

To exclude teacher clerks from this classification on the ground that they are not directly employed in classroom instruction implies a sharp separation of such work from the ancillary agencies, including supervision, which are essential to the modern school system. Whatever may have been true in the past, there is no doubt that the modern school receives a large amount of expert scientific supervision and that the officials employed in this work, whether engaged in collecting information or tabulating and interpreting facts, are quite generally and quite properly regarded as teachers.

We venture to hope that the Uncle Tom—Simon Legree conception of teacher and supervisor has entirely passed and that the teacher has become not only interested but an active factor in the process of school supervision—the teacher-clerk assuming her part and compelling recognition as necessary to the process.

Child accounting has exactly the same relation to child conservation with which education is concerned that wealth accounting has to property conservation with which banking, investment, manufacturing, farming—all business enterprise is concerned. The facts—those now known and those yet to be discovered—are of the utmost importance. We know and attempt to use some of them in our current efforts to foster education. It would hardly be sensible to try to enumerate these here. You are already a little tired of hearing the list—enrolments, transfers, age-grade tables, grade progress tables, attendance records, pupils' marks, marks in studies, in health, in clean handkerchiefs, in courtesy, in intelligence, raw scores, scores cooked in the cauldron of statistics, scores tabulated, charted, ranged, weighted, correlated—all the jargon of a profession overfond of names, yet a jargon with a meaning of its own that we have to know and use as easily as our own names. The interpretation and use of most of this is, perhaps, chiefly the business of the principal of a school. In a school system the superintendent will do most of it. The preparation and reporting of it cannot be done by principal or teacher or superintendent without serious neglect of other equally important duties which only he can perform.

You may properly claim that the trained statistical clerk with the basic training and the point of view of the teacher is the only official who can coordinate this work of child accounting and that she is entitled at least to the rating of a teacher.

Only such an official can understand the meaning of the material she is handling, can have a sufficient motive for meeting cheerfully the monotony of computation and comparison. Only the teacher-clerk has the training to

help in school experiments, to cooperate with other teachers, to give prompt service in emergencies as a substitute teacher, to do the dozen things demanded of a school secretary. It is from a group of teachers that a supply of modern, competent, qualified school secretaries can best be recruited.

May I summarize briefly? The teacher-clerk is not a mere teacher, a mere clerk, a mere private secretary, a mere executive assistant, a mere errand girl, a mere statistician, or a mere anything else. She can be all of these things without loss of dignity, without presumption, and without interfering with any one else's business. She has the same intelligent curiosity about educational trends as other teachers—whether their title be teacher, principal, or superintendent. Other teachers are her colleagues. She knows what they are doing and her frequent conference with them is that of an equal with only a pleasant and necessary amount of friction.

The immediate usefulness of many facts is found in the classroom. With these the teacher needs intimate and accurate acquaintance. They include her own records of pupil ability, pupil achievement and pupil effort. Beyond the records and reports which have to do with her own group she should be free to devote her time to guiding and leading the learning of her pupils.

The principal is concerned with the same set of facts related to the progress of the pupils in the school as a whole. He has similar responsibility for the proper presentation of these facts to a central office. He has to determine the best type of organization and to see that the necessary machinery is kept in running order. Beyond this, and for the major part of his time, he should be free to devote himself to his principal concern—supervision in its most inclusive and most cooperative sense—in the sense that some one writes a book about every other afternoon.

Very many of the traditional functions of the teacher and principal—of the superintendent for that matter, may properly be delegated to the teacher-clerk. It is my belief that she has the ability and will secure the training needed to perform those functions admirably.

HALLOWE'EN AS "EXAMINATION DAY" IN THE CHICAGO SCHOOLS

R. O. WITCRAFT

Principal, Lloyd School, Chicago, Ill.

CHICAGO schoolmasters have been repeatedly warned by Superintendent McAndrew of the dangers of sentimentalism in teaching patriotism. The pledge to the flag specifies "allegiance to the republic." Who is the republic? His answer is: your parents, your neighbors, the other residents of Chicago, and all the people in the United States. What is the meaning of "pledge allegiance?" His answer is: a promise to be friends with, to be neighborly to, to protect, in street patios to "stick for." The child has been instructed that when he repeats the pledge to the flag and then goes out and smashes a street light or a window he is to be regarded as a Benedict Arnold, a traitor, and a deserter.

Hallowe'en was named by the superintendent as "examination day" for the teaching of civics in the schools in 1925 and again in 1926.

With complete knowledge of the uselessness of teaching platitudes and of moralizing without application to concrete situations, the schools accepted the challenge. The last two weeks of October saw civics teaching in every school wherein the aim was perfectly definite in the teacher's mind, the pupils led by clear and direct steps to well-recognized attitudes and knowledges, and the summary of lesson aims not neglected. Assemblies were held in many schools where games appropriate to Hallowe'en parties were demonstrated. Letters were written to parents as composition exercises by pupils telling what the schools expected of their pupils on Hallowe'en, and in some cases pledges of good behavior were formulated and signed.

To guide this instruction in 1926, a committee from the Chicago principals' club prepared a bulletin and sent it to all the schools signed by the president of the club, and by the superintendent of schools. It is printed here in full:

HALLOWE'EN AS A TEST OF GOOD TEACHING

To all Principals, Chicago Schools

Ladies and Gentlemen: The remarkable success of your selection of Hallowe'en as a demonstration of good manners and good citizenship last year, the praise of it given by citizens, police officers, and members of the board of education, suggest transmission to you of these suggestions prepared by a committee of the Chicago principals' club.

1. About October 1, the principal should arrange that every class, particularly of the classes of pupils at the age most inclined to mischief, is given a series of lessons, making clear the source of the educational service: money from all the people, not merely from parents of children.

2. Demonstrate graphically and dramatically where the money comes from showing that the owner of real estate, who pays the actual taxes, transmits what he receives from rental. Show how every citizen contributes towards the rental of stores, shops, etc., and is therefore a taxpayer.

3. Have the children show their appreciation of the fact* that the sum contributed by their own families is considerably less than the actual cost of teaching for each pupil.

4. Have the pupils bring out their appreciation of their obligation to the city for this benefit.

5. Show the meaning of Roosevelt's "you come to school, not for your own advancement, but for the same reason that one enters the army: to serve your country."

6. Show how this service need not be "deferred dividend," but that on Hallowe'en, now, while you are receiving, you have an opportunity to show your gratitude to your neighbors who are paying for your education.

7. Get the cooperation of local police officers. Ask them to notify you after Hallowe'en of the names of any offending children who are members of your school. Let the children know that you have made this request, and that you expect 100 percent conduct.

8. Cooperate with neighborhood societies for a good hearty Hallowe'en celebration for the children of their members.

9. Address early, as a composition exercise by the children, letters to parents, asking them to see that we have a well-mannered Hallowe'en, such as good citizens can approve. Many principals recommend a Hallowe'en-parents' meeting during the week of October 24 with bright statements of pupils as to the plan, and a straight talk by teachers and principals asking parental cooperation.

10. Organize a committee of teachers to think out suggestions for a good citizenship Hallowe'en. Bring it up at teachers' meeting and plan for systematic observance.

11. Suggest to parents that their children don the picturesque Hallowe'en costumes.

12. Teachers this year were quite willing to make inquiries of business men and other citizens as to the effect of the teaching. From the returns they obtained much satisfaction and encouragement.

13. Many principals suggest a special pledge, "I promise to behave myself like a good citizen on Hallowe'en, and to interfere with the property, the comfort, of no one."

14. Feature the credit due to the school in the conduct of every member.

15. A school committee might well meet the managers of the parochial and other schools, as these will be glad to cooperate.

16. Form a Hallowe'en committee of citizens and patrons of the school who will give publicity to your aims. A committee might put cheerful posters in the windows: Hallowe'en fun need not give discomfort to others. You can make good slogans, yourself.

17. Prepare subjects for short talks by children, as "What I owe to Chicago," "How I mean to show my obligation on Hallowe'en," "Why does the community pay for my schooling?" "Who pays the taxes?" "What for?"

18. On Friday, October 29, have a positive, encouraging, enthusiastic, confident "good-bye" talk to the children. Express your hope and confidence of their making a record.

19. On November 1, have the teachers obtain from the children reports of the success of the experiment.

DANIEL J. BEEBY,

President, Principals' Club.

WILLIAM McANDREW,

Superintendent of Schools.

The unique and spectacular nature of this undertaking to stop Hallowe'en rowdiness led the newspapers in 1925 to give considerable space and support to the enterprise. But in 1926 the elections crowded out most of this matter. Obviously the support of adult sentiment is a prime necessity in any such project.

The best aid to publicity was secured by a committee from the principals' club which enlisted the motion picture industry in its behalf. Theater owners were induced to give their facilities for a free Saturday forenoon show for school children where a final appeal might be made for good manners and law observance. In 1925, 21 such houses were used. In 1926 complete cooperation was given by the Motion Picture Theater Owners' Association, Jack Miller president, and the Chicago Film Board of Trade, Jack Sampson, president; credit is due also to Attorney Pettijohn in the office of Will Hays, New York, to whom a telegram was sent asking his support. The theaters bore all their own expenses.

Sixty-nine theaters were used, seating 112,450 children, to which were invited the older pupils from 227 public and 82 private schools. More theaters were offered, but these were distributed in such places that it was not possible to use them.

The plan in each theater was that a nearby school should prepare tickets and invite pupils from the neighboring schools to the capacity of the house, both public and private schools being entertained. The principal in charge was responsible for creating a school assembly spirit by means of a pupil program of music, dramatics, two-minute talks, etc., and a speaker making an appeal for fair play in celebrating Hallowe'en. To radiate good manners one teacher was present for each two hundred pupils invited. School children served as ushers, especially the safety patrol boys, the R. O. T. C. from high schools, and Boy Scouts in uniform. The school program lasted about a half-hour and the film somewhat over an hour. Music accompanying the film was furnished by the theater organist in many cases. School bands and orchestras were used in many programs.

Through the courtesy of Balaban and Katz a newsreel was made in their studio advertising these shows and the campaign being carried on. In it there appeared children with pledge cards being handed them by President Ellicott and Mr. English of the school board. Some boys from a safety patrol were shown being charged by Chief Collins of the Police Department with responsibilities for their neighborhoods. Chief Seyferlich of the Fire Department was shown giving his admonitions. Dr. King represented the Association of Commerce, adding his support and appreciation. The schools were represented by Superintendent McAndrew and by members of the principals' club committee. The theaters were represented by Mr. Katz, Mr. Miller, Mr. Sampson, and others. Such an array of persons charged with civic responsibility all in one newsreel was shown in many theaters during the week preceding Hallowe'en and no doubt played a considerable part in influencing public opinion.

Such were the preparations for an "examination," the results of which would be entirely "objective."

The results were most gratifying to the friends of the schools. The schools "passed" with almost a perfect grade both years. Numerous police stations reported not a single phone call to stop depredations during the evenings. Many a community had not a single window soaped. In

other years hoodlums had gone the limit in annoyance to the public. Street car service had been stopped, even cars derailed; bonfires made of drays or milk wagons had not been any novelty; bricks and stones had been thrown through windows of cars on the railroads, and the usual less destructive mischievous pranks perpetrated.

But these two years the children spent their evenings quietly at home, at parties, at entertainments arranged by a local P. T. A. or other organization, or at a celebration in the city parks and playgrounds. A few isolated instances appeared to show that deep-rooted traditions of lawlessness are not to be quickly overcome by teaching only school children. Yet everyone in any way interested in the possibility of Hallowe'en loss or inconvenience is voluble with praise for the achievement of the schools.

STANDARDS AND TRAINING FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

W. T. LONGSHORE

Chairman, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Mo.

NO ELEMENTARY school principal thinks of giving according to measure. Once engaged, he gives his best, gives his personal interest, himself. His heart is in his work, and for this no equivalent is possible; what is accepted is in the nature of a fee, gratuity or consideration, which enables him who receives it to maintain a certain expected mode of life. The real payment is the work itself, this and a chance to join with other members of the profession in guiding and enlarging the sphere of its activities.

H. G. Wells says:

You are the most important people in the whole civilized universe. The school-master's place is not only important, but supremely important. That is my thesis. I want to put it with boldness, shamelessness, arrogance, and aggression. I want to suggest that they should up and take hold of the world. I shall tell you nothing new if I betray a consciousness that arrogance in taking hold of the world is not a characteristic of all schoolmasters. It is extraordinary that a lot of schoolmasters seem to be unconscious not only of the importance but of the range of their functions.

We must believe in the dignity and importance of the position of the elementary school principal. We should make a solemn affirmation of its importance and conduct our schools and ourselves so that the community, the superintendent of schools, and the board of education will recognize it.

Our work is as important as is the work of the high school principal, and for equal preparation, efficiency, experience, and success should have the same professional recognition and salary when the positions have the same responsibility relatively. We are not asking favors. We are demanding that the rights of the younger children be recognized and that they be treated fairly, *i. e.*, that they be given an equal chance.

The idea of "skimming" the elementary schools to get teachers and principals to build up the junior highschools and the highschools is wrong. This "skimming process" must stop because it is wrong in theory, psychology, pedagogy, and practice. I think no one will deny that this "skimming process" is going on in our schools.

Why should an elementary school principal have to look to a highschool principalship for a promotion to get enough money to properly maintain his family and himself professionally?

Why should an elementary school teacher have to look to a highschool teacher's position for a promotion, and in many cases spoil an excellent elementary school teacher, to make a poor highschool teacher?

Rare talent is lost to the elementary schools each year because of the stupidity of our inherited philosophy and practice by placing the emphasis upon the wrong end, that is, at the finish instead of the beginning of institutional life and training.

The work of a principal of schools is to get things done through other people. He must know, in a general way, at least, what is to be accomplished, and through his organization he must, to a certain extent, know the capabilities and the undertakings of those who work with him. It is true that the successful principal of a school must have a high ideal as to what his pupils are going to do, and what they are going to be when they leave school. The work, then, of getting things done through others involves not only a certain amount of general information, together with special knowledge and a certain understanding of the technic to be employed, but it also means that the principal must be a master in dealing with human beings. The getting of things done through other people is a different problem from doing these same things, ourselves. It is one thing to do a piece of work and another to get it done successfully. In all administrations there are human factors to be considered.

What are the human factors involved in the work of principalship of the public elementary school? With whom do you have to deal? In other words, who are the persons through whom you must work in order to get things done that are worth doing? These persons are your teachers or members of the staff, and these persons differ among themselves more than the famous provinces of Gaul. If you have 20 teachers you have 20 different personalities to deal with. There are no two alike, yet in my experience I have come to feel that there are at least two general types of teachers.

The first type is the teacher who loves the subjects he teaches. Outstanding in our personal experiences there may be two or three such teachers. They are the ones who have so great a love for the subject that they were led to study it; they are the only ones who brought the subject to us in such a way that we in turn came to respect it, if not love it.

It is the purpose of the committee on standards and training for the elementary school principalship to work out the raising of the entrance requirements for the elementary school principalship to that of the high-

school principalship or even college professorship, in order that a single salary schedule might be feasible and applicable, thus allowing a free choice of talent to serve in its chosen field of education, at the same time carrying with it a dignity recognized by compensation adequate for the work.

An elementary school principal ought to have perfectly definite ideas on certain matters with which he is concerned. For example, he ought to know how to make a study of the pupil population of his school and district. He ought to have some very definite ideas on classroom supervision.

I am in favor of specific clearly defined courses for the principal. This does not at all preclude the possibility of giving to the prospective principals a broad general view of education through courses on the curriculum and history of schools. But it does mean that the main part of the principals' training ought to be specific and definite.

A second general point which I shall make in this connection is that every administrative officer ought, in my judgment, to do some definite piece of research work as a part of the training for his advanced degree. I do not believe at all in training which does not include some very definite requirements for original work on the part of the candidate.

The elementary school principal should secure his A. B. degree before entering service. Candidates for principalships should be required to hold this degree with a major in education. It is not too much to expect that the principal in service will continue his professional training and that he soon will earn his master's and eventually his doctorate.

It is very possible that the next 10 years will see the master's degree established as a requirement of candidates for the principalship, since by that time graduate courses especially for principals will have been prepared and tested. All too frequently at present the grade courses which are offered do not contribute definitely to the service of the principal. They do, however, give him a breadth of view which is desirable for every educational leader.

We should say that the difference between an elementary school principal and a high school principal is to be found only in the difference of their schools. There should be nothing to indicate a difference in training required and this should extend to the teachers as well. By difference in training, I refer to difference in amount rather than kind. One does not need to make a general survey to note the actual difference that now exists and that must be broken down. Our aim should be to so extend the field of elementary education that there would be a life work in it for any man or woman inclined by nature to work with children of a younger age.

As I see it, the strategic position in every school system is that of the elementary school principal. No matter how adequate the leadership of the superintendent or how competent the teaching force, good results cannot be obtained without a live, progressive and intelligent principal. His influence works both ways—from the superintendent to the teachers and from the teachers to the superintendent.

The elementary school principal should be the real head of his school, and that means that he ought to know education thoroughly before he undertakes his work and that he should be given an opportunity on the job to spend the better part of his time in genuine educational direction.

I am much interested in the development of the elementary school principalship. It seems to me the next important step in the evolution of our public school system. The status of the superintendent and the high-school principal is fairly well defined at the present time, but the status of the elementary school principal is still chaotic. In many respects the elementary school principal will, in my judgment, become the most important school official in connection with our public schools and therefore his office should be scientifically developed, publicly recognized and adequately remunerated. He will be the expert supervisor, the expert technician, and in many respects will render the most valued service of all of the public school officials. He should be given large powers within his own school, and held accountable for results. General supervisors and general assistants should work through him and at his dictation. It is only in this way, as it seems to me, can the highest efficiency in our public school system be secured.

The idea that "the elementary school principal should be the real head of his school and should be held responsible for its administration and supervision" is obviously sound—provided that it means that the principal should be a leader, not a boss.

The elementary school principal should have specific and definite training for the responsibilities connected with the principal's position. I look forward to the time when we may add to our courses at least one other, namely, practice as elementary school principal under the directorship of an efficient elementary school principal in charge of a building.

The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association is attempting to raise the professional standard of its members.

One of the first steps will be to break down the traditional attitude of administrators and principals themselves that there is a real distinction in degree of preparation or experience between the elementary school, the junior highschool and the highschool principal.

We must do away with the false lines that educators themselves have drawn between the various fields of their work. The idea that rank is somehow associated with the grade of the school is false and distasteful. We want to see the principal of each school rated as the equal of the principal of every other school. The elementary school principal is stepping out on a platform which includes qualifications equal to that of the highschool principal. It differs in kind but not in quality or quantity.

Our organization desires to see the elementary schools of the nation under capable leadership. We believe that the elementary school offers a splendid opportunity for a life of service and that its duties require as high a degree of intelligence and qualifications as the duties of the schools where older children are taught. We also believe that the larger elementary schools

will be found most satisfactory in the future. The elementary school plants will be as large and as completely equipped as are the plants of the junior and senior highschools. Its teachers should be as well trained as are the teachers in the highschools.

With a single standard and a single salary schedule in mind, based upon training, experience and merit, and limited, of course, by the amount of responsibility, we have decided to enlist the cooperation of superintendents and boards of education. If your board is in sympathy with this idea and would like to know more of the details of our plan, please address a letter to our chairman.

The members of the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship believe most sincerely in the importance and influence of the position of the elementary school principalship. It is not a stepping-stone to some other position and should not be so treated. It is a life work and deserves the same recognition and remuneration as if the life work were done in a highschool or college.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS, AT PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1926

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN HOTEL—JUNE 29, 1926

Present: Mr. Longshore (Chairman), Mr. Hosc (Secretary), Mr. Norton, Mr. Morrison, Mrs. Fink, Miss Pyrtle, Mr. Sargeant and Mr. Gist (as editor of the Yearbook), Mr. Deffenbaugh and Miss Cook (of the Bureau of Education).

The minutes of the Washington meeting were read and approved.

The chairman reported correspondence with the Carnegie Corporation and a conversation with the Commissioner of Education relative to finding ways and means of financing the work of the committee.

Four alternatives were then discussed at some length, namely:

1. Securing funds from a foundation.
2. Gaining the cooperation of the Bureau of Education.
3. Depending upon the increased dues of the Department of Elementary School Principals.
4. Working through the Division of Research of the National Education Association.

The discussion was informal and ranged widely over the field of work of the committee and the facilities necessary to accomplish it. The representatives of the Bureau of Education, though not in a position to make definite promises, explained what part the Bureau could probably play.

At the second session, at which only members of the committee were present, Dr. Norton stated that certain additions to his facilities would enable him to cooperate to a considerable extent with the committee and the committee proceeded to canvas the topics to be treated in its report together with the steps that might be taken to secure the necessary data.

These topics included the age, sex, schooling, experience, certification, salary, and tenure of principals in various types of schools; qualifications, examinations, and rating; relationships; professional activities; faculties and equipment; special school functions; economic status; use of time. The whole to be supported by a selected and annotated bibliography.

In order to collect adequate data, it was agreed, correspondence must be supplemented by means of field work, particularly recorded interviews.

The committee next proceeded to consider a tentative budget to cover the activities until June 1, 1927. Three items were prominent:

1. Expenses of the directive sub-committee.
2. Printing, mailing, and tabulating question sheets.
3. Salary and expenses of a special investigation.

By proper coordination of effort, working through Dr. Norton's office, it appeared to be possible to carry on the compiling, but not the publishing of the report, during the eight months from October to June for \$4000.

The following day the committee appeared before the executive committee of the department and presented its plan and budget. The committee at once voted unanimously to pledge the department to the extent of this sum.

The committee voted that a meeting of the directive subcommittee should be called by the chairman to be held either in New York or in Washington about October 1, to work out the details of the unified plan and to launch the year's work.

The committee adjourned.

Action of Executive Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals on Program of Work for Committee on Standards and the Research Division of the National Education Association—At the Philadelphia meeting of the National Education Association in 1926, a cooperative plan was tentatively agreed upon by the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship of the Department of Elementary School Principals, W. T. Longshore, chairman, and the Research Division of the National Education Association, John K. Norton, director. This plan had to do with an arrangement whereby the Research Division would assist the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship in the development of its program of research and investigation.

The plan worked out was submitted to the executive committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals, E. Ruth Pyrtle, chairman, and that body took action officially approving the plan which included these features.

1. The Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship was authorized to continue its work and to undertake a series of investigations which would ascertain the facts likely to be of greatest value in increasing the effectiveness of the Elementary School Principalship. The results of the investigations carried on under the direction of this committee are to be published by the Department of Elementary School Principals.

2. The Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship was authorized to plan its program on the basis of a budget of approxi-

mately \$6000 for the first year of actual work. This sum was to be used as follows:

- | | |
|--|--------|
| (a) For salary, traveling expenses, etc., of a properly trained person to be in active charge of the investigations made under the auspices of the committee | \$4000 |
| (b) For clerical help, correspondence, etc., in connection with investigations..... | 1000 |
| (c) For printing of inquiries, stamps, etc..... | 600 |
| (d) For expense of directive sub-committee of Mr. Longshore's committee.. | 400 |

\$6000

(3) The executive committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals guaranteed from its fund \$4000 of the \$6000 itemized above to be used for the following purposes:

- | | |
|--|--------|
| (a) For part payment of salary of person listed under 2a..... | \$2500 |
| (b) Clerical help, correspondence, etc., in connection with investigations.... | 500 |
| (c) For printing of inquiries, stamps, etc..... | 600 |
| (d) For expense of Directive Sub-Committee..... | 400 |

\$4000

(4) The executive committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals approved an arrangement whereby the Research Division of the National Education Association will cooperate with Mr. Longshore's committee in the conduct of its investigations and will assist in making up the \$6000 budget itemized above by furnishing the following:

- | | |
|--|--------|
| (a) Part of salary and traveling expenses of person listed under 2a above, not to exceed | \$1500 |
| (b) Clerical help, etc..... | 500 |

\$2000

(5) The executive committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals approved an arrangement whereby the Research Division of the National Education Association and Mr. Longshore's committee should cooperate in the development of the work of the committee along the following lines:

(a) The investigations undertaken are to be determined, outlined and generally supervised by the directive sub-committee. The directive sub-committee was authorized to meet in Washington early in the fall, at the call of the chairman, to complete the drafting of a detailed program of work.

(b) The actual work of conducting and coordinating investigations authorized by the directive sub-committee is to be carried on in the Research Division of the National Education Association. A properly qualified member of that division is to devote such part of his time to this work as may be necessary for its effective development.

Approved for Department of Elementary School Principals:

E. RUTH PYRTLE, *President*,

Department of Elementary School Principals.

Approved for Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship:

W. T. LONGSHORE, *Chairman*.

THE DIRECTIVE SUB-COMMITTEE

W. T. Longshore, *Chairman*,
Ide G. Sargeant,
J. Cayce Morrison,
John K. Norton,
James F. Hosic.

REPORT OF ENROLMENT COMMITTEE

JESSIE M. FINK

Principal, Palmer School, Grand Rapids, Mich.

LETTERS of enthusiastic members are pouring in every day offering assistance in the membership drive. If any one thing could encourage us certainly it is this response. It means that these people have something worth passing on.

Our growth has been remarkable in the past, and has placed us where our undertakings are various and manifold. Every subject pertaining to the elementary school principalship is before the department for discussion, or crystallization.

Committees have been appointed in every state, and in every large city of this country. The enlistment of memberships should go on at the state educational meetings. Let us all work together on this great project of enrolment until every elementary school principal has had an opportunity to benefit from it.

In reading the letters from the different parts of the country I am impressed by the fact that we have not sufficiently advertised the benefits to be obtained by membership in our department, and many principals know little or nothing of our existence. I am also impressed by the interest and activity of members who when once they know of our aims and past accomplishments come quickly to participate in the program of work.

Therefore, let us leave no stone unturned to place before clubs, associations, and education meetings of all kinds the ideals of our department.

SOME RESPONSES FROM THE FIELD

The remarkable response to the enrolment campaign is a splendid index of the fine attitude of educators everywhere.

Below are a few letters selected from those received because of concrete suggestions. Limitation of space prevents the inclusion of the many others received.

Miss Clyde E. Yeaton, principal of the Barton School, Minneapolis writes; "I am sending the inclosed form to the elementary school principals of Minneapolis and St. Paul. Principals, I am sure, will not feel that this is one more thing to join but that it is the one organization they must join. Inspiration and practical help are to be gained through the fine professional spirit and service of the department."

O. C. Griggs, principal of the Whittier School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, suggests, "If the secretary of the department can supply me with the names of principals in my territory who are members of the department I shall try to secure their assistance in making our work in this section a success. Write me any suggestions that you may have to make, or any plans that you have, so that we may work toward a common goal."

M. E. Peterson, supervising principal in the Los Angeles schools submits this workable idea; "I suggest that one thing has been missing heretofore, and that is an active representative at the meetings of *local* institutes—a representative who will have bulletins, pamphlets, blanks, and

such things handy, and a desk at which to work in the lobby of the main rooms where the sessions are held.

"Preceding this, however, all necessary blanks for membership and an adequate supply of "Propaganda" should be supplied to the various principals, clubs as early as their first meeting in the fall."

Superintendent Walter R. Siders of District No. 1, Pocatello, Idaho, writes; "Please send me any literature which I may use in soliciting memberships for the Department of Elementary School Principals."

Superintendent Ira Chapman of Elizabeth, N. J. requested a list of members of the Department from his city that he might enrol the rest.

Superintendent J. M. Gwinn, of San Francisco writes: "Your circular calling attention to the membership of elementary school principals in the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association came most opportunely to my office. A principals' meeting is being held today. I shall be very glad to call to the attention of the principals your announcement and give it special emphasis."

Superintendent Randall J. Condon, of Cincinnati says: "The only reason I cannot add materially to your membership is because all the elementary principals of Cincinnati seem to be already members of your department."

Six years ago nothing! Today a potent and growing force in every section of the nation!

Join the ranks.

As we go to press Mr. Shankland reports our addressograph department "Completely Snowed Under," with renewed memberships and new members. Every state and territory is represented and still the tide flows in.

Here's greetings to Searles of Peking, China; to Aysar in Rarotonga, Cook Islands; to Hawaii, Alaska, Porto Rico, to our far-flung battle-line wherever it may be. Here's greetings to the home battalions, too, forming ranks for a principalship, professionally equipped and professionally paid. A principalship that shall be a real profession commanding the respect of all and justifying that respect in its service to American education and America's children.

PROGRAM OF THE TEXAS CONVENTION

Fair Park Auditorium—Dallas, Texas, February 27–March 3, 1927

Breakfast discussion meetings and Committee Reports will occur each morning at the Baker Hotel as follows:

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 7:30 A. M.

Enrolment Committee Report—Chairman, JESSIE M. FINK, Principal Palmer School, Grand Rapids, Michigan.

Vacation Schools and All-Year Schools—Chairman, W. A. ROE, Principal Belmont Avenue School, Newark, New Jersey.

TUESDAY, MARCH 1, 7:30 A. M.

Committee on Educational Progress—Chairman, F. H. DUFFY, Principal Roosevelt School, Steubenville, Ohio.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 2, 7:30 A. M.

Committee on Standards and Training—Chairman, W. T. LONGSHORE,
Kansas City, Missouri.

THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 7:30 A. M.

Executive Committee meeting.

Monday, February 28, 1927, 2:00 P. M.

Presiding—Principal E. RUTH PYRTLE, President.

Music: Selected—Symphonic Band.

Theme: *Fundamental Values of Life and How to Reach Them.*

Address: (30 minutes.) HENRY TURNER BAILEY, Cleveland, Ohio.

Address: (30 minutes.) MARY MCSKIMMON, Principal Pierce School,
Brookline, Massachusetts.

Greetings: Superintendent F. G. BLAIR, President of N. E. A.

Report: Committee on Educational Progress—Chairman, F. H. DUFFY,
Steubenville, Ohio.

Tuesday, March 1, 1927, 2:00 P. M.

Presiding—Principal EVA G. PINKSTON, Vicepresident, Dallas, Texas.

Music: Soprano Solo—Selected—MRS. ALBERT SMITH, Dallas, Texas.

Theme: *The Responsibility and Opportunity of the Principal.*

Address: (20 minutes.) To the Home: ANNA LAURA FORCE, Principal
Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado.

Address: (20 minutes.) To the School: Superintendent M. C. LEFLER,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Address: (20 minutes.) To the Child: ELIZABETH HALL, Assistant
Superintendent, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Greetings: Superintendent R. G. CONDON, President Department of
Superintendence.

Report: Enrolment Committee, Principal JESSIE M. FINK, Chairman,
Grand Rapids, Michigan.

Annual Banquet Department of Elementary School Principals, Tuesday,
6:00 P. M.—Baker Hotel.

Wednesday, March 2, 1927, 2:00 P. M.

Presiding—Principal E. RUTH PYRTLE, Lincoln, Nebraska.

Music: Selected.

Theme: *World Citizenship—The School's Responsibility.*

Address: (20 minutes.) FANNIE FERN ANDREWS, Boston, Massachusetts.

Address: (20 minutes.) "The Teacher an Agent of International Good-
will." DR. A. O. THOMAS, President, World Federation of Educa-
tion Associations, Augusta, Maine.

Address: (20 minutes.) ANNIE C. WOODWARD, High School Teacher,
Somerville, Massachusetts; President Massachusetts Federation of
Teachers.

Report: Committee on Standards and Training, Principal W. T. LONGSHORE, Kansas City, Missouri.
Business Session.

EDITORIAL

THE GROWTH of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association has been so remarkable and so rapid that certain aspects of its program as yet are not clearly apprehended by its members. Particularly is this true with relation to the Bulletin. The Bulletin affords a means of supplying members of the Department with information as to the Department, its plans, purposes, and meetings it is true. In addition, it affords a splendid opportunity for all principals everywhere to present to their fellow workers, their experiments and successes. It is a professional journal which invites all principals to contribute to its files. It has no handicaps of tradition. It has no "sacred cows" so well known to contributors to newspaper columns. It is not dependent upon advertising for its success. It welcomes the article written by the most unknown principal of the remotest plain or mountain fastness upon an exact parity with the university leader. It recognizes that the principal of the village school makes professional contributions in that field equally valuable and comparable to those of the principal of the greatest city school. The purpose of this editorial is to encourage principals everywhere to put their ideas and ideals into written form, to organize them and send them to the Bulletin that it may more adequately and fully serve the principals of every kind and type of school throughout the nation.

NOTES FROM THE FIELD

ALABAMA

Birmingham principals will move on Dallas strong. The Board of Education in that city on recommendation of Superintendent C. B. Glenn, voted \$100 increase in salary to each principal and supervisor attending the midyear Department meeting.

J. D. Williams, Principal, Avondale School is State Director for his state.

CALIFORNIA

Principal R. W. Shirey, Long Beach, writes that California is undertaking the formation of a strong State Association for Elementary School Principals. Success to them.

Oakland, California, has enrolled 26 new members of the Department which added to the 11 who had previously joined gives 100 percent, Principal C. N. Shane reports.

CONNECTICUT

The Connecticut Elementary School Principals Association was organized at an enthusiastic state meeting at Hartford, October 22, Principal Ide G. Sargeant, Paterson, N. J. delivered an address on "Benefits to Be Derived from Organization." Florence E. Smith, President Connecticut State Teachers' Association presided, and the following officers were elected: *President*, Winthrop Buck, Hartford; *Vicepresident*, Joseph A. Fitzgerald, New Haven; *Secretary*, Ruth Crampton, Manchester; *Treasurer*, Helen Bunce, New Britain; *Executive Committee*, Katherine A. Brennan, New Haven; Anne Murnane, New Britian; Edith Hine.

ILLINOIS

The November issue of the Reporter of the Chicago Principals' Club, is an excellent example of what a live group of principals can do. The Chicago principals are also making a record in membership.

MINNESOTA

President E. Ruth Pyrtle attended the state meetings in Minnesota and Wisconsin. Chairman W. T. Longshore attended meetings in Wisconsin, Chicago, and Washington, Mrs. Fink the New York dinner to President Blair, and Mr. Sargeant, the Connecticut, New Jersey, and New York meetings.

The Department of Elementary School Principals was represented at the Minnesota State Teachers' Association, November 5, at St. Paul, by the President of the Department, E. Ruth Pyrtle.

Miss Pyrtle spoke at an eight o'clock breakfast meeting of administrative women presided over by Helen Shove, of Minneapolis.

"Group Consciousness Among Elementary School Principals" was the theme of Miss Pyrtle's address before the elementary grade principals section. She said our opportunity as elementary principals to give service is measured only by our vision and devotion in our field of work.

Miss Pyrtle addressed the Elementary section on "Fundamental Values in Elementary Education."

Miss Pyrtle was impressed by the cordial hospitality of this great gathering of 8000 educators and especially touched by the gigantic bouquet of maroon and gold chrysanthemums, Minnesota's colors, which was presented to her by the Minneapolis Principals' Club.

NEBRASKA

The President of the Department of Elementary School Principals, E. Ruth Pyrtle, was the speaker guest of the Omaha Principals' Club in Omaha on October 21. She addressed the Club on "The Opportunity of the Elementary Principal in the Field of Education." The Omaha Club lead by their able President, Cora C. Anderson, is planning a fine year's program.

The President of the Council Bluffs, Iowa Principals' Club, Miss N. M. Hardin, was a guest of honor and brought greetings.

Both the Omaha and Council Bluffs Principals' Clubs promised 100 per cent membership in the Department of Elementary School Principals.

NEW JERSEY

The New Jersey Elementary Principals' Association held their first sectional conference of the year at the Montclair State Normal School as the guests of H. F. Sprague, Principal, Friday, October 22. Dr. Hosis of Teachers College, Columbia University gave the chief address dealing with current tendencies in education which was followed by a discussion under the leadership of Principal Sprague. An attendance of one hundred had been anticipated. Some 230 sat down to luncheon and others arrived later so that attendance far exceeded expectation. The New Jersey Elementary School Principals' Association held its annual meeting at Atlantic City, Headquarters, Ambassador Hotel, November 11, 12, and 13. An excellent program was given. Treasurer E. H. Dutcher reported 306 members with annual dues paid. The Association plans Departmental meetings in the northern, central and southern sections of the state.

The new officers are as follows *President*, John A. Spargo, Ashland School, East Orange; *Vicepresident*, Martha Lummis, Cassady School, Camden; *Treasurer*, Edward Dutcher, Eastern and Stockton Schools, East Orange; *Secretary*, Alberta Johnson, Montgomery Ave. School, Atlantic City; *Past President*, one year, Lawrence S. Chase, Glenfield School, Montclair; *Executive Committee*, L. H. Dix, Woodbridge, 2 years; James R. Floyd, Plainfield, 2 years; Mary C. Booz, Trenton, 3 years; Ide G. Sargeant, Paterson, 3 years.

The Newark, New Jersey, board of education has under consideration a plan to place the principals of all types of schools upon a salary scale beginning with a minimum of \$4000 and with a maximum of \$7500 after eleven years of service. Newark is one of the nation's progressive cities educationally. Its citizens and leaders are justly proud of its progress in advancing educational ideas and ideals.

NEW YORK

A splendid program was given at the Rochester City Normal School, November 4 and 5, by the Central Western District on Administration and Supervision. Chairman, Principal George D. Taylor, Rochester.

Principal E. E. Sabin, Geneva and Principal Emma O'Keefe, Rochester were on the program.

Dinner at the Osburn Hotel.

The Albany District principals are planning a big meeting of principals for the winter.

UN

OHIO

F. H. Duffy, Steubenville, Ohio, Chairman, Committee on Educational Progress, has sent out a clarion call to every state in the Union for educational information as to the best new things in each state.

Secretary Warren A. Roe, Newark, New Jersey, spoke upon "The Principal in Action," at Columbus, Ohio, December 29, and attended the Pennsylvania meeting at Harrisburg on the 30th.

WEST VIRGINIA

A State Association of Elementary School Principals was organized the first week in November with every prospect of becoming a large, strong and aggressive group.

WISCONSIN

On November 8, Miss Pyrtle gave two addresses before the faculty and student body of River Falls, Wisconsin State Teachers' College.

SPECIAL NOTICE TO MEMBERS

An important change in the publication of the Yearbook and Bulletin of the Department of Elementary Principals of the National Education Association is under consideration by the officers and editors. It is proposed to issue the Yearbook as the April number of the Bulletin and to publish the summer number of the Bulletin so that it will reach subscribers in June prior to the meeting of the National Education Association. The advantages to subscribers are so obvious that the change will be made this year if the executive committee approves the proposal at the meeting at Dallas in February.

Members of the Department are requested to volunteer from their files the following issues of the Bulletin and Yearbooks:

1921 Bulletins Nos. 3 and 4.

1923 Bulletins Vol. III. Nos. 1 and 2.

1922 First Yearbook.

The files of the Secretary are now incomplete in the above items. The growth of the Department makes these documents a desirable historical part of our records. Please mail to

W. A. ROE, Secretary,

Belmont Avenue School, Newark, New Jersey.

THE BUDGET SYSTEM OF DUES

Carl S. Zook, Principal of Atkinson School, Portland, Oregon, has a right to a "pardonable pride" in the matter of the relations of the Portland principals to the Department of Elementary School Principals, for it was after some considerable effort that they adopted a system whereby through the payment of dues locally, each principal becomes a member of the Portland Principals' Association, the Oregon State Teachers' Association, The National Education Association and the Department of Elementary School Principals. Such a system if adopted in city systems throughout the nation would materially advance the interests of education, through individual members and organizations.

IN MEMORIAM

AS WE go to press a telegram is received announcing the death Monday morning, January 10, of Ide G. Sargeant former president of the Department of Elementary School Principals. He was principal of Public School No. 10, Paterson, New Jersey.

TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

IT IS with real pleasure that Dallas and the Southwest will act in the capacity of host for the great gathering of educators from all parts of the country next February. It is with particular pleasure that we have the honor of entertaining the Elementary Principals' Section. We feel that we have a live and going organization here in Dallas and we know that your presence among the individual members will prove an inspiration. The importance of the elementary principals in the machinery of our public school system is second to none. We want you therefore, not only for yourselves, but for the benefit that you will be to our own organization. It is hoped that this meeting will be a memorable one from every standpoint.

On behalf of the Board of Education and the administrative officials and the people of Dallas, I extend to you cordial greetings.

NORMAN R. CROZIER,

Superintendent Dallas Public Schools.



A MESSAGE

E. RUTH PYRTLE, President of the Department, sends New Year's Greetings to all our readers, together with her gratitude for the fine response in the membership campaign. Oakland, Kansas City, Omaha, Lincoln, Council Bluffs, Cincinnati, Minneapolis, Seattle and several other cities have reported that membership is 100 percent or will soon be.

Our goal was to double our membership by December 1. Let us double again before the Dallas meeting. Come to Dallas prepared to celebrate at the annual dinner meeting.

REMITTANCE FOR MEMBERSHIP

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

MR. COURTLAND V. DAVIS, *Treasurer*

1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest

Washington, D. C.

My dear Mr. Davis:

I am a member of the National Education Association. I inclose my fee of \$3.00 for membership in the Department of Elementary School Principals during the year 1926-27. Two dollars of this fee is for a year's subscription to the Department Bulletin.

Kindly send all publications, including the Sixth Yearbook, to be issued in June, 1927, to me at the address given below.

Name

(Typewrite or print)

Mailing address

(School or street)

(City and State)

My present position is

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